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Encyclopedia of

WARS

Charles Phillips
and
Alan Axelrod

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Encyclopedia of Wars

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Introduction

General George S. Patton once observed that, next to war, all other human endeavors pale into puny insignificance. Leaving aside for a moment questions about the morality or desirability of warfare, Patton's statement rings with simple, if chilling, truth. For what other human endeavor is so costly in money, materials, effort, pain, and life, or so tasks the heart and mind, or encompasses such a range of undertakings, from squalid acts of darkest secrecy and utter despair to grand mobilizations of entire nations and peoples? The Swiss historian Jean-Jacques Babel has estimated that the 5,500 or so years of recorded history have witnessed a meager total of 292 years of peace, and few of those were ever so storied as the years of conflict. From such literary works as the *Epic of Gilgamesh* and Homer's *Illiad* to such movies as *Birth of a Nation* and *Saving Private Ryan,* authors and filmmakers have celebrated, even as historians have chronicled, the exploits of a band of warriors or a vast army of professional soldiers bent on shaping or reshaping their patch of earth or the entire world through the clash of arms.

Touching on every aspect of personal, social, political, and economic life, war is such a complex phenomenon that it cannot even be adequately defined, much less explained—though not from lack of trying. From Sun Tzu to Herodotus to Carl von Clausewitz to John Keegan, historians and military theorists have grappled with the essential nature and conduct of war, without arriving at an analysis sufficiently broad to cover all its philosophical, psychological, technological, and legal implications. In general, theories of war reflect their times and the circumstances, societies, and international systems in which they are formulated.

Wars have always arisen, and arise today, from territorial disputes, military rivalries, conflicts of ethnicity, and strivings for commercial and economic advantage, and they have always depended on, and depend on today, pride, prejudice, coercion, envy, cupidity, competitiveness, and a sense of injustice. But for much of the world before the 17th century, these "reasons" for war were explained and justified, at least for the participants, by religion. Then, around the middle of the 17th century, Europeans began to conceive of war as a legitimate means of furthering the interests of individual sovereigns. Such wars, limited in their objectives and scope, gave rise to the kind of notions that Clausewitz would codify in his *On War,* which he began to write in 1819. Thus, war came to be viewed as a rational but limited instrument of national policy, which began with a declaration of intent, was conducted by rules that did not destroy the civilizations of those conducting the war, and ended with a victory on the battlefield for one side or the other, followed by an appropriate treaty settling for all time the issues under dispute.

By the time Clausewitz's masterpiece on the purposes, tactics, and strategy of war was published in the 1830s, it was already out of date, for the French Revolution had intervened to create conditions that would ultimately undermine all his assurances. The revolution increased the size of the armed forces for European states from small professional outfits to huge conscript armies, whose citizen-soldiers needed more than reasons of state to risk their lives and fortunes for their rulers. The objectives of warfare were broadened from the conquest of this or that sliver of a kingdom to the spread of revolutionary ideals, and through this ideological back door something like the fervor of religion slipped back into war along with the mass of conscripts. Once again wars needed to be in some sense "holy" or, in the more secular lexicon of the times, "just."

Clausewitz had discussed the concept of "total war," combat waged not just by one army against another but by armies against armies *and* civilian or noncombatant populations. The American Civil War of 1861–65 gave horrific body to that concept; it was a conflict fought by huge conscripted armies for what the North at least claimed was a purely just cause—that is, to destroy the social institution of slavery. As the chief practitioner of total war on American soil, William Tecumseh Sherman, Ulysses S. Grant's most important general, explained that the object of his

war had become not to defeat the enemy's army but to destroy the society that supported it. The Civil War was thus a truly modern war in the sense that it consisted of the mobilization of entire populations and economies for a prolonged period of time. Sherman's infamous March to the Sea gave the world a foretaste of just how destructive ideologically driven total warfare might become.

In America's Civil War, too, the world saw an early example of how the modern technology of combat could outstrip its manpower. The massive casualties of the Civil War battlefields were a harbinger of trench warfare in World War I. In that conflict mass mobilizations brought soldiers to die by the millions on the tiny strips of territory between trenches, "no man's land" desperately defended by machine guns and rapid-fire artillery no human army could withstand. The notion of war as a rational instrument of state policy vanished in the din of high explosives and the lung-corroding coruscations of mustard gas. Henceforth, in modern times war, if still considered an instrument of state policy, could only be undertaken (or, at least, sustained) if a nation were convinced (or terrified into accepting) that its most vital interests, involving its very survival, were at stake, which was, of course, precisely what happened in World War II.

There it was the rise of ideology to the level of religious fanaticism that sparked the conflict. The Allies billed their efforts not so much as a war to protect their countries against an expanding Germany, Japan, and Italy, but as a war to end the evils of Nazism and fascism and the horrors they visited upon the world. The technology developed in World War II made "total war" a nightmare reality, one that no rational nation would ever undertake merely to expand its territory.

As in the days of religious war, only overarching ideologies now justified conflict between nation-states and combinations of nation-states. However, World War II was ended with a weapon, the atomic bomb, clearly capable of being developed into a means to end civilization itself. As a result, after World War II those nations with the technology to destroy one another avoided direct and total war—World War III—fighting, instead, ideological wars full of clandestine operations, sabotage, and "covert" actions, breaking out into open conflict only among proxy states—small, local, border conflicts, often interminable, often held in check by the larger powers' unwillingness to see conflicts spread from their "clients" to themselves. For if the battle came to them, thermonuclear retaliation loomed as a universally self-defeating possibility.

By the end of the 20th century the cost of the sophisticated technology needed to maintain the ideological cold war between "communism" and "democracy" had helped mightily to bankrupt the communist "bloc," while the technology itself had made many of the old definitions of war somewhat more suspect. Early 21st-century warfare has been almost exclusively ideological, that is to say, religious, and almost always either clandestine or limited and "asymmetrical." When the United States went to war with Muslim countries in the Middle East or Africa, it fought with machines rather than men, suffering only minimal conflict casualties, while the smaller states, lacking the remote-controlled hardware, turned to "terror," sneak attacks, even suicidal attacks against enemy civilians in order to claim any kind of victory at all.

There have always been conflicts that did not fit the various definitions for wars between nation-states or coalitions of nation-states: civil wars between rival claimants for sovereignty in a state; struggles by ethnic, religious, or social enclaves for civil, political, or economic recognition or power coups; insurrections, revolts, rebellions, and uprisings that might, and sometimes did, lead to revolutions. And there have always been conquests and invasions, sieges and massacres, raids and riots with some of the aspects of larger wars and revolutions. In the post–cold war international scene, however, these took on added significance because they represented the more common kind of conflict, the kind with potential for spreading. Most dangerous of all were those conflicts between well-armed but middling powers—Iraq and Iran, Israel and the Palestinians, India and Pakistan—whose technologies were sophisticated enough to ignite a larger, perhaps even a world-consuming, war.

Whatever horrors recent events have visited upon the world—and, on September 11, 2001, upon the United States of America—these events have wreaked havoc on even the best attempts to define war. Modern historians have often tried to avoid the narrow and legal definitions prevalent in the 19th century, which limited the label of *war* to those conflicts formally declared between states (and thus, not altogether incidentally, turned a blind eye to colonial expansions and the suppression of native populations). These definitions frequently fail to include such conflicts as insurrections, banditry, or piracy, which are occasionally significant and often the only kinds of war the colonized or the politically suppressed can conduct. Most military historians also wish to understand war, even when defined broadly, as embracing armed conflict on a larger scale, and they typically exclude conflicts of fewer than 50,000 combatants. But this would exclude, for example, all the North American Indian wars with the United States during the 19th century.

Clearly, war is and has always been as much and more a social phenomenon as a military one. For this reason, this encyclopedia focuses not only on details of the fighting—discussions of causes of conflict, enumerations of battles, summaries of the outcomes—but also on the social and political contexts in which the wars occurred. Sometimes these are straightforward enough, sometimes they are more complicated, so the length of an entry is not always keyed to the size of the conflict or the number of casualties. We have tried to look at conflicts as sometimes

opening a window on a wider picture rather than always viewing the broader history merely as a context for the conflict. For wars are interesting to many not for what they say about strictly military history but for what they say about history in the broadest sense.

We do not ignore the formalities of war that are the bone and sinew of much military history. Each entry includes a handy summary, an at-a-glance look at the war in question, which contains many of the basics usually included in military histories: a list of the belligerents, a statement of the causes of the war, the date of its declaration (if any), the numbers (where known) of those under arms and the casualties they suffered, a summary of the outcome, and (where appropriate) the names and dates of the treaties or documents ending the conflict. (Unless otherwise noted, the numbers of personnel under arms represent the maximum strength of forces at their peak and are not cumulative numbers over time; casualty figures, however, represent cumulative totals for the duration of the conflict, except where otherwise specifically noted.) In each entry this summary is followed by a narrative discussion of the war, its social context, the major battles and events of the war, and its wider significance.

No work, even one of this size, can cover every conflict, but we aim at least for a fully exemplary representation of war throughout history. For example, the reader will find entries on classical and medieval times as well as on the wars of modern Europe. Here are the Chinese dynastic wars as well as the Napoleonic Wars, the wars of the British colonial empire as well as the American Civil War, regional conflicts and the world wars of the 20th century, small wars and large, wars significant for their diplomacy and politics as well as those significant for their tactics and strategy. Given our imagined typical user—the American student of war—we have placed a slightly greater emphasis on North American conflicts. Some of the wars included are part of larger conflicts or related to other wars, past or present, and to emphasize these connections we have cross-referenced other relevant entries with SMALL CAPITAL LETTERS. Some wars are known by several different names. In these instances, we have used the name we judge most common and familiar and have included the alternates in parentheses after the title of each entry. If the alternate names are themselves sufficiently well known, or if we have grouped conflicts in a way different from more traditional texts, we cite the name and direct the reader to the appropriate entry or entries. Entries are followed by suggestions for further reading, and both a bibliography of major texts on war and a chronological list of the wars appear in the final volume of the encyclopedia. Finally, we have tried to create a readable work, one that might be perused for pleasure as well as consulted for specific information, one aimed at serving a general public as well as one especially useful to students and teachers of history at all levels.

Entries
A to Z

A

Abbasid Rebellion (Abu Muslim's Revolt) (747–750)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Muslim Arab Abbasids vs. Persia's ruling family, the Ummayyads
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Khorasan, Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At issue was who should rule the Muslim empire; the Abbasids wanted the throne; the Ummayyads sought to prevent them from taking it.
OUTCOME: The last Ummayyad caliph was deposed and murdered; Abu al-Abbas became the first Abbasid caliph, establishing a new dynasty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 747 Muslim Arabs, claiming descent from Al-Abbas (d. 653), the uncle of the prophet Muhammad (570–632), revolted in Persia against the Ummayyad dynasty, which then ruled the Arab world (most of today's Middle East, the African coast of the Mediterranean, and the Iberian Peninsula). These "Abbasids," were led by Abu Muslim (728–755), a man from obscure and lowly origins in Persia. Befriending the Abbasid imam in Persia, he became the agent of the family's ascension to power. Under Abu Muslim's black banners, the Abbasids stormed the Ummayyad city of Merv in the northeastern province of Khorasan in 748. The Ummayyad caliph, Marwan III (d. 750) attempted to crush the Abbasids, only to see his forces soundly defeated by them at the battles of Nishapur, Jurjan, Nehawand, and Kerbela. The revolt quickly spread from Persia to other areas of the Muslim empire. Marwan rallied those faithful to him and led them personally to battle but was defeated again, this time decisively, at Mesopotamia's Great Zab River in 750. The caliph fled to Egypt and exile and, once there, was murdered. By then the general uprising in Persia and Mesopotamia had permitted Abu Muslim's confederate, Abu al-Abbas as-Saffan (722–754), to declare himself caliph at Kufa, a Mesopotamian city on the Euphrates River. Abul Abbas thus became the first ruler in Persia's Abbasid dynasty.

Further reading: Mas'Udi, *The Meadows of Gold: The Abbasids* (London: Kegan Paul, 1989); James E. Montgomery, *Abbasid Studies: Occasional Papers of the School of Abbasid Studies, Cambridge, 6–10 July 2002* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003); M. Z. Shaban, *The Abbasid Revolution* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979).

Abd el-Kader, First War of (1832–1834)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslim nationalists led by Amir Abd el-Kader vs. French colonial forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Oran and Mostaganem, Algeria
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence from French colonial rule
OUTCOME: The French conceded control of the interior of Oran to Abd el-Kader.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 3,200 French legionnaires; number of Muslim nationals: unknown
CASUALTIES: French casualties in Algeria from 1830 to 1847 were nearly 10,000 killed and 35,000 wounded.

Untold numbers of foreign legionnaires also died. Algerian casualties were in the tens of thousands.
TREATIES: Desmichels Treaty, 1834

In 1827 the dey of Algiers accosted the French consul with a fly-whisk, an act for which he refused to apologize, thereby giving the French a pretext for invading the North African country, which they did in 1830. Offering little resistance, the dey went into exile, and a loosely organized French colonial government was established. Lacking experience in ruling a Muslim society, the French were able to exercise control only in the coastal areas around Algiers, leaving considerable authority in the hands of provincial leaders in the hinterlands.

Among those leaders was Abd el-Kader (1808–83), a young Algerian nationalist who ruled Mascara. A brilliant military strategist and devout Muslim, Abd el-Kader organized a relentless campaign of harassment against the French that resulted in a 15-year series of wars.

The First War of Abd el-Kader lasted from 1832 to 1834 and was triggered by the violence with which the French attempted to impose their policies on the Algerians after King Louis-Philippe (1773–1850) created the French Foreign Legion on March 10, 1831, to battle colonial insurgency. Some 3,000 legionnaires, 2,196 of them German and 571 Italian, had arrived in Algeria by December 1, 1832. Abd el-Kader organized small bands of guerrillas to attack French troops around Oran and Mostaganem. Riding the growing tide of nationalism in Algeria, he was able to transform the guerrilla resistance movement into a full-fledged struggle for independence. The French, poorly organized, finally conceded to Abd el-Kader in 1834 by signing the Desmichels Treaty, which not only gave him the whole interior of Oran but also the title of Commander of the Believers. More importantly, the Desmichels Treaty secured Abd el-Kader's position as champion of Arab Algerian nationalism, a movement that would sweep aside the fragile peace of Desmichels within less than a year.

See also ABD EL-KADER, SECOND WAR OF; ABD EL-KADER, THIRD WAR OF.

Further reading: Charles Henry Churchill, *The Life of Abdel Kader, Ex-Sultan of the Arabs of Algeria* (London: Chapman and Hall, 1867); Roland Oliver and Anthony Atmore, *Africa since 1800* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994).

Abd el-Kader, Second War of (1835–1837)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Amir Abd el-Kader of Oran vs. competing tribes and French colonial forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chelir, Miliana, Media, and Macta, Algeria
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence from French colonial rule
OUTCOME: The Amir was made master of the entire interior of Oran and the Titteri, reducing the French colonial realm to a few seaports only.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 30,000 French; 45,000 Algerians
CASUALTIES: French casualties in Algeria from 1830 to 1847 were nearly 10,000 killed and 35,000 wounded. Untold numbers of French legionnaires also died (some 110,000 in all French adventures during the 19th century). Algerian casualties, while in the tens of thousands, are not known.
TREATIES: Treaty of Tafna, 1837

The Treaty of Desmichels in 1834 between the French colonial government and Muslim nationalist leader Abd el-Kader (1808–83) gave the Algerian ruler control of the whole interior of Oran, where he organized an efficient government headquartered in the capital city of Mascara, trained and supplied an army of volunteers, and subsequently renewed his war of harassment against the French colonials in 1835. (*See* ABD EL-KADER, FIRST WAR OF.) His first objective, however, was to spread Algerian nationalism to the desert tribes around Mascara in order to unify his new territories. The Second War of Abd el-Kader, which lasted from 1835 to 1837, served the dual purposes of unification and resistance.

During the war Abd el-Kader imposed his rule on all the tribes of the Chelif into the Titteri. He then enlisted the desert tribes into his militia and proceeded to occupy the territory of Meliana and, eventually, Medea. At Macta Abd el-Kader defeated the French in a decisive battle, which forced the French commander, General Thomas-Robert Bugeaud (1784–1849), into negotiations. This was a humiliation for the French Foreign Legion, newly created by King Louis-Philippe (1773–1850) to combat Abd-el Kader and other rebels. The resulting Treaty of Tafna in 1837, signed by Bugeaud and Abd el-Kader, made the amir master of the entire interior of Oran and the Titteri, reducing the French colonial realm to a few seaports only and creating the basis for another war, the Third War of ABD EL-KADER, which was destined to last seven years.

Further reading: Charles Henry Churchill, *The Life of Abdel Kader, Ex-Sultan of the Arabs of Algeria* (London: Chapman and Hall, 1867); Roland Oliver and Anthony Atmore, *Africa since 1800* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994).

Abd el-Kader, Third War of (1840–1847)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Amir Abd el-Kader of Algeria with some aid from Morocco vs. French colonial forces

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Algeria
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Algerian independence from French colonial rule
OUTCOME: Abd el-Kader's defeat and exile resulted in France's domination of Algeria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 50,000 Algerians (Algerians and Moroccans); 100,000 French
CASUALTIES: French casualties in Algeria from 1830 to 1847 were nearly 10,000 killed and 35,000 wounded. Untold numbers of foreign legionnaires also died. Algerian casualties were in the tens of thousands.
TREATIES: Treaty of Tangier, September 10, 1844, ended Moroccan involvement.

When French expeditionary forces successfully invaded Algeria in July 1830, King Charles X (1757–1836) of France mistakenly believed that a foreign conquest would help silence the growing opposition at home to his increasingly reactionary government. By the end of the month, the agitation of Paris radicals had culminated in a revolution that forced his abdication. The subsequent transition from the absolute rule of Charles X to the constitutional monarchy of the new king, Louis-Philippe (1773–1850), left the "Algeria question" unresolved. In the absence of a firm policy and adequate support, French colonial forces were compelled to concede more and more to the Muslim nationalist Amir Abd el-Kader (1808–83), whose first two wars of harassment had confined the French presence in the North African country to just a few seaports. (*See* ABD EL-KADER, FIRST WAR OF; ABD EL-KADER, SECOND WAR OF.) By 1840 internal conditions in France had stabilized, and the repeated requests of colonial general Thomas-Robert Bugeaud (1784–1849) for support were finally answered, thereby triggering the seven-year conflict known as the Third War of Abd el-Kader.

The 1837 Treaty of Tafna between Abd el-Kader and the French colonial regime allowed the amir to create an efficient state around French holdings. He built a regular army of more than 2,000 men, stockpiled weapons, and sold surplus crops to the British to finance his regime. More important, the amir spread his message of independence and nationalism throughout Algeria, whose population broadcast anticolonial sentiment across the region. Therefore, when the French violated the terms of the Tafna agreement by crossing the Iron Gates of Oran in the late 1830s, Abd el-Kader was prepared for a long and bloody struggle.

Full-scale war broke out in 1840, after Abd el-Kader's forces (numbering at most 2,000 regulars and volunteers from desert tribes) had sacked the French settlement of Mitidja. General Bugeaud, who had reinforcements from the mainland, sent his mobile columns into the countryside to punish the Algerian's followers. Using the unconventional tactic of surrounding individual villages, the French general sought to starve the Algerians into submission one settlement at a time. For his part, Abd el-Kader avoided large battles, preferring small-scale skirmishes and employing his cavalry hit-and-run style.

In 1841 the French destroyed Abd el-Kader's fortified sites in Algeria, whereupon the amir fled to Oran on the northwest coast. Another defeat at the northwestern town of Tlemcen the following year seemed at last to have crushed out the resistance movement, but Abd el-Kader managed to escape to Morocco, where the sultan Abdurrahman aided him by sending troops to the Algerian border. General Bugeaud defeated the Moroccans soundly at the Battle of Isly on August 14, opposing some 40,000 men of the two native leaders with his 8,000 infantrymen and superior artillery. Sultan Abdurrahman concluded the Treaty of Tangier on September 10, 1844, with the French, effectively ending Moroccan support for Abd el-Kader. Despite the setback, Abd el-Kader reentered Algeria and continued his program of resistance from the interior of the country, where he was able to evade the encroaching French columns.

By July 1846 the French had virtually wiped out Algerian resistance, and Abd el-Kader once again sought refuge in Morocco. This time, however, the sultan viewed Abd el-Kader as a liability and refused to admit him. Denied this last refuge and weary after some 15 years of resistance, Abd el-Kader surrendered in 1847 to Bugeaud's successor, Louis-Philippe's son, General Christophe de Lamoricière (1806–65). Sent to France, where he was imprisoned, Abd el-Kader was pardoned by Louis-Napoleon (1808–73) in 1852 and returned to Algeria a national hero.

Further reading: Charles Henry Churchill, *The Life of Abdel Kader, Ex-Sultan of the Arabs of Algeria* (London: Chapman and Hall, 1867); Roland Oliver and Anthony Atmore, *Africa since 1800* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994).

Abd el-Krim's Revolt

See RIF WAR (1919–1926).

Abenaki War, First (1675–1678)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Abenaki Indians vs. English settlers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Maine frontier
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Abenakis' object was to counter English incursion into their lands.
OUTCOME: Although the English settlers remained in the region, colonial authorities promised annual tribute payments.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Untitled treaty of 1678

The Abenaki (or Abnaki) Indians lived in the border region between New England and New France and were often staunch allies of the French against the English. The Abenakis were not a single tribe, but a loosely confederated collection of Algonquian tribes (including the Penobscots, Kennebecs, Wawenocks, and Androscoggins of New England's eastern frontier; the Pigwackets, Ossipees, and Winnipesaukes of the White Mountains; the Pennacooks of the Merrimack Valley; the Sokokis and Cowasucks in the upper Connecticut Valley; and the Missisquois and other groups in Vermont) broadcast throughout the region of present-day Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and southern Quebec. The English often referred to these tribes collectively as "the Eastern Indians."

While friendly relations were established with the French at first contact by Samuel de Champlain during 1604–05, enmity between the Indians and the English developed simultaneously after English colonists abducted five Abenakis and shipped them to England. From this time forward the Abenakis allied themselves with the French and periodically fought against the English.

Although some historians treat the First Abenaki War as part of KING PHILIP'S WAR, its action was sufficiently distant from the theater of that conflict to classify it separately. As English colonists made increasingly deeper incursions into Abenaki territory along the Maine border, the Abenakis conducted guerrilla warfare against outlying frontier settlements. In hit-and-run raids a number of settlers were taken captive and were either adopted into the tribe or sold to the French.

During the course of this conflict, the English defeated King Philip (d. 1676) and his geographically adjacent allies but failed to defeat the Abenakis. With outlying northern settlements terrorized and devastated, colonial authorities concluded a treaty with the Abenakis in 1678, pledging an annual tribute in return for permission to retain frontier settlements. The treaty brought no lasting peace, and the Abenaki War proved to be a prelude to other conflicts involving Abenaki warriors, who often fought under the command of French officers.

See also ABENAKI WAR, THIRD; KING WILLIAM'S WAR; QUEEN ANNE'S WAR.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Colin G. Calloway, *The Western Abenakis of Vermont, 1600–1800* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1990); Alan Gallay, ed., *Colonial; Wars of North America 1512–1763* (New York: Garland, 1996); Mrs. Johnson, *Narrative of the Captivity of Mrs. Johnson* (New York: Garland, 1990).

Abenaki War, Second *See* QUEEN ANNE'S WAR.

Abenaki War, Third (Dummer's War) (1722–1727)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Abenaki Indians vs. English settlers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Maine frontier, New Hampshire White Mountain region, and Vermont Green Mountain region
DECLARATION: Declaration of Massachusetts Governor Samuel Shute, 1722
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Abenakis' object was to counter increasing English incursion into their lands. The English declaration of war was based on the accusation that the Abenakis were "Robbers, Traitors and Enemies to his Majesty King George."
OUTCOME: Although the English settlers continued to occupy many frontier lands, Dummer's Treaty guaranteed Abenaki rights to exclusive ownership of certain lands, to maintain a priest of their religion (Catholicism), and to hunt and fish on lands occupied by the English.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Dummer's Treaty, 1727

The Third Abenaki War is also known as Dummer's War, Grey Lock's War, Father Rasles's War, and Lovewell's War. Officially, warfare between the English and the Abenakis had been ended by the Treaty of Portsmouth, which followed the Treaty of Utrecht, ending QUEEN ANNE'S WAR in 1713. In fact, neither the Portsmouth nor Utrecht treaties addressed the fundamental issues of the occupation of land that had triggered an enduring conflict between the Abenakis and the English (*see* ABENAKI WAR, FIRST). As the English colonial population continued to grow, the land issues only became more pressing and provocative. Additional treaties were concluded between colonists and Abenakis in 1717 and 1719, but the Indians continued to suffer abuse at the hands of unscrupulous and rapacious English traders and the incursion of settlers onto their lands. Especially galling was the erection of well-garrisoned English forts along the Abenaki frontier.

In the face of an increasing number of violent confrontations between Abenakis and English settlers, Governor Samuel Shute (1662–1742) of Massachusetts (Maine being then a part of that colony) formally declared war on the Indians in 1722, calling them "Robbers, Traitors and Enemies to his Majesty King George."

Earlier major conflicts with the Abenakis had been closely connected with international wars: KING WILLIAM'S WAR, Queen Anne's War, and KING PHILIP'S WAR. The Third Abenaki War, however, was a local conflict, with troops of Massachusetts and New Hampshire pitted against

the Abenakis. The New York colony and the powerful Iroquois Confederacy remained neutral observers of the action.

Most of the fighting was typical of white-Indian combat, a vicious but small-scale guerrilla routine of raid and counterraid. The English, however, also had a strategic objective in targeting the French Jesuit missionary Sebastian Rasles (1652–1724), who the English blamed for having incited the Abenakis to continual warfare. Militia captain Jeremiah Moulton assassinated Rasles in 1724, then destroyed his missionary village at Norridgewock. The killing of Rasles did demoralize the Abenakis, who were also discouraged by the defeat of their allies, the Pigwackets, the following spring. Militia captain John Lovewell (d. 1725) defeated Pigwacket warriors in the White Mountains then burned the major Indian town at Penobscot. Following the death of Rasles and the defeat of the Pigwackets, many Abenakis fled to Canada seeking refuge among the French missionaries there.

In the meantime, to the west, in the Green Mountains of present-day Vermont, the English were not prevailing. The war chief Grey Lock (fl. 1723–28) led his band of Missisquoi Abenakis from the Champlain Valley in a series of destructive raids along the Massachusetts frontier. To counter these attacks, the English built Fort Dummer near present-day Brattleboro, Vermont. This proved ineffective at neutralizing Grey Lock, who continued to harass the Vermont frontier even after the eastern Abenakis signed Dummer's Treaty of 1727, which officially ended the Third Abenaki War. This treaty granted the Abenakis the right to some lands they already had, the right to maintain a priest of their religion (Catholicism), and the right to hunt and fish even on English-occupied lands in the northern frontier region. The treaty has been the legal basis for a number of 20th-century court cases involving the rights of Maine Indians.

See also LOVEWELL'S WAR.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Macmillan General Reference, 1993); Colin G. Calloway, *The Western Abenakis of Vermont, 1600–1800* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1990); Alan Gallay, ed., *Colonial; Wars of North America 1512–1763* (New York: Garland, 1996); Mrs. Johnson, *Narrative of the Captivity of Mrs. Johnson* (New York: Garland, 1990).

Abu Muslim's Revolt

See ABBASID REBELLION.

Abushiri's Revolt

See BUSHIRI'S UPRISING.

Achaean War (146 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Achaean League
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South-central Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: For the Achaeans the issue was the strength of the Achaean League, which they hoped to force Sparta to join; for the Romans, the object was to maintain their protectorate over Sparta.
OUTCOME: The Achaean League was dissolved, and Rome gained hegemony over all of Greece.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the shaky political environment of Greece in the second century B.C.E., many of the smaller city-states entered into regional military-political alliances as a security measure against the empires to the north, primarily Macedonia, and the larger Greek city-states, especially Sparta. Although Athens and Sparta stood alone because of their size, they occasionally joined the Aetolian League in northern Greece or the Achaean League—made up of city-states from the Peloponnese—in temporary alliances. Both leagues hoped to gain the two major powers as permanent members, but Athens was strong enough on its own, and Sparta was under Roman protection.

When Rome became preoccupied with the total destruction of Carthage in the Third PUNIC WAR of 149–146 B.C.E., the Achaeans, although poorly organized themselves, took advantage of Sparta's vulnerability and attacked, hoping to force the city-state to become a permanent member of the league. The Roman Senate quickly dispatched Consul Lucius Mummius Achaicus (fl. mid-100s) to Greece. There he promptly defeated the Achaean army, which mostly consisted of poorly trained slaves led by Critolaus (d. before 111) near Corinth. Lucius then sacked Corinth and burned it to the ground. The Achaean League was dissolved, and Rome subjugated all of Greece, ending the illusion of independence by rendering the Greeks slaves. Officially, Macedonia and Greece, under the collective name of Achaea, were annexed to Rome.

Further reading: Keith R. Bradley, *Slavery and Rebellion in the Roman World, 140 B.C.E.–70 B.C.E.* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1998).

Achaean-Spartan Wars

See SPARTAN-ACHAEAN WAR (228–226 B.C.E.); SPARTAN-ACHAEAN WAR (193–192 B.C.E.); SPARTAN-ACHAEAN WAR (189–188 B.C.E.).

Achinese Rebellion (1953–1959)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Acheh's Muslim rebels vs. the Republic of Indonesia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Sumatra
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Indonesia, having finally won independence from the Dutch, sought to consolidate the republic by annexing Acheh; Acheh's Muslim majority, desiring a strict theocracy, fought to maintain autonomy from the republic.
OUTCOME: Acheh lost its independence but maintained autonomy in religious matters and over local customs and law.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Very limited
TREATIES: None

In the fall of 1953 Achmed Sukarno (1901–70), first president of the three-year-old Republic of Indonesia (*see* INDONESIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE), announced his plans to annex the small independent state of Acheh, or Achin (now Atjeh), which lay in northeastern Sumatra. Devoutly Muslim, the Achinese feared a loss of religious autonomy because Sukarno, although Muslim himself, was a strict secularist. Wanting to maintain a theocracy, they vehemently opposed the annexation. Led by Acheh's military governor, Tengku Daud Beureuh (1906–87), the fundamentalist Muslims rose in open revolt on September 20, 1953, attacking army bases and police stations in an attempt to garner enough additional firepower to stage a full-scale rebellion.

Failing to foment the general revolt they had planned, the Achinese waged intermittent guerrilla warfare for the next four years before a cease-fire was agreed to in March 1957. Sukarno declared Acheh a separate province, but this concession provoked other provinces to rebel, hoping for a similar limited sovereignty of their own (*see* INDONESIAN WARS). Recognizing that the Indonesian forces were now stretched thin, the Achinese rebels renewed hostilities. Sukarno was forced to the bargaining table in 1959, this time establishing Acheh as a "special district" of Indonesia with full autonomy in matters of religion and local law. This arrangement endured until 1989, when a Free Acheh Movement was formed and turned militant. For more than a decade, guerrilla violence was rampant, resulting in an estimated death toll of some 5,000 on both sides before the Acheh guerrillas concluded a cease-fire on June 2, 2000.

Further reading: Bernard Dahm, *Sukarno and the Struggle for Indonesian Independence* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1983); C. L. M. Penders, *The Life and Times of Sukarno* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1974).

Achinese Sackings of Johore (1613–1615)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Acheh vs. Johore
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Johore and Perak in southern Malaysia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Acheh sought to take advantage of the Portuguese-Dutch colonial war in the East Indies to grab the mineral-rich Perak region. They thus hoped to preempt the Dutch from establishing an entrêpot at Johore, from whence they could both control the Spice Islands trade and easily threaten nearby Acheh.
OUTCOME: Acheh sacked and razed Johore and became a player in the Spice Islands trade; the Dutch set up Batavia as their entrêpot in Indonesia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Possibly 100,000 Achinese troops; Johore forces, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

At the dawn of the 17th century, the Dutch and the Portuguese both claimed supremacy in Indonesia and thus over trading rights to the fecund Spice Islands of Malaysia. The Dutch had begun to challenge Portugal's naval superiority as far back as 1579, almost immediately after the Netherlands had wrung independence from Spain. Dutch ships launched incursions into all of Portugal's far-flung colonies, and for more than a quarter century the two European powers battled for control of trade routes in the South China Sea, the Java Sea, and the Indian Ocean. As Portuguese sea power waned and the Dutch navy suffered growing pains, a power vacuum appeared in Indonesia.

As the Portuguese chased the Dutch out of Malacca and the Dutch did the same to the Portuguese in east Indonesia, the sultan of Acheh (or Achin)—an independent province in northern Sumatra—rushed to fill the vacuum. Iskandar Shah (1583?–1636) quickly became leader of the most powerful military force in the region and expanded Achinese trade in the Spice Islands. Iskandar knew that the Netherlands was looking for a central entrêpot at which to locate its trading capital, and he guessed correctly that Johore, capital city of Perak (an area of southern Malaysia rich in mineral deposits), was a prime candidate. Iskandar's strategy in sending the Achinese army against Johore was twofold: He wanted first to establish his dominance over Perak before either the Dutch or the Portuguese had a chance to stop him. Second, he wanted to prevent a Dutch move into Achinese Sumatra, his immediate sphere of influence. In the event, Johore was no match for the powerful Achinese army, which mercilessly sacked the Perakian capital in 1613. Two years later the Achinese returned and completely razed Johore.

Although the colonial PORTUGUESE-DUTCH WARS IN THE EAST INDIES, which had begun in 1601, would not end until 1641, the Dutch actually began to exercise hegemony over the region as early as 1610. For the time being, at least, Acheh had succeeded in keeping the Dutch out of Johore. The Netherlands selected Batavia as the trading center for the Dutch United East India Company, and the

Dutch onslaught would not truly vanquish Acheh for nearly three centuries (*see* ACHINESE WAR.).

Further reading: Richard J. Wilkinson, *History of the Peninsular Malays, with Chapters on Perak and Selangor* (1923; reprint ed., New York: AMS Press, n.d.).

Achinese War (1873–1907)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Netherlands vs. Acheh
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northeastern Sumatra
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Dutch sought to quell piracy in the East Indies, subjugate the Achinese Muslims, and colonize all of Indonesia; the Achinese sought to maintain their independence and continue their lucrative raids against imperial trade.
OUTCOME: More than a quarter century of bitter guerrilla warfare culminated in Dutch control of Acheh.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Dutch, 10,500; Achinese, unknown
CASUALTIES: Dutch, 2,317 killed; Achinese, 11,187 killed
TREATIES: Treaty of 1903

By the mid-19th century Indonesia had long been colonized by both English and Dutch commercial interests, drawn by the lucrative spice and tobacco trades. With the advent of steam power and the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, the trade grew even more profitable, enhancing the economic and political appeal of the Indonesian colonies. For centuries pirates from Acheh, or Achin (today called Atjeh), in northern Sumatra had raided both English and Dutch trading vessels with near impunity.

Though a problem for both Britain and the Netherlands, Indonesian pirates embarrassed the Dutch more, since they had for so long claimed that the Dutch East India Company controlled the island chain as one big colonial trading juggernaut. Such a claim had made them traditionally responsible for security in the region. With the opening of the Suez Canal, however, most of the East Indian commercial traffic was rerouted for efficiency through the Strait of Malacca, which was controlled by the British. The two colonial powers reached a modus vivendi in the East Indies: The British would allow the Dutch passage through the strait and turn a blind eye to their handling of the Achinese problem—if, in return, the Dutch abolished the higher rates they charged for non-Dutch shipping and permitted British-held Singapore to continue its trade with the regions of Sumatra that the Dutch had recently subjugated.

After the British recognized the Dutch interest in Acheh, the Netherlands in 1873 launched two armed expeditionary forces to conquer the rebellious Achinese Muslims, bring the pirate raids to an end, and establish Dutch dominance throughout all of Sumatra. Dutch forces quickly seized the Achinese palace in the regional capital, Kutaradja. However, an epidemic of cholera struck the Dutch forces, and a long and ugly guerrilla war followed. For 20 years the Dutch tried to root the Achinese guerrillas out of the Sumatran jungles until the bitter war began to absorb Dutch Indonesia's annual trade surplus. With profits falling, the Dutch in 1893 made a concerted effort to win the hearts and minds of the natives who did not openly support the rebels by enlisting the aid of a local chief, to whom they offered a position of high rank in their proposed colonial government. The plan backfired two years later when the chief spurned the colonials and took all his followers with him to the rebels.

It took another decade for the Dutch to gain the upper hand. In 1903 Muhammad Daud, sultan of Acheh, sick of the fighting, concluded a treaty with the Netherlands, recognizing Dutch sovereignty and relinquishing his throne. Many of the Achinese rebels, however, refused to accept Dutch rule and took to the jungles again, continuing to wage guerrilla war. Caught in a quagmire in which they had already invested too much, the Dutch embarked on a "castle strategy," systematically building garrisons and fortifications for Dutch troops across the island. In 1907, with the Dutch treasury all but empty and the Dutch colonists universally despised throughout Indonesia, the Netherlands finally managed to crush the Achinese resistance. At long last, the Dutch ruled unchecked over the Spice Islands and dominated the spice and tobacco trade.

Further reading: Frances Gouda, *Dutch Culture Overseas: Colonial Practice in the Netherlands Indies, 1400–1942* (Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press, 1996); M. C. Ricklefs, *A History of Modern Indonesia* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 2002).

Acoma Revolt (1599)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Acoma Indians vs. Spanish Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): American Southwest
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Acoma were resisting Spanish conquest and enslavement; the Spanish wished to make an example of the Acoma.
OUTCOME: The Acoma were defeated and brutally punished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 400; Indians, approximately 200–300
CASUALTIES: Spanish, fewer than 50 killed or wounded; Indians, 100–150 killed or wounded, approximately 80 intentionally maimed
TREATIES: None

The history of Spain in the New World is deeply colored by popular myth, and one of the most pervasive of those

myths paints the Spanish as unceasingly avaricious and aggressive in conquest. In truth, by the second half of the 16th century, Spain was so deeply embroiled in European wars that it largely neglected its New World interests. In 1579 the English seafarer Sir Francis Drake (1540[?]–96) entered a California bay and laid claim to a land he called "New Albion." Though nothing came of this singular act, it was enough to prompt the Spanish viceroy in Mexico City to warn the royal court in Madrid that the Spanish colonies might soon be imperiled. Even then the Crown did nothing to protect the northern frontier of its New World holdings for almost two decades.

It was not until 1598 that an expedition was dispatched north from Mexico. On April 30 Don Juan de Oñate (1550–1630) reached present-day El Paso, Texas, and laid claim to what he called "New Mexico," a province stretching from Texas to California. Oñate brought with him the seeds of a colony: 400 men, women, and children, 7,000 head of livestock, and some 80 wagons. With his meager forces, Oñate pressed farther north, aggressively colonizing the pueblo country.

The Indians of the pueblos were not traditionally warriors, and, therefore, Oñate met no resistance—except at Acoma, in western New Mexico. As he had in the case of the other pueblos, Oñate sent squads of conquistadores to inform the Indians that they were now subjects of the Spanish Crown and that they had to renounce their pagan religion and abide by Spanish law. Whereas the other pueblos had meekly consented, the people of Acoma responded by killing 13 soldiers of the advance party, including three officers of noble blood. Oñate could not let this resistance go unpunished, but, situated atop a steep-walled mesa, the Acoma pueblo was a very formidable objective. Nevertheless, in January 1599 Oñate's troops fought their way to the top of the mesa, stormed the pueblo, and killed most of Acoma's warriors.

The conquistadores took captive 500 women and children. About 80 noncombatant men over the age of 25 were sentenced to amputation of one foot and enslavement for a period of 20 years. Women as well as children over the age of 12 were not maimed but were likewise sentenced to long terms of slavery. Children under 12 were turned over to priests to be raised as Catholics. Oñate's men also seized two Hopis, basically innocent bystanders who had the misfortune to be visiting Acoma during the siege, and amputated their right hands. He sent them to their home pueblo in this condition as a warning about the consequences of rebellion.

In and of itself, the Acoma Revolt was short lived, but it had disproportionate historical consequences, creating a precedent of chronic hostility between whites and Indians in the Southwest. The Spanish Crown advanced much of its colonization effort by granting individuals the authority to possess and govern huge tracts of territory, provided that they financed the necessary military and commercial expeditions. Oñate, moved by visions of New World gold and silver, invested his personal fortune in the pueblo country. Unfortunately for Oñate, and even more so for the Native Americans who fell under his jurisdiction, in the months and years following the Acoma Revolt, the country yielded neither gold nor silver, and it failed even to produce sufficient food for the colonists. Ever more desperate, Oñate worked "his" Indians harder and with greater cruelty. His brutal policies toward them were finally too much even for colonial authorities, who, 15 years after he had first marched into the province, called on him to face charges of brutality and poor governance. He was assessed heavy fines.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Alan Gallay, ed., *Colonial; Wars of North America 1512–1763* (New York: Garland, 1996); David J. Weber, *The Spanish Frontier in North American* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1992).

Aethelbald's Wars (733–750)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mercia vs. Wessex and Northumbria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: Not known; probably none
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Mercian king Aethelbald and his cousin-successor, Offa, invaded Wessex and Northumbria with the purpose of establishing Mercian dominance of Anglo-Saxon England, thereby effecting the first real unification of England.
OUTCOME: Wessex was successfully invaded in 733 and Northumbria in 744, ultimately resulting in the unification of much of England under Aethelbald and his successor, Offa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No surviving documents

Aethelbald (r. 716–757) was king of Mercia, the richest and most powerful kingdom of Anglo-Saxon England. He set out to parlay this advantage into out-and-out political supremacy among the kings and disparate kingdoms of Britain. His first step, in 733, was to invade Wessex in the south of England, seizing it from the Britons. He next invaded Northumbria in 744 and again in 749, causing great hardship and devastation in the region. During this period he also asserted dominance over kings of the regions bordering Wales by assisting them in defending against Welsh border incursions.

By the end of the 740s Aethelbald's conquests had earned him the title "king of Britain," and he was recognized as an equal by no less a figure than Charlemagne

(c. 742–814). Historians generally concede that he effected the first meaningful unification of England. Nevertheless, his reign following the conquest of Wessex and Northumbria was marked by an intense civil war, and Aethelbald himself was assassinated by his bodyguard in 757. His cousin Offa (r. 757–796), who had participated in Aethelbald's campaigns only to oppose him in the civil war, succeeded him to the Mercian throne.

See also OFFA'S WARS (771–796).

Further reading: Albany F. Major, *Early Wars of Wessex* (Poole, U.K.: Blandford Press, 1978); David A. E. Peteret, ed., *Anglo-Saxon History: Basic Readings* (New York: Garland, 2000).

Aethelfrith's Wars (593–616)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Northumbria vs. (in succession) the Dalriad Scots and the Britons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland, Wales, and Nottingham
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Struggle for dominance among the Anglo-Saxon heptarchy (i.e., Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia).
OUTCOME: Aethelfrith achieved dominance in the heptarchy, only to be slain in battle by the ally of a rival.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None recorded

Although the 593–616 series of conflicts among the kings of the Anglo-Saxon heptarchy is collectively called the Aethelfrith's Wars, their culmination put Edwin (r. 616–632) on the throne as the first Christian king of Northumbria.

Aethelfrith (d. 616), king of the Anglian kingdom of Bernicia, married the princess of neighboring Deira in 588 or 590, thereby uniting the kingdoms as Northumbria and sending into exile Edwin, the heir apparent to the Deiran throne. Beginning in 593, Northumbria warred sporadically with the Britons. In 603 Aethelfrith faced a new threat from the north, but successfully defended his borders against the incursion of Scottish invaders from Dal Riata (the Delriad Scots under King Aidan) and Britons of Strathclyde, defeating both at the battle of Daegsaston. This elevated Northumbria to preeminence among the kingdoms of the Anglo-Saxon heptarchy, making it the most formidable power below the Firth of Forth.

In about 616 Aethelfrith led his Northumbrians westward as far as the Dee River at Chester. Here Aethelfrith's forces confronted Britons under Selyf Sarffgadau, or Solomon (c. 586–616), king of the Welsh kingdom of Powys. Some 1,250 monks from the monastery at Bangor came to the fore to pray for Solomon's success. Aethelfrith ordered his army against the unarmed monks, all but 50 of whom were slaughtered. This signaled the start of the general battle, in which the Northumbrians routed the Britons, killing Solomon in the course of battle. The Welsh peninsula was now completely cut off from the rest of Britain. In the meantime, however, the exiled Edwin had concluded an alliance with Raedwald, king of East Anglia. Raedwald attacked Aethelfrith at the Battle of the Idle (616), near modern Nottingham. He not only defeated the Northumbrian king, but killed him as well, thereby enabling Edwin to assume the Northumbrian throne as that region's first Christian king.

Edwin went on, later in 616, to defeat the Britons in north Wales and Anglesea, thereby assuring the continued supremacy of Northumbria. Edwin died in the Battle of Hatfiled Chase (632) at the hands of Cadwallon, a north Welsh king. Nevertheless, Northumbria's dominance of the heptarchy continued through 641 under Edwin's successor, Oswald.

Further reading: Albany F. Major, *Early Wars of Wessex* (Poole, U.K.: Blandford Press, 1978); David A. E. Peteret, ed., *Anglo-Saxon History: Basic Readings* (New York: Garland, 2000).

Afghan Civil War (1928–1929)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Initially, various Afghan tribes vs. the government of Emir Amanullah Khan in Kabul; then Pashtun rebels vs. the Tajik followers of the bandit usurper Habibullah Ghazi
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kabul, Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Initially, rebels sought to reverse the emir's modern reforms and protect their tribal and Muslim traditions; outlaw leader Habibullah Ghazi wanted to depose the emir and take his place as ruler of Afghanistan; the Pashtuns wished to overthrow the usurper and return the throne to a "legitimate" ruler from the Musabihan clan.
OUTCOME: Amanullah abdicated in favor of his brother, who in turn abdicated under threat of attack from Habibullah, who was in turn ousted and executed by the Musabihans, placing Nadir Shah on the throne and, with British help, reuniting the country.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Royal army, 15,000; rebel numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Rebel casualties, 15,000 killed; royal casualties unknown
TREATIES: None

When Amanullah Khan (1892–1960) became emir of Afghanistan in 1919, he vowed to modernize his country and destroy the influence of foreign powers over its internal affairs. As he went about professionalizing his army,

streamlining the civil bureaucracy, and in general creating a modern administrative system, he alienated and offended many of those who had initially supported him. Then, on November 12, 1928, Shinwari tribesmen rose in revolt in Jalalabad because Amanullah's reforms had begun to erode traditional tribal life. Encouraged by religious leaders, who were also offended by modern reforms that challenged venerable Muslim theology, the Shinwari marched on the capital of Kabul. Amanullah was shocked to discover that his reforms lacked support even among his soldiers, the majority of whom, angered at the emir's rigid insistence on military professionalism, refused to answer his call to arms. Realizing that his opponents had successfully managed a full-scale revolt, desperate to preserve what he could of his progressive government, and anxious to maintain his family's rule of Afghanistan, Amanullah abdicated in mid-January 1929 in favor of his weaker older brother, Inyatollah, and fled to India.

The events in Kabul did not escape the notice of an outlaw leader and Tajik tribesman named Bacha-i-Saqao (d. 1929). Shrewdly assessing both the potential of the Shinwari uprising and the timidity of the new emir, Bacha led his strong band on his own march against the capital. Inyatollah had been emir of Afghanistan for three days when his fears of the Shinwari and Bacha's Tajiks got the better of him. He, too, abdicated, escaping to join his brother in exile in India, while Bacha—former army deserter, erstwhile bandit of the Khyber Pass—proclaimed himself emir under the name of Habibullah Khan. Amanullah, now desperate to reclaim his throne, returned to Kandahar, where he assembled an army and marched on Kabul in the spring of 1929. Habibullah attacked him en route, and the defeated Amanullah Khan fled the country for good.

Though Habibullah successfully defended his crown from other claimants throughout the summer, the new emir's rule quickly deteriorated, and much of his support vanished, not so much because of his checkered past as because he was a Tajik, the first "outsider" to rule Afghanistan since before the coming of the Greeks. Most Afghans were Pashtuns, a tribe that had initially supported Habibullah but was the first to turn on him. They demanded, of course, a Pashtun ruler. Among the Pashtuns the major pretenders to the throne were the Musabihans, a clan directly descended from the great 19th-century Afghan ruler Dost Muhammad (1793–1863).

The eldest of the Musabihan brothers, General Muhammad Nadir Khan (1880–1933), was Amanullah's cousin and had served as his minister of defense before resigning in protest over the former emir's military reforms. Just returned from Europe, Nadir Khan organized an army in the late summer of 1929 with plans to retake Kabul. He had originally hoped for direct support from the British, but when he sought their help, they refused him, calculating that if they were to back Nadir Khan and the Musabihan coup were to fail, the English would then be personae non grata in Kabul regardless of who sat on the throne. Instead, London cautiously offered tacit assistance and set up guidelines to follow in maintaining officially its neutrality. The British did allow Nadir Khan (and others) in the British-held North West Frontier Province (NWFP) to cross the border freely into Afghanistan, though they frowned on back and forth traffic and banned outright the use of the NWFP as a sanctuary or a recruiting ground for rebels. Since the British, however, made it fairly clear they would do little, if anything, to enforce these restrictions, Nadir Khan could safely ignore them.

At length, the Musabihans were able to gather enough men, most of them from the NWFP, to march confidently on Kabul. On October 10 Nadir Khan's forces took the city, and Habibullah fled. On October 16 Nadir Khan assumed the throne, renaming himself Nadir Shah. Scarcely a fortnight later Habibullah was captured and executed in the town of Kohistan on November 3, 1929. Once in power, Nadir Shah, with British help, instituted reforms, restored order, and placated those who remained loyal to his exiled cousin Amanullah. In 1932, a year before his death, Nadir Shah established a constitutional government in a unified Afghanistan.

Further reading: Michael Barthorp, *Afghan Wars and the North-West Frontier 1839–1947* (New York: Sterling, 2002); Edgar O'Ballance, *Afghan Wars, 1839–1992* (New York: Brassey's, 1993).

Afghan Civil War (1979–1992)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: 1. Regime of Mohammed Daoud vs. leftist Afghan army and air force units. 2. Muslim mountain tribes vs. leftist government under Nur Mohammed Taraki, with Soviet alliance. 3. Soviet-backed government of Babrak Karmal, with Soviet alliance, vs. mujahideen (Afghan Muslim army of rebellion).
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kabul, Afghanistan, and the mountainous region along the Afghanistan-Pakistan border
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The period of civil war began with a leftist coup against President Mohammed Daoud, then developed into a Muslim reaction against the leftist government, which brought modern reforms unwelcome to the Muslims. As the Soviet Union became more deeply involved in the war, more Afghans joined the rebellion against what they considered Soviet invaders. As for the USSR, it sought to maintain Afghanistan as a buffer state against Chinese-influenced Pakistan.
OUTCOME: The mujahideen waged a tenacious campaign against the Soviet forces, ultimately driving them out; once what had become the "common" enemy was gone, however, the rebels failed to create a viable government,

and Afghanistan split into a multitude of factions ruled by warlords.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: About 250,000 rebels, mainly mujahideen; Afghan army in 1978, 105,000, many deserting to the rebel cause; Soviet troops, 100,000

CASUALTIES: In the initial coup, some 3,000 were killed on both sides. During 1979, before massive Soviet intervention, 10,000 Afghan government troops were killed, and perhaps 20,000 rebels died. During the long period of Soviet intervention, 11,987 Soviet troops were killed and 51,367 wounded; rebel deaths are unknown, but it is estimated that land mines may have killed as many as 200,000 Afghan civilians.

TREATIES: Troop withdrawal agreement, 1987

Mohammed Daoud (1909–78) became president of Afghanistan after a coup that ousted King Mohammed Zahir Shah in 1973. On April 27, 1978, rebellious units of the Afghan military, mainly armor and air force, attacked Daoud's presidential palace in Kabul, which was defended by 2,000 Republican Guards and two loyalist Afghan army divisions. Nevertheless, after a 36-hour battle, the palace fell to the rebels. Daoud, along with his wife, brother, three sons, and several grandchildren, was killed. In his place the rebels proclaimed a new prime minister as head of state, Nur Mohammed Taraki (1917–79), leader of the Marxist-Leninist Khalq Party, also known as the People's Faction Party.

No sooner was the Taraki government proclaimed than opposition arose against it, primarily among the Muslim mountain tribes, who formed an army of rebellion, the mujahideen. The Soviet Union sent increasing amounts of military aid to the Taraki regime, but in April 1979 the city of Herat fell to the mujahideen rebels. Between 4,000 and 8,000 died in fighting in and around Herat.

On February 14, 1979, in Kabul, Adolph Dubs, the U.S. ambassador, was abducted and then killed in a shootout between rebel and government forces. A bloody guerrilla war developed, in which some 10,000 government troops were killed and some 20,000 rebels were slain during 1979. By the autumn of 1979 rebel forces controlled 22 of Afghanistan's 28 provinces.

In the meantime the Taraki government split into its own warring Marxist factions, and in September 1979 Taraki was overthrown and killed in a coup staged by his right-hand man, Hafizullah Amin (1929–79). A Marxist zealot, Amin began promulgating anti-Soviet rhetoric, stirring Afghanistan to the point of a Marxist revolution that had more in common with Maoist doctrine than with Soviet communism.

The Soviet Union invaded, the Kremlin ordering the 105th Guards Airborne Division from Tadzhik to the Bagram Airbase in Kabul. On December 20 a Soviet armored division seized the Salang Tunnel, the major overland route between the Soviet Union and Afghanistan. On Christmas Eve 1979 the Soviets began a massive airlift into Kabul International Airport. Within 72 hours the Soviets had landed the airborne division and more than 5,000 special forces troops and seized strategic points in Kabul, while four motorized rifle divisions rolled across Afghanistan's northern border. In the early morning hours of December 28 Darulaman Palace had been seized, and the Soviets issued a communique stating that Amin had been sentenced to death by a revolutionary tribunal. Other sources believe he was killed in the initial palace battle. Also killed in the fighting was Lieutenant General Paputin, the Soviet Union's deputy minister of the interior.

Having executed Amin and replaced him with a handpicked puppet, Babrak Karmal, long a foe of both Taraki and Amin, Soviet air and land forces—more than 100,000 troops—sought to crush resistance in a single stroke. What they encountered, however, was a widespread and grimly determined national resistance spearheaded by the mujahideen, who received aid from the United States as well as Pakistan. Despite the assistance, the mujahideen were poorly equipped, and yet they consistently prevailed against the vast Soviet forces. In fact, the Soviet situation in Afghanistan was repeatedly compared to that of the United States in the long Vietnam War, in which the technologically advanced forces of a modern imperialist power were stymied by comparatively primitive but absolutely committed indigenous opposition.

In 1986, as the war ground on, the demoralized Soviets withdrew support from Karmal, who resigned and was replaced by Sayid Mohammed Najibullah, former head of Afghanistan's much-feared secret police. In the meantime, in January 1987 an international Islamic conference petitioned the Soviet Union to withdraw its troops, and Najibullah simultaneously announced plans for a cease-fire. Seven mujahideen groups rejected the cease-fire, demanding direct negotiation with the USSR rather than its "puppet government." Militarily, the Soviet position continued to deteriorate, and in November 1987 Najibullah called a summit of tribal leaders, who approved a new constitution and elected Najibullah president. In April 1988 an international agreement was concluded for the withdrawal of Soviet troops, and half were withdrawn by August 15, 1988, and the remainder by February 15, 1989. Even so, many of the mujahideen continued to fight, and Najibullah declared a state of emergency from February 1989 to May 1990, when the constitution was amended to allow the formation of political parties. The reforms, however, did not stop the fighting, and in April 1992 mujahideen forces occupied Kabul, sending Najibullah into hiding and bringing about his resignation.

See also TALIBAN CONQUEST OF AFGHANISTAN; UNITED STATES'S WAR ON TERRORISM.

Further reading: Henry S. Bradsher, *Afghan Communism and Soviet Intervention* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Edgar O'Ballance, *Afghan Wars, 1839–1992* (New York: Brassey's, 1993); Russian General Staff, *The Soviet-Afghan War: How a Superpower Fought and Lost* (Lawrence: University of Kansas Press, 2002).

Afghanistan, Taliban Conquest of

See TALIBAN CONQUEST OF AFGHANISTAN.

Afghan-Maratha War (1758–1761)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Afghani invaders of the Punjab vs. the Marathas of west-central India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Punjab, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Marathas waged war to eject the Afghans from the Punjab.
OUTCOME: After initial Maratha victories, Ahmad Shah Duranni, the Afghani leader, decisively defeated the Marathas at the Battle of Panipat. Nevertheless, an insurrection of Sikhs prompted Ahmad to withdraw to Kabul.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The largest Maratha force numbered 300,000 men; the Afghani force was much smaller.
CASUALTIES: Total casualties are not known. However, the Marathas are reported to have suffered 75,000 killed and 30,000 captured at the culminating battle of Panipat.
TREATIES: No formal treaty ended the war.

With the death of Nadir Shah in 1747, the Persian Empire broke apart (*see* PERSIAN CIVIL WAR [1747–1760]), and Afghanistan became an independent state under Ahmad Shah Duranni (c. 1722–73). Ahmad immediately sought control of the Punjab and upper Ganges region (collectively, western Hindustan). On March 11, 1748, he invaded the Punjab, but was repelled at the Battle of Manupar. He invaded again in 1751, and this time annexed the region. During 1756–57 Ahmad invaded and sacked Delhi but could not overthrow the Mogul emperor, Alamgir II (r. 1754–59), because he had to return to Kabul to put down a growing insurrection there.

With Ahmad absent from the region, the vizier at Delhi ordered Balaji Rao (also called Sedushao Rao Bhau, or, simply, Sadashiv) (r. 1740–61) to lead his people, the Marathas, proud warriors of the Deccan, in a war against the Afghani occupiers of the Punjab. Balaji Rao eagerly embraced his mission, rapidly defeated the Afghans, and took Lahore. In 1759, however, Ahmad Shah Durrani returned to India, recaptured Lahore, and once again occupied Delhi. Alamgir II was assassinated, presumably to prevent his supporting Ahmad, but Ahmad refused the Mogul throne, choosing instead to install Shah Alam II (1728–1806) as the new Mogul emperor.

During December 1760 Ahmad's large army faced off against some 300,000 Marathas, with both armies hunkered down in fortified positions. Skirmishes occurred—at least one that amounted to an atrocity, as some 5,000 Afghans slaughtered 20,000 unarmed Maratha camp followers as they foraged for food.

At last, on January 14, 1761, the armies fought the culminating Battle of Panipat. Rao Bhau was killed—beheaded—and as many as 75,000 Marathas were slain (some sources report 20,000). Large numbers, perhaps as many as 30,000, were captured and subsequently ransomed.

Maratha expansion into northern India was halted; however, Ahmad did not remain in occupation of the Punjab. An insurrection among the Sikhs forced his withdrawal to Kabul, creating a power vacuum that threw the entire subcontinent into chaos and paved the way for British colonial expansion in India.

Further reading: Sir Jaunath Sarkar, *House of Hivaji: Studies and Documents on Maratha History* (Calcutta: Longman, 1978).

Afghan-Persian Wars

See PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1726–1738); PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1798); PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1816); PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1836–1838); PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1855–1857).

Afghan Rebellions (1709–1727)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ghilzai and Abdali Afghans (with Uzbek participation) vs. Safavid Persian rulers of Afghanistan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Afghanistan and Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Afghan forces sought independence from the Safavid Persians.
OUTCOME: An independent Afghan state was established, but much of Afghanistan remained under Persian rule until the PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1726–1738).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown; at the important battle of Herat (1719) the Persians fielded at least 30,000 men.
CASUALTIES: At Kandahar in 1709 the Persians lost 24,000; at Herat the Persians lost 10,000.
TREATIES: None

In 1709 the Ghilzai Afghans rebelled at Kandahar against their Persian overlords after the Persians attempted to impose Shiite religious doctrine on the mostly Sunni Ghilzai. Kandahar quickly fell to the Ghizai, and all Persian attempts to retake the city during 1709–10 failed.

In 1711 Khusru Khan (d. 1711) led a new expedition against the city, setting up a siege. The Ghilzai defenders were on the verge of surrender when Afghan raiders menaced the attackers. Seeing that the Persians were vulnerable, the Ghilzai, led by Mir Vais (d. 1715) took the offensive, sallying out from the city and killing Khusru Khan and 24,000 of his 25,000-man force. Mir Vais then declared Afghanistan independent.

The example of the Ghilzai triumph at Kandahar inspired another Afghan people, the Abdali of Herat, to rise under the leadership of Asadullah Khan (fl. 1717–25) in 1717. After liberating their city, the Abdali joined forces with the Uzbeks and invaded the Persian province of Khorasan.

The Persians responded in 1719 with a 30,000-man army sent to retake Herat. Outnumbered two to one, Asadullah nevertheless defeated the invaders, inflicting some 10,000 casualties while suffering 3,000 killed and wounded.

In 1720 the Ghilzai invaded Persia, taking the city of Kurman. However, the invaders were driven back before the end of the year. War between Afghanistan and Persia settled into a series of border raids until January 1722, when the Ghilzai again took Kerman. From there they invaded Gulnabad, just 11 miles east of the Persian capital of Isfahan. A Persian army of 50,000 was sent against the invaders but was itself driven off, and the Ghilzai laid siege to Isfahan for the next six months. The city's garrison surrendered in October 1722, Shah Husain (1702–48) abdicated, and Mahmud Khan (d. 1725), son of Mir Vais, established an Afghan government in Isfahan.

As the Safavid Persian collapse became apparent, Russian and Turkish forces rushed into the country in an attempt to seize power (*see* RUSSO-PERSIAN WAR [1722–1723]). The Ghilzai Afghans, however, fought on, taking Tehran in 1725, then defeating the forces of the Ottoman Turks as well as the Russians. In the meantime, a new and powerful leader, Nadir Khan (1688–1747), rose among the Persians and delayed the final liberation of Afghanistan until mid-century.

Further reading: Mohammed Ali, *A Short History of Afghanistan* (Kabul: N. Pub., 1970); Louis Dupree, *Afghanistan* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1973).

Afghan Revolt (699–701)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Arabs vs. Afghans; then Arab governor of the eastern provinces vs. rebels led by Ibn al-Ash'ath
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Afghanistan and much of Mesopotamia (Iraq)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Afghans rebelled against Arab rule, then an Arab general rebelled against the Muslim governor of the eastern provinces of the Muslim caliphate.
OUTCOME: Both the Afghan rebellion and that of Ibn al-Ash'ath were put down.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The famous Peacock Army of al-Hajjaj ibn Yusef (661–714), the Muslim governor of the eastern provinces of the caliphate, set out in 699 to regain control of what is today southeast Afghanistan from Afghan rebels. Known for their colorful military garb—hence the name "Peacock"—the army under Kindah tribesman Ibn al-Ash'ath (d. 704) defeated the rebels and was posted to the region for an indefinite period of time. The Kindah military leader refused to obey this posting order from al-Hajjaj and took part of the army back to Mesopotamia. Having gathered support along the march, he clashed with troops of al-Hajjaj in January 701 at Tustar and defeated them. Ibn al-Ash'ath then set out for Basra and Kufa, where he won the Battle of Dayr at-Jamajim. He occupied the important port city of Basra. However, his run of successes on the battlefield ended at the Battle of Maskin on the Dujail River in 701, where al-Hajjaj, reinforced by Syrian troops provided by caliph Adb al-Malik (646/647–705), dealt a decisive blow against Ibn's rebel army. Basra returned to the control of the caliphate, and the rebellion collapsed.

Further reading: Clifford Edmond Bosworth, *The Medieval History of Iran, Afghanistan, and Central Asia* (London: Variorum Reprints, 1977).

Afghan War, First (1839–1842)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain vs. Afghans under Dost Muhammad
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Afghanistan and northern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Anxious to protect the northern approaches to colonial India, the British sought to check Russian influence in the region by replacing Dost Muhammad, an Afghan emir sympathetic to the Russians, with Shah Shuja, a ruler who favored the British.
OUTCOME: British losses were heavy, and although a punitive expedition prevailed against the Afghans, British forces (and commercial interests) withdrew from the country.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The British fielded more than 30,000 men, including 6,000 Afghan levies; at Kandahar in 1842, Dost Muhammad fielded 20,000 Afghan troops.
CASUALTIES: More than 5,000 British dead; total Afghan losses are not known, but 1,500 were killed between 1839 and 1841.
TREATIES: None

In an attempt to protect the northern approaches to colonial India, the British sought to replace Dost Muhammad (1793–1863), the Afghan emir whose friendly relations with the Russians were perceived as a threat to British control, with former emir Shah Shuja (1780–1842), who was sympathetic to British interests. An Anglo-Indian army of 21,000 under General Sir John Keane occupied Kandahar in April 1839, successfully attacked Ghazni on July 21, and took Kabul on August 7. Keane captured Dost Muhammad and restored to power Shah Shuja. Leaving the superannuated major general William G. K. Elphinstone (d. 1842) with a 4,500-man garrison at Kabul to support two British diplomats there (Sir William Macnaghten [1793–1841] and Sir Alexander Burnes [1805–41]), Keane returned to India with his main force.

Kabul remained relatively quiet until November 1841, when Sher Ali Akbar Khan (1825–79), son of Dost Muhammad, led an uprising against the British presence in the Afghan capital. The two British diplomats were murdered, and Elphinstone's garrison was besieged. On January 6, 1842, Elphinstone surrendered to Akbar Khan in exchange for a grant of safe passage to India for his 4,500-man command and some 12,000 civilian refugees. On January 13, however, at the Khyber Pass, Akbar's troops violated the safe conduct and overwhelmed Elphinstone's already demoralized troops. Most were massacred, together with the civilian refugees. Of the small number taken prisoner, few survived captivity. A small British garrison at Ghazni also surrendered, but troops at Kandahar and Jalalabad resisted and held out.

In April 1842 Akbar's followers assassinated Shah Shuja, and that same month Sir George Pollock led an Anglo-Indian punitive expedition against the Khyber Pass. Successfully breaching it, he broke the siege of Jalalabad on April 16, then proceeded to Kabul. Here, on September 15, Pollock's expedition rescued 95 prisoners, all that remained of Elphinstone's garrison and its civilian charges.

Pollock now ordered severe reprisals against the Afghans, including the destruction of the citadel and great bazaar of Kabul. With victory achieved, the British East India Company, chief trading force in the region, decided that it was both too dangerous and insufficiently profitable to remain in Afghanistan. In December British forces and civilians evacuated the country, and Dost Muhammad was given British permission to resume his reign as emir. He ruled until his death in 1863.

See also AFGHAN WAR, SECOND; AFGHAN WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Edgar O'Ballance, *Afghan Wars, 1839–1992* (New York: Brassey's, 1993).

Afghan War, Second (1878–1880)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain vs. Afghans under Sher Ali Akbar Khan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British invaded Afghanistan in response to the pro-Russian stance of Sher Ali Akbar Khan, Afghan emir, which threatened the northern approaches to colonial India.
OUTCOME: Creation of a pro-British government under Abdur Rahman
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 35,300 Anglo-Indian troops; as many as 100,000 Afghans
CASUALTIES: British, 1,850 killed in action, and 8,000 dead from disease; Afghans, 8,900 killed in action
TREATIES: May 26, 1879, treaty with Emir Yakub Khan

When Sher Ali Akbar Khan (1825–79) succeeded his father, Dost Muhammad (1793–1863), as emir of Afghanistan, he made diplomatic overtures to the Russians yet refused to receive a British delegation. This provoked a British invasion on November 20, 1878. General Sir Frederick Roberts led Anglo-Indian troops from India and quickly took the frontier passes. Soon, 35,300 Anglo-Indian troops were in the country. When Roberts defeated an army under Sher Ali at Peiwar Kotal on December 2, the emir fled and was replaced by his son Yakub Khan (1849–?), who concluded a treaty of peace with Britain on May 26, 1879. A British diplomat, Sir Louis Cavagnari, was installed in Kabul.

On September 3, 1879, thousands of Afghans stormed the British residency in Kabul, killing Cavagnari and others. This provoked reprisal in the form of a force of 2,558 British regulars and 3,867 Sepoy troops, again under Sir Frederick Roberts, which defeated an 8,000-man Afghan army at the Battle of Charasia, southwest of Kabul, on October 6, 1879. Six days later the British marched on and occupied Kabul as well as its fortress, Bala Hissar, prompting the abdication of Yakub Khan; he sought British protection from insurgents who called for a holy war against the British. An estimated 100,000 Afghans took up arms against the occupiers of Kabul. Remarkably, however, the vastly outnumbered Roberts broke through the Afghan lines, outflanked the besiegers, and succeeded in dispersing the army. Troops under Sir Donald Stewart conducted mop-up operations that restored British control until June 1880, when Ayub Khan (1854–1914), brother of Yakub Khan, laid claim to the Afghan throne. With 15,000 men, Ayub marched on Kandahar. In response General G. R. S. Burroughs led a force of 2,467 Anglo-Indians to block Ayub Khan. The result was the Battle of Maiwand, fought on July 27, 1880. Ayub dealt the outnumbered Anglo-Indian force a severe blow, destroying half of it.

After defeating Burroughs, Ayub Khan continued his march on Kandahar. On August 9, 1880, however, Sir Frederick Roberts led 9,896 Anglo-Indian troops and a special transport corps on a lightning advance to Kandahar, where he planned to intercept Ayub Khan. Completing the 313-mile journey, much of it in mountainous terrain, in just 22

days, Roberts's force reached Kandahar on September 1 and immediately launched an attack. Stunned, Ayub's troops were routed, and Ayub Khan fled to Herat.

The Battle of Kandahar ended the Second Afghan War and brought about the establishment of a pro-British government under Amin Abdur Rhaman Khan (r. 1880–1901). The following year, after the British forces again withdrew from Afghanistan, Ayub Khan led a rebellion against Abdur Rhaman, who, however, rapidly crushed the insurgent movement. Ayub Khan fled to Persia, and Abdur Rhaman established a stable government.

See also AFGHAN WAR, FIRST; AFGHAN WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Edgar O'Ballance, *Afghan Wars, 1839–1992* (New York: Brassey's, 1993).

Afghan War, Third (1919)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Afghanistan vs. Britain (Anglo-Indian forces)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India (Bagh region) and Afghanistan
DECLARATION: May 1919, proclamation of jihad (holy war)
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Afghanistan sought independence from all foreign domination.
OUTCOME: Armistice and British recognition of Afghan independence
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Afghans, 10,000; Anglo-Indian forces, comparable
CASUALTIES: Afghan, unknown; Anglo-British, 236 killed, 615 wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Rawalpindi, August 8, 1919

During WORLD WAR I Afghanistan successfully struggled to remain neutral. However, throughout the period 1914–18 Germany and its ally Turkey provoked anti-British religious agitation within the country. Britain tried to quell anti-British sentiment within the government by granting Afghanistan liberal subsidies. The funds were well spent, in that Afghanistan remained neutral for the duration of the Great War. Shortly after the Armistice, however, Amanullah Khan (1892–1960) ascended the Afghan throne as the nation's new emir following the assassination of his father, Habibullah (1872–1919). Amanullah was backed by the army and the radically nationalist Young Afghan Party, which, in 1919, gave him a mandate to declare independence, including freedom from all foreign influence, especially that of Russia and Britain.

As in previous conflicts with the country, British officials were concerned that an independence movement in Afghanistan would threaten Britain's colonial hold on India. Following British saber rattling, Amanullah proclaimed a jihad (holy war) against Britain and sent some 10,000 troops across the Indian border and into the province of Bagh, which was occupied on May 3, 1919. In response, an Anglo-Indian force under General Reginald Dyer (1864–1927) was dispatched through the Khyber Pass to Landi Kotal and, from here, drove the invaders out of Bagh by May 11. Punitive air raids against Afghan cities were also ordered.

The Anglo-Indians then invaded Afghanistan as far as Dakka. In the meantime, the British air raids on Jalalabad and the Afghan capital city of Kabul were taking their toll. Amanullah sued for peace, and an armistice was concluded on May 31, followed by the Treaty of Rawalpindi on August 8, whereby Britain acknowledged Afghan independence in return for an Afghan pledge to cease harassment of the Afghan-Indian border.

The peace proved nominal at best, as Afghan guerrillas sporadically continued to open fire along the border. On November 22, 1921, the Treaty of Rawalpindi was reaffirmed, and the British discontinued their practice of subsidy payments.

See also AFGHAN WAR, FIRST; AFGHAN WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Edgar O'Ballance, *Afghan Wars, 1839–1992* (New York: Brassey's, 1993).

Afghan War between Ghur and Ghazna (1148–1152)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ghur (Ghor) vs. Ghazna (modern Ghazni)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day Afghanistan and Iran
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ghur fought for independence from Ghazna, which it also sought to displace.
OUTCOME: Ghur gained ascendency over its former master.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Mahmud of Ghazna (971–1030) controlled Khorosan (in Iran) and Afghanistan by 999 and raided northern India, gaining wealth that financed his further conquests in Afghanistan. His death in 1030, however, brought about the gradual decline of once-powerful Ghazna (in east-central Afghanistan) and, in consequence, a loosening of its grip on the tributary state of Ghur, a mountain-enclosed region of central Afghanistan. Saif ud-din Suir (r. 1146–49) and Ala-ud-din (r. 1150–75) led a Ghurid uprising against Ghazna beginning in 1148 and culminating in the siege and sacking of the capital city of Ghazna (called Ghazna or Ghazni). The siege was protracted into 1152, by which time the last of the Ghaznavids had been driven into India.

Although sacked, the city of Ghazna was spared from total destruction. It served later as a secondary capital in the ascendent kingdom of Ghur.

Further reading: Clifford Edmond Bosworth, *The Medieval History of Iran, Afghanistan, and Central Asia* (London: Variorum Reprints, 1977).

Agathocles' War against Carthage
(c. 311–306 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syracuse vs. Carthage
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syracuse and northern Africa
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Carthage sought to block Syracuse's territorial ambitions.
OUTCOME: Although triumphant in the war, Carthage limited its rule in Sicily to the region west of the Halycus River.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 306 B.C.E. between Carthage and Syracuse

By means of a coup the oligarchical party of Syracuse established Agathocles (c. 360–289 B.C.E.) as tyrant of the Sicilian province in 317 B.C.E. A champion of Hellenism and an able military leader, Agathocles prosecuted a series of wars against the other Sicilian Greeks from about 316 to 313. These expanded his realm, giving him control of Messina and other Sicilian cities, but it also strained his formerly friendly relations with Carthage. Tension erupted into war in 311, when a group of Agathocles' enemies persuaded Carthage that the tyrant was a threat to their Sicilian holdings.

During the first months of the war, the Carthaginian leader Hamilcar Barca (d. 229/228 B.C.E.), who had been sent to Sicily with a large force, crushed Agathocles' troops at Economus and laid siege to the city of Syracuse itself. Against seemingly insurmountable odds, Agathocles staged a remarkable escape from the besiegers by breaking through their blockade. He then carried the war into Africa, where for two years he harassed outlying Carthaginian possessions. At one point his forces threatened Carthage itself. A revolt at home forced Agathocles to return to Sicily, and he was unable to continue his African offensive. Although Carthaginian forces finally defeated him in 307, his earlier achievements in Africa led a circumspect Carthage to conclude a favorable peace with the Syracusan tyrant in 306, which actually served to enhance the security of Syracuse by restricting the Carthaginian rule in Sicily to the region west of the Halycus River. In about 304 Agathocles adopted the title of king of Sicily.

Further reading: Titus Livius Livy, *War with Hannibal* (New York: Viking Press, 1965); Henry Tillyard, *Agathocles* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1908).

Alaric and Stilico, Wars between
See STILICHO'S WARS WITH THE VISIGOTHS; VISIGOTHIC RAIDS ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

Alaric's First Invasion of Italy
See VISIGOTHIC RAIDS ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE: ALARIC'S FIRST INVASION OF ITALY.

Alaric's Second Invasion of Italy
See VISIGOTHIC RAIDS ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE: ALARIC'S SECOND INVASION OF ITALY.

Alaungpaya's Wars of Conquest (1752–1760)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Alaungpaya, a Burmese village headman vs. the Mon people, various other competing tribes, and French colonial interests
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma (Myanmar)
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The unification, under Alaungpaya, of the Third Burmese Empire
OUTCOME: Unification of Burma under the Konbaung dynasty
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No formal treaty

Until 1751, the history of Burma (Myanmar) was a patchwork quilt consisting of competing tribes, dynasties, and colonial powers. During the mid-18th century Alaungpaya (1714–60), a village headman from the upper Burmese province of Moksobomyo, united these conflicting elements in a series of conquests, which, beginning in 1752, forged the powerful dynasty known as the Third Empire. The unification movement, which started almost accidentally, thrust the provincial leader into the international arena and elevated Alaungpaya to a symbol of Burmese nationalism.

In 1751 Burma was essentially split in half. The middle and upper regions were ruled by the unpopular and declining Toungoo dynasty headquartered in Ava. The lower half was controlled chiefly by the Mons, based at Pegu, a dynasty backed by French colonial interests who had plans to invade the north. In 1752 the Mons, led by King Binnya Dala (d. 1774), began to carry out the invasion by taking Ava and capturing the Toungoo king, entirely unresisted. Flushed with this easy victory, Dala returned to Pegu in triumph, taking with him most of his army and leaving behind nothing more than a skeleton force and a military governor assigned the duty of obtain-

ing oaths of allegiance from the outlying provinces. Within the provinces was Alaungpaya's village of Moksobomyo. Confronted with the decision of whether to become a vassal of the Mons, Alaungpaya chose to organize a resistance movement, and a few days later, when the Mon detachment arrived at the village, he met them with bullets, not obedience. Thus began a long and bloody series of wars.

Dalaban, the Mon military governor, sent two regiments to take Moksobomyo in 1752, but by the end of the year Alaungpaya had defeated both. These victories, relatively minor in themselves, greatly fueled the resistance, and Alaungpaya capitalized on his triumphs to enlist supporters from all over the region. Invoking the spirit of nationalism and Burmese self-rule, Alaungpaya declared himself king of all Burma and renamed Moksobomyo Shwebo, making it the new capital of the empire. Fully aware that this and his earlier victories would result in a much larger Mon invasion, Alaungpaya dug in and prepared for their return.

It did not take long for Dalaban to receive reinforcements from Pegu and proceed to Shwebo, where he surrounded Alaungpaya's city, attacking it from all sides. For five days and nights the Mons bombarded the city, but Alaungpaya's forces held strong. Growing impatient, Dalaban selected 1,500 of his best men to storm the walls of the city and open the gates, but before they could carry out their orders, Alaungpaya's men decimated the elite force from their fortifications inside. After the battle Mon troops withdrew toward the Irrawaddy River. In response Alaungpaya unleased a massive offensive, forcing the Mons to break rank and attempt to float down the river to Pegu. Hundreds drowned, and Dalaban retreated to Ava.

By the end of 1752, Alaungpaya had gained control of all of Upper Burma, including the Shan states, except for Ava. The following year he laid siege to Ava itself. Surprisingly, he was met with no resistance; the Mons had slipped out during the night. Alaungpaya left Ava to raise more support in the surrounding Shan provinces. On learning of his absence, the Mons returned, routed the small Burmese nationalist force left outside the gates, and laid siege to Ava. Alaungpaya, however, had anticipated the Mons' move and returned to Ava with a massive force. Trapped between two Burmese armies, the Mons were defeated, thus paving the way for Alaungpaya's conquest of Lower Burma.

Lower Burma posed many problems for the Burmese leader. First among them was the growing French presence in the region, which included an informal alliance between the local French military commander and the Mons. Second, the British East India Company, which was at odds with the French in India, had become a formidable presence in the Burmese territory of Negrais.

In 1755 Alaungpaya attacked the Mons in Lower Burma and forced them to retreat to the fortified cities of Pegu and Syriam. He then captured the port of Dagon, renamed it Rangoon, and interned several French and English ships in the harbor. Hoping to receive arms from the ships' captains in exchange for their release, Alaungpaya was instead rebuffed by them. The colonial vessels managed to sail away at nightfall. Ill-equipped to storm Syriam and Pegu, Alaungpaya returned to Upper Burma to regroup.

In 1756 he returned to Rangoon and moved on Syriam. For eight months the Burmese laid siege to the fortified city. Then, fearing the arrival of French reinforcements from India, Alaungpaya decided it was time to attack. Choosing a mere 93 of his best men—later called "The Golden Company of Syriam"—Alaungpaya sent them to scale the walls of Syriam and open the gates. In contrast to Binnya Dala's fiasco at Shwebo, Alaungpaya's men succeeded in their mission, and the Burmese troops routed the city, whereupon French military leaders, including one Captain Bruno, who had concluded an alliance with the Mons, were executed.

Alaungpaya next proceeded to Myanaung to prepare for his conquest of Pegu. While there he concluded a treaty with the East India Company, through which, in return for acknowledging the British right to occupy Negrais, he received much-needed weapons and ammunition. In 1757 he successfully laid siege to Pegu, bringing about the abdication of Binnya Dala. Alaungpaya, already in firm control of Upper Burma, was now accepted as the ruler of Lower Burma as well. By 1759 British indifference to their own 1757 treaty prompted Alaungpaya to reclaim Negrais.

The frontier with Siam still posed a threat, and in 1760 Alaungpaya laid siege to the Siamese capital of Ayutthaya. During the siege he was wounded, and he died retreating to Burma. At age 46 Alaungpaya had just begun to reshape the course of Burmese history. His abbreviated reign brought unity to the fragmented empire and established the Konbaung dynasty, which would rule into the next century.

Further reading: Maung Htin Aung, *The History of Burma* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1967).

Albanian-Turkish Wars (1443–1478)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Albania vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Albania
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottomans sought to expand their empire and the influence of Islam, Albania to defend its sovereignty and protect the Christian faith against the infidel Turks.
OUTCOME: The Albanians repulsed 13 Turkish invasions before being defeated by Sultan Muhammad II, the Conqueror.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Albanian-Turkish truce of 1461

Under Sultan Murad II (1403[?]–51) the Ottoman Empire launched a series of brutal invasions into eastern Europe, hoping to seize Hungary, Serbia, and Albania. Unfortunately for Murad, in each region there appeared a talented military hero to frustrate Ottoman rapaciousness. In Hungary it was the legendary John Hunyadi (1387–1456) who repulsed the Turks (*see* HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR, [1441–1444]); in Serbia George Brankovitch (r. 1427–56) kept the Ottoman army at bay. In Albania the challenge fell to a far more unlikely prospect—George Castriota, better known as Skanderbeg (1405–68).

The son of an Albanian vassal prince, Castriota had been captured by the Ottomans at a young age and taken to the sultan's court, where he was raised and educated. There he lived the comfortable life of a courtier, becoming one of Murad's favorites. Those at court addressed him with the title *bey,* Persian for "lord," and at length the young hostage converted to Islam. Given the name Skanderbeg after serving in the Ottoman army, probably as a janissary, he could easily have lost himself in the luxuries and privileges of the Turkish harem. Instead, when Albania fell under the threat of attack by the Turks, he deserted the Ottoman army and returned to defend his homeland, renouncing Islam, reconverting to Christianity, and forming a league of the traditionally disputatious Albanian nobility.

In fact, it was the very quarrelsomeness of the Albanian nobles, their internecine squabbling and disunity, that had made their country an attractive target for Ottoman aggression. United behind Skanderbeg, however, they were able to seize the purportedly impregnable Ottoman-held fortress of Krujë and launch, under Skanderbeg's brilliant supervision, a successful military campaign against the Turks in 1443. For two decades and more Albania repulsed every Ottoman advance, some 13 invasions in all between 1444 and 1466.

In hopes of ending the Turkish threat permanently as well as shoring up Albanian sovereignty, Skanderbeg in 1448 joined forces with Hungary's John Hunyadi in an alliance that also included Serbia and Bosnia. It marked the only time Skanderbeg took the offensive against the Turks, but his quadruple alliance was swiftly defeated by Murad in October 1448 at the Second Battle of Kosovo. The defeat left Serbian and Bosnian independence in jeopardy and devastated Hungary militarily, but Skanderbeg became the hero of the entire Western world when he broke Murad's siege of the stronghold at Krugë in 1451. Aid poured into Albania from every corner—Venice, Naples, Hungary, and the Vatican's Papal States.

That same year Murad died. He was succeeded by his son Sultan Muhammad II (1429–81), who soon became known as "Muhammad the Conqueror." Muhammad did not, however, conquer either Hunyadi's Hungary or Skanderbeg's Albania, though not for want of trying. Holding the tenuous Albanian alliance together, often using guerrilla tactics, Skanderbeg met with success after success. In 1461 he won a major victory against Muhammad that allowed him to impose a 10-year truce on the Porte, as the Ottoman government was called, only to violate the peace himself when the Pope, who called Skanderbeg "the Champion of Christ," asked him to launch a new crusade in 1463. Skanderbeg's troops raided Macedonia and defeated the Turks in 1464 and again in 1465. In 1466 Sultan Muhammad personally led an invasion of Albania, conducting another heavy siege of Krujë and devastating the country. The sultan's destructive campaign cost Skanderbeg his foreign allies, who deserted him by 1467. George Castriota, née Skanderbeg, aka Champion of Christ, died the following year. The Albanian nobles immediately resumed their bickering while conducting a desultory war against the Ottomans. When Krujë finally fell in 1471, Muhammad ordered all the inhabitants decapitated, a brutal harbinger of what the Albanians could expect when the Conqueror regained control of their country for the Ottomans, which he succeeded in doing by 1478.

Further reading: Kristo Frashëri, *The History of Albania: A Brief Survey* (Tirana, Albania: N. Pub., 1964).

Albanian Uprising, First (1910–1912)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Albania vs. Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Albania and Macedonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Albanians sought self-government.
OUTCOME: The Ottomans crushed an Albanian bid for independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Albanian rebels, 20,000; Ottoman army, 40,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Long oppressed by the corrupt Ottoman Empire, Albania sought independence from Turkish domination. To this end, the Albanian independence movement aided the Young Turk movement in its effort to overthrow the old Ottoman regime and radically reform Turkish government. In return for this aid, the Albanians understood that they would be granted a significant measure of self-government and relief from Ottoman taxation. After achieving control of the Ottoman government in 1908, however, the Young Turks reneged on the promise made to the Albanians. Worse, the new Turkish government levied even more burdensome taxes on Albania. This prompted an organized, militant rebellion on the part of some 8,000 northern Albanians. Beginning in March 1910, the uprising

spread rapidly southward, to Korçë, Albania, and even into parts of Macedonia.

The first revolt broke out north of the Kosovo province in March 1910. Initially, the Turks could field no more than 16,000 men against some 20,000 rebels. By May 1910 reinforcements swelled the Turkish units to 40,000, and the rebellion was put down. Nevertheless, emboldened by the growing independence movement, Albanian leaders convened in Montenegro to draw up a demand for self-government, which they submitted to the Turks. In response the Turkish government dispatched a large army force, which quickly and savagely put down the rebellion during June 1910. The brutally established peace was short lived. In March 1911 some 4,000 rebels struck again in the north. Rebellion pushed southward until the Turks restored peace by making modest concessions to Albanian autonomy. The next year, however, more than 3,000 Albanians staged an uprising in May. Before the year was out rebel strength had reached about 20,000, and the Albanians took the city of Priština. At this point, however, the rebellion was swallowed up in the larger First Balkan War.

Further reading: Kristo Frashëri, *The History of Albania: A Brief Survey* (Tirana, Albania: N. Pub., 1964).

Albanian Uprising, Second

See Albanian Uprisings.

Albanian Uprising, Third

See Albanian Uprisings.

Albanian Uprising, Fourth

See Albanian Uprisings.

Albanian Uprisings (1932–1937)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: King Zog I vs. liberal and Marxist Albanian rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Albania
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The fascist-backed autocratic Zog, who had seized power in the turmoil following World War I and the collapse of the Hapsburg and Ottoman Empires, was opposed to Albanian reformers.
OUTCOME: Beginning as a pawn in the post–World War I diplomatic struggle between Italy and France, Zog ended as a victim of the rising fascist takeover of pre–World War II Europe. The weakness of his rule exposed by the uprisings, he was deposed and forced into exile by Benito Mussolini.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the 1920s, before the rise of Nazi Germany, Benito Mussolini's fascist Italy was the preeminent aggressive power on the European continent. Italian foreign policy was a mixture of bombast and caution, like its preening and touchy leader. At the Lausanne Conference in the summer of 1923, Il Duce had dramatically stopped his train at a distance to force French premier Raymond Poincaré and Britain's Lord Curzon to come to him. Under Benito Mussolini (1883–1945), Italy was the first Great Power to offer a hand to the Bolsheviks with a trade agreement, and Mussolini was proud both of Italy's role in the League of Nations and as a guarantor of the Locarno Pact. Mussolini's main sphere of activity, however, was the Balkans.

When an Italian general surveying a border of one of Albania's Greek-speaking provinces was killed in 1923, Mussolini ordered his navy to bomb the Greek island of Corfu—and the League of Nations awarded Italy, not Greece, an indemnity for the incident. Italy annexed Fiume in January 1924, even though Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924) had insisted in 1919 at Versailles that Fiume be granted free-city status. Given these and other actions, Yugoslavia was suspicious of Italian ambitions, especially in Albania, despite Rome's attempts to regularize diplomatic relations with Belgrade. Later in 1924 the Yugoslavs backed a coup d'état in Albania that elevated the Muslim Ahmed Bey Zogu (1895–1961) to power. Once in control, however, Zogu turned to Italy for aid and protection. First Italy provided Albania economic relief in the Tirane Pact of 1927, then Mussolini and Zogu joined in a military alliance in 1927; ultimately, at a convention in July of 1928, Il Duce declared Albania a virtual protectorate, and Ahmed Zogu became King Zog I.

Thus, Zog came to power as part of the Italian diplomatic attempt to counter French influence in the successor states of the old Austro-Hungarian Empire, when Mussolini was first beginning to flex his foreign policy muscle and place Italy in the center of the interwar turmoil that plagued Europe. Zog, a dictator who ruled as autocratically as any leader in Europe, proved himself worthy of his fascist sponsor, and by the early 1930s he was facing strong opposition from liberal reformers and Marxist-oriented Muslim radicals who appealed directly to the country's Islamic majority. Insurrections occurred in 1932, 1935, and 1937, but they were relatively small, poorly planned affairs that Zog easily suppressed. Zog's hold on power, however, remained tenuous enough that his punishment of the rebels was surprisingly lenient—he executed only a few ringleaders—and he felt compelled to undertake minor social and administrative reforms as a show of good faith.

Meanwhile, the diplomatic brinkmanship of Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) had gained him control over much of Europe without a shot being fired by the Great Powers,

who were bent on appeasement of the saber-rattling Nazis. Benito Mussolini had been closely and enviously following Hitler's succession of brilliant diplomatic coups against what was quite evidently the enfeebled democracies of the West. In his rise from obscurity to absolute power in Germany, Hitler had admired Mussolini as a model fascist leader, and Mussolini liked to consider the German führer his younger protégé. Mussolini understood that Italy traditionally fared best when playing Germany off against France, and he feared Hitler's expansion into the Danube River basin. Moreover, when the Nazis had arranged for the murder of Austrian chancellor Engelbert Dollfuss (1892–1934)—whom Mussolini had supported on condition he establish an Italian-style fascist regime—Mussolini responded with the threat of force. In London and Paris the appeasers were beginning to see Il Duce as the one leader with the will to stand up to Hitler. As Hitler placed pressure on the coal- and iron-rich Saarland, Britain, France, and Italy met in the spring of 1935 at a conference in Stresa to reaffirm their joint opposition to German expansion.

However, Mussolini then decided to imitate his protégé and simply take the independent African empire of Abyssinia (Ethiopia) from Haile Selassie (1892–1975). France and Britain felt they could not merely wink at Mussolini's Ethiopian adventure, so they pushed mild economic sanctions against Italy through the League of Nations. However, the sanctions included neither an embargo on oil, which would have grounded Mussolini's air force, nor closure of the Suez Canal, which would have cut his supply line. Germany, no longer in the league, ignored the sanctions, thus healing the rift between the two dictators. In May of 1936 Italian troops entered Addis Ababa and completed the conquest of Abyssinia, smashing the Stresa Front and transforming the League of Nations, according to historian A. J. P. Taylor, in a single day from a powerful body imposing sanctions, seemingly more effective than ever before, to an empty sham. In June Mussolini appointed his son-in-law, Galeazzo Ciano, foreign minister, and in July Ciano acquiesced in Germany's annexation of Austria. In November came the announcement of a vague Rome-Berlin Axis, and a year later, in December of 1937, Italy, too, quit the League of Nations.

By 1939, however, Hitler was clearly the leader of the Axis, and he sometimes treated the preening Il Duce as the junior partner he in fact had become in fascist Europe. Increasingly, Mussolini felt he had something to prove in the face of Hitler's aggressive foreign diplomacy. Thus, on April 7 Italy annexed Albania and removed its erstwhile client King Zog. Now Mussolini was again a figure worthy of alliance with Hitler. It was ultimately Mussolini's deposing of Zog and annexing of Albania that persuaded Hitler to sign the 1939 "Pact of Steel" with Italy, turning the Italian-German "axis" into a true military alliance. Tellingly, the treaty began by acknowledging Italy's hegemony over Ethiopia and Albania, referring to Victor Emanuel III, titular head of the Italian government, as "King of Italy and Albania, Emperor of Ethiopia." Meanwhile, the former "king" of Albania was forced to flee into exile (see WORLD WAR II: THE BALKANS).

See also WORLD WAR I; WORLD WAR II.

Further reading: Kristo Frashëri, *The History of Albania: A Brief Survey* (Tirana, Albania: N. Pub., 1964).

Albigensian Crusade (1209–1229)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Roman Catholic Church vs. the Albigensian heretics
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern France
DECLARATION: 1208, by Pope Innocent III
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Albigensian opposition to the Roman Catholic Church
OUTCOME: Nobles of southern France accepted Catholic French rule
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Meaux, 1229

The Albigensians were Christian heretics (mainly Catharists) concentrated in southern France (Languedoc) who formed an antisectoral party opposing the Roman church. Influenced by the multicultural makeup of the shipping ports in the region, the Albigensians were exposed to and adopted Catharism, a dualistic variation on more orthodox Christian belief that stressed eternal conflict between the forces of good and evil, and that held the material world to be evil. In 1208, after repeated attempts at the pacific conversion of the heretics, Pope Innocent III (1161–1216) declared a military crusade against them, offering papal fiefdoms in Toulouse to anyone who would participate. Catholic nobles from all over the north of France raced into action.

The crusade pitted the Catholic nobles of northern France, led by Simon IV de Montfort (c. 1160–1218), against the Catharist nobles of the south, commanded by the count of Toulouse, Raymond IV (1156–1222). A major battle at Muret in 1213 proved to be the turning point of the crusade. Albigensian forces, aided by Pedro II of Aragon (1174–1213), besieged Montfort's headquarters at Muret and appeared to have bottled him up there. However, Montfort managed to escape the tightening grip of the southern forces, redirect his troops, and accomplish the rout of the unsuspecting Albigensians in a bloody ambush. Pedro II was killed, a significant loss because his death completed the split between Aquitaine and Aragon. By this time, clearly, the conflict had became a political rather than a religious war; obviously, Pedro II had had no intention of defending heresy.

Montfort proceeded to Toulouse and in 1215 declared himself count of the former Albigensian stronghold. In 1218 Montfort was killed, but the inquisition he instituted against the heretics had already taken a heavy toll. The population was systematically persecuted and the countryside sacked and pillaged. The doors of southern France had been forcibly opened to Catholic France, and construction of churches and monasteries had already begun on a large scale. By 1229 the magnificent Provençal civilization created by the Albigensians was largely in ruins. That same year the crusade formally ended with the signing of the Treaty of Meaux, by which the independent kingdoms of the south accepted Catholic French rule. Thus, the French Crown emerged from the bitter "crusades" as the only real victor, having gained control over Languedoc. As for Catharism, it slowly eroded along with its social base.

Further reading: Aubrey Burl, *God's Heretics: The Albigensian Crusade* (London: Sutton Publishing, 2002); Joseph R. Strayer, *The Albigensian Crusades* (New York: Dial Press, 1971); Jonathan Sumption, *The Albigensian Crusade* (London: Faber and Faber, 2000).

Alemannic Invasion of Gaul (298)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Roman Gaul vs. the Alemannic tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaul (modern-day France)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Alemanni sought plunder and hegemony over Gaul; the Romans fought to defend Gaul and expel the Alemanni beyond its frontier
OUTCOME: The Alemanni were routed and Gaul remained free of barbarian incursions
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Gaul, a province of the Roman Empire for centuries, lay undefended from time to time, depending on the strength of the western emperor, and its occasional vulnerability encouraged raids by neighboring marauding tribes. In 298 the barbarian Alemanni, a nomadic people from the north, who first became known to history when the Romans attacked them in 213 and who, by 260, occupied the Agri Decumates, swept into Gaul and began ravaging the countryside.

In response to the invasion, the Roman Senate dispatched Flavius Valerius Constantius (c. 250–306), "Caesar" of the Western Roman Empire and commander of its armies. By the time Constantius was able to deploy his legions in the field, the Alemanni already controlled much of Gaul and had destroyed a good portion of the countryside. Almost immediately Constantius met the Alemanni at the battle of Lingones, a small town in northeastern Gaul, which would prove a spectacular victory for the Romans. Beaten back earlier in the day, then trapped by the invaders against the walls of the city, Constantius called on his reserve to lower ropes down the city walls. A good portion of the army scrambled up to safety. That same day Constantius was able to call for reinforcements, and when he led his legions back into the field, he defeated and routed the Alemanni, who scattered into the scorched countryside.

The Alemanni regrouped at the town of Vindonissa and turned to meet Constantius's pursuit. The Roman general engaged in battle, without halting to rest his troops, but Roman discipline held and the Alemanni were totally defeated and driven from Gaul. Vindonissa brought an end to the barbarian incursions for the time being, at least while Constantius ruled Gaul with a firm hand.

Further reading: J. B. Bury, *Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000); Anthony King, *Roman Gaul and Germany* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1990).

Alexander's Advance into Central Asia (329–328 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Alexander's Macedonian forces vs. remnants of the Persian army, Bactrian forces under Bessus, and the Scythians of Sogdiana
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Asia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of Persia and its allies
OUTCOME: The region was conquered, and Alexander used it as a springboard for his conquest of India.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In pursuit of Darius III (d. 330 B.C.E.), king of Persia, who he had defeated, Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.), emperor of Macedon, approached Babylon. He ran Darius to ground, but about 60 Persian nobles, led by Bessus (d. c. 329 B.C.E.), satrap of Bactria, murdered Darius to keep him out of Alexander's hands. Alexander pursued the fleeing remnants of the Persian army. He struck such terror into the hearts of the enemy troops that Babylon fell to him without a fight in 331. From here, he rooted out rebels in the mountains, then destroyed Persepolis, the ancient capital of Persia, and pressed on in pursuit of the murderers of Darius. As he did this, he penetrated Central Asia and continually consolidated his conquests en route.

Alexander advanced relentlessly eastward through Parthia and into Bactria. Here he captured Bessus, who he executed, then turned north and crossed the Oxus, penetrating Sogdiana in Central Asia.

In Sogdiana his forces were repeatedly set upon by savage Scythian tribesmen, especially as his troops traversed the mountain passes south and west of the Jaxartes River. In more than one exchange, Alexander, always in the vanguard of his army, was wounded, once gravely. However, he effected a masterly crossing of the Jaxartes by improvising rafts made of tents stuffed with hay. As the masses of infantry crossed in this manner, other infantrymen covered their comrades, defending against the onslaught of Scythian bowmen along the river bank. Once landed on the opposite shore, Alexander's forces trounced the Scythians. After these tribesmen were neutralized, Alexander led his forces back to Sogdiana to crush a revolt led by Spitamenes (d. 328 B.C.E.), the deposed satrap of the province. The campaign against Spitamenes's rebels consumed nearly a year, but by 328, Sogdiana was firmly within the Macedonian fold, and Alexander launched out into India.

Further reading: Flavius Arrianus, *The Campaigns of Alexander* (New York: Viking, 1976); Peter Green, *Alexander of Macedon, 356–323 B.C.E.: A Historical Biography* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1992).

Alexander's Army, July Mutiny of
(326 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mutiny of Alexander III the Great's Macedonian army
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The mutiny took place in India.
DECLARATION: Appeal of the soldiers, July 326 B.C.E.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The army, exhausted by ceaseless and far-ranging campaigning, wanted to return to Macedonia.
OUTCOME: Without violence, the troops prevailed, and Alexander broke off his Indian conquest.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Alexander's forces, 50,000–60,000 men at this time
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: None

ALEXANDER'S INVASION OF INDIA (328–326 B.C.E.) was ended not by opposition from the enemy, but by the failure of his soldiers to match the passion and endurance of their leader. By July of 326 B.C.E., Alexander had penetrated India as far as the Beas (Hyphasis) River. Here he paused, and his army staged one of the greatest military mutinies of ancient times. Although massive, the mutiny was essentially nonviolent and even respectful. Alexander III the Great understood that the force behind his conquests was the morale of his troops. Violence was not necessary to persuade him to accede to their demand to break off the Indian campaign and return to Macedonia. He recognized that, as a force, they were spent. Alexander began the long march home.

Further reading: Peter Green, *Alexander of Macedon, 356–323 B.C.E.: A Historical Biography* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1992).

Alexander's Campaigns of Consolidation
(335 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Alexander the Great vs. rebels in Thrace and Greece, and the tribes of Illyria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece and lands along the Danube River and the Adriatic Sea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After the assassination of Philip of Macedonia, the system of conquests and alliances he had pieced together threatened to unravel.
OUTCOME: Ascending the throne upon his father's death, Alexander the Great put down a rebellion in Thrace, conquered new lands in Illyria, and destroyed his rivals in Greece itself.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: In Thebes: 6,000 rebels killed, 20,000 sold into slavery
TREATIES: None

At the dawn of the 4th century B.C.E., 50 years before the birth of Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.), the Aegean world was in disarray as a result of the Peloponnese War (*see* PELEPONNESE WAR, FIRST; PELOPENNESE WAR, SECOND). Sparta, which had emerged the victor in a conflict that had pitted Greek against Greek, scourged cities, toppled governments, and devastated Greek economic life, would enjoy only a brief and bloody hegemony before its neighbors—Corinth, Thebes, Argos, and Athens—banded together to fight the Spartans in the CORINTHIAN WAR from 395 to 387 B.C.E. More than a decade of fighting saw Athens rise again as a power, backed by the confederacy called the Athenian League. Thebes, too, having invented a new kind of battle formation called the phalanx, was able to rout a full-scale Spartan attack in 371, only to turn in the eyes of the other Greek city-states from a champion of liberty into an alarming threat. In the coming years alliances would fracture, partners switch sides, and new wars rage from one end of Greece to the other. Athens, campaigning on several fronts, ultimately met with a string of reversals; Thebes again conquered Sparta; new treaties would be signed; but nothing was really solved, and exhaustion alone ended many of the hostilities.

Little wonder, then, that a number of post-Socratic Greek thinkers—Plato, Aristotle, Isocrates—would be pre-

occupied with a better way of governing or that the idea of a confederacy held together by a powerful leader would begin to gain currency. Few of those discussing such matters, however, would have recognized such a paragon in the young Philip II of Macedonia (382–336 B.C.E.), who was then gathering his strength in his backward, mountainous kingdom of rude and dour peasants and brawling, heavy-drinking landowning warriors, despite the claims of his house to be descended from Heracles. Even so, the Macedonian conquered Greece, established the Corinthian League, built a formidable army, and launched an invasion of Persia (*see* PHILIP OF MACEDONIA'S NORTHERN CONQUESTS). Philip was deprived of his victory in Persia when assassinated in a plot by his wife and jealous nobles, but the Greek expedition was carried to success by his son, Alexander. Alexander the Great would come as close as anyone could to being the kind of king the philosophers imagined might rule the ancient world.

Born in Pella, Macedonia, in 356, Alexander, a student of Aristotle, was by 18 commanding a wing of cavalry after Philip used an incident at Delphi as an excuse to invade central Greece (*see* SACRED WAR, THIRD). He was there when his father called an assembly of states at Corinth and announced the rules by which Greece would henceforth be governed. Philip had married Alexander's mother, Olympia, who was the sister of the king of Epirus, at least in part for political reasons. She was determined that her son should succeed Philip, and, after she had engineered Philip's death in 336 B.C.E., Alexander, then 20 years old, became king of Macedonia.

First he had to attend to matters of security at home, liquidate his rivals, and consolidate his political power. No sooner had Philip died than the fabric of conquests and alliances he had carefully woven together showed signs of unravelling. A revolt broke out in Thrace, and Alexander marched north to quell it. Since he was there, he led his phalanxes against the wild tribes of Illyria as well, extending Macedonia's empire to the Danube and west to the Adriatic. Meanwhile, rumors had begun spreading in Greece that Alexander had been killed in battle, and several members of the Corinthian League, led by Thebes, rose in rebellion against Macedonia. Alexander spun around and swept back into Greece, marching the 300 miles from Illyria in 12 days. Standing before the gates of Thebes, he demanded its surrender and, when the rebels refused, razed the city. A total of 6,000 Thebans were slaughtered outright, and 20,000 were sold into slavery. So draconian had been Thebes's punishment that Alexander was, perhaps for the first time in his life, troubled by conscience. After ascending to the throne he made a pilgrimage to Delphi to expiate his guilt, then visited Corinth to revive the Corinthian League and enlist support for the Asian crusade his father had been planning at his death (*see* ALEXANDER'S ADVANCE INTO CENTRAL ASIA).

Further reading: Flavius Arrianus, *The Campaigns of Alexander* (New York: Viking, 1976); Peter Green, *Alexander of Macedon, 356–323 B.C.E.: A Historical Biography* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1992).

Alexander's Invasion of India (327–325 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macedonian Greeks under Alexander the Great vs. various Indian peoples
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of India
OUTCOME: Alexander conquered India as far as the Punjab.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Alexander's forces, 90,000; at the Battle of the Hydaspes (326 B.C.E.), Alexander had 20,000 men, Porus (of India), 35,000.
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of the Hydaspes, the Macedonia Greeks lost 1,000, Porus's army lost 12,000; 9,000 were taken prisoner, including Porus.
TREATIES: None

The forces of Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.) invaded India from their winter camp in the Hindu Kush (the mountainous borderlands of modern Afghanistan and Pakistan), marching south to the Indus River, which they reached in the summer of 327. At the Khyber Pass, near Aornos, Alexander was resisted by rebel highland tribal warriors. They took up positions on a forbidding plateau reaching some 7,000 feet. These refuges seemed impregnable and certainly were to any conventional siege. Alexander quietly had an 800-foot-deep ravine filled, mounted his catapults on the fill, and also used it to access the north face of the plateau. By night, leading 30 men, Alexander scaled the cliff. He then stepped aside to give the men the "honor" of being the first to assault the rebel position. The rebels, however, killed all 30 men by showering them with boulders. Alexander let another night pass and then, when he heard the rebels' victory drums on the third night, he knew that the rebels assumed they had defeated him. He chose this moment to make a surprise attack, which was overwhelming. This victory achieved, Alexander continued down the Indus valley.

His next adversary was a powerful Punjab raja, Porus (fl. fourth century B.C.E.) with some 35,000 men. Alexander met him in battle at the Hydaspes River in May 326 B.C.E. Once again the natural obstacles seemed insurmountable. The river was in flood, raging, and Porus commanded some 200 fierce elephants. Alexander set up his camp defiantly across the river but in full view of the raja. He established a camp routine and deliberately avoided any signs of readying an attack. After some days Porus and his forces were lulled into lowering their guard. Alexander left most of his army in camp and slipped out with just 11,000 of his 20,000 men. He boldly crossed the flooding

river and in a spectacular two-pronged attack defeated Porus's chariots, then attacked the elephants with infantry, who wielded axes against the beasts. In defeat Porus so admired Alexander's skill that he became a friend and ally, willingly serving as his guide down the rest of the Indus.

After the battle, Alexander turned down the Beas River, a tributary of the Indus in northwestern India, eager to press on with his campaign of conquest. His army, however, long away from home, yearned to return to Greece and staged a mutiny in July (*see* ALEXANDER'S ARMY, THE JULY MUTINY OF. Alexander backtracked and on his way home subdued and conquered the Malli people.

Further reading: Flavius Arrianus, *The Campaigns of Alexander* (New York: Viking, 1976); Peter Green, *Alexander of Macedon, 356–323 B.C.E.: A Historical Biography* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1992).

Alexander's Occupation of Egypt
(332–331 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macedonian forces of Alexander III the Great vs. Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Egypt
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Alexander took and occupied Egypt with virtually no resistance.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Minimal
TREATIES: None, save for the recognition of the priests of the Temple of Zeus Ammon

After taking Tyre, Syria, and Palestine, pausing significantly only at the conquest of Gaza (*see* ALEXANDER'S SIEGE OF GAZA), Alexander III the Great entered Egypt. In the face of his overwhelming power, the Egyptians offered little opposition, and he quickly occupied the vast country during December 332 to March 331.

Warfare here was chiefly administrative. He established strong military garrisons in every major Egyptian city, then founded one of his own: Alexandria. It was destined to become the greatest city of the many that bore his name.

To secure sanction of his conquest of Egypt and hegemony over it, Alexander made a long and arduous journey to the Temple of Zeus Amon, at the oasis of Siwa, deep in the Libyan desert. There he was recognized and hailed by the priests as nothing less than the son of Zeus Amon.

Further reading: Flavius Arrianus, *The Campaigns of Alexander* (New York: Viking, 1976); Peter Green, *Alexander of Macedon, 356–323 B.C.E.: A Historical Biography* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1992).

Alexander's Persian Campaign
(334–330 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Greece vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Mediterranean and Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After consolidating the Greek mainland, Alexander the Great launched an invasion of Persia to recapture Greek cities lost in past wars.
OUTCOME: Early victories against Persian emperor Darius III led Alexander to set as his goal the conquest of the entire Persian Empire; by the time of Darius's assassination, Alexander had taken control of roughly half the empire's dominions and styled himself the new "King of Kings," that is, the new emperor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 300,000-plus Persians; initially 35,000 Macedonians
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Issus Alexander lost 450, the Persians approximately 50,000; at Arbolla Alexander lost 500, the Persians, again, some 50,000.
TREATIES: None

Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.) succeeded to the Macedonian throne in 336 B.C.E. after liquidating many of his rivals and consolidating his political power (*see* ALEXANDER'S CAMPAIGNS OF CONSOLIDATION) in the wake of his father's assassination. Once he had the rebellious Greeks under his control, he immediately turned to the Asian crusade that his father, Philip II (382–336 B.C.E.), had been planning almost from the moment Macedonia became the ruling house of the Hellenes.

The idea for an Asian campaign went back at least to the rhetorician Isocrates (436–338 B.C.E.), Plato's great philosophical rival, who had argued that not only should the Greek cities quit quarrelling among themselves and unite under a strong leader, but that they should also turn their combined energies to recapturing Greek cities lost in war to the Persians. Philip had recognized the value of such an expedition, and Alexander, as his son and a pupil of Aristotle, was just as keen on the advantages: punishing the Persians—as was his father's wish—for the GRECO-PERSIAN WARS from 500 to 448 B.C.E. and the Corinthian SOCIAL WAR OF 357 to 355 B.C.E. and uniting Greece against a common enemy, not to mention replenishing Macedonia's bare coffers.

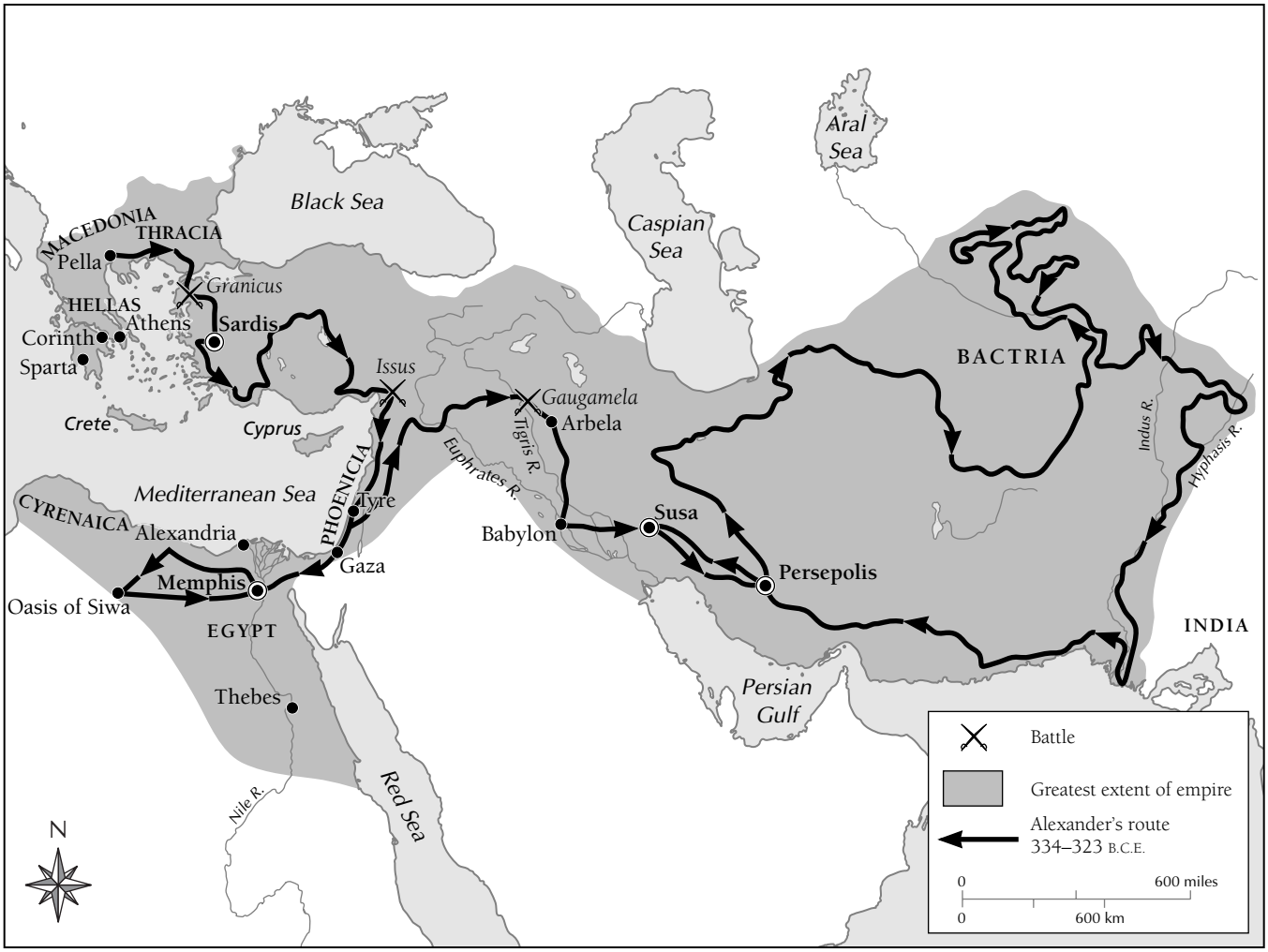
Thus, in the spring of 334 Alexander began the military expeditions that would occupy the rest of his life. Determined to liberate the Greek cities in Asia, he marched out of Pella with 30,000 foot soldiers and 5,000 cavalry, a tiny force with which to assail a continent, but the supremely confident Alexander put his faith in speed and daring. At the Hellespont he left the crossing to his generals

while he steered a course for Troy, there to place a wreath on the grave of Achilles and to take away an ancient Homeric shield, which he bore as a talisman of his prowess.

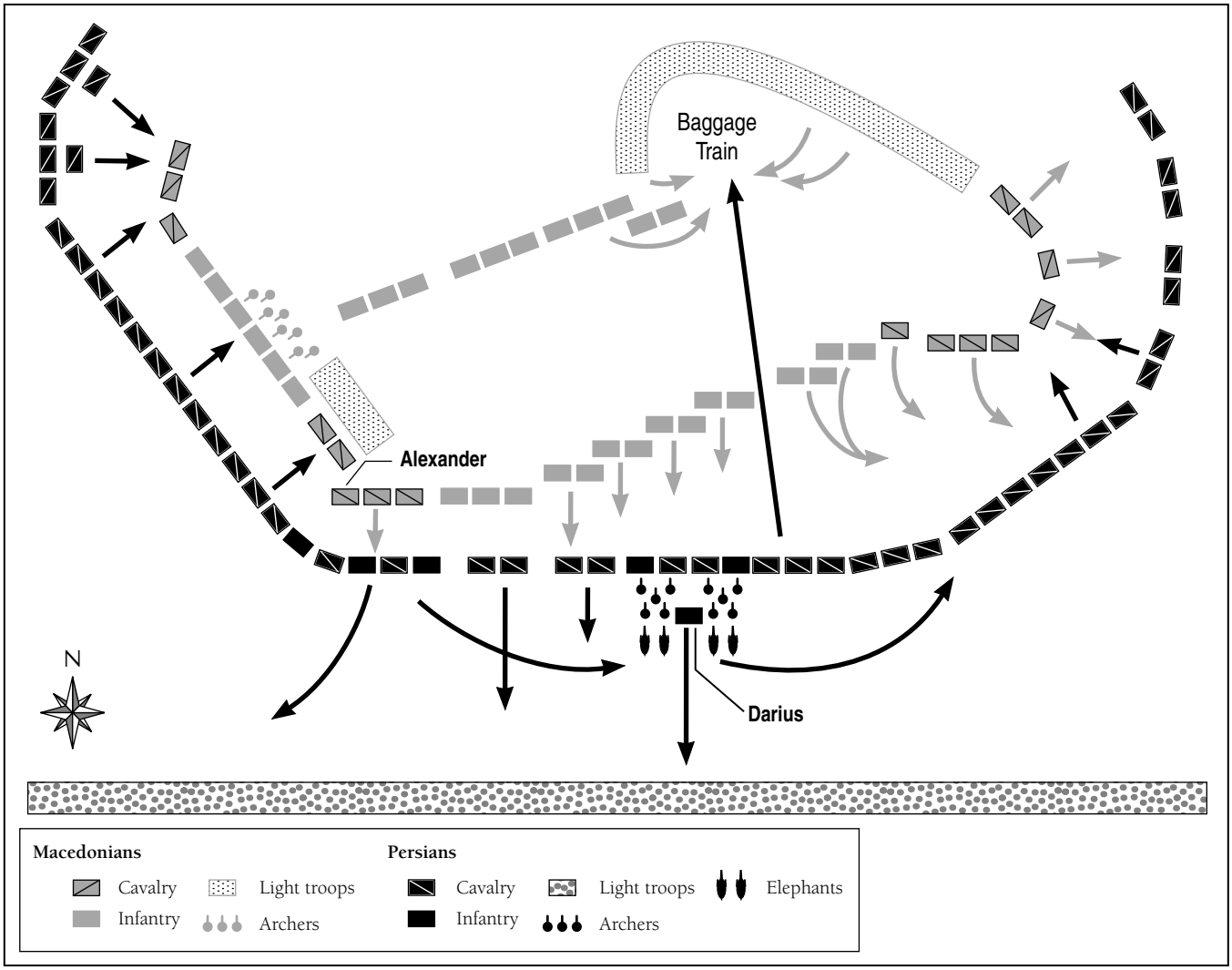
At the first true battle, in 334 B.C.E., he threw his cavalry against a Persian force equal to his own at the river Granicus, and the momentum of the charge carried the day. Alexander led the charge, and in the hand-to-hand combat that followed an enemy spear clanged against his breastplate and a battle-ax split his plumed helmet. However, he never suffered a cut, and the Persians fled, terrified by the sheer fury of the Macedonians. Alexander marched down the Ionian coast, becoming the liberator for whom its Greek-speaking population had prayed. City after city threw open its gates. Several, heavily garrisoned by the Persians, required more force. Miletus, a major Persian naval base, fell after a surprise attack and siege in 334 B.C.E.; Halicarnassus, an important port, also surrendered after a brief siege in 334 B.C.E.

As Alexander pushed east into Asia Minor, the Persian defenders of the narrow pass at the Tarsus Mountains fled at the news of his approach. Alexander followed them out onto the Mediterranean coastal plain above Syria. The Persian emperor, Darius III (d. 330 B.C.E.)—at last aware there was a new threat coming from the west—had mobilized an army of perhaps as many as 300,000, including a number of Greek mercenaries, to check the 35,000 Macedonian troops.

At the Battle of Issus (333 B.C.E.) the Persians encountered a disciplined army that this time relied on superior tactics instead of the speed and boldness Alexander had employed at Granicus. Led by Darius himself, the Persians anchored their defense between the mountains and the sea, a cramped position that left little room for Darius to maneuver his superior numbers. In contrast, Alexander deployed his army to maximum effect, its flanks covered by his quick-moving cavalry and its center secured by its strong Greek phalanxes. As the armies engaged, Alexander spied a weak spot in Darius's line and lanced through it. Watching the battle from the rear in an ornate chariot, Darius saw his line waver, fall back, and then disintegrate.



Empire of Alexander the Great at the time of his death



Battle of Gaugamela (Arbela), 331 B.C.E.

With growing horror the Persian tyrant spied the Macedonian warrior-king astride his legendary horse, Bucephalus, galloping straight for him. Darius fled the field.

Alexander marched south down the coast, taking one Persian stronghold after another. For seven months he besieged the massively fortified city of Tyre, located on an island just offshore (*see* TYRE, SIEGE OF), finally storming the citadel in July 332. He occupied Palestine and Phoenicia (*see* ALEXANDER'S SIEGE OF GAZA), before turning toward Egypt, which he subdued between 332 and 331. There, he was declared a son of Amon, the Egyptians' supreme deity. He founded Alexandria (according to legend at a site based on a description from Homer) but did not linger in Egypt (*see* ALEXANDER'S OCCUPATION OF EGYPT). Returning to Tyre in 331, he then followed the arc of the fertile triangle eastward into Mesopotamia. Darius had seen enough and sent an envoy to sue for peace, offering his daughter in marriage, 10,000 gold talents, and a third of his empire. Alexander, whose ambition had grown mightily since crossing the Hellespont, refused. His goal now was nothing less than the conquest of the entire Persian Empire, with its marvelous vistas of new lands, new cultures, and new riches.

Preparing to meet the Macedonian firebrand at a point east of the Tigris in 331 B.C.E., Darius once more mobilized a massive army, outnumbering Alexander's army perhaps five to one, though the Macedonian had swelled his own army with newly hired mercenaries. This time Darius chose his battle site more carefully. The plain at Gaugamela offered enough open ground to give full range to his greater numbers, and Darius improved the field by plowing it flat. He planned not only to avoid the bottleneck he had suffered at Issus but to use 50 highly mobile chariots specially designed with scythe blades attached to their wheels to grind up and scatter the Greek phalanx. When Alexander arrived at the site his generals urged a surprise night

attack to improve the odds. But their commander refused to "steal" a victory and retired to his tent for the night, there to plan a special assault that relied on the superior speed and discipline of his own men while also taking into account what he had come to learn about Darius's temperament.

As the battle commenced on the following morning, Alexander deployed his cavalry obliquely to the right in an effort to throw the enemy line off balance. The maneuver worked: Taken in by the ruse, Darius ordered his troops to follow. Many soon found themselves stumbling about in the rough terrain just beyond Darius's carefully prepared battlefield. Meanwhile, Darius had ordered his chariots forward against the Macedonian phalanxes advancing in the center. Suddenly, however, the flood of the Greek advance parted. The scythed chariots shot through the opening ranks of the phalanxes, thundering harmlessly to the Greek rear, where Alexander's waiting cavalry dealt with them. As the Greek historian Plutarch (46–after 119) described it, scarcely a Macedonian was killed or injured. Instead, Alexander, waiting for the moment he knew would come, charged through the Persian line when it momentarily thinned. Once again Alexander led the charge; once again he aimed directly for Darius's imperial chariot; once again Darius's nerve failed him; and—as at Issus—he turned tail and ran.

The utterly humiliated Darius retreated to Medina, his empire crumbling behind him, as Alexander drove forward from one Persian city to the next, meeting at best only scattered resistance. Babylon not only threw open its golden gates to him in 331, but staged a month-long festival in honor of the conqueror. Susa quickly capitulated the same year. When a local satrap attempted to hold his ground near Persepolis, Alexander not only overran the Persian troops but allowed his own soldiers a rare bout of pillaging. When Alexander captured Persepolis in 330 B.C.E. he took possession of the main treasury of the Persian Empire as well as its spiritual heart, the ceremonial seat where vassal lords assembled annually to pay tribute to the Basileus, the King of Kings. As he had with Troy at the Hellespont, Alexander paid tribute to Persia's great warrior tradition by visiting the tomb of Cyrus the Great (590/580–c. 529), founder of the empire, at Pasargade.

As Alexander remained some months in Persepolis, resting his troops and attending to state business, he began showing signs of Persian influence in his dress and leadership. His growing "orientalism" disturbed his troops, used to a close camaraderie with their commander and already upset with the mercenaries Alexander had hired, who the Macedonians felt were diluting the army's character. Alexander, on the other hand, was trying to put on the mantle of a great ruler of a world empire. By now he had been in Asia Minor for some four years, and at 26 he had conquered roughly half the Persian Empire. It would take him eight years to subdue the vast eastern expanses that made up the rest (*see* ALEXANDER'S ADVANCE INTO CENTRAL ASIA. For now he concentrated on running Darius to ground, nearly capturing him by the Caspian Sea. But when Darius was murdered in 330 by Bessus, a rebellious Persian satrap and cousin of Darius, Alexander draped Darius's corpse with his own robe and ordered a royal funeral. A year later he would capture Bessus and crucify him. Meanwhile—much to the chagrin of his fellow Greeks—Alexander had *himself* declared King of Kings before going to winter quarters near the Hindu Kush.

Further reading: Flavius Arrianus, *The Campaigns of Alexander* (New York: Viking, 1976); Peter Green, *Alexander of Macedon, 356–323 B.C.E.: A Historical Biography* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1992); Peter Green, *The Greco-Persian Wars* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1998).

Alexander's Siege of Gaza (332 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Alexander III the Great vs. forces under Bah's, the Persian governor of Gaza
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaza, Palestine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Alexander conquered Gaza by means of titanic military engineering.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 332 B.C.E. Alexander III the Great laid siege to the Phoenician seaport of Tyre. While he apportioned his main force to this work, he sent a lesser army to seize the rest of Syria and Palestine. So overawed were the peoples of these regions that they capitulated without resistance—except in the case of Gaza.

In the face of fierce resistance at Gaza, Alexander personally led his main force there and began a new siege. The brief war against Gaza was marked by the construction of one of the greatest military siege projects of all time. Alexander transformed the landscape by raising a spectacular earthen mound 250 feet high with a circumference of a quarter mile at its base. On this artificial hill he mounted his ballistae and catapults. Thus, he did not *attain* the high ground, he *made* it, and within two months Gaza, under ceaseless bombardment, fell. His troops stormed the breached walls of Gaza and ruthlessly sacked it.

Further reading: Flavius Arrianus, *The Campaigns of Alexander* (New York: Viking, 1976); Peter Green, *Alexander of Macedon, 356–323 B.C.E.: A Historical Biography* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1992).

Alexander's Spartan Revolt *See* SPARTAN REVOLT.

Alexandrian Revolt *See* BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656).

Alexandrian Succession, War of the *See* DIADOCHI, WARS OF THE.

Algerian-French Wars *See* ABD EL-KADER, WARS OF.

Algerian-Moroccan War (1963–1964)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Algeria vs. Morocco
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Algerian and Moroccan border regions in the Atlas Mountains and Sahara Desert
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In a dispute over borders, both countries sought control over the regions in question.
OUTCOME: The disputed areas were divided by treaty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Algeria, 300 killed; Morocco, 200 killed
TREATIES: Organization of African States cease-fire, 1964

France pulled out of Morocco in 1956 and Algeria in 1962 (*see* ALGERIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE), leaving its two former colonies to contend with the problems of self-government and modernization in the 20th century. In the first flush of freedom both countries proclaimed a bond of unity, steeped in the ancient history of their Muslim pasts, in their common heritage as desert border kingdoms, and in their bloodsoaked struggles for independence from France. But because France had controlled the region for so long the 700 or so miles of uninhabited Maghrib Desert running southwest of Bechar all the way to Tindouf that served as a frontier between the two countries proved to be more a source of friction than of bonding. As master of both colonies, France never bothered to map accurately the desolate borderlands nor to appropriate it for one country or the other. In the separation from Algeria, France established the border between its former colonies without consulting either, and neither was happy with the result.

Almost immediately following independence in 1962, Algeria's president Ahmed Ben Bella (b. c. 1918) demanded the border be adjusted. Morocco ignored the demand and sent military forces to the disputed area to protect its claims. Algeria soon followed suit, and when its troops reached the Maghrib the vaunted North African unity disappeared. In its stead lay a vast ideological expanse between the conservative historical monarchy in Morocco and the revolutionary socialists in Algeria. By the summer of 1963 the Moroccan government was accusing Algeria of engaging in a series of acts undiplomatic at best and at worst seriously provocative. The most serious of the charges imputed that Ben Bella's government had aided and abetted an attempted coup d'état against the monarchy. The botched coup was real enough, Algeria's role in it less certain. Ben Bella scoffed at the accusations, and Algeria prepared for war.

Hostilities broke out on October 13, 1963, sparking a bitter border war along the disputed frontier in the Atlas Mountains–Sahara Desert region. It remains unclear who fired the first shot or what overt act precipitated the fighting, but the war saw several sharp battles in the desert in which hundreds were killed. The war was a rather one-sided affair, with the Moroccans dominating the fighting at Hassi-Beida, Tindouf, and Figuig, although they were unable to seize and hold a clear advantage. Alarmed at the severity of the combat and the hatred with which the two countries were proceeding, the nascent Organization of African Unity (OAU), led by Ethiopian emperor Haile Selassie (1891–1975) and Mali's president Modibo Keita (1915–77), attempted to broker a peace settlement.

A cease-fire was arranged in February 1964, but the dispute was hardly settled, and a deep-seated enmity developed between the two countries. Not surprisingly, the border war flared again in 1967. When Spain pulled out of the Spanish Sahara in 1976 (*see* SPANISH SAHARAN WAR), both Morocco and Algeria developed designs on the newly independent state of Western Sahara, though neither seemed willing to fight especially hard for control of the desert nation. The decidedly low-key military dispute proved no more conclusive than the earlier border skirmishes, and both countries eventually abandoned their attempts to incorporate Western Sahara, at length agreeing to a treaty that divided the formerly disputed border regions between them.

Further reading: Hugh Roberts, *The Battlefield: Algeria 1988–2002, Studies in a Broken Polity* (London and New York: Verso Books, 2003); Martin Stone, *The Agony of Algeria* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1997); Benjamin Stora, *Algeria, 1830–2000: A Short History* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 2001).

Algerian War of Independence (1954–1962)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Algerian nationalists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Algeria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Algerian rebels sought independence from France, which fought to defend its colonial hegemony.
OUTCOME: Algeria won independence, and many French military leaders, especially in the army, were discredited.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 500,000; Algeria, 40,000 troops, plus at least 21,000 guerrillas and terrorists
CASUALTIES: Approximately 1,000,000 total, including civilians
TREATIES: Treaty of Evian, March 18, 1962 (France and National Liberation Front) and cease-fire of May 19, 1962

A French colony since 1847 (*see* ABD EL-KADER, THIRD WAR OF) Algeria renewed its efforts toward independence as soon as World War II ended in 1945. By 1949 the demand turned violent, and in a skirmish between nationalists and French colonial troops at Oran more than 1,000 Algerians and 88 French were killed. Afterward, the Algerian nationalists splintered into factions, which organized political arms and sought to attract revolutionary leaders. One of the more charismatic and powerful of those leaders was Ahmed Ben Bella (b. c. 1918).

Ben Bella's underground revolutionary activities garnered him the attention of the French authorities, and he was forced to flee to Cairo in 1952. From there, and with the tacit support of Egyptian president Gamal Abdul Nasser (1918–70), Ben Bella formed the Revolutionary Committee of Unity and Action (CRUA), which immediately began preparing for armed insurrection in Algeria. Between March and October of 1954, it created an effective military organization by dividing the country into six military regions, which allowed CRUA to make better use of localized forces and gave a semblance of order and discipline that helped when seeking foreign support and military aid. In October CRUA changed its name to the National Liberation Front (FLN) and that of its military arm to the National Liberation Army (ALN). While the FLN, under the influence of Ben Bella and others, ran the revolutionary struggle politically from Cairo, the ALN fought the revolution on the ground in Algeria.

At dawn on November 1, 1954, FLN guerrillas raided French military installations, police stations, communications facilities, and public utilities throughout the country. From Cairo the FLN broadcast a message to the people of Algeria demanding a unified struggle against the French colonials. They sought, said the FLN, to restore the Algerian state to the social democratic framework of its past. The French response was swift and decisive. Minister of the Interior (later French prime minister) François Mitterrand (1916–96) declared "the only possible negotiation is war." The French had not learned the painful lessons of Indochina, where they had suffered one of the worst military defeats in history at Dien Bien Phu (Dienbienphu) almost a year to the day before the Algerian uprising (*see* FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR [1946–1954]).

Within Algeria the FLN was now the predominant rebel faction, and as its power became more obvious almost all the other revolutionary and nationalist groups courted its leaders and offered their support. The one exception was the National Algerian Movement (MNA), which opposed the FLN at every step, seeking to gain control of Algeria through its own campaign of violent revolutionary activity. The more experienced revolutionaries of the FLN quickly tracked down and destroyed the MNA guerrillas, which would have effectively closed down the MNA organization had it not gained a sizable following among Algerian workers in France. The Union of Algerian Workers became a potent terrorist arm of the MNA in France. To combat the MNA's growing influence over the Algerian struggle, the FLN organized its own Paris-based organization, resulting in the so-called cafe wars, during which the two factions battled each other on the streets of Paris.

In 1956, with the FLN now firmly in control of the revolution, its leadership began a violent liquidation of all those it considered potential traitors, which meant in effect any Algerian deemed acceptable to the French community. The escalation in terror caused French loyalists, known as "colons," to form vigilante groups. With the passive cooperation of the local police, colon vigilantes launched operations in the countryside against suspected FLN strongholds. They demanded the declaration of a state of emergency from Paris and the imposition of capital punishment for politically motivated crimes. In 1956 the colons pressured the French government to replace Algeria's governor general, and Paris succumbed, bringing in Robert Lacoste (1898–1989). Lacoste attempted to rule by decree, granting the army exceedingly broad police powers, stepping up military action, and giving commanders an increasingly free hand, all measures not only of dubious legality but also ones that had failed to work in Indochina. What upset the colons, however, was Lacoste's proposed measures to limit Algeria's autonomy, which called for dividing the country into five districts, each governed by an elected territorial assembly. Although Algeria as a whole would remain a French colony controlled from Paris, the colons objected to what they judged a dangerous level of home role.

France, meanwhile, began to take a hard line toward those outside Algeria supporting the FLN, particularly in Egypt. France joined Great Britain in the Suez Canal campaign of November 1956, aimed at deposing Nasser. Although the Anglo-French campaign failed, the intent was clear enough, and relations between France and Egypt were severely damaged by the exploit. A month earlier, in September, there had been yet another indication of the new French hard line and its effectiveness. Ben Bella and the other hard-core leaders of the FLN boarded a plane for Morocco where they would meet with Sultan Mohammed V and Tunisian premier Habib Bourguiba to solicit support for the FLN. En route the pilot turned the plane around and landed instead in Algiers, where it was surrounded by French troops. The FLN leaders were imprisoned for the rest of the war.

By 1957 the ALN had evolved from a small, ill-equipped, undermanned force into a disciplined, organized, strong army of about 40,000 troops. In 1956 and 1957 the ALN perfected the classic tactics of guerrilla warfare, striking small targets at night in ambushes or surprise raids. FLN terrorists also exercised a ruthless revenge on civilians suspected of collaborating with the French or those in the revolutionary movement whose zeal was insufficient or whose consciences were too strong to allow them to execute ritual killings and mutilations when so ordered. During the first two years of the war, more than 7,000 civilians were murdered. Although the majority of Algerians certainly feared the FLN, that fear did not always translate into support, even within the Muslim community, which was thoroughly committed to independence by whatever means necessary.

In an effort to take the fighting directly to the French merchants and the French-controlled government, the FLN began a systematic campaign of urban terrorism within Algeria that hit almost every large city in the country but was specifically aimed at the capital of Algiers. The so-called Battle of Algiers commenced in the summer of 1956 and continued for several months, averaging more than 800 terrorist attacks a month. While the Battle of Algiers raged, the FLN staged general strikes within the Muslim workforce to coincide with debates on Algeria in the United Nations General Assembly. To save Algerian cities from complete paralysis, the French launched a ruthless and indiscriminate crackdown, and their brutal methods brought many more Muslims into the FLN fold. At the same time they also caused French citizens at home to question their government's continued role in North Africa.

By 1956 the French could no longer credibly claim they were engaged in a campaign of pacification. France had deployed more than 400,000 troops—army, navy, and air force—to the region, and both the rest of the world and, more importantly, the French public saw the Algerian conflict as a full-scale colonial war. With the defeat of fascism in World War II and the subsequent breakup of the traditional European empires, colonialism had gone out of favor with the general public and was increasingly looked upon by average citizens as greedy and unconscionable. Now, more than a decade after fighting a war in Indochina that resulted in its having to be rescued by its powerful allies, France remained the only European power attempting to hold on to its imperial past. Worse yet, it was doing a frighteningly poor job of it.

Refusing to grant Algerian independence, Paris became determined to crush the revolution in any way possible. The French command, now led by General Raoul Salan (1899–1984), hoped to bring the FLN to its knees in the outlying areas, thereby robbing it of both political and material support. Late in 1957 Salan developed the system of *quadrillage,* whereby the country was divided into four quadrants with large permanent garrisons stationed in each to keep track of FLN and ALN activity. The move was successful in dramatically suppressing rebel terrorism, but it tied up a significant portion of the army, so that many troops were now unavailable to pursue and destroy the rebels moving about the country out of range of the permanent garrisons. In addition, the French began their own program of coercion and harrassment in the Algerian villages, brutally enforcing collective security in areas they believed friendly to the rebels. Those Algerians, mostly peasants, who failed to comply with the security arrangements were punished either by execution or by saturation bombing. France also instituted a program of relocation in instances in which the coercion and harassment were unsuccessful. From 1957 to 1960 more than 2 million Algerians were relocated by the French and hundreds of villages destroyed. It was all a grim harbinger of the United States's involvement in Vietnam (*see* VIETNAM WAR) in the following decades—and the parallels would continue.

The system of *quadrillage* obviously failing, Salan was replaced in the fall of 1958 by General Maurice Challe (1905–79). Challe's tactical plan was one of search and destroy; he would worry about the village people later. Though Challe appeared, at least initially, to be enjoying some success, others in the military had plans of their own. Many within the military hierarchy dreaded what might well become the fourth military disaster for the French army in the past half century—the others being the French military's performance against German invasions in WORLD WAR I and WORLD WAR II and against the communists in Vietnam. Wary that a precipitate troop pullout from the quadrants would only endanger the remaining forces, as at Dien Bien Phu, as well as sacrifice the already heavily damaged French honor and its sense of *élan,* the military hierarchy decided it would take matters into its own hands. On the night of May 13, 1958, the military staged a coup in Algeria and deposed the civil government, instituting the Committee on Public Safety (CPS) led by General Jacques Massu (1908–2002) and Salan. The CPS demanded that Charles de Gaulle (1890–1970) return to power in Paris and that he prevent the abandonment of Algeria.

In Paris, Premier Pierre Pflimlin (1907–2000) demanded that aid be cut to the military, but the National Assembly refused to act. The French people seemed enthralled with this show of patriotic nationalism, bringing back memories of what was popularly regarded as a more glorious past. De Gaulle was appointed president on June 1 and given carte blanche powers to deal with Algeria. He called on the FLN leadership to agree to a ceasefire so representatives could be elected to discuss Algeria's future. The FLN quickly rejected de Gaulle's offer, and for good reason. While Challe's new search and destroy policies may have allowed the French army to turn the military momentum against the insurgents, everyone realized that only a protracted and costly effort could completely

root out the guerrillas. And a long war was something that the French electorate would not tolerate and that France's elected officials could not afford.

External pressures were also beginning to mount against France, including demands from the United Nations for a resolution of the conflict. NATO allies resented having to assume France's NATO duties, because its military was committed to Algeria. In September 1959 de Gaulle abandoned his previous position and announced that he would give consideration to Algerian self-determination. However, it was not until January 1961 that de Gaulle called for a referendum to give him a free hand in dealing with the FLN. The referendum passed, but before official communication could open between de Gaulle and the FLN, a directorate of generals, led by Salan, Challe, and Edmond Jouhaud (1905–95), staged an insurrection in April known as "the General's Putsch."

The putsch brought to public attention the existence of the well-armed Secret Army Organization (OAS), run by a cadre of army officers intent on hanging onto Algeria at any cost and who had been secretly coordinating colon activity. As rumors spread throughout France of a military takeover of the homeland itself, perhaps even a return to the monarchy, the French people and the government panicked. De Gaulle called up reservists and surrounded the National Assembly with tanks to defend it against an OAS attack. The fear was exaggerated, at least as far as France was concerned. Both the air force and the navy refused to cooperate with the OAS, and loyal French forces seized Salan in Algeria. The putsch failed, and within four days Challe was captured and sentenced to a lengthy prison term but escaped and continued to direct the OAS terrorist activities. As the French-OAS war continued, the Algerian rebel leaders and French officials sat down in May for talks that resulted in a French promise to end all offensive operations within Algeria. Eventually, the two sides agreed to a cease-fire set for March 19, 1962, and to a referendum for all Algerians to vote on independence. Before the referendum could take place, the OAS renewed its terrorist activities. Literally hundreds of bombings took place daily in Algiers, and thousands were killed in perhaps the most brutal chapter of the war. Challe and Jouhaud were finally captured, and the OAS ended operations in mid-June.

On July 1, 1962, more than 92 percent of the Algerian people voted in the referendum, and they voted overwhelmingly for independence. Two days later Charles de Gaulle proclaimed Algeria an independent country. The war had cost nearly a million lives, and almost a million and a half colons—having lost their citizenship—fled Algeria for France. Only a few of the colons had been born in the mother country and most had never even seen it.

Further reading: Mouloud Feraoun, *Journal, 1955–1962: Reflections on the French-Algerian War* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 2000); Hugh Roberts, *The Battlefield: Algeria 1988–2002, Studies in a Broken Polity* (London and New York: Verso Books, 2003); Martin Stone, *The Agony of Algeria* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1997); Benjamin Stora, *Algeria, 1830–2000: A Short History* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 2001); Martin Windrow, *The Algerian War, 1954–1962* (London: Osprey, 1998).

Algerine War (1815)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States vs. Algerian corsairs (pirates)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Barbary Coast of Algiers
DECLARATION: Dey of Algiers declared war because he was not receiving enough tribute money from U.S. shipping interests.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Piracy against U.S. shipping vessels in the Mediterranean
OUTCOME: The U.S. capture of an Algerian flagship forced Algerians to agree to release American prisoners, establish a neutral zone for shipping, and compensate U.S. shipping interests for losses incurred.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: U.S. sent 10 vessels
CASUALTIES: American, 4 killed, 10 wounded; Algerian corsairs, 53 killed, 500 taken prisoner
TREATIES: Treaty of Algiers, June 30, 1815

American trade in the Mediterranean in the 19th century was dependent on safe passage through the waters of Barbary states of Algiers, Morocco, Tripoli, and Tunis. Piracy against U.S. shipping had been a problem since President Thomas Jefferson's (1743–1826) TRIPOLITAN WAR, fought, in part, over the seizure of the American warship *Philadelphia* in 1804. That dispute was formally settled in 1805, but lingering anti-American sentiment remained, and in 1815 another war broke out between Algerian pirates and the United States.

The WAR OF 1812 monopolized the resources of the U.S. Navy, forcing merchant ships to sail the hostile Barbary seas without protection. Piracy and impressment escalated during the period of the war, and the navy, its hands full, was unable to respond. Immediately after the War of 1812, President James Madison (1751–1836) dispatched Commodore Stephen Decatur (1779–1820) with 10 vessels to the Barbary Coast for the purpose of once again securing safe passage for American vessels. In 1815 Decatur captured the Algerian flagship *Machuda,* which forced the Algerians to the bargaining table. A treaty was concluded that guaranteed the release of all American prisoners and established a neutral zone for shipping. The Algerians also agreed to compensation for losses incurred and to bring to an end the practice of collecting tribute.

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Algonquian-Dutch War (1641–1645)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dutch New Amsterdam vs. Algonquian (Mahican, Raritan, Wappinger) Indians of the northern Atlantic seacoast
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vicinity of present-day New York, Staten Island, and Hackensack, New Jersey
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Dutch sought to tax, that is, demand tribute, from the Indian tribes living in the vicinity of their growing settlement of New Amsterdam, which the Indians refused to pay.
OUTCOME: An atrocity-filled four years ended with a Dutch-imposed peace.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In 1644 Indian strength was estimated at 1,500; Dutch numbers unknown.
CASUALTIES: In 1645 Indian casualties reached approximately 1,600 killed; Dutch losses were fewer than 100.
TREATIES: Treaty of August 1645

The Indian policy of Dutch colonists in America vacillated between aggression and cruelty on the one hand and timid defensiveness on the other. Henry Hudson (c. 1565–1611), an Englishman sailing for the Dutch, discovered the river that bears his name in 1609. Five years later Fort Nassau, a trading post, was built on Castle Island near Albany, the country of the Mahican Indians, with whom the Dutch struck a trade agreement in 1618. Fort Nassau was flooded out and abandoned in 1617, but the Dutch West Indies Company, formed in 1621, built Fort Orange on the site of Albany in 1624. From here the Dutch conducted trade with the various Indian tribes in the region for decades, encouraging rivalries that spawned intertribal warfare, often made one-sided by the possession of Dutch firearms (*see* BEAVER WARS; MOHAWK-MAHICAN WAR). Despite the mutually profitable relations between them, the Dutch did not treat any of the Indian tribes well. In 1660, for example, Mohawk chiefs petitioned Fort Orange magistrates "to forbid the Dutch to molest the Indians as heretofore by kicking, beating, and assaulting them, in order that we may not break the old friendship which we have enjoyed for more than thirty years." Even so, Indian relations with the Dutch were generally more peaceful than were those with the Spanish and English.

More serious crises developed whenever greater numbers of Dutch colonists began to turn from trade to farming as the stock of beaver, the Indians' principal trade commodity, became depleted along the coast. Farming required the acquisition of Indian land, and by 1639, when Willem Kieft (1597–1647) replaced Wouter Van Twiller (fl. 1632–40) as governor of New Netherland, annexing territory became a high priority for the colony. Kieft imposed heavy taxes, which amounted to tribute, on the Algonquian tribes in the vicinity of New Amsterdam (Manhattan) and Long Island. Indian resentment was already high by 1641, when Dutch livestock destroyed Raritan Indian cornfields on Staten Island. The Raritans retaliated with raids, and Governor Kieft, in turn, offered a bounty on Raritan scalps.

The next year a wheelwright named Claes Rademaker was murdered by an Indian in revenge for the killing of the Indian's uncle, who settlers had robbed of his pelts. Reacting to the killing, Kieft marched a small army through the villages near New Amsterdam, hoping that the show of force would intimidate the Indians. This mission failed because, marching at night, the small force soon lost its way.

Kieft, however, remained eager for action. His own council of patroons advised against engaging in hostilities because the colony was not large enough to carry on a war. Ignoring the council's advice, Kieft determined to teach the Indians a lesson. In February 1643 the Mohawks—armed by their still active trading partners, the Dutch—terrorized the Wappinger Indians in an effort to extort tribute from them. The Wappingers fled to Pavonia (present-day Jersey City, New Jersey) and New Amsterdam. They pleaded with Kieft to grant them protection. Not only did the governor refuse to protect the Wappingers, he deliberately turned the Mohawks loose on them. Warriors killed some 70 Wappingers and enslaved others.

There was more to come. On February 24 Kieft announced that he intended "to *wipe the mouths* of the Indians." During the night of February 25–26 the governor dispatched Dutch soldiers to Pavonia to finish off the Wappinger refugees, mostly women and children, who even the legendarily fierce Mohawks had refused to harm. The night of murder and atrocity that ensued would become infamous as the "Slaughter of the Innocents." Troops returned to New Amsterdam bearing the severed heads of 80 Indians, which soldiers and citizens kicked, football-fashion, through the village streets. Also, 30 prisoners who were taken alive were publicly tortured to death.

The massive Indian retaliations that followed the massacre came as no surprise to anyone except Kieft. Outlying farms were hardest hit, but New Amsterdam was attacked as well, prompting Kieft to order the town's northern boundary fortified with the wall from which Wall Street takes its name. In March 1643 a panic-stricken Kieft parleyed with the Indians, offering them presents, which were indignantly refused. On October 1, 1643, nine Indians came to a small fort at Pavonia, where three or four

soldiers were stationed to protect a local farmer. Pretending to be friendly, the Indians gained entry into the fort, then killed the soldiers and the farmer, taking the farmer's stepson as a captive. They next burned all the houses of Pavonia.

As the fires spread through Pavonia, so the general uprising spread to Indian tribes from Delaware Bay to the Connecticut River. Settlers fled from the outlying settlements of New Netherland to New Amsterdam, which effectively lay under siege for more than a year. Only the Mohawks, still hoping to enjoy trade, refrained from participating in the war.

Dutch authorities hired the English soldier John Underhill (d. 1672), who had distinguished himself in New England's PEQUOT WAR, to lead retaliatory raids against Indian villages. The combat degenerated into a war of attrition, and by 1644 the Indians had had enough. The siege of New Amsterdam was lifted, and the Dutch imposed a peace in August 1645.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Alan Gallay, ed., *Colonial; Wars of North America 1512–1763* (New York: Garland, 1996); David J. Weber, *The Spanish Frontier in North American* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1992).

Allies, Wars of the

See SOCIAL WAR (357–355 B.C.E.); SOCIAL WAR (219–217 B.C.E.); SOCIAL WAR (91–88 B.C.E.).

Almohad Conquest of Muslim Spain
(1146–1172)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Almohad Muslims vs. Almoravid Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Almohads sought to achieve control of Muslim Spain.
OUTCOME: The Almohads defeated and displaced the powerful Almoravids.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Before the 11th century, northwest Africa was ruled by a wide variety of Berber chieftains. By mid-century, however, the Almoravid (also called the Murabit) sect of Muslim Berbers rose up in a campaign of conquest, seizing control of Morocco and much of Algeria, then proceeding north to conquer Muslim Spain as well as parts of central Spain, which had been recently Christianized (*see* ALMORAVID CONQUEST OF MUSLIM SPAIN). In the meantime, in northwestern Africa a rival sect, the Almohads, increased in power, establishing a strong and highly militant religious confederation by 1125. Today, the Almohads might be described as a "fundamentalist" sect. They advocated a return to strict observance of the articles of the Muslim faith, a position that appealed to many Spanish Muslims, who felt that their Almoravid overlords had strayed from the true faith. Accordingly, the Almohads found strong support for their invasion of southern Spain in May 1146.

In quick succession Tarifa and Algeciras fell to the Almohads. From here Abd al-Mumin (c. 1094–1163) led the Almohads farther north and proclaimed himself ruler of Muslim Spain in 1146. He forced the Almoravids out of Seville in January 1147, then compelled the surrender of Córdoba and Jaén.

As Almohad influence grew stronger, Almohad Spanish forces were augmented by troops from Africa, and in 1153 Málaga fell to the Almohads, followed by Granada in 1154. Almería, to which Abd al-Mumin laid siege, also capitulated.

Throughout the 1150s Mohammad ibn-Mardanish (1147–72), who ruled Moorish Murcia, a kingdom of southern Spain, led resistance against the Almohad conquerors. Abd al-Mumin was compelled to attend to uprisings and rebellion in northern Africa in 1158–59 and left the continued subjugation of Spain to his sons, one of whom, Abu Yaqub Yusuf (r. 1163–1184), was destined to succeed his father. It was not until 1162 that they finally defeated ibn-Mardanish at Granada and, in 1165, near Murcia. These defeats compelled ibn-Mardanish's followers to sue for peace with the Almohads. When he died in 1172 ibn-Mardanish himself told his followers to accept Almohad rule. This signaled the successful conclusion of the Almohad conquest of Muslim Spain, modern Andalusia.

Further reading: Roger Le Tourneau, *The Almohad Movement in North Africa in the Twelfth and Thirteenth Centuries* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1969).

Almoravid Conquest of Muslim Spain
(1086–1094)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Almoravid Muslims (originally allied with the emirs of Seville, Granada, Badajoz, and Málaga) vs. Castile and Léon
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Originally an alliance to oppose Castile and Léon, the action evolved into an Almoravid war of conquest.
OUTCOME: Southern Iberia fell under Almoravid domination.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As Alfonso VI (1030–1109), king of Castile and Léon, grew strong in the late 11th century, the emirs of Seville, Granada, Málaga, and Badajoz forged an alliance with the Almoravids, a Muslim Berber sect based in North Africa. The alliance was a gamble, because it put the Almoravids in a position from which they might dominate their allies, but the emirs believed that the threat posed by Alfonso was even greater.

In June 1086 Almoravid forces under the leadership of Yusuf ibn-Tashfin (d. 1106) landed at Algeciras, Spain, where they rendezvoused with armies from Seville, Granada, and Málaga. From Algeciras the combined forces marched north toward Badajoz. At Zallaqa, near Badajoz, Alfonso (allied with Aragonese troops) engaged the Almoravid forces and their allies on October 23, 1088. The battle was one-sided because much-needed Aragonese reinforcements were delayed. For the moment, then, the Almoravids had triumphed, and Yusuf ibn-Tashfin, Almoravid leader, returned in triumph to North Africa.

Soon after this victory, however, the great military leader of Spanish Christians, El Cid (c. 1043–1099), successfully counterattacked the Muslim positions. Yusuf ibn-Tashfin returned to Spain in June 1089, but he was soon forced to retreat to Morocco. After regrouping and refitting his forces there, he returned again to Spain and scored victories in Málaga and Granada by 1091, this time against the emirs, his former allies. When Yusuf attacked Seville, the emirs called on *their* former enemy, Alfonso, for aid. He responded but failed to prevent the fall of Seville to the Almoravids in November 1091. Three years later Badajoz was conquered as well. Except for Valencia, where El Cid was triumphant, the Almoravids held all of southern Spain by 1094.

See also CID'S CONQUEST OF VALENCIA, THE.

Further reading: Olivia Remie Constable, ed., *Medieval Iberia: Readings from Christian, Muslim, and Jewish Sources* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1997); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Medieval Spains* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

Almoravid Conquest of West Africa (1054–1076)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Almoravids vs. West African peoples
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): West Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Almoravids sought to conquer West Africa.
OUTCOME: The Almoravids overran West Africa and controlled it through the early 1100s; in the Ghana Empire, Almoravid control was clearly less than absolute.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During 1054–1056, the Tuaregs, a Berber people of the Sahara, under the leadership of Yana ibn Omar (fl. 1050–1076), conquered most of the oases of the western Sahara. From this basis Omar established the Almoravid confederation of Berber tribes, including the Lamtūnan, Gudālah, and Massūfah. They were united in their militant adherence to Islam and a desire for stringent religious reform.

While best known for their conquest of Morocco and western Algeria, beginning in 1054 the Almoravids also invaded West Africa, subjugating one tribal group after another. The culminating conquest was the invasion, occupation, and sacking of Kumbi Saleh, the capital of the Ghana Empire, in 1076. Although Omar forced the conversion of the West African rulers to Islam during the period of his conquests, the Almoravids either never tried or never fully succeeded in totally subjugating the people of Ghana, who continued to worship their ancestors and traditional agricultural spirits. By 1076 the Almoravids controlled most of northwestern Africa and, apparently, even arrived at a modus vivendi with Ghana. However, Almoravid influence over Ghana waned during the early years of the 12th century. This was not accompanied by a rise in Ghanian power, however, and, indeed, the Ghanian influence throughout West Africa also began to diminish by the early 1100s.

Further reading: Olivia Remie Constable, ed., *Medieval Iberia: Readings from Christian, Muslim, and Jewish Sources* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1997); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Medieval Spains* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

American Civil War

See UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR.

American-French Quasi-War (1798–1800)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Atlantic waters off New Jersey coast and the Caribbean
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The United States sought to defend its rights as a neutral in the war between France and Britain.
OUTCOME: Franco-American amity restored; U.S. freedom of navigation ensured

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: U.S. Navy, about 1,000; U.S. privateers, about 7,000; French strength unknown.
CASUALTIES: Official U.S. losses, 22 killed, 36 wounded; French, 113 killed, 169 wounded.
TREATIES: Convention between the French Republic and the United States of America, September 30, 1800

Friction between France and the United States, close allies during the AMERICAN REVOLUTION (1775–83), developed during the course of the peace negotiations ending the Revolution, as it became clear that France was more interested in opposing Britain and furthering the North American territorial ambitions of its ally Spain than in truly upholding the cause of U.S. independence. With the fall of the Bourbon monarchy in the FRENCH REVOLUTION and renewed warfare between France and Britain in 1793, relations deteriorated further as U.S. policy was perceived to favor the British over the French. In particular, the French now regarded Jay's Treaty of 1794, between the United States and Britain, as an outright betrayal of the 1778 treaty of alliance between the United States and France. Seeking to heal the growing rift, President John Adams (1735–1826) sent a special mission to Paris in 1797. French prime minister Talleyrand (1754–1838) responded by demanding a bribe before he would even grant the American commissioners an audience. It was an outrage that came to light as the infamous XYZ Affair and nearly brought France and the United States to outright war.

Already, French naval operations against the British in the West Indies had begun to interfere with American shipping, as French warships intercepted and turned back U.S. merchantmen. In response, Congress authorized the rapid completion of three great frigates, the *United States, Constellation,* and *Constitution,* as well as the arming and training of some 80,000 militiamen. Furthermore, Congress commissioned 1,000 privateers to capture or repel French vessels, George Washington (1732–99) was recalled to command the army, and, on May 3, 1798, a U.S. Navy department was created.

In July 1798 Stephen Decatur (1774–1820) on the sloop *Delaware* captured the French schooner *Croyable* off the New Jersey coast. Renamed the *Retaliation,* it was retaken by the French in November 1798 off Guadaloupe. On February 9, 1799, the brand-new USS *Constellation* captured the French frigate *Insurgente.* Additional exchanges took place sporadically through 1800, mainly in the Caribbean. Of 10 important engagements, the French recapture of *Croyable / Retaliation* was the only American loss.

Despite the aggressiveness of the fledgling U.S. Navy and American support for the newly begun anti-French Haitian independence movement led by former slave Toussaint Louverture (1743–1803; *see* HAITIAN-FRENCH WAR), war between France and the United States was never declared. When Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) assumed the leadership of the French government by his coup d'état of November 9, 1799, he caused word to be sent that France sought reconciliation. The truth was that Napoleon needed the support of neutral Denmark and Sweden to lend legitimacy to his new government, and he was therefore eager to be seen as a supporter of the rights of neutrals. The result of the change in French attitude was the Convention between the French Republic and the United States of America of 1800, which officially brought an end to what had been an unofficial war. The treaty not only restored amity between the two former allies but secured France's guarantee to respect the rights of a neutral United States to sail the high seas.

Further reading: Michael A. Palmer, *Stoddert's War: Naval Operations during the Quasi War with France, 1798–1801* (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1987); Joseph Wheelan, *Jefferson's War: America's First War on Terror 1801–1805* (New York: Carroll and Graf, 2003).

American Revolution: Overview (1775–1783)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States (Britain's North American colonies, aided by small numbers of Indians) and France vs. Britain (aided by German mercenary troops), American Loyalists ("Tories"), and substantial numbers of Indians. Indian combatants included the following U.S. allies: Oneida, Mahican, Tuscarora (factions), and Catawba. British-allied Indians included: Mohawk, Seneca, Cayuga, Onondaga, Algonquian, Abenaki, Ottawa, Shawnee, Wyandot, Mingo, Delaware, Miami, Kickapoo, Piankashaw, Huron, Tawa, Tuscarora (factions), Chippewa, Potawatomi, Menomini, Sac, Fox, Winnebago, Sioux, Cherokee, Creek, Choctaw, and Chickasaw.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): United States and Canada, with naval action on the coastal Atlantic, Caribbean, and off Scotland and Ireland
DECLARATION: Britain against the colonies, 1775
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Britain's North American colonies below Canada sought independence.
OUTCOME: Independence was achieved.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States Continental army, 231,771 men over eight years; 164,087 militiamen during the same period; probably no more than 20,000 men served at any one time. Britain, 42,000 troops available, somewhat more than half this number served at any one time; German mercenaries ("Hessians"), 29,875 over eight years; American Loyalists ("Tories"), about 50,000 over eight years; British-allied Indians numbered in the thousands.
CASUALTIES: United States, 4,435 battle deaths, 6,188 wounded; no British figures are available, but it can be safely assumed that they were similar to U.S. casualties.

TREATIES: Treaty of Alliance (U.S.-France), February 6, 1778; Treaty of Amity and Commerce (U.S.-France), February 6, 1778; Act Separate and Secret (U.S.-France), February 6, 1778—allowed for eventual entry of Spain into the war; Declaration for Suspension of Arms and Cessation of Hostilities (U.S.-Britain), January 20, 1783—armistice; Treaty of Paris (U.S.-Britain)—formal recognition of U.S. independence and end to the war. In addition, the United States concluded a number of treaties with Indian tribes that had been allied with the British, the most important of which were the Delaware Indian Treaty (September 17, 1778); Treaty of Fort Stanwix (with the Iroquois Confederation—Mohawk, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga, Seneca, and Tuscarora tribes—October 22, 1784); Treaty of Fort McIntosh (with the Wyandot, Chippewa, and Ottawa tribes, January 21, 1785); Treaty with Cherokee (November 28, 1785); Treaty with Choctaw (January 3, 1786); Treaty of Hopewell (with the Chickasaw, January 10, 1786); and Treaty with the Shawnee (January 21, 1786).

This entry discusses background of the American Revolution and provides a very brief overview of the war. Detailed discussion is provided in AMERICAN REVOLUTION: COASTAL THEATER and AMERICAN REVOLUTION: FRONTIER THEATER.

ORIGINS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

King George III (1738–1820) assumed the British throne in 1760, after his grandfather, George II (1683–1760), died. In 1764 George III approved the enforcement of a series of Navigation Acts (the first of which had been on the books since the mid-17th century), which restricted some colonial trade to dealing exclusively with the mother country and, in all other cases, ensured that the mother country would get a disproportionate share of trade profits. George III decided to use the acts as the basis for new taxes to help defray the costs of the recently ended FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR. While the colonists had always acknowledged that the mother country had the right to *regulate* trade, they objected that the British government was now attempting to do what no such government had done before: to tax Americans, even though they were not represented in Parliament.

While members of George's government disputed the justice of the new taxes, PONTIAC'S REBELLION (1763–66), coming hard on the heels of the French and Indian War, multiplied Britain's costs of governing its empire. Lord Grenville (1712–70), now prime minister, pushed through Parliament heavy import and export duties known as the Grenville Acts. This crystallized colonial discontent around the battle cry of "no taxation without representation."

The first colonial protest in response to the Grenville Acts was peaceful, a 1764 Non-Importation Agreement, pledging to boycott a wide variety of English goods. Instead of yielding to the boycott, Grenville ushered the Stamp Act through Parliament, which was put into force on March 22, 1765. The Stamp Act taxed all kinds of printed matter, including newspapers, legal documents, and even dice and playing cards. Response to the Stamp Act was swift. Samuel Adams (1722–1803) of Boston organized one of the first of many colonial secret societies opposed to the Stamp Act. Adams's group, like the others that would quickly follow, called itself the Sons of Liberty, and members acted to intimidate the stamp agents, all of whom, under threat, resigned. In the meantime, in Virginia, passage of the Stamp Act motivated Patrick Henry (1736–99), member of that colony's House of Burgesses, to introduce the seven resolutions that became known as the *Virginia Resolves of 1765.* The most important of the resolves asserted that Virginia's colonial legislature had the sole right to tax Virginians and to legislate on purely Virginian issues, although it conceded that Parliament had the right to legislate on issues that concerned the empire as a whole. The resolves were passed on May 30, 1765.

At the same time the Stamp Act was legislated, Parliament passed the Mutiny Act of 1765, which included a provision for quartering troops in private houses. This was modified by the Quartering Act, which eliminated the provision requiring private homeowners to billet soldiers but required colonial authorities to furnish barracks and supplies for British troops—at the colony's expense. Colonial legislatures resisted the new acts by refusing to allocate funds for the support of troops. Most important, each protest brought the colonies another step closer to union, culminating in the Stamp Act Congress, convened at New York City from October 7 through October 25, 1765. Partially in response to the Stamp Act Congress, Parliament repealed the Stamp Act (March 18, 1766) but simultaneously passed the Declaratory Act, which asserted Parliament's authority to make laws binding on the American colonies.

In August 1766 Charles Townshend (1725–67) accepted the post of chancellor of the exchequer (the British secretary of the treasury) under Prime Minister William Pitt (1759–1806). When Pitt suffered a mental breakdown, Townshend took control of the cabinet and pushed through the so-called Townshend Acts, which imposed new taxes and usurped much legislative authority from the colonies. In response nonimportation was revived, bringing about a boycott of British goods so effective that the Townshend duties were repealed on April 12, 1770—save for the duty on tea. The Townshend Acts moved the Massachusetts General Court not only to oppose the acts, but to issue *The Massachusetts Circular Letter,* which called on the other colonies to prepare plans for united resistance.

Minor acts of rebellion were staged in frontier North Carolina (*see* REGULATORS' REVOLT) and in New York City,

but the most famous incident occurred in Boston. On March 5, 1770, with Boston in the throes of a depression and many colonists out of work, an off-duty British soldier sought work at Grey's Rope Walk. This touched off a riot, which soon spread. British officers attempted to calm the crowd and gain control of their own men, but the confrontation turned violent, a soldier fired into the crowd, and one Samuel Gray was mortally wounded. Another shot hit Crispus Attucks, a 40-year-old runaway slave from Framingham, Massachusetts. Attucks was the first man killed outright in the Boston Massacre. Traditionally, he has been viewed as the first Patriot to fall in the American Revolution. Before the Boston Massacre was over two more citizens were killed, and another fell with a wound that would prove mortal.

Despite the propagandizing of such radicals as Samuel Adams and Paul Revere (1735–1818), the Boston Massacre did not trigger a full-scale rebellion, but a new crisis ensued in June 1772, when the Royal Navy dispatched the schooner *Gaspée,* commanded by Lieutenant William Dudingston, to put an end to smuggling in Narragansett Bay off Rhode Island. This led to a confrontation between the local sheriff Abraham Whipple (1733–1819) and Dudingston. On June 9, after the *Gaspée* ran aground on a sandbar near Providence, Sheriff Whipple led a flotilla of small boats to surround the *Gaspée,* boarded the vessel, removed the skipper (who was wounded in the fray) and his crew, then put the vessel to the torch. The incident, a direct attack on an instrument essential to the enforcement of a hated tax, thrilled the colonies. Crown officials threatened to transport Whipple and others to London for trial on charges of the capital crime of piracy. In response Samuel Adams organized the first Committee of Correspondence, essentially a new incarnation of the Sons of Liberty, to disseminate information and coordinate action.

In the face of all these incidents, Parliament repealed most of the taxes on import commodities. The king stubbornly insisted, however, on retaining a tax on tea, less with the purpose of raising revenue than to assert and preserve Parliament's authority to tax the colonies. This led to the protest known as the Boston Tea Party.

When three tea ships landed at Boston Harbor, the Sons of Liberty prevented their being unloaded. But Massachusetts' royal governor, Thomas Hutchinson (1711–80), refused to issue permits to allow the ships to leave the harbor and return to London. It was a standoff. On December 16, 1773, 150 colonists, their faces painted to resemble Mohawks, climbed into boats and rowed out to the three tea ships tied up at Griffin's Wharf. They jettisoned into Boston Harbor 342 tea chests.

George III and Parliament reacted to the Boston Tea Party with unprecedented harshness. Parliament passed a series of Coercive Acts, which colonial activists dubbed the Intolerable Acts. The acts closed the port of Boston, greatly curtailed Massachusetts colonial government, and provided that most local officials would be appointed by the royal governor. The acts outlawed most town meetings, the very heart of representative self-government in the colonies. The jurisdiction of colonial courts was likewise greatly abridged, with all capital cases to be sent for trial to England or to another colony. Finally, the hated Quartering Act was extended, making it possible that British troops would be permanently quartered in Boston. George III appointed General Thomas Gage (1719?–87) both commander in chief of British forces in America and royal governor of Massachusetts in April 1774. On June 1 Gage swiftly implemented the most odious of the Intolerable Acts, the Port Act, which closed Boston to overseas traffic as well as to seaborne shipments from other colonies. When the Massachusetts General Assembly defiantly convened in Salem, having been banished from Boston, Gage dissolved this body, but the delegates barred the doors against Gage's messenger. During this period the exiled and outlawed assembly voted a proposal to convene a Continental Congress, with delegates from all the colonies. Further exacerbating the incendiary situation, on June 22, 1774, George III signed into law the Quebec Act, by which the old borders of the Canadian province of Quebec were restored. Once again, as under French rule, the borders stretched down into the Ohio Valley and the Illinois country—the very West in which many Anglo-American colonists hoped to settle.

A total of 56 delegates from all of the colonies except Georgia heeded the call of the exiled Massachusetts Assembly for a Continental Congress, which convened at Carpenter's Hall, Philadelphia, on September 5, 1774. The congress endorsed the Suffolk Resolves, which pronounced the Intolerable Acts unconstitutional, urged Massachusetts to form an independent government and withhold taxes from the Crown until the acts were repealed, advised citizens to arm themselves, and recommended a general boycott of English goods. A Continental Association was created to organize a renewed boycott of trade with Great Britain.

COURSE OF THE WAR

As relations between the colonies and mother country grew increasingly strained, the colonies became both increasingly militant and increasingly unified—despite the fact that a large minority of colonists remained loyal to the Crown and would in the coming war play an important role in support of the English. The prospects for American success in fighting what was the most powerful empire in the world, with a large professional army and a navy second to none, were, on the face of it, poor. However, colonial leaders understood that their task would not be to defeat the British, but merely to maintain a state of rebellion that would persuade king and Parliament that the colonies were not worth holding on to. The only deviation

from an essentially defensive American strategy was the invasion of Canada early in the war, an operation that proved disastrous.

Some historians see the war as having been fought in two theaters, the North and the South. However, for study, a more useful division is between the eastern, or coastal, region and the frontier. Near the coast the war was largely conventional, characterized by important "set" battles between formally constituted armies. (Off the coast, at sea, warfare was less formal, the United States making extensive use of privateers [mercenary civilian raiders] to harass British shipping. Most Royal Navy operations were in support of troop landings and supply and to effect a blockade of colonial ports.) Inland, in the frontier regions, both sides made use of Indian allies and auxiliaries. The British had far more such allies than the Americans. On the frontier the American Revolution was a very different war than in the coastal regions. Formal battles were few. Indian raids followed by settler retaliation were the characteristic pattern. These took a terrible toll on the colonists. When formal British armies did venture into the frontier, however, they were generally at a disadvantage.

As the best American strategists had predicted, it was cost and war weariness that finally persuaded the British to conclude a favorable peace in 1783. While the Americans had scored some important victories, neutralizing two major British armies—at Saratoga (September–October 1777) and at Yorktown (October 1781)—they did not so much defeat the British army and navy as deny them victory. That was sufficient to empower the liberal wing of the British government, which favored American independence, to promote and carry its point of view.

Further reading: Mark Boatner, *Encyclopedia of the American Revolution* (New York: McKay, 1966, 1974); Robert Leckie, *George Washington's War: The Saga of the American Revolution* (New York: HarperPerennial, 1992); Charles Royster, *A Revolutionary People at War* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1979); Page Smith, *A New Age Now Begins: A People's History of the American Revolution,* 2 vols. (New York: Penguin, 1976); James L. Stokesbury, *A Short History of the American Revolution* (New York: William Morrow, 1991).

American Revolution: Coastal Theater

(1775–1783)

For combatant and statistical information, *see* AMERICAN REVOLUTION: OVERVIEW.

Amid the deteriorating relations between the British Crown and its American colonies outlined in AMERICAN REVOLUTION: OVERVIEW, the colonies became both increasingly united and increasingly militant. But while the colonies' newly formed Continental Congress was forging a union among historically disparate colonies, General Gage was gathering and consolidating his troops. On September 1, 1774, one of his Boston-based detachments seized cannons and powder from arsenals in nearby Cambridge and Charles Town. Defiantly, the Salem-based Provincial Congress appropriated £15,627 to buy new military supplies. It also authorized John Hancock to head a Committee of Safety and call out the militia, whose members were dubbed "minutemen," because these citizen-soldiers pledged themselves to be armed, assembled, and prepared for battle on a minute's notice.

PATRIOT MOBILIZATION

On December 14, 1774, Paul Revere, the silversmith who served as courier to the Boston Sons of Liberty, rode out to warn the Patriot commander John Sullivan (1740–95) of Gage's plan to seize munitions stored at Fort William and Mary guarding Portsmouth Harbor, New Hampshire. Sullivan led a band of volunteers to the fort and so stunned the British guards that they surrendered without a fight. Sullivan carried off the guns and powder that had been stored at the fort. This incident might be counted the first Patriot victory in a war that had yet to be declared.

Events now unfolded with a speed that apparently befuddled Gage, whose troops were set upon by Patriot saboteurs as acts of rebellion broke out all over New England.

In the meantime, responding to the petitions sent them by the First Continental Congress, King George and Parliament proposed the Plan of Reconciliation, whereby Parliament would refrain from taxing the colonies if their assemblies voluntarily contributed toward some of the costs of imperial defense. Yet, even while offering this concession, the Crown continued to punish New England, this time by passing the Fishery Act, which restricted the trade of New England to Britain, Ireland, and the West Indies and banned the colony from fishing in Newfoundland's rich waters. After passage of this act, Massachusetts revived the Provincial Congress, which promptly set about transforming the colony into an armed camp. Gage responded to these developments by imposing martial law on April 12, and summarily declaring all the residents of Massachusetts to be "in treason."

On the night of April 18 Gage dispatched 600 to 800 troops under the command of Lieutenant Colonel Francis Smith (1723–91), assisted by Major John Pitcairn (1722–75) of the Royal Marines to seize a Patriot arms cache at Concord, Massachusetts. Paul Revere (1735–1818) and another Sons of Liberty courier, William Dawes, set out from Boston to alert the countryside. They were joined en route by another rider, Dr. Samuel Prescott (1751–c. 77).

BATTLE OF LEXINGTON

The village of Lexington lay in the line of march between Boston and Concord. There, on Lexington's green, militia

captain Jonas Parker (1729–75) formed up the ranks of about 70 minutemen. Approaching the minutemen, Pitcairn ordered his troops to form their line of battle, then called to the militia to lay down arms and disperse. Parker ordered his men neither to surrender nor attack, but to disband, taking their weapons with them. At this, Pitcairn repeated his demand that they lay their weapons down. Shots were exchanged. Eight minutemen, including Parker, lay dead on Lexington green, with 10 more wounded. A single British soldier was slightly hurt. The Battle of Lexington, which most historians consider the true opening battle of the American Revolution, was over.

BATTLE OF CONCORD

From Lexington the British continued their march to Concord. Into this town militia companies came from the surrounding communities. Estimates of American strength at Concord run as high as 20,000, but the most reliable figure is 3,763. Probably no more than half this number was involved in the battle at any one time.

Entering Concord unopposed, the British commander, Lieutenant Colonel Francis Smith (1723–91), dined at a local tavern with his staff officers while the grenadiers began searching the town. Patriot Colonel James Barrett ordered the militia to march to the defense of Concord. A captain of British light infantry ordered his men to form the standard line of battle, but the maneuver miscarried, and the first British shots fell short. The Americans returned fire in a volley Ralph Waldo Emerson ("Hymn Sung at the Completion of the Concord Monument, April 19, 1836") would dub "the shot heard round the world." In the volley three British regular soldiers died, and nine more lay wounded. The redcoats retreated back into the town, and Barrett failed to give chase. At about 10 A.M. Smith collected his wounded and prepared to leave Concord to return to Boston. All the way back the British were harassed by Patriot fire. From the attacks 73 redcoats were confirmed dead, and another 26, missing, were presumed dead; 174 British solders were wounded. On the American side, 49 had died, 5 were reported missing, and 41 lay wounded.

BATTLE OF FORT TICONDEROGA

By 10 A.M. on April 19, just after the first American fell at Lexington, Committee of Safety couriers were riding for all points north and south. Within hours news of the battle had reached New York, Philadelphia, and most points in between. Within days it had traveled to Virginia and the rest of the South.

Connecticut authorities responded to the news of Lexington and Concord by sending Benedict Arnold (1741–1801) and Ethan Allen (1738–89) to capture Fort Ticonderoga, which controlled the main route connecting Canada and the upper Hudson Valley. On May 10, the pair led just 83 men in a stealthy attack that took the fort without a shot. The Patriots thus gained a gateway to Canada and a base from which Allen launched a successful expedition against the nearby post of Crown Point. Together, the forts yielded 78 precious artillery pieces and ammunition, along with other materiel. The artillery would be put to effective use in the siege of Boston.

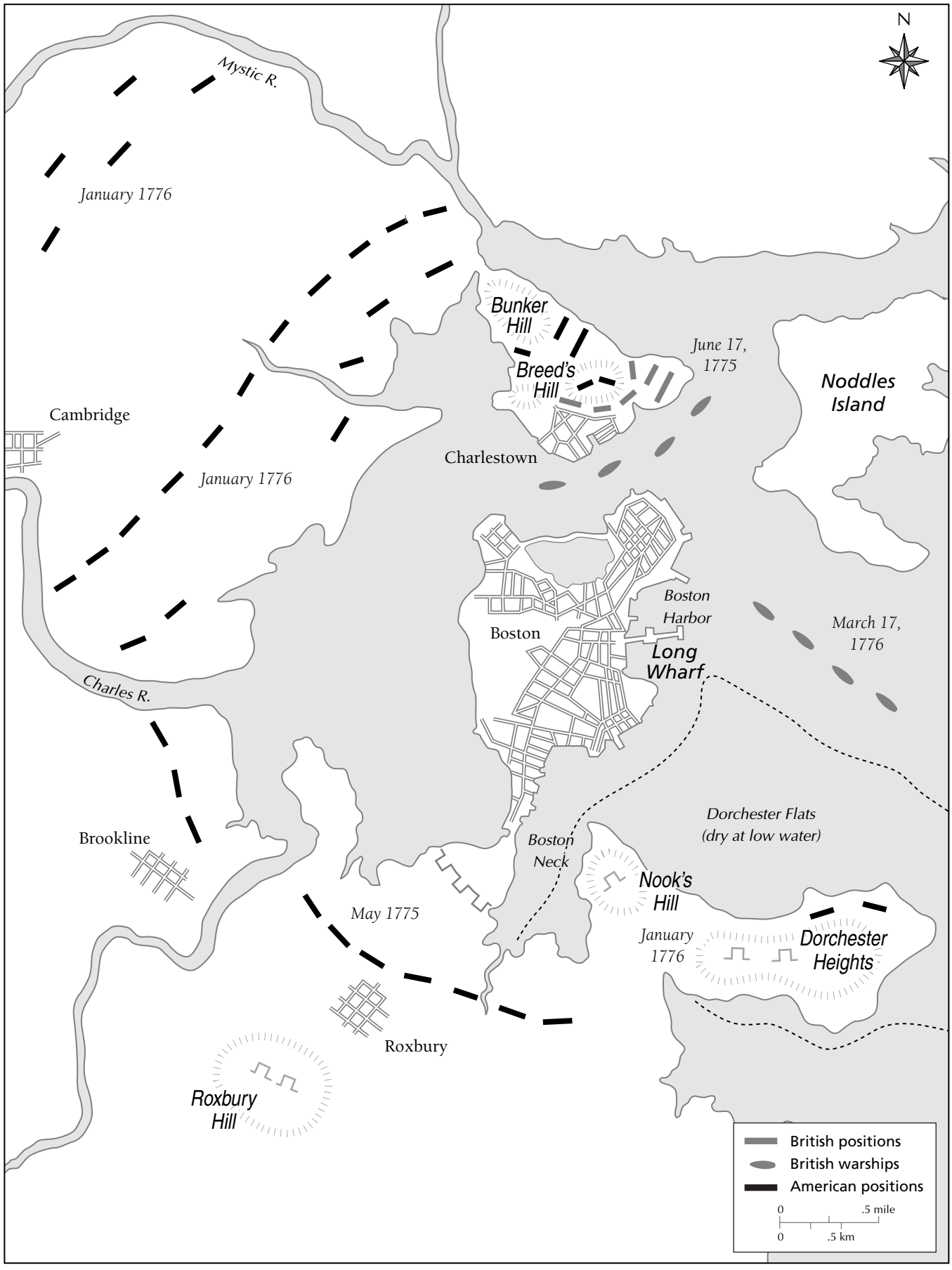
On the very day that Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold took Fort Ticonderoga, the Second Continental Congress convened in Philadelphia and commenced creation of a Continental army, with George Washington (1732–99) in overall command. It also called on local militia forces throughout New England to march to Boston, with the intention of besieging the British forces headquartered there. By the end of 1775 Congress had 27,500 Continental soldiers on its payroll from all the colonies.

BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL

By the end of May 1775 some 10,000 colonial troops surrounded Boston and the troops of General Gage. In the meantime, on May 25 HMS *Cerberus* sailed into Boston Harbor bearing three major generals to assist Thomas Gage in crushing the rebellion: William Howe (1729–1814), the senior officer, John Burgoyne (1722–92), and Henry Clinton (1730–95). Gage lost no time in assigning Howe to crush the American army in a single blow. Howe decided on an amphibious landing at Dorchester Point, to the east of Cambridge, in coordination with Clinton's landing at Willis Creek, to the west. This would secure the high ground at Charlestown, a place called Bunker's or Bunker Hill. Covering these operations would be the big guns of the men o' war riding at anchor in Boston Harbor. Once Bunker Hill was secured, the forces of Howe and Clinton could crush the American flanks in a pincers movement converging on Cambridge.

The Patriot network of spies quickly discovered what the British were about, and Boston's Committee of Safety directed General Artemus Ward (1727–1800) to seize, occupy, and fortify Bunker Hill before Gage could attain it. Instead, Ward ordered General Israel Putnam (1718–90) to concentrate not on Bunker Hill, but on nearby Breed's Hill, which was closer to Boston. Putnam and militia commander William Prescott (1726–95) would put some men in a fortified position on Bunker Hill to cover any retreat. Ward's decision was a serious tactical error. Higher, steeper, and farther from the ships of the Royal Navy, Bunker Hill could have been made virtually impregnable, whereas Breed's Hill, lower and less steep, was actually more exposed and vulnerable.

Nevertheless, Gage and Howe had to attack the Patriot positions three times before the American lines finally gave way. In the retreat the Americans suffered their heaviest casualties, about 450, with 140 killed. Although the British won the day, they had taken the heaviest losses. Of 2,400 redcoats actually engaged in combat, 1,054 had been shot, of whom 226 died.



Battle of Bunker (Breed's) Hill, June 17, 1775

THE AMERICANS' CANADIAN CAMPAIGN

At the start of the Revolution many Patriots believed that Canada would eagerly join in the rebellion, and the Continental Congress created a commission to invite Canada's alliance. When the Canadians rebuffed the overture, Congress on June 27, 1775, authorized an invasion to be led by Major General Philip Schuyler (1733–1804) with Richard Montgomery (1738–75), a former British regular in the French and Indian War, as his second in command.

The invasion did not get under way until September, by which time George Washington had authorized General Benedict Arnold to lead a simultaneous operation. The plan was for Arnold to take Quebec while Schuyler attacked Montreal. In the meantime Montgomery learned that a British expedition was preparing to recapture Fort Ticonderoga and Crown Point and, on his own initiative, marched out of Fort Ticonderoga and headed for Canada.

On September 4 General Schuyler caught up with Montgomery, and the two led the assault on St. Johns, the site of a British fort and barracks defended by about 200 regulars and a contingent of Indians. A siege was called for, during which Schuyler and about half the American troops fell ill. Montgomery, commanding the American forces in the absence of the ailing Schuyler, sent Ethan Allen to recruit rebellious Canadians. During this mission Allen, judging that Montreal was weakly defended, impulsively decided to use his new recruits to invade the town. But as quickly as the recruits had joined Allen, they drifted off, and Allen was forced to turn away from Montreal. After joining forces with another militia officer, John Brown (1744–80), Allen returned to Montreal with about 300 men. During the night of September 24–25 the assault failed, and Allen was captured with 20 of his men. (He was shipped back to England, where he narrowly avoided trial for treason. Returned to North America, he was paroled in New York City in October 1776.)

While Allen and Brown were attacking Montreal, Montgomery captured Chambly near St. Johns on October 18 and the fort at St. Johns on November 2, 1775. Despite this success, however, the invasion was bogging down as Montgomery's troops went hungry and lacked for supplies and warm clothing. Montgomery now marched into Montreal, where he awaited word from Benedict Arnold on his progress against Quebec.

Arnold had left with 1,100 volunteers from Cambridge, Massachusetts, on September 12. Catastrophe came when his fleet of *bateaux,* hastily built of green (uncured) wood, fell apart in the icy water of the Kennebec River. Arnold and his men were forced to wade in the frigid river for some 180 miles. Food was in short supply, and many men deserted. By November 9 only 600 of the original 1,100 reached the south bank of the St. Lawrence River. Even so, Arnold was confident that he could take the fortress town of Quebec. Delays allowed the British to reinforce the town, however, and Arnold was forced to retreat. On December 2 he joined forces with Montgomery and attacked the town on December 31, during a blizzard. More than half the American invasion force ended as casualties: 48 dead, 34 wounded, 372 made captive. Although painfully wounded himself, Arnold refused to give up. For five months, from January to May 1776, he and his command lingered on the outskirts of Quebec. Reinforcements arrived but were inadequate, and the invasion of Canada collapsed.

Now the British began preparing a counteroffensive invasion *from* Canada. It was critical to gain control of the waterway straddling Canada and America, Lake Champlain, and both sides scrambled to cobble together shallow-draft fleets. Arnold left Crown Point with 10 craft on August 24, 1776, and anchored the boats off rocky Valcour Island. By the time of the battle, which began on October 11, Arnold was in command of 15 vessels. When he saw the size of the approaching British fleet—20 gunboats, 30 longboats, and several larger vessels—he hurriedly pulled back all his boats. But it was too late, and, over the next three days the two makeshift fleets slugged it out, with the outnumbered and outgunned American vessels getting the worst of it. By the morning of the 13th Arnold had two large vessels left, the *Congress* and the *Washington,* in which he made his escape, keeping up a running fight with the pursuing British fleet all the way to Buttonmould Bay on the Vermont shore of Lake Champlain. There he beached and burned the wrecks of his two ships and traveled overland to Crown Point. Realizing that he could not hold this position, he burned the buildings of Crown Point and retreated to Fort Ticonderoga, back to the point from which the Canadian venture had begun two years earlier.

The American losses at Valcour Island were impressive: 11 of the 15 vessels in Arnold's command and about 80 of 750 men killed or wounded. Of 17 to 20 British gunboats engaged and the two larger vessels, the *Carleton* and the *Inflexible,* none was even damaged. Yet this defeat gained something for the Americans and cost something for the British. By keeping British general Guy Carleton (1724–1808) occupied, Arnold took the momentum out of the British advance, and the approaching winter put an end to plans for Carleton's forces to invade the lower colonies and link up with William Howe. Such a move would have cut the colonies in two, severing the north from the south and quite possibly crushing the Revolution. By enduring a tactical defeat, Arnold had effectively achieved a strategic victory.

SIEGE OF BOSTON

The Battle of Bunker Hill on June 17 left General Thomas Gage dazed, demoralized, and intimidated. Had he acted quickly after the battle, costly as it was, he could have broken the American siege lines around Boston before they reformed. But he hesitated, and the Patriot siege that had begun on April 19, 1775, was reinforced following the battle. By June 1775 some 15,000 provincial troops were positioned just outside Boston, under the command of

General Artemus Ward. Gage's army, now bottled up in the city, numbered 6,500. On July 2, 1775, George Washington took over command of the so-called Boston Army and set about transforming it into a unified and disciplined Continental army. In the meantime General Henry Knox (1750–1806) transported the artillery captured at Fort Ticonderoga more than 300 miles to Cambridge, with the purpose of bombarding Boston in preparation for an attack on the British garrison.

Throughout the fall and winter the two armies stared at each other across Boston Neck and the Charlestown peninsula. On October 10, 1775, General William Howe replaced Thomas Gage, who returned to England. On January 27, 1776, Admiral Samuel Graves (1713–87), a lackadaisical officer, was replaced by the far more dynamic Admiral Richard Howe (1726–99), brother of the new commander in chief of the British army. By this time, too, reinforcements had swelled the Boston garrison between 7,000 and 8,000 men.

In a spectacular feat of military engineering, Washington's forces quietly fortified Dorchester Heights during February 1776, then placed there the guns Knox had brought from Fort Ti. Surrounded and outnumbered, General Howe abandoned Boston. From March 7 to March 17 the British ships were loaded with some 11,000 soldiers and sailors, in addition to a thousand Tories. The evacuation flotilla sailed all the way to Halifax, Nova Scotia.

COMMON SENSE AND THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

On January 9, 1776, Thomas Paine (1737–1809), an English immigrant (he settled in Philadelphia in November 1774), published *Common Sense,* a 47-page pamphlet that made the argument for independence more simply, thoroughly, and persuasively than any document that had come before it. Swept by a wave of popular support for independence largely engendered by *Common Sense,* the Continental Congress on February 18 authorized privateers—merchant ships given permission to raid and capture British vessels. On February 26 it embargoed exports to Britain and the British West Indies. On March 3 Congress sent Silas Deane (1737–89) to France to negotiate for aid. On March 14 Congress moved against the Tories (loyalists), ordering that they be disarmed. On April 6 it opened all American ports to the trade of all nations save Britain. Now, one after the other, in some cases after intense but compact debate, all the colonies voted for independence, and a Declaration of Independence was adopted on July 4, 1776.

During this period the British revised their strategy. Rather than attempt now to attack the bastion of the revolution, Boston and New England, British military commanders shifted their focus to those places where the spirit of revolution was weakest and Tories outnumbered Patriots. Accordingly, after evacuating Boston and removing to headquarters in Halifax, the British command now turned its attention to two places where Tories abounded: New York and South Carolina.

ACTION IN NEW YORK

New York City was a strategically critical prize. Its harbor offered the anchorage the great British fleet required, and whoever controlled the city and its harbor also controlled the Hudson River, principal avenue into the American interior. Seize the Hudson, and the colonies, which had proved so surprisingly adept at communication and coordination of action, would be completely divided. Thus isolated, even staunchly rebellious New England could be defeated. With that, the rebellion would surely collapse.

The new British plan called for General Howe, currently in Halifax, to sail southward with a large army to take and occupy New York City. From this base he would spread his control of the Hudson River north to Albany, thereby isolating New England from the other colonies. From Canada a British force led by General Guy Carleton would join Howe at Albany. Together, the two were to defeat the remnants of rebellion in detail.

In January 1776 Washington detached from Boston siege duty the colorful, irascible, and ultimately unreliable Charles Lee (1731–82) to set up the defense of New York. Lee proposed to put 4,000 to 5,000 troops on Long Island, taking care to fortify Brooklyn Heights, which overlooked lower Manhattan. Uptown on the island of Manhattan he would place troops for the defense of Kings Bridge, which connected Manhattan with the Bronx on the mainland. Lee reasoned that given the naval superiority of the British, he could not hope to hold Manhattan as a fortress, but, from the surrounding high ground, he could effectively attack a British invasion force. It was a workable plan, but when Washington arrived to establish his headquarters in the city on April 13, he was shocked to discover that Lee had done nothing to put it into action. Washington himself set the army to the furious labor of digging up the island, throwing up great earthen works. Fortunately for the Americans, the British moved slowly, as usual, and it would be almost September before they were ready to attack Manhattan. Despite Lee's inaction, the 19,000 Continentals and militiamen gathered for the defense of the island had five months to dig and to build.

It was June 25, 1776, when William Howe landed off Sandy Hook, a spit of land projecting from New Jersey into Raritan Bay, opposite Staten Island. He had three ships, the vanguard of 130 vessels that would arrive on the 29th, carrying 9,300 troops. On July 12 Lord Richard Howe, William's admiral brother, arrived with 150 more ships and reinforcements from England. Soon, additional British troops and German mercenary forces followed, and on August 12 yet more soldiers arrived from the failed expedition against Charleston, South Carolina (covered later in this entry). By the last week of August, Howe had

mustered 31,625 troops, of whom 24,464 were fit for duty, to oppose some 20,000 Americans—the bulk of the American forces at the time. Lose them, and all would be lost. Admiral Howe was prepared to support the land forces with 30 combat ships, including 10 ships of the line and 20 frigates, together representing a total of perhaps 1,200 guns. Against these enormous forces, Washington had 6,500 troops on Long Island, many of which were concentrated on fortified Brooklyn Heights.

The British began to land on Long Island on the night of August 26, sending 10,000 troops in a broad movement to the northeast, so that the attack, when it was launched on the morning of the 27th, rushed in on General Sullivan's left flank. The attack came from exactly the opposite side from which it had been expected. While Generals Clinton, Charles Cornwallis (1738–1805), and Percy attacked from the northeast, 5,000 Hessians (German mercenary troops in the British service) pressed in due north from the Flatlands, and 7,000 Highlanders attacked from the west. The effect of an attack from three sides with 22,000 men overwhelmed the 3,100 Americans positioned before the Brooklyn Heights fortifications, who retreated behind the heavily fortified works. Instead of exploiting his current advantage, however, General Howe decided to dig in so that he could take his time in the assault on the Brooklyn Heights fortress.

Washington remained confident at first that Brooklyn could be held, and so he brought some of his Manhattan units into the fortifications at Brooklyn Heights. This was a tactical error, and by the 28th Washington realized that his position on Brooklyn was untenable. He now ordered preparations for evacuation to Manhattan, which Washington accomplished with great skill during the stormy and foggy night of August 29–30. He had saved the army.

Washington's army, now deployed solely in Manhattan, was poorly supplied and subject to the impending expiration of militia enlistments. The onset of fall weather was miserable, and perhaps a fourth of the 20,000 defenders lay ill. Brigadier General Nathanael Greene (1742–86), dashingly youthful Continental brigadier, advised Washington to burn and abandon New York, but Congress barred this. On September 15 the British fleet sailed up the Hudson and East Rivers, flanking Manhattan Island. British guns were now trained on Manhattan all along its length. Transport barges landed at Kip's Bay, where 34th Street today ends at FDR Drive. At 11 A.M. a brief naval barrage was ordered, and then troops were landed, unopposed, in 85 flatboats. Foolishly, the British proceeded at a leisurely pace, setting up headquarters in the Murray house (owned by a prominent Tory) in the neighborhood known today as Murray Hill. The bulk of the American army occupied the heights of Harlem, from which the troops could see, on September 15, a line of British soldiers advancing northward along the eastern road. By nightfall, Howe had established forward posts from McGowan's Pass (at the northeast corner of Central Park today) southwest to the Hudson River (at about the location of 105th Street). Before dawn of the 16th Lieutenant Colonel Thomas Knowlton (1740–76) led 100 elite Connecticut Rangers down the so-called Hollow Way, a steep descent from the heights of Harlem to the Hudson. He ran into elements of the famed Black Watch Highland troops and engaged them fiercely but was forced to retreat as more Highlanders arrived. The British misinterpreted the retreat as the beginning of a general flight, and the advance elements of Howe's invading force now attacked in anticipation of triggering a rout. Instead, they got a full-scale fight that sent the Highlanders retreating across a buckwheat field fronting the Hudson (on the site of today's Barnard College).

To the American defenders this small victory was greatly heartening. To Howe, it was discouraging out of all proportion. With thousands of well-equipped troops and a mighty naval fleet at his disposal, he could have struck Washington's position from the flanks or the rear. Instead, he did nothing. By the middle of October Howe still had not moved against Fort Washington and Harlem Heights.

BATTLE OF WHITE PLAINS

Howe was not entirely idle during this period. Washington observed that Howe's barges were probing for Hudson landings in Westchester, preparing an encirclement. In view of this, Washington decided on October 16, to evacuate Manhattan. Slowly his troops crept northward to White Plains, in Westchester County. There Washington deployed his troops poorly, neglecting to fortify Chatterton Hill—the highest and therefore most important of the three hills on which his army encamped. Howe focused his attack against this weak position, sending the Americans into withdrawal farther north.

FORT WASHINGTON FALLS AND WASHINGTON RETREATS

Early in November, seeing that Howe had stopped moving north in pursuit of his main force and had turned back toward Manhattan, Washington concluded incorrectly that Howe's intention was now to invade New Jersey. When he had evacuated Manhattan, Washington had left a garrison of 2,000 men to hold Fort Washington. Reinforcements had raised this number to nearly 3,000. Howe took Fort Washington on November 16, and 2,818 American officers and men became prisoners of war. Four days later Fort Lee, across the Hudson in New Jersey, also fell. These losses were added to the fact that all of Manhattan and a substantial swath along the New Jersey bank of the Hudson were now in British hands. The American army was split into three branches. Charles Lee was in North Castle, Westchester County; General William Heath (1737–1814) was at Peekskill, up the Hudson from Manhattan; and Washington took the main body of troops on a long retreat by land through New Jersey.

WASHINGTON'S RETREAT

Casualties, the expiration of enlistment, and capture had reduced Washington's army to about 16,400 troops, divided and dispersed. Despite all the advantages he enjoyed, General Howe chose not to conduct a winter campaign and instead set up winter quarters at Amboy, New Brunswick, and Princeton on the eastern front and in Bordentown and at Trenton (the main post), on the Delaware River. He also dispatched General Henry Clinton from New York with some 6,000 men to occupy Newport, Rhode Island, preparatory to a spring campaign against New England. General Charles Cornwallis was sent to harass Washington and chase him beyond New Brunswick, just to give the British elbow room for their winter hibernation.

Cornwallis decided to interpret his assignment more broadly. Boasting that he would bag Washington as a hunter bags a fox, he drove his troops swiftly and unsparingly. He was closing in on Newark by November 29. Washington and his headquarters force of 4,000 fled to New Brunswick just steps ahead of Hessian advance guards. Leaving Alexander at Princeton to delay the British advance, Washington reached Trenton with his main force on December 3. His best hope was that Charles Lee would meet him there, but Lee was days distant. Washington, who had already prepared for an evacuation across the Delaware River into Pennsylvania, sent his troops across on December 7 and deployed them along some 25 miles of Pennsylvania riverfront. As a precaution he also sent troops to find and destroy every boat of any size for 75 miles up and down the lower Delaware. He meant to make it very difficult for the British to give chase. Cornwallis gave up. He secured permission from Howe to halt at the Delaware and to wait for spring, when he and Howe might finish off the American army at leisure.

BATTLE OF TRENTON

By the Christmas season Washington had available no more than 6,000 troops fit for duty. Nevertheless, he boldly decided on a counteroffensive.

For the British and Hessian troops lodged at Trenton, the approach of Christmas was welcomed with food and drink "liberated" from the citizens of New Jersey. On Christmas night the river roiled high, great sheets of broken ice whirling in the swift current. Nevertheless, Washington loaded 2,400 veteran troops and 18 cannons into the stout Durham boats he had hoarded to keep out of British hands, and, in the stormy night, crossed to New Jersey.

The Americans descended on Trenton at 7:30 on the morning of December 26. Washington's units closed in from the northwest, the north, the northeast, the south, and the southeast. Totally surprised, the elite Hessians encamped at Trenton were quickly forced to surrender; 918 Hessian prisoners as well as a wealth of equipment and stores fell to the Americans. Washington's forces had suffered no more than four wounded. Some authorities believe no American soldier was killed, while others report two killed in action and two frozen to death. Of the 1,200 Hessians engaged, 106 were killed or wounded, 918 captured, and the remainder were unaccounted for (most likely they fled as deserters).

Washington now withdrew across the Delaware back into Pennsylvania. The triumph at Trenton was sufficient to lift American morale and persuade thousands of men to extend their enlistments by six weeks. Washington crossed his army into New Jersey once again on December 30, 1776, taking up a position at hard-won Trenton. Cornwallis rushed almost 8,000 fresh troops from Princeton to Trenton. Washington sent a covering force under General Edward Hand (1744–1802), who, with help from some miserable weather, managed to delay Cornwallis's advance.

BATTLE OF PRINCETON

Washington hurriedly erected defensive works along the Assumpink Creek just south of Trenton and left a small force of 400 there with orders to make noise and keep the fires lighted to decoy Cornwallis. Cornwallis reached Trenton on January 2. Although his officers urged an immediate attack, Cornwallis, convinced the din of men digging trenches and the flicker of campfires were in preparation for the arrival of Washington's entire army, decided to wait. In the meantime the main body of Washington's army slipped silently toward Princeton and New Brunswick. The Battle of Princeton was fought on January 3.

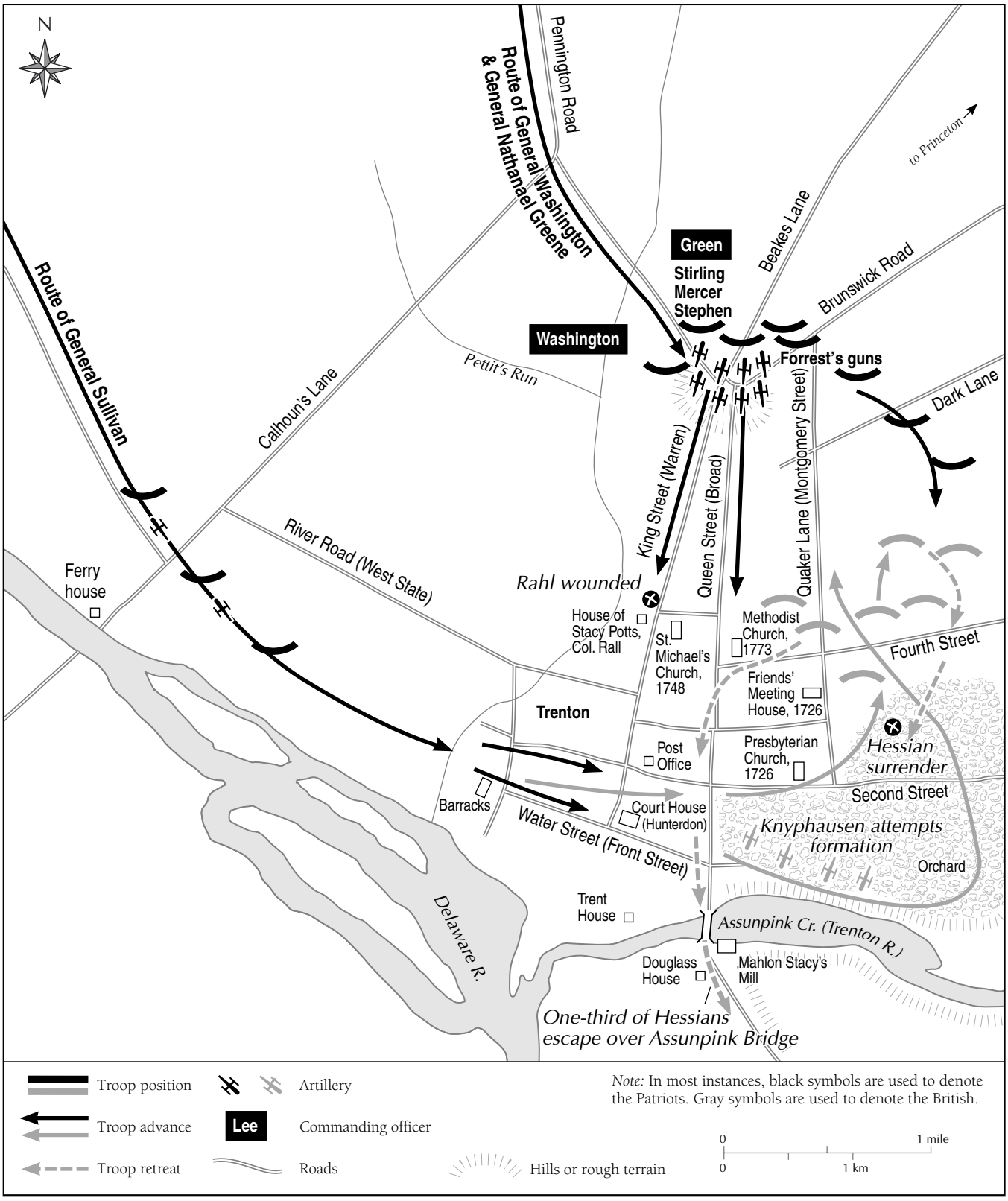
At first the American militiamen panicked, unable to load faster than the British could thrust with bayonets. Washington personally rallied the troops long enough to allow Henry Knox to position and fire his artillery into the British attackers. This sent the redcoats into full retreat.

Washington resisted the impulse to pursue the fleeing attackers, for he knew they would lead him straight to the superior numbers of Cornwallis's main army. Instead, Washington advanced into Princeton and engaged the few British soldiers remaining there. He quickly took Princeton but could not afford to occupy it, knowing that Cornwallis would counterattack soon. However, he understood that the victories at Trenton and Princeton had saved the revolution, and he took his army to Morristown to make winter camp.

BURGOYNE'S CAMPAIGN

Early spring 1777 brought the American cause an influx of fresh troops and a willingness among many veterans to extend their enlistments. In Paris Benjamin Franklin and Silas Deane, congressional emissaries, were gradually persuading the French government to conclude a formal alliance with the United States. In June the marquis de Lafayette (1757–1834) arrived with a party of idealistic adventurers (including the baron de Kalb [1721–80]) eager to impart European military expertise to the officers and men of the Continental army.

Spring also brought fresh energy and resolve to the British. General John Burgoyne perfected the plan General Guy Carleton had attempted and failed to execute the previous year: the division of the state of New York along the Hudson, the consequent isolation of New England, and the effective decapitation of the Revolution. A principal

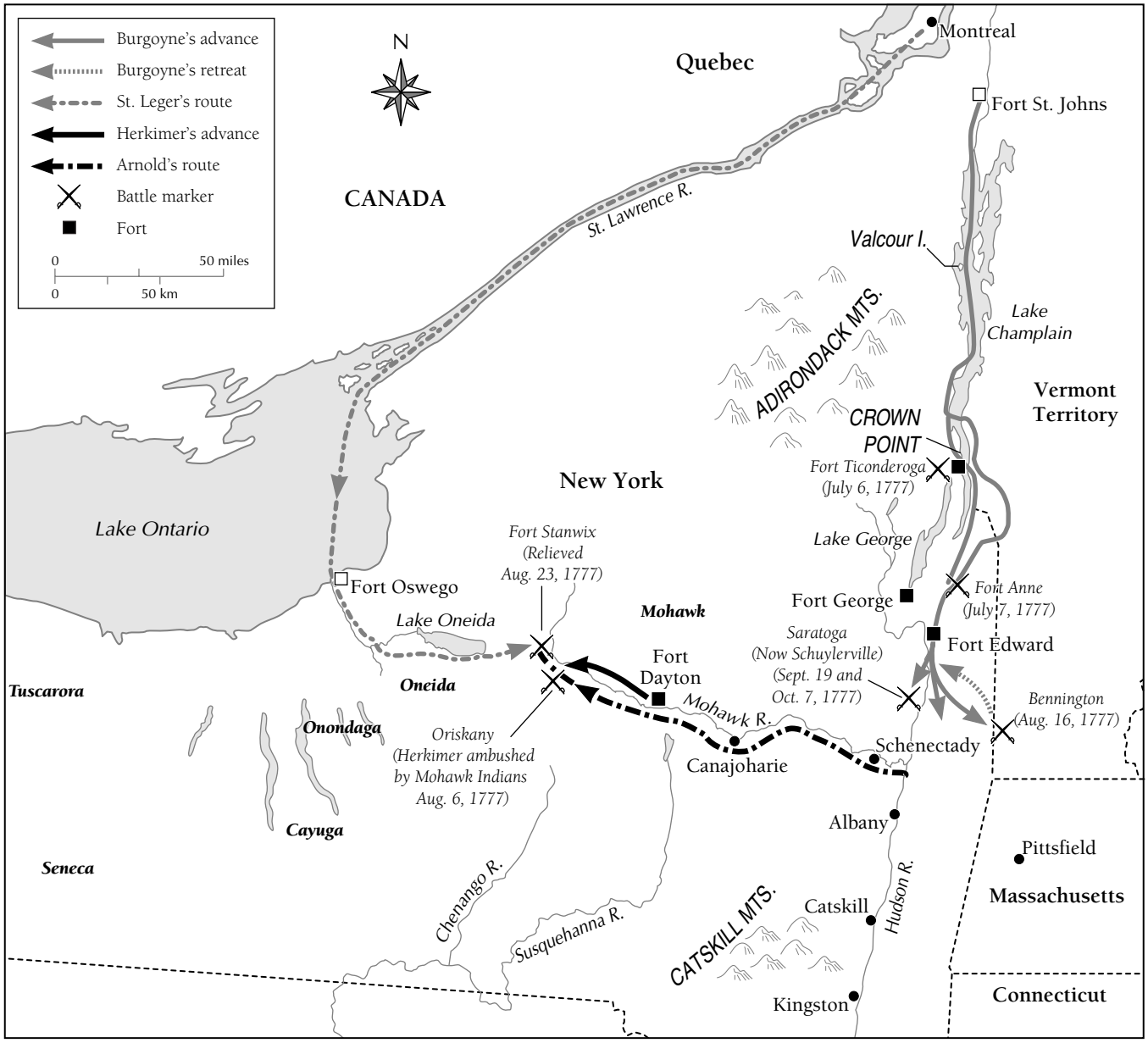


Battle of Trenton, December 26, 1776

force would advance south from Canada, down Lake Champlain and the upper Hudson. Simultaneously a smaller force would operate through the New York frontier country, from Oswego through the Mohawk Valley. These two operations would be coordinated with Howe, who would send another major force up the Hudson, meeting Burgoyne's principal force at Albany, thereby effecting a pincers movement that would amputate New England from the rest of the colonies.

King George III enthusiastically endorsed the plan, and George Sackville, lord Germain (1716–58), secretary of state for the American colonies, authorized Burgoyne to carry it out. Yet Germain simultaneously approved General Howe's plan for attacking Philadelphia, thereby rendering Howe unavailable for Burgoyne's operation. The inept Germain had approved two mutually exclusive plans.

Burgoyne began his move south on June 17, 1777. He commanded a force of 7,000 infantrymen, British regulars as well as German mercenaries, in addition to a small force of English and German artillerists, 400 Indian auxiliaries, and a few Canadian and Tory adventurers. The approach of this force promped the Americans to abandon Fort Ticonderoga, and Burgoyne advanced past this to Albany, where he intended to link up with General Barry St. Leger (1737–89) and Howe in order to deliver a crushing blow to the rebels. On August 3, while camped near Fort Edward, however, waiting for his full forces to assemble,



Burgoyne's advance against Albany, June–September 1777

Burgoyne received a dispatch from Howe informing him of his intention to march on Philadelphia. Now it was unmistakably clear that Howe would not meet Burgoyne in Albany.

BATTLE OF ORISKANY

On August 4, 1777, General Barry St. Leger commenced artillery bombardment of Fort Stanwix, New York. The bombardment resulted in the death of only one man and the wounding of six and was far less effective than the work of Indian snipers, who calmly picked off soldiers as they desperately worked to cover the fort's interior roofs and parapets with sod.

On August 6 three messengers from Patriot militia General Nicholas Herkimer (1728–77) managed to penetrate the Indian lines surrounding the fort. Herkimer was at the Indian town of Oriskany, 10 miles southwest of Fort Stanwix, with 800 troops. He asked Colonel Peter Gansevoort (1749–1812) to join him in a combined assault on St. Leger's lines. The result was a desperate battle between militia and a combination of British regulars, Tory militiamen, and British-allied Indians. Herkimer himself was severely wounded, his leg shattered by a musket ball. Nevertheless, propped up against a saddle, he continued to direct the fight. Although one entire American regiment broke and ran, most of the Patriots fought fiercely, suffering as well as inflicting heavy casualties. A sudden thunderstorm brought a temporary halt to the battle, providing time for the forces to regroup on higher ground. The British-allied Indians, disheartened by their heavy losses, suddenly retreated when the battle resumed. With their desertion the Tories withdrew as well. The American forces were in no condition to give chase. Indeed, the Battle of Oriskany was a grim disaster for all concerned. Half the American forces were killed, wounded, or captured. The able militia commander Herkimer died of his wounds. The British lost 33, with 41 wounded, and the Indian losses were the heaviest of all: 17 Senecas killed, including their chief warriors, and 16 wounded with 60 to 80 Indians from other tribes also killed or wounded. A total of 23 war chiefs were killed or wounded.

Neither side could claim victory, but Oriskany did stop Herkimer's attempt to reinforce Fort Stanwix, and St. Leger again demanded the fort's surrender, threatening to turn loose his Indian warriors against the garrison as well as the women and children sheltered in the fort. Colonel Gansevoort once again indignantly refused to yield.

In the meantime General Philip Schuyler, encamped at Fort Dayton, 50 miles from Fort Stanwix, dispatched General Ebenezer Learned (1728–1801) and a Massachusetts brigade to the relief of the fort. En route, the Americans deceived British spies into believing their force was much larger than it really was; as a result, perhaps as many as 600 Indian warriors promptly deserted St. Leger, and the British general, himself alarmed by the fabulously inflated report of Patriot strength, hastily lifted the siege of Fort Stanwix on August 22. While the Battle of Oriskany, then, was a bloody draw, its aftermath put the British forces at a distinct disadvantage.

BATTLE OF BENNINGTON

In addition to British regulars, Tory militia forces, and Indian auxiliaries, the British Crown employed some 30,000 mercenary troops against the Americans. They were men from various German states, misleadingly lumped together under the name of "Hessians." In the summer of 1777, Burgoyne detailed Hessian troops under Lieutenant Colonel Frederick Baum (d. 1782?) to take Bennington, Vermont. There, however, General John Stark (1728–1822), who had distinguished himself at the Battle of Bunker Hill, was gathering reinforcements. Hearing that Baum's Indian auxiliaries were looting and terrorizing the countryside, Stark dispatched 200 militiamen to drive the Indians off. However, the militiamen first encountered Baum's main column and were sent running. Battle was delayed by a rainstorm on August 15, a fortunate respite that gave Stark time to receive 400 reinforcements, the Vermont militia, led by Seth Warner (1743–84). Baum's men, in the meantime, were ordered to dig in.

On the 16th Stark and Warner waited for the rain to stop, then moved in for a preemptive attack, with an enveloping movement from the front, rear, and flanks. Baum saw the attackers, but because they were dressed in civilian clothing, he assumed they were local Tories. With all the Americans in place, the attack began. In the shock of the initial assault, the Indians, Tories, and Canadians panicked and fled. The Germans and the British, dug in on a hilltop, held their ground and were joined by some of their fleeing comrades. For two hours Stark and Warner kept up the pressure. With ammunition dwindling, Baum's troops finally began to flee, except for his faithful dragoons. Baum, determined to save the day, ordered his men to draw sabers and charge into the Americans. It was a gesture both futile and fatal. When Baum fell, mortally wounded, his dispirited men surrendered.

In the meantime, however, more German mercenaries arrived, led by Lieutenant Colonel Heinrich von Breymann (1723/4–?). They were met at the outskirts of Bennington by Stark's troops and by additional arrivals from the contingent of Vermont militiamen. Together, these troops counterattacked Breymann's forces. In the end, of the combined British and German forces, 207 lay dead and another 700 were taken prisoner. A total of 30 Americans fell in battle, and perhaps 40 more were wounded. It was a great Patriot victory. For Burgoyne the loss at Bennington spelled the end of his grand strategy for crushing the Revolution by splitting the American colonies in two.

HOWE'S PHILADELPHIA CAMPAIGN

As the home of the Continental Congress, Philadelphia was effectively the capital of the rebellion and, moreover, the leading metropolis of the North American continent,

center of colonial wealth and culture. Philadelphia was also a stronghold of Toryism. As General Howe saw it, taking Philadelphia might well deal a decapitating blow to the Revolution. Howe also concluded that Washington would sacrifice much for the defense of Philadelphia. Howe transported 15,000 troops from New York on an inordinately slow passage to Philadelphia. The long delays gave Washington plenty of time to assemble and move his army. On August 24 he paraded 11,000 Continental army troops through Philadelphia, marching southward to meet Howe, Cornwallis, and Wilhelm, baron von Knyphausen (1716–1800), the new commander in chief of the German mercenaries.

On September 11, early in the morning, British troops were sighted near Kennett Square, Pennsylvania. Washington dispatched his main forces to meet them, only to discover that they were merely a diversionary force. Washington had left many of the upstream fords across Brandywine Creek undefended, and across these fords Howe's main force now advanced, poised for a surprise attack against the Americans from the right rear. All along the placid Brandywine, the thin American line gave way. In great disarray by nightfall, Washington's army withdrew to Chester, Pennsylvania, where it regrouped and was still interposed between Howe and Philadelphia. Of some 11,000 American troops engaged at Brandywine, 1,200 to 1,300 were casualties, perhaps 400 of this number taken as prisoners, and 11 precious artillery pieces were captured. Howe, in overall command of 12,500 men, lost 577 killed and wounded, all but 40 of whom were British regulars.

From Chester, after resting the night, Washington fell back toward Philadelphia. Howe marched into Chester and occupied it. The British army was just 15 miles outside the revolutionary capital, and on September 18 the Continental Congress evacuated to Lancaster, Pennsylvania, and then to York. On September 16, at White Horse Tavern and at Malvern Hill—both west of Philadelphia—Washington briefly engaged Howe's Hessians, then dispatched forces under Generals Anthony Wayne and William Maxwell to fight in earnest, but a torrential storm soaked the combatants, bringing the battle to an abrupt halt. The Americans, whose ammunition was stored in jerry-built cartridge boxes, found that their powder had been drenched and was useless. The troops trudged through the mud to Reading Furnace, where they could be resupplied. But a detachment of Von Knyphausen's troops, foraging along the Schuylkill River just west of Philadelphia discovered Valley Forge on September 18, a completely unguarded Patriot supply depot. A large quantity of flour, horseshoes, tools, and other supplies were captured, and Howe established a post there.

Washington sent Wayne with 1,500 men and four cannons to Warren's Tavern, near the town of Paoli, to harass the British rear guard. British Major General Charles Grey (1729–1807) was sent to surprise Wayne's camp during the night of September 20–21 using a silent, swift, and terrible bayonet attack. Howe claimed 500 killed, but Wayne counted 150 bodies so mangled by British bayonets that local residents dubbed the encounter the Paoli Massacre.

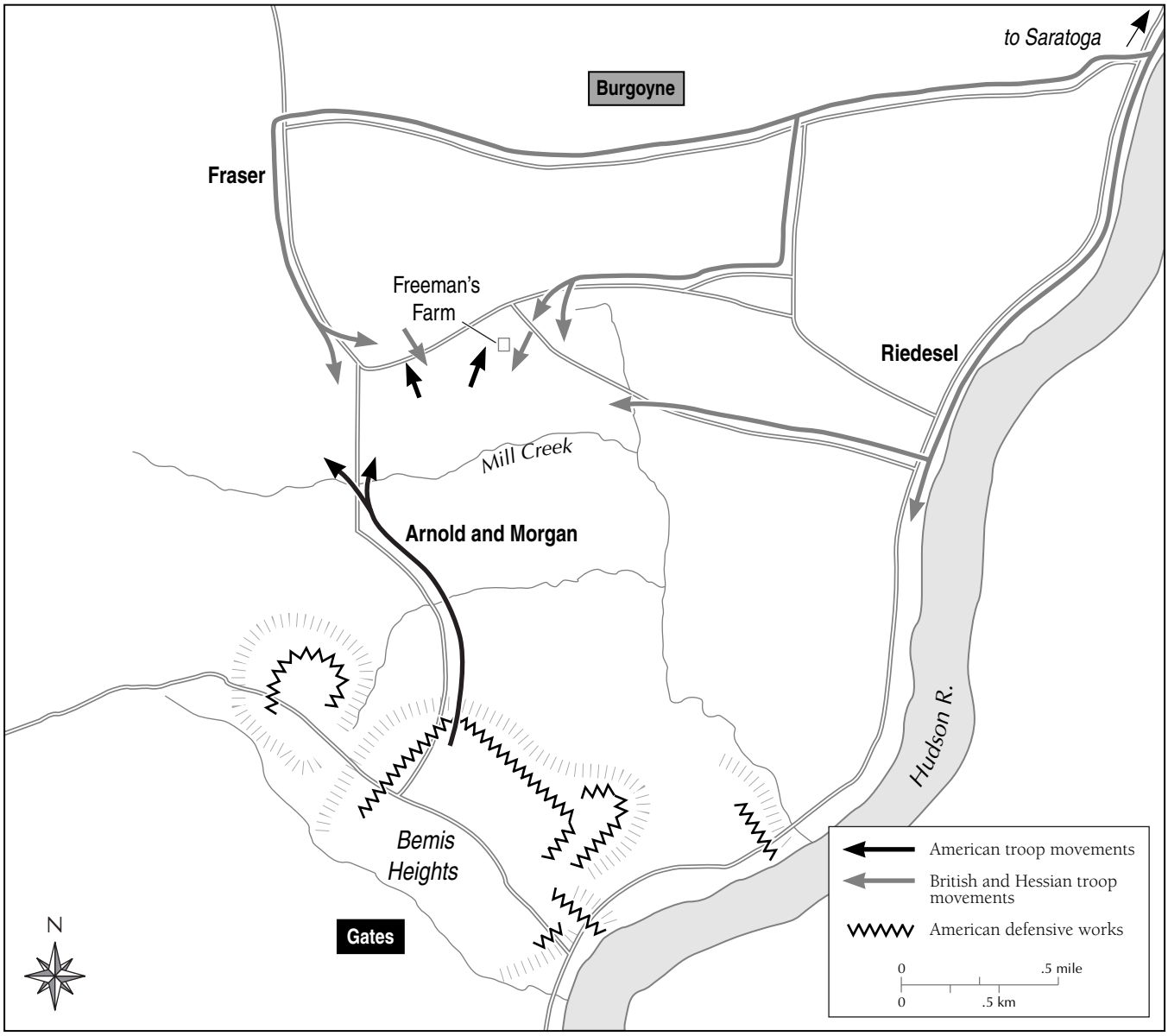
After the Paoli disaster Washington moved his troops to Pott's Grove (present-day Pottstown), Pennsylvania, whereupon Howe, changing direction, started his main body of troops across the Schuylkill River. On September 23 General Charles Cornwallis marched four British and two Hessian units into Philadelphia unopposed. After taking possession of the city, he bedded down his forces in Germantown, just north of the city.

Audaciously, Washington decided to counterattack precisely the position at which the British were strongest, Germantown, today a Philadelphia neighborhood, but in the 18th century a village just north of the city. Washington struck Howe's advance units at dawn on October 4 with a force of 8,000 Continentals and 3,000 militiamen against 9,000 British troops. The British advance troops, the 40th Regiment, retreated to the large house of Benjamin Chew, a formidable stone structure. From the cover it provided the British poured fire on General Sullivan's troops. Hearing the artillery, Continental general Adam Stephen rushed his men into the battle but, confused by the morning fog, ended up firing on and colliding with the rear of Anthony Wayne's column. The result was paralysis and panic, and Washington had no choice but to order all forces to withdraw.

From a military point of view, Germantown was a fiasco, with 152 American soldiers dead, 521 wounded, and 400 captured (Howe's casualties were 535 killed and wounded), but from a political and psychological point of view, Germantown was hardly a catastrophe. French observers were impressed by the fact that Washington, having lost Philadelphia, nevertheless made bold to attack. What they saw moved their government a step closer to outright alliance with the Patriots.

BATTLE OF FREEMAN'S FARM

As Washington was being battered in Pennsylvania, Burgoyne reeled from one blow after another in upstate New York and Vermont. The Hessians had been beaten at Bennington, Barry St. Leger had failed to take Fort Stanwix, and General Howe was too busy in Philadelphia to join him in Albany. Yet Burgoyne saw no alternative to marching into Albany. Along the way, on September 19, Burgoyne reached Freeman's Farm, little more than an unharvested wheat field along the Hudson. In his eagerness to provoke a battle, Burgoyne blundered by dividing his forces, assigning General Simon Fraser to lead 2,200 men along a path that led to Freeman's western fields while he took 1,100 men south and then west to meet up with Fraser on Freeman's Farm. He assigned the east column, another 1,100 men in three Brunswick regiments commanded by Baron von Riedesel, to move south down the river road. The



Saratoga, Battle of Freeman's Farm, initial attack, September 19, 1777

divided army, three columns, were out of sight of one another, their movements all but impossible to coordinate.

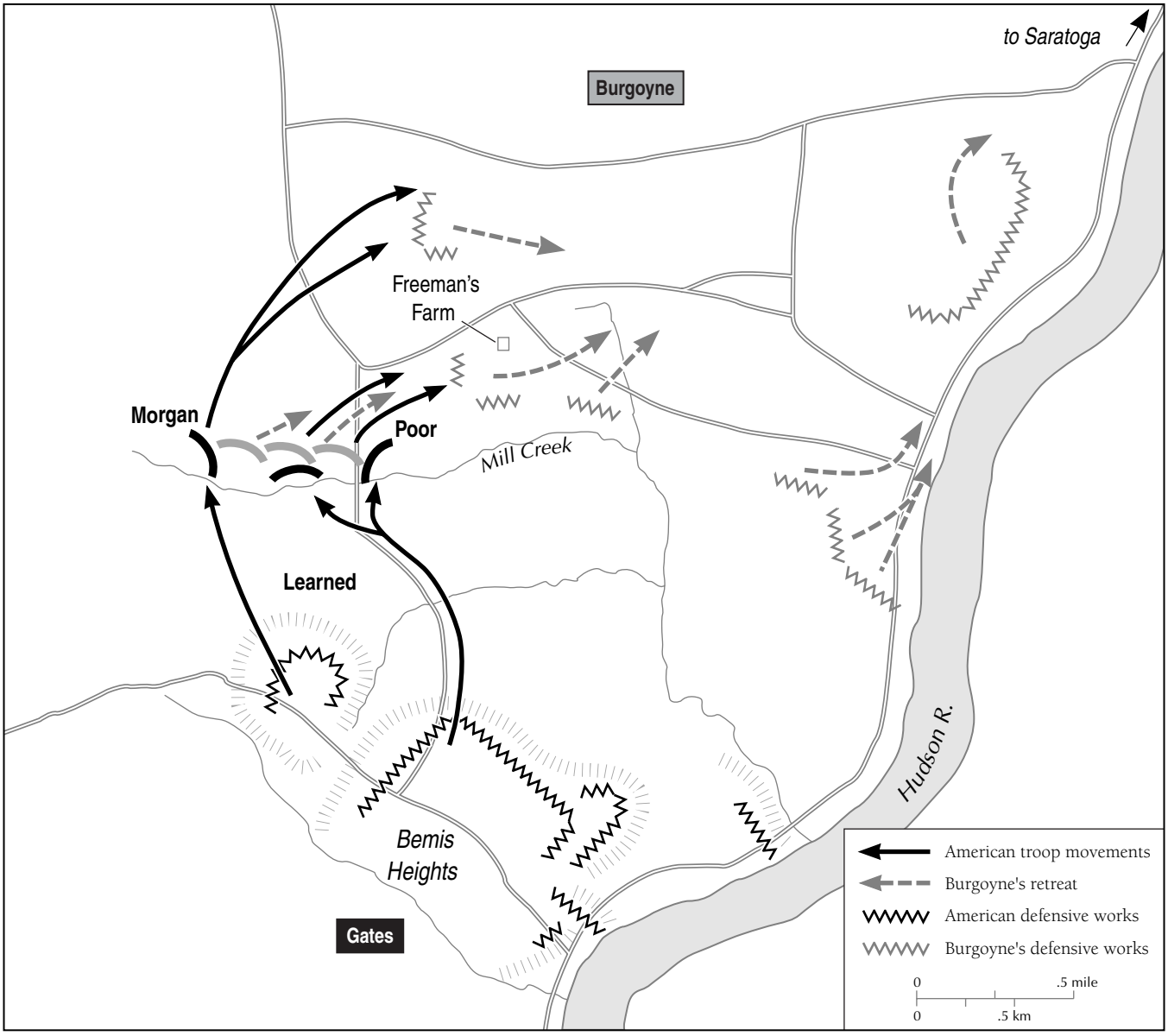
The American commander, Horatio Gates (1728–1806), observed all of this but failed to act. At last his subordinate, the boldly impetuous Benedict Arnold (1741–1801), succeeded in urging Gates to action. Gates ordered riflemen under the wily frontiersman Daniel Morgan (1736–1802) and light infantry led by Henry Dearborn (1751–1829) to make contact. Morgan fired from ambush, cutting down every British officer in the advance line. The riflemen then charged into Burgoyne's advance line, causing it to stampede in panic. Suddenly, however, Morgan's men collided with the main body of the British center column. Now the pursuers became the pursued, retreating to the woods in complete disarray. Morgan rapidly re-formed his troops. As for the British, the encounter had so shaken and stunned them that as the advance-line survivors ran back toward the main body, many in the main body opened fire indiscriminately, wounding and killing their own men. Seeing the frenzied action, Burgoyne decided not to wait for a signal from Fraser's column but fired his own signal gun and moved the main body of his troops onto Freeman's Farm, forming battle lines along its northern edge.

As for the American response, the evidence is that Benedict Arnold, not Horatio Gates, effectively assumed command of the next phase of the battle. With Burgoyne's ranks neatly formed, European style, in the clearing,

Morgan and Dearborn took positions along the southern edge of the clearing, and seven more American regiments were sent down from Bemis Heights, just south of the farm. For the next three or four hours a firefight pitted American wilderness tactics against the formal tactics of European soldiers. Firing from cover, the Americans cut through the ranks of the three British regiments standing shoulder to shoulder. The British suffered severe losses, but they retained their discipline and were able to return effective fire, augmented by artillery. Each time the Americans attempted to charge out of cover to take the battle to a conclusion, the British drove them back.

Burgoyne's objective was to hold out until Riedesel and Fraser arrived with reinforcements. The Americans wanted to destroy the British forces in detail before the arrival of those fresh troops. At last, however, Riedesel broke through from the east and opened up on the Americans with cannons. Arnold had returned to Bemis Heights to get more troops and so was absent from the field when the Germans arrived. Simon Fraser did not reach the vicinity of the battle until it was nearly over. His men exchanged fire with an American brigade but contributed little. Essentially leaderless, therefore, the Americans held their ground for a time but fell back as darkness settled over Freeman's Farm.

By day's end Burgoyne had lost some 600 men. Of the 800 troops in the three regiments that absorbed the brunt of the combat, 350 had been killed, wounded, or cap-



Saratoga, Battle of Freeman's Farm, repulse and pursuit of Burgoyne, September 19, 1777

tured—a calamitous 44 percent casualty rate. American losses totaled 319, including 65 killed, 208 wounded, and 36 missing. For all this, Burgoyne could still claim a technical victory; he was in possession of Freeman's Farm.

BATTLE OF SARATOGA

The fighting next moved from Freeman's Farm to Bemis Heights. Gates had been reinforced by the arrival of troops under General Benjamin Lincoln (1733–1810). Some of Lincoln's forces were already harassing Burgoyne's rear positions. Burgoyne was now outnumbered 11,000 to 5,000. On October 7, feeling that he could no longer wait for reinforcements, Burgoyne decided to send a reconnaissance force of 1,650 men to determine just what he was facing. Gates dispatched Daniel Morgan to attack the right flank of the reconnaissance force and General Enoch Poor (1736–80) to attack the left. Morgan's men rushed wide around Burgoyne's troops to take up positions in the woods, from which they could fire on both flank and rear. Officially barred from headquarters by order of the irascible General Gates, Benedict Arnold nevertheless gathered up a detachment to attack the breastworks behind which some of Burgoyne's men had taken shelter. Next, seeing Continental troops under General Ebenezer Learned marching toward the British right, Arnold galloped directly across the line of fire to lead them away from the right and instead into a frontal assault against "Breymann's redoubt," an enforced position occupied by Hessians. Arnold's horse was shot from under him, and then he took a bullet in the leg. Unable to continue, he had to be carried from the field. On the British side, however, the officer corps fared far worse. Among the casualties was General Simon Fraser, one of the British army's most dashing and capable commanders, who fell mortally wounded while trying to cover the redcoat's retreat.

Without Arnold to lead it, the American charge quickly petered out, but the damage to Burgoyne's army had already been done. The British suffered 600 killed or wounded, whereas American casualties were fewer than 150. Burgoyne fell back on Saratoga with his survivors as Gates continually harassed him in pursuit. On October 12 Gates maneuvered around Burgoyne, cutting off all access to the Hudson and, therefore, any hope of withdrawal north to safety. The next day Burgoyne surrendered. The British and Hessian troops were permitted to avoid becoming prisoners of war by returning to England "on condition of not serving again in North America during the present contest."

BATTLES FOR THE DELAWARE RIVER FORTS

Having taken Philadelphia, Howe needed to secure a supply route to the occupied city. Without it he would find himself in the same position as Gage had been in in Boston, vulnerable to siege. The threat to Howe came from two Patriot forts on the Delaware River, Fort Mifflin on the Pennsylvania side of the river and Fort Mercer on the Jersey side, which effectively prevented English ships from reaching Philadelphia. In costly assaults, the forts were captured by November 21.

THE FRENCH ALLIANCE IS FORMALIZED

The end of 1777 was a critical time for Washington and his army. Historical myth portrays the winter of 1777–78 as especially harsh. This was not true, but Washington had gone into winter quarters late, and there was a race against the elements to build adequate huts at winter quarters in Valley Forge, Pennsylvania. The troops' spirits were warmed as well by the news that on December 17, 1777, the French government of Louis XVI had declared its decision to recognize, openly and officially, American independence. Treaties of alliance were concluded, which were ratified by the Continental Congress on May 4, 1778. Nevertheless 2,500 men died of disease and exposure during the six months in camp at Valley Forge.

In February 1778 William Howe asked to be relieved of his duties as commander in chief, and on March 7 Sir Henry Clinton was chosen to replace him. The alliance between the Americans and the French suddenly shifted the focus of the war to France, and Germain ordered Clinton to send 5,000 men to the island of St. Lucia in the West Indies and another 3,000 to reinforce St. Augustine and Pensacola, Florida. The men in Philadelphia were to be transferred to New York City, and Philadelphia, so hard won, would be relinquished to the rebels.

BATTLE OF MONMOUTH COURTHOUSE

Before dawn on June 16, 1778, Clinton began removing artillery from the redoubts around Philadelphia. Noting this, Washington concluded that the British were preparing for some operation in New Jersey. By June 18 10,000 British regulars and 3,000 local Tories had left Philadelphia and moving toward Haddonfield, New Jersey. On June 28 an advance unit of New Jersey militiamen engaged some of Clinton's best regiments and was in desperate need of assistance. When the always troublesome General Charles Lee failed to respond, Washington ordered him to attack at once. The attack failed, and Lee ordered a retreat. Washington rode into the mass of Lee's retreating men, relieved Lee, assumed personal command, and, as Lafayette later remarked, stopped the retreat by his mere presence. But Lee's failures had caused the Americans to lose the initiative, and the two sides fought near Monmouth Courthouse in severe midsummer heat until both the Americans and the British withdrew, exhausted. The battle was a draw: 356 Americans were killed, wounded, or missing, and 358 British were killed or wounded (some historians believe that British losses were much higher). While the Americans held the field, the British kept their army intact and were able to complete the evacuation from Philadelphia. Court-martialed, Charles Lee was removed from service.

RHODE ISLAND OPERATIONS

After Monmouth Washington fruitlessly continued to pursue Clinton. As part of this effort, a Franco-American amphibious operation was launched against Newport, Rhode Island, spearheaded by Admiral Charles Hector Théodot, the comte d'Estaing (1729–94). Having sailed from Toulon on April 13, 1778, d'Estaing made a very slow crossing of 87 days, so that his arrival was too late to bottle up the British fleet in the Chesapeake. Subsequent attacks failed, and some 10,000 Americans under John Sullivan were stranded in Rhode Island at the end of July 1778. This force was saved from destruction by an African-American unit, which fought so fiercely in an August battle that Sullivan was able to withdraw.

BATTLE OF STONY POINT

Although the performance of America's French allies was hitherto disappointing, the entry of France had already produced a profound impact. Sir Henry Clinton's forces were greatly weakened not by Patriot action, but by London, which felt it necessary to meet the French threat in the West Indies. No longer possessing a great force to mount an invasion from Canada, Clinton decided to make use of the assets that remained in New York. On May 30, 1779, he moved about 6,000 troops in 70 sailing craft and 150 flatbottom boats up the Hudson. His objective was to seize West Point, by which control of the lower Hudson could be achieved, thereby cutting off the flow of men and material to and from New England. Washington responded by getting a spy inside the newly constructed British works at Stony Point. The spy furnished intelligence that allowed Anthony Wayne to capture Stony Point. Deciding after its capture that he could not spare the men to hold Stony Point, Washington tore down the fort and abandoned it.

BATTLE OF PAULUS HOOK

Allen McLane, the spy of Stony Point, next scouted Paulus Hook, a strategic British fortification located in present-day Jersey City, New Jersey, and determined that the British garrison there numbered a mere 200 men. On August 18, 1779, McLane guided General Henry "Lighthorse Harry" Lee (1734–97) and his detachment of 400 troops to the fort. Paulus Hook fell within 30 minutes on the 19th.

THE SOUTHERN COASTAL THEATER

Early Phases

As noted earlier in this entry, during the early years of the Revolution fighting in the South constituted virtually a separate war from the struggle in the North. At first there was very little attempt on either side to coordinate the two theaters. As the British saw it, the South, in contrast to New England, harbored a large Tory population, and after the fall of Boston to the Patriots British military strategists turned to parts of the South where loyalism ran high.

First Assault on Charleston

British command soon determined that loyalism was stronger in South Carolina than in Virginia, so it was decided to attempt an early capture of the key port of Charleston. On June 4, 1776, 10 British warships and 30 troop transports dropped anchor off Charleston Bar. General Henry Clinton's plan was to close in on Sullivan's Island and bombard the Patriot fort there, which had been built of stout palmetto logs. During this bombardment the troop transports would unload onto Long Island (now Isle of Palms), a short distance from Sullivan's Island. The infantry would then march onto Sullivan's Island and take the fort. Once that was done, invading Charleston itself would be a simple matter. But Clinton made two errors. He failed, first, to understand the true sentiment in Charleston. Charlestonians resolved to resist invasion. Second, the body of water separating Long Island from Sullivan's Island, which at first looked inconsiderable, proved to be unfordable. Men were picked off one by one as they tried to cross.

In addition, the waterborne arm of the assault did not go as planned. In the treacherous shallows around the island British ships ran aground, and their cannon fire was largely ineffective against the palmetto walls of the fort, the tough wood, like some great sponge, simply absorbing the cannonball blows. From behind the palmetto stockade the Americans returned fire with devastating effect. The British ships, trying to navigate difficult waters, were completely vulnerable. Abandoning one frigate, which had run aground, Admiral Sir Peter Parker (1721–1811) withdrew his remaining ships, all of them badly damaged, although he had 100 guns versus only 21 in the fort. A total of 64 Royal Navy sailors died, and 131 were wounded, while American losses in the forts numbered 17 dead and 20 wounded. The invasion was cancelled, and years would pass before Charleston was attacked again.

Fall of Savannah

The disappointment at Charleston prompted the British largely to neglect the South for the next two years, but after the Franco-American alliance was concluded in 1778 British strategy once again changed. From the end of 1778 the South became a principal focus of the British war effort. Savannah was the first target in the renewed southern campaign.

On December 23, 1778, Lieutenant Colonel Archibald Campbell (1739–91) anchored off Tybee Island at the mouth of the Savannah River with 3,500 British troops. Defending Savannah were 900 Continental soldiers and a militia force of perhaps 150, all commanded by General Robert Howe (1732–96, no relation to the British Howe brothers). Worse for the Americans, General Augustine Prevost (1723–86) was marching north from Florida with his contingent of British troops to cooperate with Campbell in the capture of Savannah, but Campbell decided not

to wait for Prevost. He landed his men at Girardeau's Plantation, about two miles south of the town. Waiting for him in defensive positions just a half mile south of Savannah were 700 of Robert Howe's Continentals plus the 150 militiamen. Campbell proved equal to the challenge in the December 29 battle. Before his advance, the American units fell back in good order, and Campbell marched into Savannah.

On October 9, 1779, French admiral d'Estaing attempted to retake Savannah, but failed. Patriot general Benjamin Lincoln, in overall command of the American forces in the theater, wanted to give the attack a second try, but d'Estaing feared bad weather as well as the fleet of the enemy. He withdrew to Martinique in the Indies, and the British occupation of Savannah endured through July 1782.

Second Assault on Charleston

On March 19, 1779, General Henry Clinton laid siege to Charleston, which fell on May 12, 1780. Approximately 5,000 American soldiers instantly became prisoners of war, and 400 precious artillery pieces and some 6,000 muskets also fell to the enemy. All of South Carolina was thrown open to the British.

THE WAR AT SEA

Britain possessed the most powerful navy in the world. In 1775 it included 131 ships of the line, each mounting at least 64 guns and some more than 100, and 139 major craft of other classes, many of them highly maneuverable frigates. By the end of the Revolution, in 1783, the total number of vessels stood at 468. Against this, at the start of the war the United States had no navy at all. The first vessels acquired were a fleet of small craft brought together from various private sources during the siege of Boston. Congress authorized construction of 13 frigates, and by the end of the war the U.S. Navy had 53 ships. The "official" fleet was variously augmented by state navies and by privateers, armed commercial vessels authorized to prey upon enemy shipping.

On March 3–4, 1776, the newly created Continental navy carried out its first—and only—planned major naval operation in the war. Esek Hopkins (1718–1802), a Rhode Island farm boy turned sailor, was put in command of the first squadron of the new navy. He surprised British forces on Nassau (then called Providence or New Providence), Bahamas, by landing a force of U.S. Marines in their first action of the war, an assault on Fort Montagu. The raid not only took the fort but netted 100 cannons, a mortar, and the governor of the island, Monfort Browne (fl. 1774–80), who was taken captive. (Browne was later exchanged for an American officer and went on to command a unit of Tories.) Among the junior officers serving in Esek Hopkins's small fleet (eight vessels, the largest of which were two merchant ships converted into small frigates of 24 and 20 guns) was a young Scottish immigrant named John Paul Jones (1747–92), who would emerge from the Revolution as its greatest naval hero.

On April 10, 1778, Jones sailed from Brest, France, and, on April 27–28, 1778, raided Whitehaven on the Solway Firth in Scotland, spiking the guns of two forts and burning three British ships. He then crossed the Irish Sea to Carrickfergus, where he captured the British sloop *Drake* in a short, sharp action.

In the summer of 1779 the French, having now entered the war, prepared five naval vessels and two privateers for Jones to lead, using a refitted East Indiaman called the *Duras,* which Jones renamed *Bonhomme Richard,* in tribute to Benjamin Franklin's *Poor Richard's Almanac*. With this vessel, sailing clockwise around the British Isles, Jones captured 17 British ships.

On September 23, 1779, off Flamborough Head, along the York coast in the North Sea, Jones sighted two warships convoying 40 British merchant vessels. The warships were the 44-gun *Serapis* and the 20-gun *Countess of Scarborough*. Jones pursued *Serapis* while his three other vessels, *Vengeance, Pallas,* and *Alliance,* chased the *Countess*. In the opening moments of this moonlit battle, two of Jones's largest cannons exploded, so that he was critically outgunned, but Jones nevertheless outmaneuvered *Serapis* and rammed her stern. This put *Bonhomme Richard* in a position from which none of her guns could be brought to bear. When the captain of the *Serapis* called out: "Has your ship struck?"—meaning "struck colors" or surrendered—Jones replied with perhaps the single most famous utterance in American military history: "I have not yet begun to fight."

At this the vessels separated, and *Serapis* now collided with *Bonhomme Richard*. Jones lashed on, tying the British vessel to his, then pounding it at point-blank range with his cannons that were still functioning. After two hours of this beating, it was *Serapis* that struck colors.

VIRGINIA CULMINATION

After the British withdrawal from North Carolina (*see* AMERICAN REVOLUTION: FRONTIER THEATER), the focus of the southern theater shifted north to Virginia. Benedict Arnold, who had turned traitor in May 1779, offering to the British a scheme to surrender West Point, led a British raid into Virginia in December 1780. Departing from New York on the 20th with 1,600 men, including John Graves Simcoe (1752–1806) and his band of Tory Rangers, he arrived at Hampton Roads on December 30, his numbers having been reduced to 1,200. Encountering little resistance, Arnold captured American ships, sailed up the James, took the battery at Hood's Point (January 3, 1781), and then entered Richmond on January 5. Arnold burned as much of Richmond as he could, then traveled downriver.

General Friedrich Wilhelm von Steuben (1730–94), a German officer who had done so much to train the Continental army at Valley Forge, now commanded Patriot forces in Virginia. He attempted to ambush Arnold en

route to Westover but was deftly outmaneuvered. Arnold turned on Steuben's forces and neatly routed them. Arnold then encamped at Portsmouth for the winter.

Washington had dispatched Lafayette early in 1781 to fight Arnold in Virginia. Lafayette took three light infantry regiments from the ranks of New England and New Jersey Continental troops to rendezvous with a French fleet. Because of a British blockade of Newport, Rhode Island, however, the French fleet was delayed and overtaken by a British fleet under Admiral Marriot Arbuthnot. The Battle of Chesapeake Bay on March 16, 1781, was a narrow French victory, but it nevertheless prompted French admiral Charles René-Dominique Destouches (d. 1804) to abandon the plan to join the Virginia expedition. In the meantime the British commander in chief, Henry Clinton, was able to ship 2,000 reinforcements to Benedict Arnold, along with Arnold's command replacement, William Phillips (c. 1731–81).

The abortive failure of yet another Franco-American amphibious operation put the Patriot cause in grave peril. Steuben had only a handful of Continentals and a miscellany of militia troops to defend Virginia against the onslaught of 3,000 British regulars and Tory auxiliaries. Lafayette was at Head of Elk, on the Chesapeake, 150 miles from Richmond. As for Washington, he was facing the very real prospect of watching his main army disband for want of food. In the meantime Phillips and Arnold conducted a series of destructive raids throughout Virginia, and on April 30 Phillips and Arnold, with 2,500 men, were on the James River, poised to attack Richmond again. What stopped them was the arrival of Lafayette and 1,200 Continentals. With the failure of his countryman to meet him with the fleet, the young Frenchman had made a forced march to reach Richmond, prompting Phillips and Arnold to withdraw to Petersburg to join up with Cornwallis. Cornwallis was determined to destroy Lafayette and his small army. He consolidated a force of 7,200 men by late spring of 1781 and decided to throw all of these against whatever Continentals and militia troops Lafayette could muster—about 3,000 in all. At this time in Petersburg, General William Phillips suddenly succumbed to typhoid fever, and Cornwallis assumed direct command of all British and Tory forces in Virginia. Recognizing that he greatly outnumbered Lafayette, Cornwallis ordered an advance out of Petersburg and pursued Lafayette northward. The Frenchman repeatedly eluded the British commander, who finally gave up the chase.

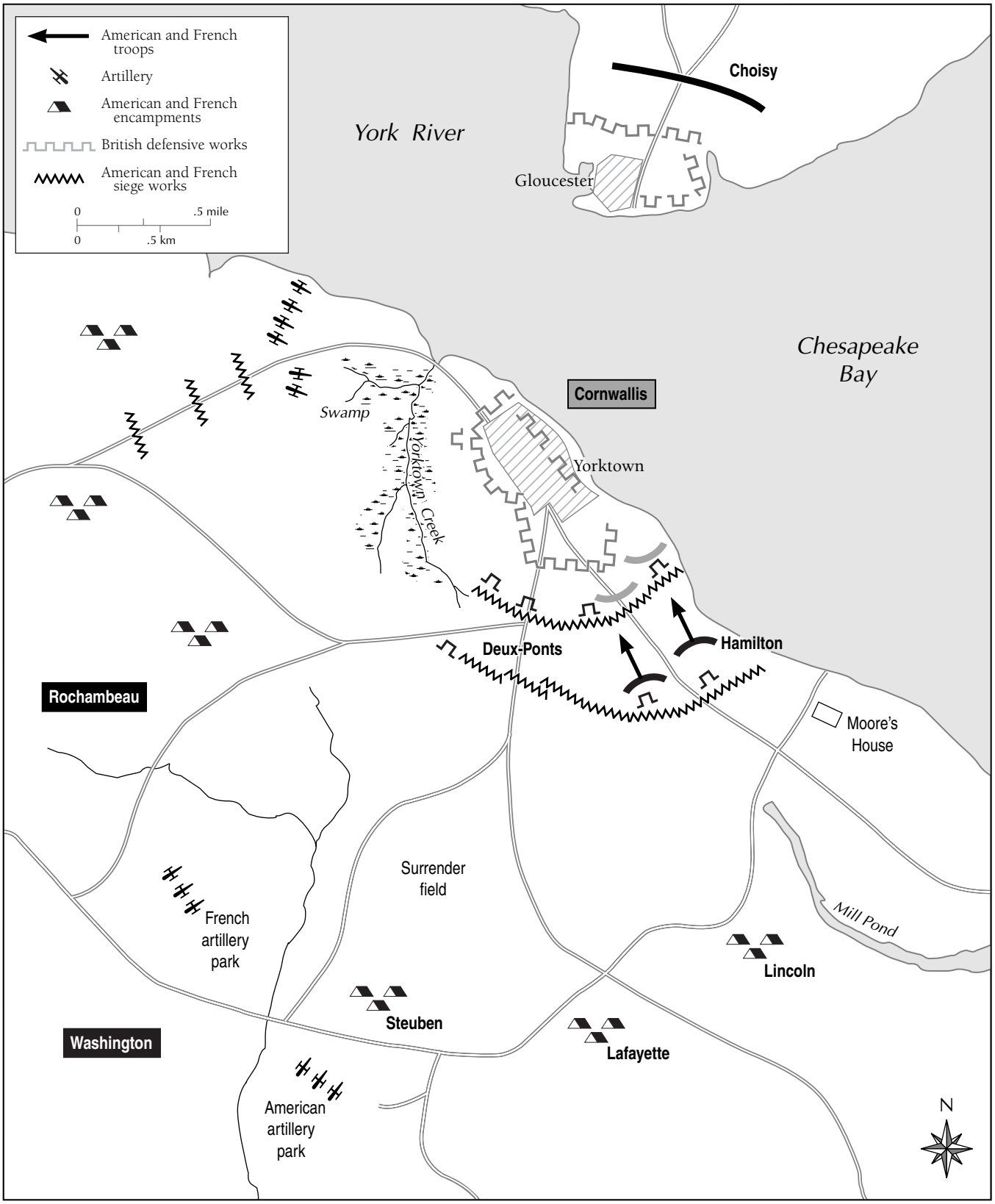
Safe for the moment from Cornwallis, Lafayette received reinforcements: three Pennsylvania regiments under no less a commander than Anthony Wayne. With a total now of 4,500 men, Lafayette felt ready to make a decisive move. He turned upon Cornwallis's army, which was traveling down Virginia's York Peninsula. Cornwallis's main body encamped around Williamsburg, where the British commander pondered his next move. Suddenly, however, Henry Clinton sent an order to Cornwallis to send 3,000 troops to him in New York. Instead of detaching the requisite number of troops, Cornwallis moved his entire army out of Williamsburg and to the north bank of the James River and the Jamestown Ford, the place at which the 3,000 troops demanded by his superior would have to cross in order to reach Portsmouth, from which ships would take them to New York. Cornwallis decided to make it appear as if he were, in fact, totally evacuating Virginia. He guessed that Lafayette and Wayne would attack when they believed he was most vulnerable, with his army in the process of crossing the James and therefore divided on either side of the river. Thus, having used part of his contingent to lure his prey, Cornwallis would attack from ambush and destroy the smaller American force.

On July 6, 1781, it did appear that both the 23-year-old Frenchman and the older, more seasoned Wayne had swallowed the bait. Wayne's men advanced on what they took to be Cornwallis's rearguard, not realizing that the great bulk of the British force was still lying in wait on the north bank. Had Cornwallis acted immediately, he could have swiftly crushed Wayne's 500-man attacking force. But he decided to wait for them before committing all his troops. Watching the action at the ford, Lafayette was about to commit the rest of his troops to the action, but then he became suspicious. Instead of sending in the entire army, he committed only a detachment to reinforce Wayne. This was enough to persuade Cornwallis that Lafayette was marching boldly into his trap. He ordered his massed troops to come out of hiding and move against what was now 900 Americans. Wayne, although outnumbered, ordered a counterattack. The boldness of this action unnerved the British, but they soon regained their lost momentum. At least Wayne had bought the time necessary to ensure an orderly retreat. It was a defeat for the Americans, but certainly not the decisive victory Cornwallis had counted on. Lafayette had preserved his army, and Wayne had saved his.

YORKTOWN CAMPAIGN

Cornwallis chose not to pursue the Americans. Instead, he pressed on to Portsmouth, apparently intending to follow Clinton's orders to send troops to New York, but in the interim Clinton changed Cornwallis's orders: He was to occupy and hold a position in Virginia. Cornwallis marched to Yorktown, a sleepy tobacco port on the York River. Yorktown gave Cornwallis access to support from the Royal Navy, but it also made him vulnerable to being cut off by an enemy naval force.

With General Jean Baptiste Donatien de Vimeur, comte de Rochambeau (1725–1807), Washington planned to reinforce Lafayette and Wayne against Cornwallis while French admiral de Grasse would cut off the British commander's seaborne sources of reinforcement, communication, and supply. De Grasse would also land three West Indian regiments for use in the campaign against Cornwallis. By August 21 the march to Virginia was on.



Campaign and siege of Yorktown, October 6–19, 1781

On September 1 British admirals Samuel Graves (1725?–1802) and Samuel Hood (1724–1816) set out from New York to intercept de Grasse's West Indian fleet and a French supporting fleet under Admiral Jacques-Melchior Saint-Laurent, comte de Barras (c. 1719–93), which had left Newport, Rhode Island. For the first time in its North

American campaigns, the French fleet operated with brilliant efficiency. De Grasse beat the British to the Chesapeake, and French cruisers assumed positions in the James River to block Cornwallis, preventing his escape to the south. More French vessels blockaded the mouth of the York River, while the rest of de Grasse's fleet waited for the approach of the Royal Navy at the mouth of the Chesapeake.

For the present Cornwallis was bottled up at Yorktown and could only await the onslaught of Washington and Rochambeau. However, if Admiral Graves acted boldly he could still smash the French fleet and free Cornwallis. The two navies made contact on September 5, 1781, in Chesapeake Bay at the Battle of the Capes. After a mere two hours, Admirals Graves and Hood withdrew from the Chesapeake and returned to New York, leaving Cornwallis stranded at Yorktown.

By September 9 de Barras's fleet arrived to join de Grasse in Chesapeake Bay. With complete control of the bay now secured, de Grasse was able to land additional troops, so that when the allied forces were all assembled at Williamsburg, Virginia, they numbered 16,000 men. Cornwallis had some 6,000 troops: Tarleton's Legion was posted at Gloucester, while the main force was bottled up within the fortifications of Yorktown.

On September 17 Washington and Rochambeau met aboard the *Ville de Paris* to plan the investment of Yorktown. The plan was simple: While de Grasse maintained control of the sea, the allies would encircle Yorktown and bombard it using guns landed by de Grasse's ships. While this went on, allied engineers would dig trenches by which to approach the fortifications. With such an advantage of numbers, it was almost certain that the siege of Yorktown would succeed if the allies made no gross blunders.

On September 30, 1781, Cornwallis ordered the outer works of Yorktown to be abandoned. Determined to wait for relief from the sea, he wanted to conserve his resources. The allies advanced to occupy the abandoned works, placing artillery on them. Beginning on October 1, 1781, American batteries started pounding Yorktown from these fortifications. On October 6 Washington, with an uncharacteristically ceremonial flourish, personally broke ground for the first approach trench. Within three days more artillery was brought forward, and, again in the spirit of ritual, Washington fired the first shot. French and American artillery drove the last two remaining British frigates out of the river.

On October 14, Washington's aide de camp, Alexander Hamilton (1757–1804), and a French officer led a furious nighttime bayonet attack against defenders of two redoubts near the York River. These objectives secured, the approach trenches were now extended all the way to the river, completely cutting Cornwallis off. The British commander seized on a last hope: a nighttime breakout across the York River to Gloucester Point and then a forced march northward all the way to New York. A sudden storm, however, put an end to this. There would be no escape, and on October 17, 1781, Cornwallis asked for terms. The formal surrender took place the next day. Cornwallis's surrender did not immediately end the fighting in the Carolinas or in the West, but Yorktown did bring the British to the peace table. On October 1, 1782, United States envoys Benjamin Franklin (1706–90) and John Jay (1745–1829) began formal negotiations with Richard Oswald (1705–84), the designated British negotiator. By the 5th an agreement had been hammered out specifying United States boundaries, a program for the evacuation of British troops, access to the Newfoundland fisheries, and free trade and navigation of the Mississippi. In the meantime John Adams, having concluded a treaty of commerce and amity with the Netherlands (October 8), arrived in Paris (October 26) and concurred with Jay and Franklin that the treaty with the British should move ahead without the French. By November 5 all the commissioners—Henry Laurens (1724–92) having just arrived—reached agreement on a final draft of the articles of peace. On November 30, 1782, Franklin, Jay, Adams, and Laurens signed a provisional treaty, pending ratification by the governments. On September 3, 1783, the Treaty of Paris, having been duly ratified, was definitively signed. It recognized the independence of the United States and acknowledged its boundaries as excluding Canada but extending westward through the Great Lakes to the Mississippi, southward to the 31st parallel, and east to the Atlantic Ocean. In addition, Americans would have the right to fish off the banks of Newfoundland and Nova Scotia; legal debts would be honored by each country; no further penalties would be enacted against citizens of any country involved in the hostilities; all remaining British troops would evacuate; and the Mississippi River would be open to navigation by the United States as well as Britain.

American Revolution: Frontier Theater

(1775–1783)

For combatant and statistical information, *see* AMERICAN REVOLUTION: OVERVIEW.

Along the Atlantic seaboard, the American Revolution was fought largely by conventional armies in a series of traditional, or "set," battles (*see* AMERICAN REVOLUTION: COASTAL THEATER). Inland, however, the war was very different, both in tactics—largely those of guerrilla warfare—and in combatants: Patriot militia rather than "regular" (Continental army) forces vs. Loyalist militias (with Royal Army supervision), and with Indian allies and antagonists on both the Patriot and the Loyalist sides. From the point of view of the Indian combatants, the frontier war may even be regarded as something of an extension of the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

In fighting the American Revolution, both the British and the Americans courted Indian allies. Most sided with

the British, because they saw a British victory as their only hope for containing white settlement.

THE NORTHERN FRONTIER

In October 1775, the British Crown's Indian Superintendent Guy Johnson (c. 1740–88) commissioned Loyalist militia colonel John Butler (1725–96) to recruit allies among the Senecas and other Indians of the lower Great Lakes while he himself went to Montreal to gather additional Indian allies. All told, by the late fall of 1775, the Crown had accumulated an auxiliary army of 3,280 warriors.

The pro-British Mohawk war chief Joseph Brant (1742–1807) had not waited for the gathering of these forces. On September 5, 1775, he led 100 Mohawks, together with a small body of soldiers under Captain Gilbert Tice, in an attack on the American army of Major General Philip Schuyler (1733–1804) near the Richelieu River as it was advancing on Montreal, Canada. Eight Americans were killed and another eight were wounded. Under bombardment from nearby Fort St. Johns, Schuyler was forced to retreat. Another assault on Montreal, led by Colonel Ethan Allen (1738–89) on October 24–25, 1775, also failed due to desertions and the botched coordination of forces. A detachment of 40 regulars and 200 Canadians and Indians under Brant captured Allen and his men just outside the stockaded city's gate.

By September 1776 the frontier populace of Pennsylvania and New York was in a state of panic. Throughout New York's Mohawk Valley various Tories, dispossessed by the rebels of houses and lands, disguised themselves as Indians and raided settlers. In Pennsylvania's Wyoming Valley the Continental Congress had authorized raising two companies of militia, each with 82 men. However, both companies were almost immediately summoned to fight elsewhere, leaving the valley more vulnerable than ever. This was also the case in the Cherry Valley of New York, 12 miles south of the Mohawk River, where troops were raised and then sent elsewhere. These frontier areas would endure repeated hit-and-run Indian raids.

Burgoyne's Plan

By June 1777 Joseph Brant and his followers were participating in Major General John Burgoyne's (1722–92) grand plan (as Burgoyne worded it) "for conducting the war from the side of Canada." The strategy called for splitting the rebel forces in two. After assembling his army at Montreal, Burgoyne would proceed up the Richelieu River and Lake Champlain, take Crown Point, Ticonderoga, and Skenesborough, then continue by boat down the Hudson River, pushing General Philip Schuyler's Northern Department of the rebel army before it. The final objective was Albany. Simultaneously, General Sir William Howe (1724–1814), supreme commander of the British forces in North America, would move up the Hudson from the south in order to catch Schuyler's force in a pincers. A smaller third force under French and Indian War veteran Lieutenant Colonel Barry St. Leger (1737–89), was given a diversionary mission to the frontier. St. Leger would leave Montreal, proceed up the Saint Lawrence River to Lake Ontario and Fort Oswego. From the fort the force would move up the Oswego River to the headwaters of the Mohawk River, then progress down that river in order to destroy the forts of the Mohawk Valley before meeting up with Burgoyne at Albany.

Unfortunately for Burgoyne's plan, Howe felt that he had insufficient numbers of troops to allow him to detach an army for service up the Hudson. He suggested, however, that Loyalist sentiment would prove strong enough in upstate New York to supply aid and reinforcement to Burgoyne. In fact, as the details of Burgoyne's plan were leaked and then highly publicized, Loyalist residents of the Mohawk Valley, fearing peremptory attack from their rebel neighbors, defected to Canada. Officials in Tryon County, New York, issued orders for the arrest of Joseph Brant and Loyalist leaders. Even worse, the Canadians proved difficult to recruit; about 1,000 volunteers had been expected, but only 150 were finally mustered. In Burgoyne's force, the Indian "auxiliaries"—about 400 warriors—outnumbered the combined Canadians and American Loyalists (a complement of about 250). In addition, Burgoyne mustered 3,700 British regulars, 3,000 Hessians and Brunswickers, and 470 regular artillerymen. Additional Indian warriors were picked up on the shores of Lake Champlain. There Burgoyne met with chiefs and principal warriors of the Algonquian, Iroquois, Abenaki, and Ottawa tribes, inviting them to attack the Americans.

New York Frontier

In the meantime St. Leger had mustered 675 regulars and 700 to 900 Indians for his diversionary expedition into the frontier. As Loyalists were deserting the Mohawk Valley, potential Patriot settlers were leaving settlements in and around Oquaga, Unadilla, and Cherry Valley, along the Susquehanna, and seeking refuge to the north in the Mohawk Valley. Late in February 1777 New York militia colonel John Harper, commanding the fort at Schoharie, was directed by the New York Congress to investigate the activities of Joseph Brant. Harper interrogated Indians at Oquaga, accusing them of planning an invasion. They denied this, but on his way back from Oquaga Harper encountered 15 warriors who, Harper believed, were on their way to attack Johnstown. With 14 militiamen Harper sneaked up on the Indians as they lay sleeping in camp; he disarmed them and marched them off to Albany as prisoners. In response Brant led 80 warriors to Unadilla, a settlement of perhaps 20 or 30 houses, and complained that not only had 15 warriors been imprisoned without just cause, but the Rebels had appropriated provisions rightfully belonging to the Mohawks. Brant warned the settlers that Unadilla was now a dangerous place for anyone disloyal to

the king. His threat was sufficient to send two-thirds of the population packing for the Mohawk Valley.

Indian Combat in Cherry Valley and Wyoming Valley

Early in 1777 the Tory governor of New York, William Tryon (1729–88), urged the British ministry to use Indians to terrorize his colony's frontier, and by the end of 1777 hit-and-run raids were increasing in frequency throughout the New York as well as the Pennsylvania frontier, particularly in New York's Cherry Valley and Mohawk Valley and the Wyoming Valley of Pennsylvania. In March 1778 General Philip Schuyler warned Congress that the western frontiers were about to erupt, and by April 1778 a major buildup of Tory and Indian forces was well underway along the upper Susquehanna.

Colonel John Butler, commanding 400 Rangers and Tories, was joined at the Indian town of Tioga by some 900 Senecas and Cayugas, all led by two important Seneca war chiefs, Gu-cinge and Kayingwaurto. Their objective was the Wyoming Valley of northern Pennsylvania. While Butler and his Indian allies constructed boats for the trip down the Susquehanna, Gu-cinge took 400 warriors in advance to attack settlements on the West Branch of the river. In the meantime Joseph Brant, with 450 Indians and Tories, was planning an attack on New York's Cherry Valley at the headwaters of the Susquehanna.

While Cherry Valley had been suffering raids since 1776 and anticipated even more massive assaults, fortifications were crude and the militia garrison weak. Brant raided the region in the spring of 1778. Shortly after these raids, on June 28, 1778, Butler's Rangers—400 of them disguised as Indians—and 800 to 900 Delawares and Senecas descended on Wyoming Valley, burning a mill and capturing—and subsequently torturing to death—three prisoners.

The Wyoming Valley did have a collection of wilderness "forts"—nothing more, really, than fortified houses—including Wintermoot's (or Wintermot's), Forty Fort, Jenkins' Fort, Wilkes-Barre Fort, and Pittston Fort. The Wintermoots were Tory sympathizers who readily "surrendered" their fort to Butler and provisioned his men. The weakly defended Jenkins' Fort fell to the Tory–Indian force on July 2. The next day, under a flag of truce, John Butler proceeded to Forty Fort, garrisoned by 450 Continental troops and militiamen (including boys and old men) commanded by Colonel Zebulon Butler (1731–95; no relation to John), a Continental army officer, and Nathan Denison (c. 1740–1809), a colonel of militia. John Butler demanded the fort's surrender, but Denison and Zebulon Butler refused. The Tory commander decided on a ruse to lure the defenders out into the open. At five in the afternoon of July 3, he burned down Wintermoot's Fort in order to give the impression that he and his raiders were retreating. Zebulon Butler argued with Denison and the other militiamen in an attempt to dissuade them from leaving the fort in pursuit of the apparently retreating enemy, but at last he was overruled. The entire garrison sallied forth and was promptly ambushed.

It would be immediately dubbed the Wyoming Valley Massacre. Of the 450 Americans involved, 300 died or were wounded. Of the 1,200 Tories and Indians, only 11 were lost.

To the northeast Joseph Brant again turned his attention to the Cherry Valley. He began on July 18 by raiding Andrustown, seven miles west of Cherry Valley. With 50 Indian warriors and a few Tories, he captured 14 settlers and killed 11 before burning the town. On September 12 Brant, commanding a much larger party of Indians, attacked German Flats on the Mohawk River. Most of the town's inhabitants had fled to refuge in nearby forts, so Brant destroyed a virtually deserted village. This, indeed, was the kind of fighting he preferred. Unlike his more bloodthirsty Indian brethren, and, for that matter, Tory counterparts, he concentrated his efforts on destroying property and hitting military objectives rather than murdering noncombatants. There are many stories of his efforts to spare women and children.

In September and October 1778 while Brant and some 600 warriors were attacking settlements in the valleys of the Neversink and Mamakating Rivers, Delaware tributaries in the area where New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania meet, the militias of New York and Pennsylvania—quite independently of one another—retaliated against principal Indian towns.

Pennsylvania's Colonel Thomas Hartley (who was subsequently joined by Colonel Zebulon Butler) set out on September 21 with 217 men and in the space of two weeks moved up the Susquehanna, destroying Sheshaquin, the village of the Seneca chief Eghobund, and Queen Esther's Town and Tioga, Seneca settlements that served as the so-called southern door of the Iroquois League and that also served Brant and John Butler as a staging area for their raids. The expedition continued up the Chemung River to the Indian village of Chemung, but it was stoutly resisted there and turned back. Nevertheless, the campaign had been successful: in the course of a 300-mile march, Hartley's force had recovered 50 head of cattle taken in raids, appropriated 28 canoes and other items of Indian property, killed 11 Indians, took 15 prisoners, and burned three major Indian towns. Hartley lost two men killed and two wounded.

Colonel William Butler (d. 1789) of New York (not to be confused with the Tory Butlers, to whom he was not related) left Fort Defiance at Schoharie with 260 men on October 2. They made a circuit up the Schoharie River, then to the west branch of the Delaware, then overland to the Susquehanna River and downstream to Joseph Brant's headquarters town of Oquaga, where they burned 40 wooden houses. They also destroyed five other small Indian towns nearby before burning a Tory village called

Scotch Settlement and a large Indian town, Conihunto. Then they burned the major Indian settlement of Unadilla. Only one of their party was wounded.

Doubtless, the sight of so much destruction when Brant and his party returned to their villages later in October stirred them to a particularly fierce retaliation against Cherry Valley, which was virtually destroyed on November 11, 1778, with every building outside the stockaded fort ablaze. The death toll reached 74, including 42 military men and 32 civilians.

Sullivan's Campaign

General George Washington (1732–99), commander in chief of the Continental army, responded to the Cherry Valley Massacre by authorizing a massive campaign of retaliation—even extermination—against the tribes of the Iroquois League. It was June 18, 1779, before Major General John Sullivan (1740–95), an officer notorious for his excessive caution, got his force of 2,500 men—three brigades, the New Jersey, New York, and New Hampshire—under way out of their rendezvous at Easton, Pennsylvania, and marching to the Susquehanna. Washington had laid out a three-pronged strategy: Sullivan would cut a swath through the valley of the Susquehanna up to the southern border of New York; General James Clinton (1733–1812), commanding 1,500 troops, would move through the Mohawk Valley to Lake Ostego and then proceed down the Susquehanna; and Colonel Daniel Brodhead (1736–1809) would lead 600 men from Fort Pitt (present-day Pittsburgh) up the Allegheny. At Tioga, Pennsylvania, Sullivan and Clinton would join forces, move north to Niagara, and meet Brodhead at Genesee.

Progress was slow, especially for Sullivan. Indeed, before Sullivan even got under way, Clinton had launched a six-day raid from his base of operations at Canajoharie on the Mohawk River. A total of 558 of Clinton's command, under Colonel Goose Van Schaik (1736–89), combined with 60 Oneidas led by Chief Hanyerry (d. 1779), left Fort Stanwix to attack Onondaga, the traditional capital of the Iroquois Confederacy. On April 21 12 Onondaga were killed, 34 captured, 50 houses destroyed, and food and supplies plundered. The longhouse, in which representatives of the six Iroquois nations met to debate the confederation's policy, was burned. The significance of the raid extended beyond the immediate destruction. A raid on an Iroquois place by an Iroquois tribe, it signalled the dissolution of the Iroquois League.

In the meantime, on July 22, 1779, Joseph Brant hit the Mohawk Valley town of Minisink, about 20 miles above the juncture of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. A few settlers were killed or taken prisoner but the attack spurred Colonel John Hathorn and Lieutenant Colonel Benjamin Tusten (or Tustin) to launch a retaliatory militia assault from nearby Goshen. Tusten mustered 149 men, and Hathorn joined him with an additional detachment. Hathorn assumed command of the combined force and attempted to ambush Brant at the confluence of the Delaware and Lackawaxen Rivers, cutting off his line of retreat. Brant, however, perceived Hathorn's intention and maneuvered his force behind Hathorn, springing an ambush on him before he could ambush Brant. Out of 170 Americans, only 30 survived the attack by a combined Indian–Tory force of 87. Subsequently, 300 Indians and Tory Rangers led by Gu-cinge and Captain Robert McDonald attacked Forts Freeland and Sunbury on the West Branch of the Susquehanna. The 37-man garrison of Fort Freeland surrendered after a brief fight. Colonel Thaddeus Cook, commanding Fort Sunbury, dispatched Captain Hawkins Boon (d. 1779) with 80 men to the aid of Freeland. His force, however, was surrounded and overwhelmed, with the loss of 40 men, including Boon.

At last, on August 7 Sullivan's column entered Indian country. On the 9th he reached Newtychanning, a deserted Seneca village, and put its 28 buildings to the torch. Newtychanning was the first in a long line of towns Sullivan and Clinton destroyed. Clinton burned Otego on August 11; Unadilla on August 12; Conihunto and its cornfields on the 13th; Chemung on the 15th; the Tuscarora town of Shawhiangto on the 17th; Ingaren and the crops in its adjacent fields on the 18th; Otsiningo, with 20 hewn log houses, on the same day; two villages named Cohoconut on the 19th; and Owego on the evening of the same day. From all of these towns, as from the others that would fall, the occupants had fled.

Throughout September 1779 Sullivan devastated almost completely deserted Indian towns: Catherinetown, Kendaia, Canadasaga—capital of the Senecas—and Canandaigua. The main body of Sullivan's army proceeded to Gothsegwarohare on September 14, destroying it and Chenussio on the 15th. Next came Genesee, a town of 128 houses, ample fields, and large orchards, all of which the army destroyed. At the end of September the expedition was concluded. Destroyed were 50 Indian towns comprising some 1,200 houses, each of which sheltered two or three inhabitants, vast amounts of corn, 200,000 bushels of grain, and 10,000 fruit trees. Yet the Indians continued to raid.

Indian Raids Continue

Patriot settlers in upstate New York learned the bitter lesson that General Sullivan's massive campaign of destruction had served only to make the Indians desperate. Raiding was general throughout the spring and summer of 1780, and on May 21, 1780, Sir John Johnson (1742–1830) organized a massive assault on the forts and strong houses of the Mohawk Valley. With 400 Tories and 200 Indians, he burned Johnstown on May 23 while Joseph Brant hit Caughnawaga, killing five officers and 36 men and capturing 48 men and 12 officers out of a Patriot militia of 100.

American fortunes were at low ebb in New York when Colonel Marinus Willett (1740–1830) was assigned

command of the region. By this time only 2,000 settlers remained in and about the Mohawk Valley. Willett had at his disposal a mere 130 Continental troops and a vastly diminished pool of militia recruits. Willett made the most of his resources; where other commanders concentrated their men in one or two forts, he circulated them throughout the countryside. Shortly after Willett took up his new command, his scouts reported fires near Corey's Town. The commander dispatched men to investigate and extinguish the blazes while he mustered as large a militia as he could, about 170 men. With this force Willett attacked a combined detachment of 200 Indians and Tories under Donald McDonald (d. c. 1783), killing at least 40 of them while sustaining losses of only 5 killed and 9 wounded. This effectively quelled raiding in western New York for the balance of the summer of 1781. Willett pressed the attack in the fall, never defeating the Indians and Tories but greatly reducing the frequency and severity of the raids.

FRONTIER WARFARE IN THE OLD NORTHWEST AND KENTUCKY

While war raged in the borderlands of Pennsylvania and New York, terror also visited the thinly settled "Old Northwest"—the Ohio country—and Kentucky. By fall 1775 Shawnees began raiding Kentucky settlements, and by the end of January 1777 Indian depredations had driven large numbers of settlers from the country, so that only Harrodsburg and Boonesboro could muster a body of men, 103 of them, to oppose the Shawnee Chief Black Fish. The chief moved against Harrodsburg on March 18, 1777, but had to withdraw because of a severe snow, ice, and rain storm. After 10 days of inclement weather he returned on the 28th, just as the temperature began to plummet, again making an attack impossible. On April 24, however, Black Fish laid siege to Boonesboro, which was more thinly manned than Harrodsburg. During a four-day siege one settler was killed and seven wounded, including Daniel Boone (1734–1820). Yet the settlement endured, and Black Fish withdrew, though his warriors remained in the area through much of May, occasionally ambushing hunting and foraging parties. On May 23 he attacked the settlement yet again, broke off the engagement at nightfall, resumed the next day, and then withdrew from the vicinity of Boonesboro on May 25. Black Fish turned next against St. Asaph, weakest of the Kentucky forts in that it was held by only 11 men. On May 30 the Indians attacked a milking party of three women and four men, killing all. Nevertheless, the remaining settlers held out for two days until Black Fish finally withdrew.

At about this time, having persuaded Virginia authorities to make Kentucky a county of that state, and having been commissioned to raise and command a Kentucky militia, George Rogers Clark (1752–1818) laid out his plan to attack the British western forts—at Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and Vincennes, all deep in Ohio country—with the object finally of taking Detroit.

While Clark was formulating his plans and assembling his force, the Shawnees, in concert with Wyandots, Mingoes, and Cherokees, raided the area of Wheeling, West Virginia, during midsummer 1777. This moved Congress to dispatch General Edward Hand (1744–1802) to recruit Pennsylvanians, Virginians, and Kentuckians for an attack on a British–Indian supply depot on the Cuyahoga River, near present-day Cleveland. Hearing of this plan, Cornstalk, under a flag of truce, went to Fort Randolph at Point Pleasant to warn the Americans that if Hand attacked, all the Shawnees and allied nations would retaliate. Despite the truce, Cornstalk, his son, and another warrior were taken hostage. On November 10, 1777, a party of white hunters, having heard that the chief was being held under light guard, decided to take vengeance on Cornstalk for depredations suffered. They shot, killed, and mutilated all three Shawnees.

The death of Cornstalk drove the Shawnee openly into the British camp. In February 1778 Hand, with 500 militiamen, began to march against the Cuyahoga supply depot but, ignorant of the country, failed to find the Cuyahoga and engaged no warriors. Hand's troops killed a small boy, two women, and one old man, and they captured two women before returning to Fort Pitt. For this reason Hand's campaign was christened the "Squaw War," and the general resigned as western commander to return to more conventional combat in the East.

While Hand was thrashing about in the wilderness, Black Fish, Black Hoof, and Blue Jacket, all Shawnee chiefs, were raiding the frontier. On February 8, 1778, Blue Jacket (d. c. 1804), with 102 warriors, captured a salt-making party of 27 at Blue Licks, Kentucky. Among the captives was Daniel Boone, who was adopted by Black Fish and who did not escape—or choose to leave—the Shawnee until May. He made it back to Boonesboro in time, however, to warn of an impending raid on the settlement and prepare for it. (That would come on September 8, 1778, when 444 warriors under Black Fish laid siege to the settlement for almost two weeks before finally giving up and returning to Chillicothe.) In May, too, Black Fish and 400 warriors laid siege to Fort Randolph, where Cornstalk had been imprisoned and killed. Both the siege of Boonesboro and Fort Randolph proved unsuccessful. Black Fish withdrew and divided his forces for scattered raids along the Kanawha River, east into Virginia, and into the Shenandoah Valley.

The Clark Expedition

By the end of May 1778 George Rogers Clark had managed to recruit only 175 men, rather than the 350 he had hoped for, to march against Kaskaskia and Cahokia. On June 26, 1778, Clark embarked from Corn Island in flatboats, shot the rapids, and reached the mouth of the Tennessee River in four days. Reaching Fort Massac, he and his men proceeded overland to Kaskaskia. With great stealth Clark captured a farm near the Kaskaskia River,

collected boats, and ferried his troops across the river. Dividing his band in two in order to give the impression of greater numbers, he surrounded and surprised the fort, which surrendered without a shot. From this new base Clark easily took Cahokia, also without combat.

Vincennes would be more difficult. But Clark realized that Lieutenant Colonel Henry Hamilton (d. 1796), the British commandant, would soon retaliate and easily overwhelm his diminutive army if he did not take the initiative and attack first. On February 5, 1779, Clark began the 150-mile march to Vincennes through a hostile wilderness in the dead of winter. He and his men reached Vincennes on February 23 and took a few prisoners in the settlement, from whom they learned that Fort Sackville (the British outpost at Vincennes) was now defended by only a few hundred men, Hamilton having released most of his Indian allies. Clark sent one of his prisoners back into town with a letter announcing his intention to take and occupy Vincennes and inviting those loyal to the king to repair to the fort, as no mercy would be shown them. To give the impression of greater numbers, Clark signed the letter with the names of several officers who were not, of course, present. He also paraded some of his men in the fading light with counterfeit regimental colors and generally deployed his troops to make it look as if there were far more of them. As soon as the attack began, many of the remaining British-allied Indians deserted Vincennes, and the Kickapoo and Piankashaw Indians, who had remained, ventured out to *help* Clark. With bluff confidence Clark pressed unconditional surrender terms on Hamilton, who, after a brief resistance, capitulated.

The fall of the British forts of the Old Northwest did, indeed, make life harder for the raiding Indians. At least one important Delaware clan, the Rabbits, led by Chief Running Fox, withdrew entirely from the Ohio country. The Shawnee nation split over the new incursion of Americans into their country. Like the Rabbit Delaware, some moved west; others remained to fight ever more desperately. Hostilities were far from over, and the early spring of 1780 was marked by frequent hit-and-run raids, especially in the vicinity of Lexington, a new and weak settlement.

In response to the Kentucky raids, Clark tabled his planned assault on Detroit and secured a militia of 1,000 mounted men, which he assembled at the mouth of the Licking River for an attack on local loyalists and their Indian allies, especially the Shawnees. On August 8, 1780, a combined force of Shawnees, Mingoes, Wyandots, and Delawares took a stand at Piqua Town, Ohio. The battle was hotly contested at first, but Rogers's men succeeded in outflanking the Indians, concentrating them, and pinning them down where he could bombard them with artillery. By the battle's end, 14 Americans had been killed and 13 wounded; Indian losses were about three times that number.

In view of his largely successful campaign against the Shawnees, Congress commissioned George Rogers Clark a brigadier general and officially sent him on an expedition west of the Ohio and, ultimately, to Detroit. It was August 1781 before he had finally gathered 400 regulars and volunteers (he had hoped to muster 2,000 men) and started down the Ohio. The new brigadier was diverted from his objective, however, by a need to strengthen Vincennes and the surrounding frontier against an impending British attack. Indeed, bolstered by British claims that they were planning a grand offensive, the Shawnees had rebuilt Old Chillicothe and Piqua Town and began raiding Kentucky again. Virginia, its treasury strained, could no longer support the Kentucky militia. Militiamen deserted their frontier posts. By the time Patriot military discipline had utterly disintegrated, however, General Cornwallis had surrendered to General Washington at Yorktown, and the Revolution was headed toward its end.

War in the Ohio Country: Final Phase

The breakdown of military discipline among the Patriots in the western theater of the war contributed to the intensification of the war in the Ohio country. The most incendiary incident was the Gnaddenhutten Massacre.

On October 19, 1781, Joseph Brant, representing the Mohawks, and Pimoacan and Pipe, chiefs of the Delawares, met with Abraham, chief of the Moravian Indians—Delawares who had been christianized by Moravian missionaries. Brant and the others tried to persuade Abraham to unite with them in attacking the settlers of western Pennsylvania, but Abraham refused, arguing that the Americans would surely leave peaceful Christian Indians alone. Captain Matthew Elliott, in charge of British forces at Detroit, then ordered the Moravian Indians to leave western Pennsylvania "for their own safety." Accordingly, they set out for the banks of the Sandusky River in Ohio country. By early 1782, however, a harsh winter famine compelled the Moravian Indians to seek permission to move back temporarily to their western Pennsylvania mission towns on the Tuscarawas River. They arrived just after the Mohawks and Delawares had conducted a series of particularly brutal raids in the area. In February General Daniel Brodhead dispatched Colonel David Williamson to "punish" the hostiles. Tragically, Williamson's campaign coincided with the Moravian Indians' return. On March 8, 1782, Williamson and 100 men marched into Gnaddenhutten, where he announced to Abraham and the 48 men, women, and boys gathered there that he had been sent to take them back to the neighborhood of Fort Pitt, where they would be protected from all harm. At Williamson's request, Abraham sent runners to a neighboring missionary–Indian town, Salem, to fetch the Indians there and bring them back to Gnaddenhutten. No sooner was this done than Williamson had the wrists of each Indian bound behind him; when the 50 or so people from Salem arrived, he had them likewise bound. And so they were all confined until morning, when Williamson announced that they would be put to death as punishment for the depredations of the Delaware. During

the night each of the captives—96 men, women, and children—was killed by a mallet blow to the back of the head. Two boys managed to escape to tell the grisly tale.

Although the Gnaddenhutten Massacre was roundly condemned, even by the Pennsylvania legislature, Williamson was not punished. And when the massacre triggered acts of vengeance from the Delaware Indians, Colonel William Crawford (1732–82) was sent on May 25 to undertake what was called the Second Moravian Campaign—the destruction of the Moravian Indian, Delaware, and Wyandot towns along the Upper Sandusky River, including the principal village of Sandusky.

On June 5 near Sandusky, Shawnee and Delaware Indians encircled Crawford and his militiamen. At least 40 or 50 militiamen were killed or captured, and 28 were wounded. Among the captives was Colonel Crawford, who was slowly tortured to death.

Crawford's defeat touched off a new spate of Indian raids along the upper Ohio, and with the looming possibility of having to abandon the Kentucky frontier, General William Irvine (1741–1804) assembled 1,200 Continental soldiers and militiamen for an assault on Sandusky to burn the Shawnee, Wyandot, and Delaware towns there. George Rogers Clark in November 1782 assembled 1,050 Kentuckians on the Ohio shore opposite the mouth of the Licking River. His objectives were the rebuilt towns of Chillicothe and Piqua. Clark was on the move well before Irvine, but, as had been the case with Sullivan's campaign in western New York, the Indians eluded him. He burned Chillicothe and other Shawnee towns, and he destroyed 10,000 bushels of corn but killed only 10 Indians and captured another 10. This was at least sufficient to stave off additional Indian raids. In any case, by mid-April the preliminary articles of peace between the United States and Great Britain had been signed in Paris, and the British ceded the Old Northwest to the new nation. This hardly brought an end to Indian–white warfare in the area, but, for the time being, Clark was recalled—and Irvine never did get under way.

THE SOUTHERN FRONTIER

At the outbreak of the Revolution, Cherokees, acting on the encouragement of the Shawnees, launched a series of devastating raids on the frontiers of Georgia and South Carolina. In August 1776 General Andrew Williamson (c. 1730–86) led 1,800 troops, guided by Catawba scouts, against the Cherokees, wreaking havoc on their villages and cornfields. The next month Williamson was joined by North Carolina's general Griffith Rutherford (c. 1731–c. 1800) commanding 2,500 militiamen. Together they drove the Indians southeastward, toward Florida. An additional 2,000 Virginia and North Carolina militiamen under Colonel William Christian attacked from the Holston River. Overwhelmed and receiving no aid from the British or from their Creek allies, the Cherokees sued for peace and from May to July 1777 ceded vast lands east of the Blue Ridge Mountains and north of the Nolichucky River.

The Creeks, initially reluctant to war against the Americans, were recruited to the British cause late in 1778 by John Stuart (d. 1779?), the Indian superintendent installed at Pensacola. Stuart's plan had been to use the Indians to support a British invasion of the South, but lack of coordination between him and the commander of the fleet that landed redcoats at Savannah rendered the alliance ineffective. Still, many of the Creeks were actively hostile toward Americans and, with a Cherokee splinter group that had moved to Chickamauga Creek, they conducted hit-and-run raids throughout the Revolution. Later, additional Cherokees joined their Chickamauga and Creek brethren in more extensive combat until October 7, 1780, when John Sevier and Andrew Pickens, having defeated the Tories at Kings Mountain, North Carolina, once again devastated the Indians' settlements.

Generally, the British badly mishandled their potential Indian "assets" in the South. The Cherokees, Creeks, Choctaws, and Chickasaws could have fielded some 10,000 warriors, by far the largest body of Indian allies on either side, who might well have turned the tide of the war. But, poorly paid and poorly supplied, they could not be relied upon. Nevertheless, 1780 also brought new Patriot defeats in the South. Lieutenant Colonel Banastre Tarleton (1754–1833) led British and Tory troops to victory at Monck's Corner, South Carolina (April 14, 1780) against General Isaac Huger (1743–97), who lost substantial numbers of men and supplies. Next came the Battle of Lenud's Ferry, South Carolina, on May 6, an action against survivors of the Monck's Corner battle and some fresh troops. A total of five American officers and 36 men were killed or wounded, and seven officers and 60 dragoons were captured.

The 3rd Virginia Continentals, about 300 men, were marching to reinforce Charleston during British general Henry Clinton's siege of that city (*see* AMERICAN REVOLUTION: COASTAL THEATER). The city fell before the Continentals reached it. Tarleton pursued the unit, attacking it at Waxhaw Creek on May 29. Tarleton then executed the men who had surrendered; 113 of Buford's men were killed in the bloodiest atrocity of the war in the South. Tarleton's action put South Carolina firmly in British hands.

General Horatio Gates (1728–1806) was given command of Patriot forces in the South late in 1779. In July 1780 he marched against Camden, South Carolina, held by 2,200 troops under the personal command of Lord Cornwallis. Along the way Gates acquired militia reinforcements to augment his Continentals, amassing a force of 4,100, which Gates overestimated at 7,000. Moreover, he ignored reports that so many men were sick with swamp-borne diseases that only about 2,000 were fit and ready to fight. Gates inadvertently exacerbated the illness rampant in his camp by distributing to his men a molasses

ration as a substitute for the rum ration that 18th-century officers believed indispensable to the smooth functioning of an army. This induced an urgent epidemic of dysentery among the ranks, so that by nightfall of August 15, 1780, Gates's men were (in the words of one officer) "much debilitated." Nevertheless, the general ordered a nighttime march to Camden. By coincidence, Cornwallis had ordered his troops out of that town to search for the Americans. The two armies met at about 2:30 on the morning of August 16, and the Patriots were routed. As many as 1,900 Americans died in the battle, and nearly 1,000 were taken prisoner. British losses, by comparison, were light: 68 killed, 350 wounded. Horatio Gates had fled the field after the collapse of his left wing.

Lord Cornwallis left Camden on September 8, 1780, having driven the American army from South Carolina. His objective now was North Carolina, and he moved northward in three columns. While he took the main force, Tarleton headed up the British Legion (a Tory unit) and the regular light infantry, and Major Patrick Ferguson (1744–80) led the Tory militia.

In North Carolina the British met stiff resistance from diehard Patriots, but nevertheless took Charlotte, North Carolina, on September 26, 1780. Having taken Charlotte, Cornwallis found it tough going to maintain communication with his base in Camden. His supply lines were continually subject to Patriot attack. In an effort to screen his main column from attack, Cornwallis assigned Ferguson to lead the Tories along the foothills. Observing this, Patriot militiamen attacked Ferguson, who retreated to the Catawba River and then up King's Mountain, on the border between North and South Carolina.

Here Ferguson took his stand on October 7 and was completely surrounded by the Patriot forces. Ferguson himself was slain even as he was in the act of killing an American officer. After the death of their leader, the Tory force surrendered, having lost 400 killed and wounded. The Patriots suffered 88 casualties. A total of 700 Tories became prisoners, a dozen of whom were summarily hanged in reprisal for British executions of Tory deserters who had taken up arms against their former comrades.

For the Americans King's Mountain was a great victory that was the more welcome for having come on the heels of a string of disasters. As a result of the battle, Cornwallis's advance was not only halted, but the British general pulled his troops back down into South Carolina. Even more important, the battle ended Tory influence in North Carolina once and for all.

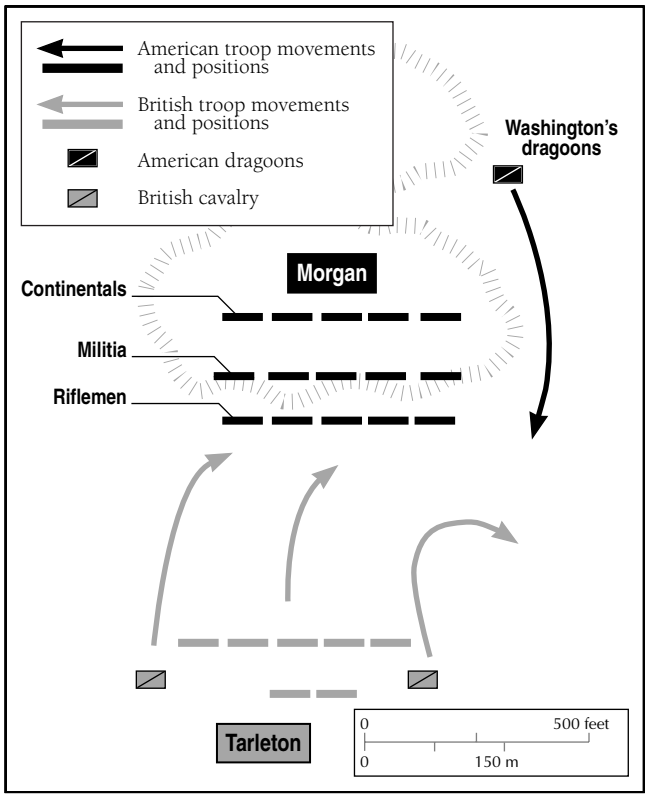
In October 1780, the skilled and courageous General Nathanael Greene (1742–86) was assigned overall command of Patriot forces in the South. Arriving in the theater of operations in December, Greene recognized that Cornwallis outnumbered him three to two. He therefore concluded that it was best to continue to pursue the guerrilla tactics that had proven effective so far, and he dispatched the best guerrilla leader he could find, Daniel Morgan (1736–1802), to harass British positions in the western wilderness of South Carolina while Greene himself supported the operation of partisans in the north-central portion of the state.

On January 16, 1781, Morgan, commanding 1,000 men, learned that Tarleton was nearby with 1,100 Tories and regulars. Understanding that retreat from the justly feared Tarleton would prompt his militia simply to disband and go home, Morgan decided both to fight it out and to arrange matters so that the militia could *not* run. Accordingly, Morgan decided to make a stand at the Cowpens, little more than a backwoods South Carolina cattle pasturage. In a bold gamble he purposely positioned his men so that the Broad River cut off any avenue of retreat. It would be do or die. In another unconventional move he put his rawest militiamen in the front line, backing them up with seasoned men from Virginia and his Continental troops. Farthest to the rear he held his cavalry—conventionally, front-line troops—in reserve.

For his part, Banastre Tarleton thought that Cowpens would be the perfect place for a bayonet charge, which had so terrified the provincial troops at Camden. But Tarleton had not counted on the tactical genius of Morgan, who instructed his men to fire only at the last possible minute. After firing in this manner, the American front line, the green recruits, sheared off to the left and around to the rear. Now the British, already badly cut up, moved against the second line, the seasoned men. Seeing that Tarleton's still-overconfident troops were attacking in poor order, Morgan ordered his green troops, who had returned to the American rear, to swing out and behind Tarleton's left while he put his cavalry into motion, around to the rear of Tarleton's right. It was a classic double envelopment. Deep in the southern wilderness, Morgan had emulated the tactics the great Carthaginian general Hannibal had used to defeat the Romans at Cannae (in southeast Italy) in 216 B.C.E (*see* PUNIC WAR, SECOND).

The Battle of the Cowpens saved half of Greene's army and cost Cornwallis 100 killed, 229 wounded (and captured), and 600 captured (unwounded). Particularly hard hit were the British officers: of 66 engaged, 39 died. American losses, in contrast, were 12 killed and 60 wounded. Moreover, Morgan's victory inspirited the Americans. It was the turning point of the war in the South.

Some military historians have judged Daniel Morgan the only military genius of the American Revolution. He was, however, not the only effective guerrilla leader among the southern Patriots. The South Carolinian Francis Marion (c. 1732–95) was a veteran Indian fighter who became active in Patriot politics in 1775. Beginning in 1780 he earned the sobriquet "Swamp Fox" for his series of guerrilla victories, especially those at Tearcoat Swamp (South Carolina) on October 25, 1780, and at Halfway Swamp (also South Carolina) on December 12–13, 1780.



Battle of Cowpens, January 17, 1781

As for Cornwallis, despite defeat he took steps to improve his position after the disaster at Cowpens. He streamlined his army by jettisoning many supplies as excess baggage, then pushed the pursuit of Greene's army northward all the way to the Dan River, near the Virginia border. Once across this river, however, Greene simply took all the boats with him, so that Cornwallis now found himself on the near shore of the river desperately low on supplies, having sacrificed them in the name of speed. He returned to Hillsboro for resupply. In the meantime Greene assumed the initiative. He recrossed the Dan into North Carolina and harassed Cornwallis's lines of communication.

Greene was careful to avoid a major action until he had assembled enough men to outnumber Cornwallis. In the meantime operations against local Tories—including a massacre of 400 of them by General Andrew Pickens (1739–1817)—largely deprived the British general of his base of Loyalist support.

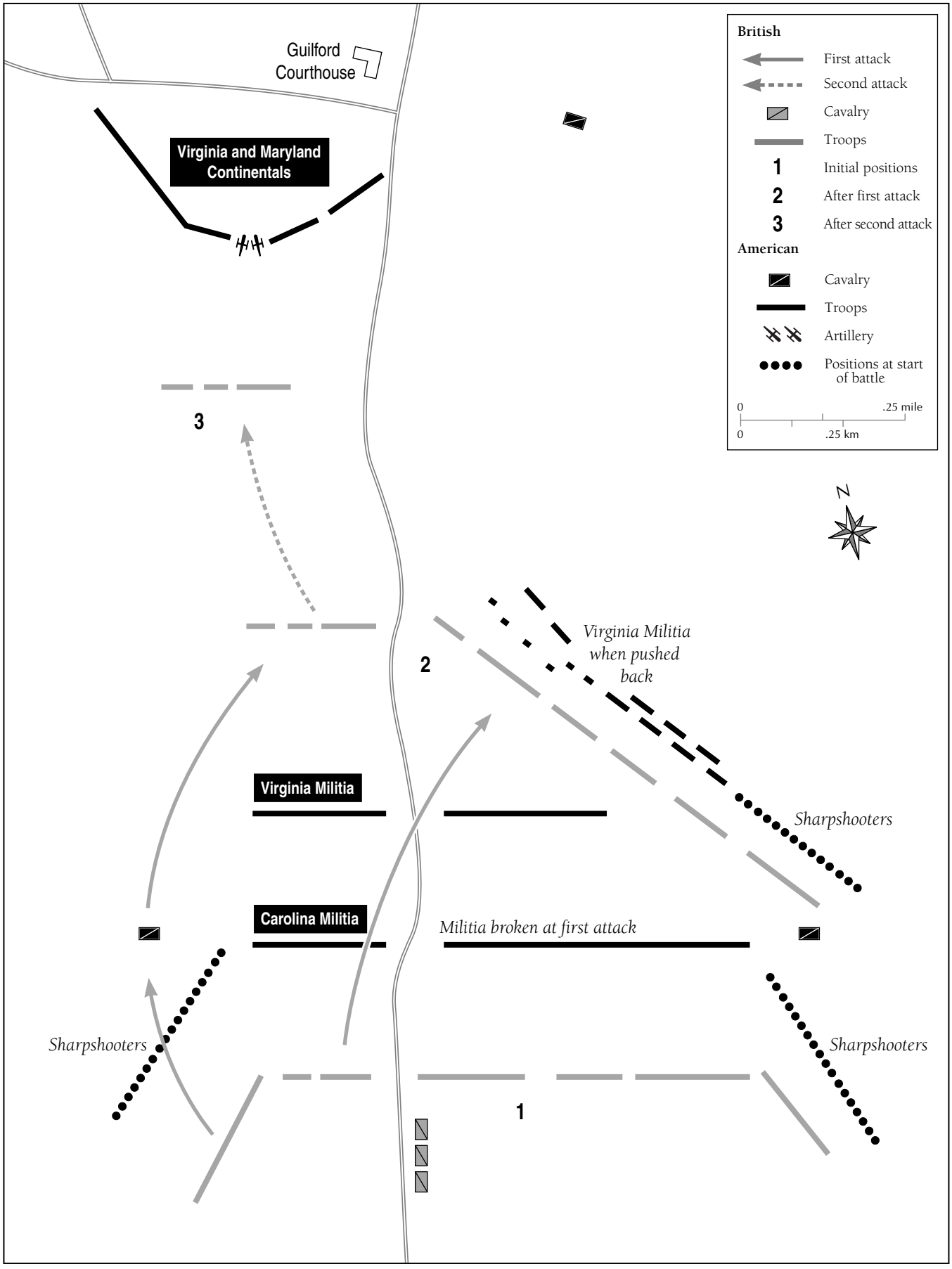
At last, on March 14, 1781, Greene picked his battle site: Guilford Courthouse, North Carolina. He aimed to duplicate the success of Daniel Morgan at the Cowpens, so he put his greenest troops up front, with the more seasoned veterans backing them up. The battle commenced the next day, with Greene ordering the frontline militia to fire two volleys before withdrawing to the rear. Unfortunately, the militia, having discharged its volleys, did not retire in an orderly fashion but rushed back chaotically. This prevented their getting into position to effect the kind of envelopment that Morgan had pulled off at the Cowpens. Nevertheless, had Greene now launched his cavalry, running it around the rear of the British positions, he might have still forced the surrender of Cornwallis's army, but Greene lacked Morgan's willingness to go for broke. He did not want to risk his cavalry in a single bold stroke, and this reluctance gave Cornwallis an opportunity to retaliate. He raked the enemy with grapeshot, forcing Greene's withdrawal. Although Cornwallis held the field, the battle had cost him a fourth of his army. He decided to vacate the interior of North Carolina and made for Wilmington, on the Carolina coast. This move culminated in Cornwallis's eventual withdrawal to the Yorktown peninsula in Virginia and, ultimately, the battle that all but ended the American Revolution (*see* AMERICAN REVOLUTION: COASTAL THEATER).

CODA IN THE SOUTH

Victory at Yorktown did not bring an end to the fighting in the Carolinas. Nathanael Greene had been campaigning in the South since December 1780, and while the Yorktown operation was under way in Virginia, he fought the very able Francis Rawdon-Hastings (1754–1826) and, after Rawdon-Hastings fell ill, Alexander Stewart (c. 1741–94). While the British held on to Savannah and Charleston, Greene kept the backcountry in contested turmoil.

On September 8, 1781, Greene, reinforced to a total strength of 2,000 men, decided to go on the offensive. Stewart was camped with an equal number at Eutaw Springs, South Carolina, on the Santee River. Greene's forces fell upon a British foraging party and took captives. Next, a cavalry scouting party under Major John Coffin (1756–1838), a Tory from Boston, was ambushed, but Coffin escaped to alert Stewart to the approach of Greene's army.

The loss of the element of surprise was a severe blow. The British were able to form a line of battle in front of their camp, and although Greene's militiamen performed magnificently—it is said that they fired 17 volleys without so much as flinching—the British were able to break through the militia line. Behind this force, however, Continentals from Maryland and Virginia stood fast and, with bayonets, drove the British back into their camp. But then the American forces suffered a fatal lapse in discipline. Entering the British camp, they fell to plundering the soldiers' tents instead of pressing the attack. This provided time and opportunity for a British contingent under Major John Majoribanks (d. 1781) to counterattack. Although Majoribanks was himself cut down in the action, he managed to turn an almost certain American triumph into something like a British victory. Greene, with 500 casualties out of 2,000 men engaged, was forced to withdraw, but the British, who remained in possession of their camp, had suffered 693 killed, wounded, and missing, also out of a force of 2,000 or somewhat less. It was the highest rate of loss any army had suffered in the Revolutionary War, and Eutaw Springs was the last out-and-out battle of that war.



Battle of Guilford Courthouse, March 15, 1781

By December 9, 1781, the British had been confined exclusively to Savannah and Charleston. They evacuated from Savannah on July 11, 1782, and from Charleston on December 14, whereupon Greene moved into Charleston and remained there until August 1783, when news of the Treaty of Paris reached him.

Amphissean War *See* SACRED WAR, FOURTH.

Anabasis, The: Revolt of Cyrus (401 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cyrus, the Younger (backed by Greek mercenaries) vs. Artaxerxes II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cunaxa (near Babylon), Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Cyrus the Younger sought to seize the Persian throne from his brother, Artaxerxes II.
OUTCOME: Thanks to the Greek mercenaries, Artaxerxes was defeated. However, Cyrus was killed in battle.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Cyrus's army, 50,000, including 13,000 Greek mercenaries; Artaxerxes' forces, 100,000
CASUALTIES: In battle, Greek casualties were reported as one wounded; other casualties unknown.
TREATIES: None

The *Anabasis* or, in full, the *Anabasis Kyrou,* in Greek, "Upcountry march," was a narrative written by Xenophon (c. 430–353 B.C.E.), the scion of a wealthy Athenian family, author, and philosopher. One of the upper-class youths and soldiers who made up the Socratic circle, Xenophon, on the dare of a friend, joined the 13,000 or so Greek mercenaries who fought for Cyrus the Younger (424–401 B.C.E.) in his attempt to usurp the Persian throne from his brother Artaxerxes II (d. 359 B.C.E.). Xenophon wrote the first part of the *Anabasis,* relating the revolt of Cyrus at Scillus, in the Greek Pelopponese, shortly after 386 B.C.E. The second part he composed about 377 B.C.E.

With the typical disregard of the ancient historians for statistical precision, Xenophon calls the Greek mercenaries, most of them veterans of the Second (Great) PELOPONNESIAN WAR, "The Ten Thousand." Whatever their number, they continued to serve under their Spartan general Clearchus (d. 401 B.C.E.) even as they marched with Cyrus's 50,000-man army.

The great battle of the revolt of Cyrus took place near Babylon, at Cunaxa. The Greeks, deployed on Cyrus's right and vastly outnumbered, defeated the left flank of Artaxerxes' army. However, on the Persian right the fight between Artaxerxes' army and Cyrus was far more difficult and protracted. Cyrus was killed, which sent the panic-stricken rebels into retreat. Only the Greek mercenaries stood firm. With supple brilliance, Clearchus advanced against the much larger right wing of Artaxerxes' army and dealt it a decisive defeat.

According to Xenophon, only a single Greek hoplite became a casualty, and he was only wounded. However, after the victory the Greek senior officers foolishly accepted the invitation of defeated Persian commander Tissaphernes to a feast. There they were made prisoner. Clearchus was executed on the spot, while the others were transported to Artaxerxes, who ordered them beheaded.

See also ANABASIS, THE: MARCH OF THE TEN THOUSAND.

Further reading: J. K. Anderson, *Military Theory and Practice in the Age of Xenophon* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1970); Christopher Nadon, *Xenophon's Prince: Republic and Empire in the Cyropaedia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001).

Anabasis, The: March of the Ten Thousand (400 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Greek mercenaries vs. Armenian hill tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The route between Babylon and the Greek Black Sea colony of Trapezus, about 1,000 miles
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Return from the campaign of Cyrus the Younger against his brother, Artaxerxes II, for control of the Persian throne
OUTCOME: After an epic five-month journey, some 6,000 mercenaries returned to safety.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Greek mercenaries, 12,000 to 13,000
CASUALTIES: About half (6,000) died on the trek.
TREATIES: None

Xenophon's *Anabasis* includes an account of the march of the Greek mercenaries, known as "The Ten Thousand," although most historians believe the army consisted of 13,000, from a location near Babylon following the Battle of Cunaxa in 401 B.C.E. (*see* ANABASIS, THE: REVOLT OF CYRUS) to the Euxine (the Black Sea). The Greek mercenaries had supported Cyrus the Younger (424–401 B.C.E) in his attempt to seize the Persian throne from his brother Artaxerxes II (d. 359 B.C.E.). The march took place after the Persians had treacherously murdered the Greek general Clearchus (d. 401 B.C.E.) and all the senior mercenary officers. The surviving junior officers, mostly Spartans and Athenians, assumed leadership of the mercenaries and undertook a 1,000-mile march to the nearest friendly territory, Trapezus, a Greek colony on the Euxine. The epic journey traversed the forbidding mountains of Armenia and required foraging for survival and fighting off assaults by wild hill people.

Xenophon, who traveled with the mercenaries in a private capacity, was one of the principal leaders of the trek.

By the time the mercenaries reached Trapezus, they had been fighting their way through the mountains for five months. A total of 6,000 survived the journey.

Further reading: J. K. Anderson, *Military Theory and Practice in the Age of Xenophon* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1970); Christopher Nadon, *Xenophon's Prince: Republic and Empire in the Cyropaedia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001).

Anastasius II, Revolt of (720–721)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Anastasius II vs. Byzantine emperor Leo the Isaurian
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Deposed as Byzantine emperor by Theodosius III, Anastasius II sought to regain the throne from Leo the Isaurian, himself the usurper of Theodosius; Leo sought to defend his position as emperor.
OUTCOME: Anastasius was captured and executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Beset by corruption and poor leadership, the Byzantine Empire lay exposed to invasion. The year before, the frontier had collapsed, the Bulgars had been at the walls of Constantinople, and the Arabs had overrun Cilicia, then invaded Pontus to capture Amasya. Little wonder that in 713, the army, resentful of the weak emperor Philippicus (711–713), mutinied, overthrew Philippicus, and installed Anastasius II (d. 721) as emperor. The new sovereign immediately set about rebuilding Byzantium's fighting forces, but his reforms were harsher than the army cared to tolerate, and it deposed him in 715, replacing him with Theodosius III (d. after 717). After a brutal six-month siege of Constantinople, Theodosius entered the city and had Anastasius banished to a monastery.

When Theodosius failed to take action against a Muslim invasion in 716, his leading general, Leo the Isaurian (c. 680–741), supported the reinstallation of Anastasius. However, with Theodosius vulnerable and Anastasius still imprisoned in the monastery, Leo chose to seize the throne for himself; he marched on Constantinople, forcing Theodosius to abdicate. In 720 Anastasius was finally able to escape the monastery and incite a revolt in Sicily aimed at returning him to power. Leo, however, quickly sent imperial forces and crushed the rebellion. Anastasius was captured and executed in 721.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718).

Further reading: Romilly Jenkins, *Byzantium: The Imperial Centuries, A.D. 610–1071* (New York: Random House, 1967); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *The Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2003); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries.* Vol 17 (New York: Knopf, 2003).

Anderson Raid, "Bloody Bill"

See UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: TRANS-MISSISSIPPI THEATER.

Anglian-Pictish War (685)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of Northumbria vs. the native Picts of Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Anglo-Saxon England's hegemony over Scotland was the issue, with the Anglo-Saxon Northumbrians wishing to reestablish that hegemony and the native Picts fighting for their independence.
OUTCOME: Northumbria was defeated, even losing territory to the Picts, who remained independent of their southern neighbors.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Anglo-Saxon tribes from barbarian Europe had vanquished most of the native Briton and Roman-Briton peoples of southern England in the sixth century, they fell to fighting each other. The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms fought so constantly that none ever established itself as a dominant power, one that could fill the vacuum left by the vanquishing of the Britons.

Beginning in 593 the Northumbrian kingdoms of Bernicia and Deira were constantly at war, but they were so evenly matched that they more or less canceled each other's influence, and neither ever managed to assert absolute supremacy over the region. Instead, their internicene warfare paved the way for another Anglo-Saxon kingdom, Mercia, to rise to power in Northumbria, a position it cemented in 641 at Maserfield, when the Mercians soundly defeated all the Northumbrian clans.

Another disadvantage of the incessant Anglo-Saxon clan warfare, which lasted through the next century until the Viking invasions beginning in 789 (one of the bleaker periods in all military history), was that it kept the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms from developing any sense of joint needs—for shared security against foreign invaders, for example, or for alliances to achieve collective goals. All of

which helps explain England's inability to conquer and subdue Scotland, which, under the Briton had been considered a vassal state of England. Instead, Anglo-Saxon kingdoms would make various attempts to subdue the northern reaches of the island, and each would fail by dint of its overextension and the need to worry about its brother Anglo-Saxons at its rear. Meanwhile, within Scotland itself there was an ongoing struggle for local supremacy among the native Picts, the northern Welsh of Strathclyde, and the Scots (Irish) of Dal Riada.

The Picts were led by their king Brude (c. 670–695), an able ruler and excellent warrior, who had carried on a running battle with the Strathclyde Britons since 672. Now he attracted the attention of the Northumbrian ruler Egfrith (c. 671–685). In 685 the Northumbrians, who had since managed to defeat the Mercians and regain hegemony over their homeland, assembled a vast army under Egfrith precisely for the purpose of bringing down the rambunctious Brude and conquering his north-island domain. Marching north through Lothian and crossing the Tay River, Egfrith engaged the Pict forces under Brude at the Battle of Dunnichen Moss. Brude smashed the English forces and killed Egfrith. Egfrith's death much weakened Northumbria, which lost to the Picts all its territory beyond the Firth of Forth. The Battle of Dunnichen Moss thus ensured the independence of Scotland from Anglo-Saxon England.

See also Aethelfrith's Wars; Oswald's Wars; Saxon Raids: Invasion of Britain by Angles, Saxons, and Jutes; Saxon Raids: Arthur's Defensive Wars; Saxon Raids: Saxon Campaigns in South Central Britain.

Further reading: P. J. V. Fisher, *The Anglo-Saxon Age, c. 400–1042: A History of England* (London: Longman Group United Kingdom, 1977); Frank M. Stenton, *Anglo-Saxon England* (Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 2001).

Anglo-Afghan Wars

See Afghan War, First; Afghan War, Second; Afghan War, Third.

Anglo-Boer Wars

See Boer Uprising; Boer War, First; Boer War, Second.

Anglo-Burmese War, First (1824–1826)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Arakanese rebels vs. Burma (Myanmar); Burma vs. British Bengal; Great Britain vs. Burma
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma and northeastern India
DECLARATION: Britain declared war on Burma, March 5, 1824.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Arakanese sought to reclaim their homeland in western Burma; Burma sought to stop Arakanese raids from Bengal; Britain sought to stop the Burmese from violating the Bengal border.
OUTCOME: The defeated Burmese were forced to cede Assam, Manipur, Arakan, and the Tenasserim coast to the British.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anglo-Indian forces, 43,000; Burma, 95,000
CASUALTIES: India, 15,000 dead; Britain, 3,115; Burma, unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Yandabo, February 1826

After Burma defeated and annexed the kingdom of Arakan (in present-day western Myanmar) in the late 18th century, Arakanese refugees trundled northward into British-held territory in northeastern India. From their sanctuaries in Bengal, as most of northeast India and Bangladesh was then called, the Arakanese recruited and armed contingents that recrossed the border and attacked the Burmese garrison in their former homeland. At one point, in 1825, Arakanese patriots even recaptured the provincial capital of Mrohaung. It did not take long for the Burmese to retaliate. Almost immediately, Burmese forces marched into Bengal in search of the Arakanese guerrillas. When challenged by Bengal authorities, they quickly withdrew.

The Arakanese raids continued, and in 1823 the Burmese, infuriated with the British for harboring the raiders, once again breached the Bengal frontier. Burma's great general and the governor of Assam, Maha Bandula (d. 1825), planned a two-pronged attack on Bengal from Assam and Arakan. Burmese troops were soon threatening Chittagong in modern-day Bangladesh.

The British responded in force, declaring war on Burma on March 5, 1824, and in April sending a large seaborne expedition of 5,000 British and Indian regulars under Major General Sir Archibald Campbell (1769–1843), who seized Rangoon without a fight on May 10. But British hopes of persuading the Burmese to give up their border raids by holding the delta and threatening the Burmese capital, Ava, were dashed when Burma's resistance stiffened. British troops in Rangoon, ravaged by disease, soon found themselves ringed by the determined natives. Fighting around Rangoon continued savagely from June to July. In August, Bandula's army arrived from Arakan after a forced march across country flooded by Burma's powerful monsoons. British reinforcements began arriving in October, a rocket battery in tow. On December 1 Bandula launched his assault. The British repulsed the onslaught and two weeks later broke through the native cordon. Finding themselves no match for the disciplined British regulars, the Burmese retreated.

In mid-February 1825, a column of 2,500 British Indian troops under Campbell moved up the Irrawaddy

River, supported by a flotilla of 60 boats manned by British sailors and carrying 1,500 additional troops. At the same time the Imperial army also took control of coastal regions. On April 2 Bandula checked the British advance in a skirmish south of Ava, on the Irrawaddy, but Campbell's rockets saved him, breaking up the Burmese attack. A British counterattack swept the field. In what became known as the Battle of Danubyu, Bandula was killed and his army routed.

At the end of April Campbell went into quarters for the monsoon season, behind entrenchments at Prome, while the Burmese army, now led by Maha Nemyo (d. 1825), once more surrounded him with field fortifications. In the Battle of Prome, lasting from November 30 to December 2, 1825, Campbell, after having repulsed a Burmese attack on November 10, launched an offensive in two columns supported by the flotilla. The British ruptured and rolled up the line of Burmese fortifications, Nemyo was killed, and after three days of intense fighting the Burmese army disintegrated. Campbell continued his advance upriver to Yandabo, 70 miles north of Ava, where Burmese envoys under a flag of truce sought peace. The British had won, mainly because India's superior resources made it possible for them to sustain a campaign through two of Burma's wretched rainy seasons—and at the cost, one might add, of nearly 15,000 Indian fatalities.

The First Anglo-Burmese War formally ended with the Treaty of Yandabo in February 1826, under the terms of which the Burmese ceded Assam, Manipur, Arakan, and the Tenasserim coast to the British. It was but the first of three conflicts (*see* ANGLO-BURMESE WAR, SECOND; ANGLO-BURMESE WAR, THIRD) that collectively would leave Burma so vulnerable it would be forced to concede British hegemony over the Bay of Bengal.

Further reading: George Ludgate Bruce, *Burma Wars, 1824–1886* (London: Hart-Davis MacGibbon, 1973).

Anglo-Burmese War, Second (1852–1853)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma (Myanmar) vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Burma
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Britain claimed to be protecting its merchants from Burmese extortion. More likely, it sought an overland route from India to Singapore. Burma began by responding to British provocations and ended by fighting for its autonomy.
OUTCOME: The Burmese king, Pagan Min, was ousted by his half brother Mindon Min; Britain occupied lower Burma, and the British East India Company announced South Burma's annexation to the empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: British and Indian regulars, 8,100; Burma, unknown
CASUALTIES: Britain, 377; Burma, unknown
TREATIES: None

After some 25 years of peace between British-held India and Burma (*see* ANGLO-BURMESE WAR, FIRST), the British colonial government in India sent the British navy to Rangoon to investigate complaints from British merchants that the Burmese were practicing extortion. Behind the complaints lay a darker subtext, the merchants' desire—and Britain's—to secure an all-land route between the British colonies in India and Singapore. It hardly came as a surprise when the news reached London that the navy had seized a ship belonging to the Burmese king, Pagan Min (d. 1880), nor were the imperialists much chagrined when the seizure provoked Burma's angry sovereign to launch another war in 1852.

In response a British amphibious expedition of 8,100 under General Sir H. T. Godwin seized Rangoon on April 12, 1852, and the Burmese army retreated to the north. In May the British took Martaban at the mouth of the Salween River, then Bassein in the Irrawaddy delta, and by July they controlled all the ports of lower Burma. Stopping until October for the monsoon season, the British then began a march northward on the capital, Amarapura, near modern-day Mandalay, slowly but surely occupying the central teak forests along the way for the British East India Company. After a sharp engagement at Shwe-maw-daw Pagoda, Godwin took Prome on October 9. On December 10, 1852, the East India Company announced in the name of Great Britain the annexation of south Burma. Meanwhile, a revolt in Amarapura led to the ouster of King Pagan Min by his half brother Mindon Min (1814–78). In 1853 the new king asked the British to leave, but they refused. The British, on the other hand, were hesitant to extend their forces farther northward. The war had reached an impasse, and both sides simply quit fighting. The British occupied all of lower Burma with Mindon Min's tacit approval, but no formal peace treaty was signed, and the Burmese court did not officially recognize the British colonial government in Pegu.

See also ANGLO-BURMESE WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: George Ludgate Bruce, *Burma Wars, 1824–1886* (London: Hart-Davis MacGibbon, 1973).

Anglo-Burmese War, Third (1885)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma (Myanmar) vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Burma
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Britain objected to Burma's courting of France, feeling that the relationship directly threatened its economic interests in British-occupied lower Burma; Burma sought to protect itself from further British

imperial encroachments and, ultimately, to maintain its independence.
OUTCOME: Britain annexed upper Burma to India and ousted the ruling dynasty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Britain, 9,000 troops and 2,800 native auxiliaries; Burma, unknown
CASUALTIES: Britain, 24; Burma, 250
TREATIES: No actual treaty, but the war formally ended with Britain's announcement of annexation, on January 1, 1886.

The Second ANGLO-BURMESE WAR had ended in 1853 with a whimper, not a bang, when both sides simply stopped fighting. The British were content to occupy lower Burma, and Mindon Min (1814–78), the new Burmese king, who had deposed his brother to ascend the throne, simply pretended they had not taken control of a large part of his kingdom. Mindon tried, in fact, to reverse the thrust of Britain's imperialism. He imposed administrative reforms that made Burma more receptive to foreign investment, and, to offset British influence, he entertained envoys from France and sent Burmese emissaries to Paris. But it was those very moves that once again aroused British suspicions about Burma, a country it had been uncomfortable with at least since Burma had annexed Arakan in the late 18th century and seemed willing to ignore its borders with northeastern India. Anglo-Burmese relations were already worsening when Mindon Min died and his son Thibaw Min (1858–1916) assumed the throne in 1878.

King Thibaw, like his father, favored the French, but the British were less worried about French influence in upper Burma than they were about what Paris was plotting in Laos, Vietnam, and Yunnan. The Anglo-French tension, on the other hand, owed less to nefarious French designs than to Burmese initiatives. Internal order began to break down under Thibaw's inept rule, and a border dispute with Britain flared briefly in 1878 on the Manipur frontier. Thibaw then tried to follow his father's lead in diminishing British influence by currying favor with the French. The Burmese court wrote the French premier a letter suggesting a bilateral treaty, and Thibaw began negotiating with France to build a railroad from Mandalay to the Indian border. The treaty posed a direct threat to British teak monopolies in lower Burma. When Thibaw openly defied London by refusing to accept a British envoy, and even worse, ordered Burma's ministerial council to fine the Bombay Burmah Trading Corporation for underreporting its extraction of teak from Toungoo, the British had had enough.

On November 14, 1885, British general H. N. D. Prendergast (1834–1913) moved up the Irrawaddy in 55 steamers manned by the Royal Navy and transporting his amphibious force of some 9,000 troops and 2,800 native auxiliaries. As they approached Thibaw's capital at Ava (Mandalay) on November 27, the Burmese king surrendered. They seized Mandalay and upper Burma and announced its annexation to India on January 1, 1886. Thibaw, deposed, was sent to India, but Burmese guerrilla forces fought British troops for four more years before they were pacified. Burma's Konbaug dynasty had come to an end, and so had Burmese independence.

See also ANGLO-BURMESE WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: George Ludgate Bruce, *Burma Wars, 1824–1886* (London: Hart-Davis MacGibbon, 1973).

Anglo-Dutch War in Java (1811)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Netherlands vs Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Java
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control over Southeast Asian colonies and their rich trade in spices, tobacco, teak, and other commodities
OUTCOME: The Dutch ceded Java, Sumatra, and Macassar to the British.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Capitulation of Semarang, September 17, 1811

By the end of the 17th century the Dutch had established both economic and political control over Indonesia, including Java. No serious challenge was brought against them until 1810, when Napoleon's (1769–1821) conquest of the Netherlands weakened Dutch colonial authority, and, in response, the British East India Company launched an impressive conquest of French and Dutch holdings.

Led by the governor general of India, Gilbert Elliot of Minto (1751–1814), the British fleet attacked Java at the port city of Batavia in August 1811. The Dutch governor general, Herman Willem Daendels (1762–1818), had anticipated the attack. He withstood the onslaught for more than a month but was finally forced to surrender on September 17 at Semarang. The defeat, recorded in the Capitulation of Semarang, resulted in the Dutch cession of Java, Sumatra, and Macassar to the British.

In 1816 Great Britain ceded Java back to the Netherlands in return for Dutch assistance at the Battle of Waterloo (*see* HUNDRED DAYS' WAR), which resulted in the final exile of Napoleon.

Further reading: Mark T. Hodcer, *The History of Holland* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1999); Patrick J. N. Tuck, *The East India Company* (New York: Routledge, 1998).

Anglo-Dutch War in West Africa (1664–1665)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Netherlands vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gold Coast of West Africa
DECLARATION: No formal declaration

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British seized Dutch holdings on the coast of West Africa, looking to exploit Africa's resources—gold and slaves.
OUTCOME: England strengthened its hold on the African coast and increased its exportation of gold and slaves.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Breda, 1667

The Anglo-Dutch War in West Africa was the second in a series of conflicts between the two nations that would eventually establish English domination over the high seas and bring to an end the "Golden Age" of the Dutch Republic. The lucrative slave trade in the New World had prompted English king Charles II (1630–85) to renew the 1651 Navigation Act, which spurred British commercial settlement along Africa's Gold Coast and the British seizure of Dutch holdings in the coastal region in 1664.

Dutch admiral Michiel de Ruyter (1607–76) responded with his Mediterranean squadron and recaptured the West African bases, but his success was eclipsed by events in the New World. England captured New Amsterdam in 1664, renaming the colony New York, and challenged other Dutch colonies. The following year Ruyter captured the Gold Coast fort at Cormintine (Fort Amsterdam). His absence from Holland proved critical, however, because the Second Dutch War erupted in 1665 in Europe. The Dutch were stronger in that conflict, but the Dutch Armada, without Ruyter to command it, was nevertheless crushed at Lowestoft. Forced to return to Holland to handle the crisis at home, Ruyter failed to challenge the British at Cape Coast. The strong British presence in West Africa, left unchallenged when the British and the Dutch finally came to terms at Breda in 1667, became the foundation from which Great Britain would rise as an awesome colonial power commanding a navy second to none.

See also Dutch War, Third.

Further reading: Roger Hainsworth and Christine Churches, *The Anglo-Dutch Naval Wars, 1652–1674* (Phoenix Mill, U.K.: Suttun, 1998); Mark T. Hodcer, *The History of Holland* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1999).

Anglo-French War (1109–1113)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Normandy
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Opposition to English presence in France
OUTCOME: An inconclusive truce ended warfare for a few years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None formally recorded; a truce ended the fighting in 1113.

William the Conqueror's (1035–87) invasion of England in 1066 (*see* Norman Conquest) shook the European political landscape and touched off a five-century struggle between France and England. The first Anglo-French War was precipitated by a power struggle between William's two sons, Robert Curthose (c. 1054–1134), duke of Normandy, and England's king Henry I (1068–1135), and foretold the course of centuries to come: that the monarchs of France would never reconcile themselves to the existence of English possessions on French soil. More than a matter of territory, this animosity between the two nations was rooted in deep-seated cultural differences and nationalist passions on both sides.

By 1109 Louis VI's (1081–1137) calls for resistance to English authority fostered a resistance movement led by Robert's son, William Clito (c. 1101–28). England's King Henry at last took action. He dispatched troops to the Vexin, a rich province of Normandy, and after several years of raids and counterraids, the revolt was suppressed. With both sides exhausted, hostilities ended in 1113 with a precarious truce, but the seeds of chronic aggression had been sown, and by 1116 war would once again resume.

See also Anglo-French War (1116–1119).

Further reading: Frank Barlow, *The Feudal Kingdom of England, 1042–1216* (London: Longman, 1972); John Le Patourel, *The Norman Empire* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976).

Anglo-French War (1116–1119)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Normandy
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Louis VI of France attempted to annex English-held Maine and Brittany in northwestern France.
OUTCOME: French forces were defeated; England maintained its hold on its French possessions.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Fewer than 1,000 total (both French and English)
CASUALTIES: Few on either side
TREATIES: None

A trio of French leaders led by Capetian monarch Louis VI (1081–1137), William Clito (c. 1101–28)—the son of imprisoned Robert Curthose (c. 1054–1134) and nephew of Henry I (1068–1139)—and Fulk (1092–1143) of Anjou stepped up their harassment of the Anglo-Norman government. Although Louis VI's motivations were to divert

English attentions from his own interest in annexing the provinces of Maine and Brittany, Louis also had as his object ending the English presence on French soil.

During the early years of the war the French managed to repel all English advances, but on August 20, 1119, Henry's troops defeated the French at the Battle of Bermule. Fewer than 1,000 men were engaged, and there were only a few casualties, but the demonstration of the superiority of Henry's forces was sufficient to prompt Louis to sue for peace on Henry's terms. The war ended in 1119, with Louis accepting English suzerainty over Brittany and Maine, a concession that reaffirmed Henry's claim to Normandy and greatly diminished the Capetian influence in northern France. Nevertheless, the Capetians continued to exercise an unprecedented degree of control over most of France and would do so well into the 14th century, thereby laying the foundation of the French nation-state.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1109–1113); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1123–1135); NORMAN CONQUEST.

Further reading: Frank Barlow, *The Feudal Kingdom of England, 1042–1216* (London: Longman, 1972); John Le Patourel, *The Norman Empire* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976).

Anglo-French War (1123–1135)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Normandy
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: English hegemony in Normandy
OUTCOME: Revolt in northern France ended by the time of Henry I's death in 1135.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Like his father, William the Conqueror (1035–87), Henry I (1068–1135) continued to consolidate English rule and extend his power over northern France at the expense of the Capetian dynasty. His politically motivated marriage to Eadgyth (later called Matilda), a direct descendent of Alfred the Great (849–99), bore him two children, Matilda (1102–67) and William (d. 1120). The marriage and the birth of an heir earned Henry much-needed acceptance by the Anglo-Saxon English, who had been suspicious of his Norman lineage. In 1120 young William, Henry's only male heir, drowned when his *White Ship* struck a rock during a storm. The French resistance movement in Normandy seized upon the sudden loss of William to stage a revolt in the province of Maine in the Anglo-Norman territories of northern France. The resulting war, which lasted from 1123 to 1135, was the last between the Capetian monarch Louis VI (1081–1137) and the English king Henry I.

In an attempt to tighten England's hold over the rebellious province, Henry I dispatched troops to the area in 1123. One of Henry's opponents was Fulk (1092–1143) of Anjou, an ally of Louis VI and a veteran in the previous ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1116–1119), who fought Henry despite the proposed marriage of Henry's daughter Matilda to Fulk's son Geoffrey Plantagenet (1113–51). Fighting was sporadic, and the struggle soon degenerated into a war of attrition. In 1128 the planned marriage took place, thereby securing a new English heir. By 1135 the revolt in Maine had also been extinguished, but other difficulties persisted, and the Capetians remained strong.

The ambitions of Matilda's husband, Geoffrey, became apparent in 1134, when he asked to be recognized as the duke of Normandy. Henry refused, and Geoffrey prepared to fight. This threat alienated the English acceptance of Matilda as heir, and, upon Henry's death in 1135 (the result of gorging on a meal of lampreys following a hunt), England was thrust into two decades of civil war over the subject of succession.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1159–1189); ENGLISH DYNASTIC WAR.

Further reading: Frank Barlow, *The Feudal Kingdom of England, 1042–1216* (London: Longman, 1972); John Le Patourel, *The Norman Empire* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976).

Anglo-French War (1159–1189)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: More a chronic state of hostilities than a single war, the conflict resulted from King Louis VII's fears that his vassal Henry II of England was becoming too powerful. Subsequently, the conflict developed into rebellion against Henry among his French possessions and a rebellion fomented by Henry's sons, Richard (later Richard I the Lionheart) and John (later King John ["Lackland"]).
OUTCOME: Nothing definitive resulted from the phase of the conflict between Henry II and Louis VII; the rebellion of Henry's sons strengthened their position, but Richard did not become king until the death (from natural causes) of Henry II.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No formal treaties

The so-called Anglo-French War of 1159–89 was really a series of conflicts in a more or less chronic state of war.

After the 21-year-old Henry of Anjou became King Henry II (1133–89) of England, he instituted a series of reforms that not only rescued Britain from the chaos that followed the death of his grandfather, Henry I (1068–1135), but also consolidated Plantagenet lands into a coherent, well-governed empire so vast that his feudal overlord, King Louis VII (1120–80) of France, became alarmed. And with good reason, for Louis did not command sufficient forces to wage out-and-out war against Henry. Instead, Louis resorted to playing a game of diplomatic intrigue designed to keep Henry off balance. In 1159, when Henry resolved to march on Toulouse to assert his claim there, he invaded from Normandy, only to find himself checked by Louis's forces, who already occupied Toulouse. In the highly structured world of medieval Europe, Henry declined to attack his nominal overlord. This is precisely what Louis had counted on. However, Henry secretly swore and plotted revenge.

The animosity between Henry and Louis increased as the French monarch repeatedly worked to erode Henry's position, primarily through nurturing revolt in English-held territories throughout France. In 1173 Louis prompted Henry's sons to rebellion (*see* ANGLO-NORMAN REBELLION), even manipulating Henry's queen, Eleanor of Aquitaine (c. 1122–1204). Jealous of her husband's many and open love affairs, Eleanor readily consented to Louis's blandishments and urged her sons on in their revolt, which in the end led to her imprisonment for the rest of Henry's life. The death of the French monarch in 1180 brought a temporary end to hostilities.

In 1183 Henry's son Duke Richard (1157–99) of Aquitaine—destined to be remembered by history as King Richard I the Lionheart of England—put down a new rebellion against his father by his older brother Henry (d. 1183). In 1189, Richard, aided by his brother John (1167–1216), later King John ("Lackland") of England, and by France's King Philip II (1165–1223)—launched his own war against Henry. It ended only with the death of the betrayed father in 1189, and Richard ascended to the English throne.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1202–1204); HENRY II'S CAMPAIGNS IN WALES.

Further reading: Richard W. Barber, *The Devil's Crown: A History of Henry II and His Sons* (Conshohocken, Penn.: Combined Books, 1996); Frank Barlow, *The Feudal Kingdom of England, 1042–1216* (London: Longman, 1972); John Le Patourel, *The Norman Empire* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976).

Anglo-French War (1202–1204)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Normandy
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England's possession of Normandy
OUTCOME: England lost its French possessions.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No formal treaties

Possession of the territory of Normandy was the pretext for almost continuous warfare between France and England in the Middle Ages. Each new monarch inherited the animosity initiated by William the Conqueror (1035–87) in 1066, and with each succession the royal families became increasingly more complex and intertwined. The Anglo-French conflict that began in 1202 perpetuated the cyclic behavior of the two nations and also marked the shift from English to French rule over the disputed region.

The death of the English king Richard the Lionheart (b. 1157) in 1199 ended a six-year war with France's Philip II (1165–1223). The following year the Peace of Le Goulet (May 22) was signed between Richard's successor, John I ("Lackland") (1167–1216), and Philip II. John, immediately challenged by his cousin (or nephew) Arthur of Brittany for the throne, made several key concessions to Philip in order to solidify his ascension. The concessions coupled with John's own blunders, which included renouncing his marriage to Isabella of Gloucester (?–1217) and a new marriage to the fiancée of a French nobleman from Poitou, quickly established him as one of the more unpopular monarchs in English history. John's refusal to answer to Philip II—technically, his feudal overlord—for his matrimonial misconduct provided the French king with a reason to renew hostilities. Philip II declared all English holdings in France void. A rebellion in Poitou followed, and in 1202 a full-scale war erupted between the two monarchs.

During the first months of the war, King John captured his rival, Arthur, and 200 of his conspirators at Poitiers in an impressive raid that covered 80 miles and lasted 48 hours. Most historians believe John then murdered his cousin in a drunken rage. However, John failed to exploit his advances in Poitiers, thereby allowing Philip II to gain the offensive in the surrounding Angevin territory. Enjoining the sympathy of the local anti-English populace, Philip II felt confident enough to lay siege on an English military fortress built by Richard I of England called Château Gaillard.

Located on the banks of the Seine at Les Andelys, Château Gaillard was key to defending English holdings in Normandy. In September 1203 Philip II's knights surrounded the fort, and by March of the following year this last major English bastion fell. The door lay open for Philip II to invade the Norman city of Rouen.

On June 24, 1204, Philip II's knights executed a surgical strike that captured the city. Once Rouen had capitulated, Philip drove the English out of the whole region north of the Loire River. Philip II conquered the English fiefs of Anjou, Brittany, Maine, Normandy, and Touraine.

Although John maintained Gascony and some regions south of the Loire, the overall result of the Anglo-French War from 1202 to 1204 was England's loss of its long-cherished Angevin territory.

The war had been relatively brief, but it was rife with profound consequences for military history. Philip II established for the first time in history a semipermanent royal army through a combination of mercenaries and indentured servants. Philip's use of such an army in his siege of Château Gaillard demonstrated how a wealthy monarch could overcome the drawbacks of the purely mercenary forces typical of the Middle Ages, including the expense involved and the individual soldier's lack of devotion to a cause. In broader historical terms the war created an all-but-permanent rift between France and England that would endure some 500 years.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1159–89); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR, (1213–1214).

Further reading: Frank Barlow, *The Feudal Kingdom of England, 1042–1216* (London: Longman, 1972); John Le Patourel, *The Norman Empire* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976); W. J. Warren, *King John* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1961).

Anglo-French War (1213–1214)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England, Holy Roman Empire (Germany), and Flanders vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poitou (west central France) and Flanders (a principality of the Low Countries)
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A contest for possession of lands in France formerly held by John II of England
OUTCOME: England and its allies were roundly defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Total unknown; English ships engaged in the naval battle off the coast of Damme numbered 500 vessels.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce of Chinon, September 18, 1214

The previous ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1202–1204) resulted in England's losing its vassalage in northwestern France. Further troubles between English king John I ("Lackland") (1167–1216) and Pope Innocent III (c. 1160–1216) followed, culminating in excommunication in 1209 and a papal ban in 1213. To avoid backlash and rebellion at home, John did penance and paid homage to the pope, who lifted the ban and restored John to the church. He felt that his losses in Normandy and his forced obeisance to the pope seriously undermined his prestige, and he looked for a way to bolster his faltering power base. He therefore forged a grand coalition with his nephew, the Holy Roman Emperor Otto IV (c. 1174–1218), and Ferdinand (1186–1233), count of Flanders, to regain the lost territories in northwestern France and defeat, once and for all, Philip II (1165–1223) of France.

In March 1213, following a request for aid from Ferdinand, who was being pummeled in Flanders by French forces under Philip II, an English fleet led by the earl of Salisbury surprised the French fleet off the coast of Damme. The English fleet, numbering some 500 vessels, burned or captured virtually all of Philip's navy.

By February of the following year, John successfully invaded the western French province of Poitou. His battle strategy was to draw Philip's army to him and away from Paris, so that Otto and Ferdinand could march into the capital. This plan failed because of Otto's inept leadership and repeated delays. Leaving his son Prince Louis (1187–1226) in command in the south, Philip rushed back to Paris in time to build up a formidable defense. Meanwhile, in May young Louis defeated the English at Poitou, forcing them to retreat to La Rochelle. The victory at Poitou effectively ended the two-front war and set up a showdown between Otto and Philip. On July 27 their two forces met at Bouvines, a plateau outside Lille, then a part of Flanders, and after two weeks of intense fighting the French emerged victorious.

On September 18, 1214, the Truce of Chinon was signed, ending an abbreviated war with serious consequences for both John and Otto. The former was forced to cede all English vassalage in France and return home, weakened in prestige, to face his own internal crisis—the revolt of the nobility that eventuated in the creation of the Magna Carta (1215). As for Otto, his loss resulted in the forfeiture of the imperial throne.

See also ALBIGENSIAN CRUSADE; ENGLISH CIVIL WAR (1215–1217).

Further reading: Frank Barlow, *The Feudal Kingdom of England, 1042–1216* (London: Longman, 1972); John Le Patourel, *The Norman Empire* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976); W. J. Warren, *King John* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1961).

Anglo-French War (1242–1243)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northwestern France
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England attempted to regain lands King John I lost to France.
OUTCOME: English defeat; a truce was negotiated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the battle of Saintes, July 21, 1242, England, 700 crossbowmen; France, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce concluded at Bordeaux, 1243

A renewal of Anglo-French conflict began in 1242 when Henry III (1207–72) of England invaded France at Saintonge, on the Bay of Biscay, in an attempt to regain the Angevin lands lost by his father, King John I ("Lackland") (1167–1216). Henry's invasion was quickly repelled by French forces under King Louis IX (1214–70).

The major event of the war was the Battle of Saintes, fought on July 21, 1242. Having already been defeated at Taillebourg the previous day, Henry's regiment of 700 crossbowmen was left in a precarious position on the banks of the Charente River when Louis's cavalrymen crushed them at Saintes. Tactically, it was a minor battle, but the defeat forced Henry to realize the futility of further action, and he retreated into Gascony. The brief war concluded with a truce at Bordeaux and paved the way for the 1259 Treaty of Paris, by which Henry renounced English claims to northwestern France. Louis IX, who was in the process of organizing the Seventh Crusade, paid little attention to enforcing the truce, which was negotiated after Henry's retreat. This diplomatic failure ensured that Anglo-French tensions would remain high.

See also Anglo-French War (1202–1204); Anglo-French War (1213–1214).

Further reading: David A. Carpenter, *Reign of Henry III* (London and Rio Grande, Ohio: Hambledon Press, 1996); John Le Patourel, *The Norman Empire* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976); Jean Richard, *Saint Louis: Crusader King of France* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Anglo-French War (1294–1298)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France and Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gascony, in southwestern France
DECLARATION: England's Edward I declared war in June 1294 when Philip IV the Fair of France occupied Gascony.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England attempted to regain its lands in Gascony.
OUTCOME: England's forces were defeated, and a treaty was arranged for royal marriages between France and England to secure peace between the two countries.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Signed at Tournai, January 31, 1298

The war between Edward I (1239–1307) of England and Philip IV the Fair (1268–1314) of France broke out when Philip's troops moved on English holdings in Gascony. In response Edward declared war on France in June 1294 but was faced with an alliance between the French and the ever-rebellious Scots. Edward managed to quell a Scottish revolt at home early in 1295, but doing so weakened his position in France, and Philip's forces penetrated farther into Gascony.

It was 1297 before Edward could mount an offensive designed to divert Franco-Scottish aggression from Gascony by taking the Norman territory of Furnes. This strategy failed when Edward was defeated by superior French cavalry, and the English monarch sued for peace. The truce, concluded in April 1297 at Vyve-Saint-Bavon, left Gascony in the hands of the French. The following year the war officially ended with a treaty signed on January 31, 1298, at Tournai. The agreement arranged for two intermarriages between the royal families of France and England in order to seal the peace. The marriage deprived Scotland's William Wallace (c. 1270–1305) of his most important ally, greatly weakening the Scottish cause.

See also Anglo-French War (1242–1243); Anglo-French War (1300–1303).

Further reading: Michael Prestwick, *Edward I* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1997); Fiona J. Watson, *Under the Hammer: Edward I and Scotland, 1286–1306* (East Linton, U.K.: Tuckwell Press, 1998).

Anglo-French War (1300–1303)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England and Flanders vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Flanders
DECLARATION: Flemish revolt, known as the Matins of Bruges, on May 18, 1302
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The empire-building Edward I sought to reassert English claims in France by backing a revolt in Flanders; the French fought to maintain their control over Flanders.
OUTCOME: England regained hegemony in Gascony, and Edward's empire building was strengthened.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Paris, 1303

Although a truce between England and France had followed the Anglo-French War (1294–1298), an English-backed revolt in Flanders rekindled aggression in 1300. King Edward I (1239–1307) of England, since 1297 deeply involved in a war with rebellious Scotland known as Wallace's Revolt, gave his approval and promised backing to his Flemish allies to take up arms against French king Philip IV the Fair (1268–1314). The extent of English involvement in the resulting struggle was limited to Edward's support of Flemish actions, but the subsequent French defeat in 1302 gave Edward a strong position in the peace negotiations.

Since the war of 1294–98 Flanders had been at the mercy of Philip IV the Fair, who ruled the region harshly.

Several years of active resistance led to a full-scale revolt, the Matins of Bruges, in the west Flanders town of Courtrai on May 18, 1302. The Flemish, led by Guy de Dampierre (c. 1225–1305) and armed with heavy pikes and other weapons unconventional for the time, faced a formidable French armored cavalry led by Robert d'Artois (1250–1302). On July 11, 1307, the feudal army charged the "pike wielding" Flemish, which resulted in the utter rout of the stunned French forces, thousands of whom were slain, including Artois, as the pikemen emerged from their well-positioned cover along the waterways of Flanders. One of the most significant victories of infantry over armored cavalry in the Middle Ages, the Battle of the Spurs—named for the 700 pairs of gilt spurs removed from the slain knights and displayed as trophies in Courtrai Cathedral—forced the French to negotiate with England. The battle was a disaster for the knights, their horses all but useless in the prevailing mud. After the battle, the Peace of Paris in 1303 between France and England restored English hegemony over Gascony and greatly strengthened Edward's growing empire.

Further reading: Joseph Reese Strayer, *The Reign of Philip the Fair* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1980).

Anglo-French War (1475)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France (despite invasion, no battles were fought)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England's King Edward IV, of the house of Lancaster, took revenge on France for backing the house of York, Edward's opponents in the 40-year struggle for the English Crown.
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; Louis XI of France paid Edward to withdraw.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: Truce concluded at Picquigny, 1475

The end of the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR (1337–1457) between England and France gave way to a long civil war in England. Called the Wars of the ROSES (1455–1485), it pitted the rival houses of York and Lancaster in a struggle for possession of the English throne. Because the French supported Henry VI (1421–71) of the house of Lancaster during the war, Edward IV (1442–83) of the house of York, who twice deposed Henry, in 1461 and 1470, invaded France in 1475.

Although Edward's army crossed the English Channel and landed at Calais, no battles were fought. Edward's alliance with Charles the Bold (1433–77) of Burgundy, rival to French king Louis XI (1423–83), greatly concerned the French monarch, who had made plans to invade Burgundy and did not wish to meet combined Burgundian and English resistance. Therefore, to forestall a coalition against him, Louis XI met with Edward at Picquigny, where they negotiated an end to the bloodless war. Louis XI's truce provided a large sum of money to Edward in return for the complete withdrawal of English forces. The truce had effects on both sides of the Channel. Using the French funds, Edward was able to secure his rule and leave a sizable trust to his sons, Edward V (1470–83) and Richard (1472–83), who shortly after their father's death in 1483, were placed in the Tower of London by their uncle, the duke of Gloucester, later King Richard III (1452–85). For his part, Louis XI invaded Burgundy in 1477 without English interference and killed Charles the Bold.

Further reading: Paul Murray Kendall, *Louis XI: The Universal Spider* (London: Phoenix, 2001); Charles Roos, *Edward IV* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1997).

Anglo-French War (1542–1546)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England and the Holy Roman Empire vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Boulogne (France) and the Isle of Wight
DECLARATION: Holy Roman Emperor Charles V declared war on France on July 30, 1542.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England retaliated when France allied with Scotland in its war against Henry VIII.
OUTCOME: France ceded Boulogne in exchange for 2 million French crowns.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: England, 40,000; France, 30,000
CASUALTIES: France, 800 killed; England, 700 killed
TREATIES: Treaty of Crépy-en-Laonnois, September 18, 1544, between the Holy Roman Empire and France; Treaty of Campe (or Ardres), June 7, 1546, between England and France

The Anglo-French War of 1542–46 between Henry VIII (1491–1547) of England and Francis I (1494–1547) of France started when Henry formed a precarious alliance with Holy Roman Emperor Charles V (1500–58), who had declared war on France on July 30, 1542. The necessity of suppressing rebellion in Scotland relegated Henry's role to that of a silent partner in the conflict, but a royal victory over the Scots at Solway in the fall freed Henry for greater involvement (*see* ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR [1542–1549]). On December 31, 1543, Charles V and Henry VIII concluded a secret treaty, which called for a dual invasion of France.

Hostilities started in July 1544, when Henry commissioned Sir John Wallop (1490–1551) and his 5,000-man infantry to lay siege against Boulogne. Henry then redi-

rected Wallop and his men to aid Charles in his siege against the French region of Landrecies.

The provisions of the secret treaty called for a joint campaign to begin in June 1544, with the object of marching on Paris together. On July 3 Henry arrived in France to lead a force of 30,000 men. He took over the siege of Boulogne and captured the town on September 14, just four days before Charles, independently of Henry, came to terms with the French. The defeated garrison was allowed to withdraw in peace from Boulogne, and the Treaty of Crépy-en-Laonnois between the emperor and France ended the dual invasion. Henry returned to England, leaving behind a skeleton force of 3,300 men. Over the next year fighting resumed and was sporadic, limited to periodic raids and counterattacks, until the summer of 1545, when Francis I led a naval campaign in the English Channel, which burned the Isle of Wight and resulted in the accidental sinking of the English flagship *Mary Rose*. Wet weapons and poor strategic planning prevented the French from capitalizing on what they had gained, forcing them to withdraw to Havre.

Limited fighting continued until a final peace treaty could be agreed upon. Negotiations started as early as November 1545 but stalled because Henry VIII stubbornly demanded the restoration of English hegemony in Boulogne. In May 1546 the talks were moved to Campe, where they continued until June 7, 1546, when the Treaty of Campe (or Ardres) was concluded, whereby France ceded Boulogne to England for a period of eight years in return for a payment of 2 million French crowns.

See also Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Fourth.

Further reading: R. J. Knecht, *French Renaissance Monarchy: Francis I and Henry II* (London and New York: Longman, 1984); William S. Maltby, *Reign of Charles V* (New York: Palgrave, 2002).

Anglo-French War (1549–1550)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England and France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: England declared war on August 9, 1549.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France attempted to recapture Boulogne and environs, one of England's last possessions in France.
OUTCOME: Though French forces encircled the city, they could not capture it; France purchased it from a war-weary England.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Boulogne, March 24, 1550

The Treaty of Campe (1546), concluded between Henry VIII (1491–1547) of England and Francis I (1494–1547) of France, ended the Anglo-French War (1542–1546), but it failed to reconcile the deep-seated animosity between the two nations. Thus, within a few years of the deaths of the two principal signatories, a new generation of Anglo-French Wars began.

French king Henry II (1519–59), like his father, Francis, could not tolerate the existence of English possessions on French soil and was particularly offended by the terms of the Campe agreement, which annexed Boulogne to England. In 1548 he therefore initiated hostilities against the underage and ailing successor to Henry VIII, Edward VI (1537–53), who governed under the inept regency of his brother-in-law, Edward Seymour (c. 1500–52), duke of Somerset. This state of affairs invited French rebellion in the English possessions, and the French also supported rebellious Scots in the British Isles themselves.

Provoked by Henry II's continual harassment, England officially declared war on France on August 9, 1549. The French, counting on English civil unrest in Scotland to prevent a serious defense of Boulogne, mounted a large-scale offensive strike in the area around the city on August 14. By September Henry was able to lay siege to Boulogne itself. However, the small English contingent within the walls of Boulogne, led by Edward Fiennes (1512–85), managed to weather the siege. With the approach of winter both sides dug in, and the war became one of attrition. By January both sides were ready to negotiate.

The talks began on February 18, 1550. Representing the English monarch was the duke of Northumberland—Somerset had been deposed in January—and Henry II, himself represented the French. On March 24, 1550, the Treaty of Boulogne was signed. Since the French had been unable to take Boulogne, they agreed by treaty to purchase it for £400,000. Accepting this sum, the English abandoned one of the last of their French possessions in April 1550, and a shaky peace between the two nations endured for seven years.

See also Anglo-Scottish War (1542–1549).

Further reading: Stephen Alford, *Kingship and Politics in the Reign of Edward VI* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Frederic J. Baumgartner, *Henry II, King of France, 1547–1559* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1988).

Anglo-French War (1557–1560)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England and Spain vs. France and Pope Paul IV
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: England declared war on France on June 7, 1557.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England's alliance with Spain, forged through royal marriage, drew English forces into war when Rome, allied with France, engaged Spain in war.

OUTCOME: England lost Calais to France; the French withdrew from Scotland; and Elizabeth I was recognized as queen of England.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Gravelines, France, 5,000 killed, 5,000 taken prisoner
TREATIES: Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis, April 3, 1559, and Edinburgh Treaty, 1560

The 1554 marriage of Philip II (1527–98) of Spain to Mary I (1516–58) of England was the first link in the chain of circumstances that led to the Anglo-French War of 1557–60. In 1556 French king Henry II (1519–59) had joined Pope Paul IV (1476–1559) in a war against Spain. The alliance provoked England into joining the conflict in support of Spain's King Philip, and on June 7, 1557, England officially declared war on France. In England the war was popular with the military aristocracy but highly unpopular with the Protestant merchant classes, who objected to it on religious as well as commercial grounds and gave the effort little support. Indeed, the war would prove harmful to commerce, disrupting English trade routes in Crécy in France.

During the first months of the war England defeated the French at St. Quentin. In an ambush of the French constable Anne de Montmorency (1493–1567), English and Spanish troops captured more than 7,000 French troops around the perimeter of St. Quentin and laid siege to the city. St. Quentin fell on August 27 when 2,000 English troops stormed the walls. Although the quick victory boosted the English cause on the mainland, it proved insignificant in the long run. The French, humiliated over the loss of St. Quentin, reorganized and on January 1, 1558, captured the English fortress at Calais and the strategic harbor base of Rysbanck. Meanwhile, Philip, after suffering several setbacks, defeated the French at Gravelines during the summer, killing 5,000 French troops and taking 5,000 prisoners. Although the English were not involved in the battle, as they were reported to have been, Philip's victory led to the negotiations that ended the war.

Peace talks continued through 1558. For the English the main issue was the return of Calais. For Philip it was independence for the duchy of Savoy. As long as he was married to Mary, Philip felt obligated to push for the restoration of Calais, but her sudden death during 1558 freed him from this obligation. Thus, on April 3, 1559, the Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis was signed between Spain, England, and France without the restoration of Calais to England. The Cateau-Cambrésis agreement inspired the signing of the Edinburgh Treaty in 1560 between England and Scotland, which provided for complete French withdrawal from Scotland and gained international recognition of Elizabeth I (1533–1603), who succeeded Mary, as the legitimate queen of England.

See also HAPSBURG-VALOIS WAR; HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Robert Tittler and Jennifer Loach, eds., *The Mid-Tudor Polity, c. 1540–1560* (Totowa, N.J.: Rowman and Littlefield, 1980).

Anglo-French War (1627–1628)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England and Huguenots vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): La Rochelle, France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The English backed a Huguenot rebellion.
OUTCOME: Defeat of the Huguenots enabled French chief minister Cardinal Richelieu to consolidate Bourbon authority.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: English, 8,000 in 90 ships; French, 25,000 Huguenots, unknown
CASUALTIES: English, 4,000. French, unknown; Huguenots, 75,000 dead in fighting, 15,000 from starvation and disease
TREATIES: Peace of Alais, 1629

In 1627 the Huguenots (French Protestants), claiming violation of their right to military autonomy as promised in the Edict of Nantes (1598), staged a second revolt against the French Crown from their citadel at La Rochelle on the Bay of Biscay. French chief minister Cardinal Richelieu (1585–1642), deeming the Huguenots a threat to the Bourbon monarch Louis XIII (1601–43), responded to the uprising on August 10, 1627, by laying siege to the city.

Sympathetic to the Huguenot cause and seeing a chance to exploit the temporary instability of a rival nation, Charles I (1600–49) of England sent three naval fleets to aid the rebels, who stoutly withstood the siege. Nevertheless, each of the relief expeditions failed, and the 14-month-siege finally ended when the Huguenots capitulated on October 28, 1628.

During the conflict both Charles and Richelieu were involved in their own internal battles. Charles's struggle with Parliament over the funding for the expedition to aid the Huguenots culminated in August 1628 with the assassination of the duke of Buckingham, a champion of the effort to aid the Huguenots. Richelieu, hungry for power, power that was totally dependent on the absolute hegemony of the Bourbons, was able to exploit his victory over the Huguenots to implement his overall strategy of centralizing Bourbon rule. The Peace at Alais, signed in 1629, effectively ended Huguenot military power in France.

See also BÉARNESE REVOLT, THIRD; THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Hilaire Belloc, *Charles the First of England* (Philadelphia and London: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1933); Joseph Bergin and Laurence Brockliss, eds. *Richelieu and His Age* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1992); A. Lloyd Moote, *Louis XIII, the Just* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1989).

Anglo-French Wars in India

See CARNATIC WAR, FIRST; CARNATIC WAR, SECOND; SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

Anglo-Indonesian Colonial War

See ANGLO-DUTCH WAR IN JAVA.

Anglo-Irish Civil War (1916–1921)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Irish nationalists vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ireland
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Irish independence from Great Britain
OUTCOME: The Irish Free State was established incorporating all but six Irish counties in the Protestant north, laying the ground for continued civil unrest.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Britain, 100,000; Ireland, 3,000
CASUALTIES: Britain, 1,585; Irish Republican Army, 500; Easter Uprising, Britain, 529 killed and wounded; Ireland, 62 killed (Irish wounded unknown)
TREATIES: Anglo-Irish Treaty, December 6, 1921

The history of English involvement in Ireland dates back to 1171 when Henry II (1133–89) invaded the island and proclaimed himself overlord of the region. Yet organized resistance did not arise until the Protestant movement of the 1690s. By 1798 an Irish Protestant revolt led to the formation of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland on January 1, 1801. During the mid-19th century the Irish encountered a devastating famine, resulting in more than 1 million deaths and an equally large number of emigrants, most of whom fled to America. The crisis fueled anti-British sentiment in Ireland and increased the internal hostilities between the Protestants and the Catholics. An independence movement known as Fenianism emerged from the Irish plight, which threatened English hegemony through terrorist actions and subsequently forced Parliament to consider Irish autonomy.

Charles Stewart Parnell (1846–91) led the fight in Parliament for the compromise policy known as Home Rule (which promised Irish autonomy in internal affairs only) in the late 1800s. Parliament finally passed a Home Rule bill in 1912. However, radical opposition and the outbreak of WORLD WAR I postponed implementation. In response to what the Irish felt was deliberate hedging on the Home Rule policy by the British Parliament, a group known as the Irish Republican Brotherhood (which in time would become the Irish Republican Army [IRA]), led by Sir Roger Casement (1864–1916), James Connolly (1870–1916), Patrick Pearse (1870–1916), and others, organized a rebellion to begin on Easter, April 24, 1916. On returning from a weapons procurement trip to Germany, Casement was captured and imprisoned, which scuttled plans for a national revolt. However, nearly 2,000 die-hards under Connolly and Pearse went ahead with the Dublin uprising scheduled for Easter Sunday. Within a week 20,000 British troops were in Ireland, and the rebellion had been crushed.

In the wake of the EASTER UPRISING, fifteen Irish Republican leaders were summarily executed, 2,000 rebels were just as summarily imprisoned, and the British began a campaign of persecution against the relatively tiny Sinn Féin, an Irish political society seeking independence from Britain, which the English assumed—incorrectly—had been the organization that planned the rebellion. Thousands of patriots rushed to the ranks of Sinn Féin, making it the most powerful nationalist organization in Ireland. Following the executions of Pearse on May 3 and Connolly on May 12, a surviving Irish Republican Brotherhood leader, Eamon de Valera (1882–1975), came to prominence and demanded a republican government.

The British made an attempt in 1917 to generate a consensus in Ireland by setting up the Irish National Convention, but then—with typical imperial heavyhandedness—destroyed whatever gains they had made by announcing a plan, never to be fulfilled, to draft Irishmen for the war in Europe. The Irish responded at the ballot box and in the streets.

Sinn Féin won 73 of the seats in the British Parliament assigned to Ireland, then, to a man, the elected refused to go to London. Instead, they set up an independent provisional government with its own assembly, the Dáil Éireann, elected by Irish members of the British Parliament. They also established an Irish court system and organized the Irish Republican Army (IRA) to resist British administration and secure official recognition for the republic. The British promptly arrested 36 of the Irish parliamentary delegates, but the remaining 37 ratified the Irish Republic proclaimed during the Easter Uprising.

Led by Michael Collins (1890–1922), the IRA was soon engaged in widespread ambushes and attacks on local barracks. The British retaliated with ruthless reprisals. Most of the Irish police force resigned. The British replaced it with a group of English recruits, known from the color of their temporary uniforms as the "Black and Tans." Violence seemed hardly avoidable. The IRA and the Irish Volunteers launched into two and a half years of guerrilla warfare, which the Irish called "the Troubles," a counter-

terrorist insurgency against the Royal Irish Constabulary of the Black and Tans.

As Ireland descended into something very much resembling civil war, the British bit by bit alienated Irish public opinion. They were soon forced—partly by Irish-American pressure, partly by Ireland's public support for the IRA, partly by such isolated heroic acts as the 1920 hunger strike of the Lord Mayor of Cork—to pass the Government of Ireland Act of 1920. With this act Britain continued its bungling by partitioning the island into two administrative regions, each with limited autonomy, which pleased none of various factions and laid the groundwork for future sectarian violence.

Outraged by the way the north had been divided to create a Protestant majority, the IRA stepped up its guerrilla war against the British. Britain retaliated by imposing martial law and setting loose the Black and Tans. The violence peaked on Bloody Sunday, November 21, 1920. In the morning the IRA assassinated in Dublin 11 men it suspected of being British intelligence agents. The Black and Tans struck back that afternoon, opening fire on a crowd watching a football match in a Dublin park. When the smoke cleared, 12 lay dead, 60 others wounded. Across Ireland hostility toward the British boiled over, and, as the terror continued, liberal British prime minister David Lloyd George (1863–1945) decided it was time to revisit the "Irish Question." A truce was declared in July 1921 that led to an Anglo-Irish Treaty on December 6, 1921, granting the 26 counties of southern Ireland dominion within the commonwealth. However, the partition between these and the six Protestant counties in the north remained, pleasing neither Protestant Ulster nor Catholic Dublin. Nevertheless, Dublin accepted the partition and became capital of the Irish Free State.

The 1921 proposal that established the Free State ended the Anglo-Irish guerrilla war for the time being, but it wreaked havoc on Ireland's sense of identity. Free Staters accepted dominion as a step toward true independence; radical republicans considered it an insult. Then IRA mastermind Michael Collins signed Lloyd George's treaty and helped set up the new provisional government. Collins, a larger than life figure who would inspire the likes of Mao Zedong (Tse-tung) and Yitzhak Shamir (b. 1915), had just signed his own death warrant. Immediately after the treaty was put into effect, IRA diehards, vowing never to accept a separate Northern Ireland, ambushed and killed their former leader in his native County Cork on August 22, 1922. The IRA, born from the ashes of the Easter Uprising, would fight on—so said its members—until the whole island was both free and united.

Further reading: J. Bowyer Bell, *The Secret Army: The IRA, 1916–1979* (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1979, reprinted 1983); León Broin, *Revolutionary Underground: The Story of the Irish Republican Brotherhood, 1858–1924* (Dublin: Gill and Macmillan, 1976); Tim Pat Coogan, *The Easter Uprising* (London: Cassell, 2001); Dorothy Macardle, *The Irish Republic: A Documented Chronicle of the Anglo-Irish Conflict and the Partitioning of Ireland, with a Detailed Account of the Period 1916–1923* (London: V. Gallancz, 1937, reissued 1965); Conor Cruise O'Brien, ed., *The Shaping of Modern Ireland* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1960, reprinted, 1970).

Anglo-Mogul Bengali War

See Bengalese-British War (1686).

Anglo-Norman Rebellion (1173–1174)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Henry II vs. rebels in Normandy and Brittany; also rebellious English barons allied with William I the Lion, king of Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Normandy, Brittany, and England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Faced with multiple rebellions, Henry II had to resist in order to maintain the full extent of his empire.
OUTCOME: Henry not only successfully crushed all the rebels, he achieved political dominance over Scotland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The four sons of Henry II (1133–89), king of England, were each apportioned by the king a foreign land to rule over. This was Henry's method of keeping the rebellious young men in check, for although between them they held nominal sway over territory extending from the Pyrenees to Scotland, they enjoyed no truly sovereign power. Ultimately, three of the sons, Henry (1155–83), Richard (later Richard the Lionheart, 1157–99), and Geoffrey (1151–1212), proclaimed independence from their father and fled to France. Only John ("Lackland") (1167–1216), the youngest, remained loyal.

The sons were egged on by their mother, Eleanor of Aquitaine (c. 1122–1204), in cahoots with the king of France Philip II Augustus (1165–1223). Encouraged and supported by Eleanor and the French monarch, the three sons began a revolt in Brittany and Normandy. Seeing an opportunity to exploit Henry's beleaguered state, William I the Lion (1143–1214), king of Scotland, leagued with a group of perpetually discontented English barons to mount a rebellion in England itself.

A highly skilled military leader, Henry parried the threats on both sides of the English Channel. He defeated the forces of his sons in France and the barons in England. Stability had returned to the Anglo-Norman empire by the

end of 1174, and all of those who had rebelled expressed their craving for Henry's royal pardon. Wisely, Henry refrained from exacting mere revenge. He pacified his sons with subsidies but steadfastly refused to relinquish to them any real power. The barons, pardoned, were nevertheless broken in rank. William I the Lion was made a prisoner, then freed on condition that he acknowledge Scotland a fief of England. What had begun as a desperate defensive war was brilliantly reversed to become a triumph of Henry the tactician.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1159–1189).

Further reading: Richard W. Barber, *The Devil's Crown: A History of Henry II and His Sons* (Conshohocken, Pa.: Combined Books, 1977); Alison Weir, *Eleanor of Aquitaine: By the Wrath of God, Queen of England* (London: Jonathon Cape, 1999).

Anglo-Persian War (1856–1857)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia
DECLARATION: Britain declared war on Persia on November 1, 1856.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Britain supported Afghanistan against Persian invasion.
OUTCOME: Britain prevailed; no Persian concessions were sought, except for Persian evacuation of Afghanistan and recognition of Afghan boundaries.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anglo-Indian forces, approximately 21,000; Persia, 20,000 regulars supplemented by 150,000 irregular cavalry
CASUALTIES: Anglo-Indian, 500 killed; Persian, 1,500 killed
TREATIES: Treaty of Paris, April 1857

Persian forces invaded Afghanistan in 1855, occupying the strategically positioned city of Herat in 1856. Feeling its Indian frontier threatened, Britain declared war. Although Persia's regular army numbered on paper 86,700, only about 20,000 men were fit for duty. These regular forces were supplemented by 150,000 poorly trained and poorly equipped irregular cavalry troops. Against these forces the British mustered about 21,000 Anglo-Indian troops, of whom some 5,000 were dispatched to take the Bushire Peninsula on the Persian Gulf. An equal number of Persian troops were defeated on the peninsula within a month, and the campaign ended on November 1, 1856. It was followed late in January 1857 by an inland advance of 4,400 Anglo-Indian troops to confront a superior Persian force of 7,800 at Khoosh-ab, about 40 miles from the gulf coast. The battle took place on February 8, 1857, and was a humiliating defeat for the Persians, who lost some 700 immediately and several hundred more in the pursuit that followed. Anglo-Indian losses were just 19 killed and 64 wounded.

In March the Anglo-Indian forces began an assault against Mohammerah on the northern end of the Persian Gulf and at the confluence of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The position was very strongly defended by artillery emplaced behind 18-foot earth berms. The Persian garrison was some 13,000 strong. The British strategy was to coordinate naval bombardment from the gulf with land operations by 4,000 Anglo-Indians under Sir James Outram (1803–63). This combination easily defeated the fortress, which fell on March 26. Persian losses totaled about 300, whereas the Anglo-Indian army lost 41 killed or wounded. The capture of Mohammerah came while peace negotiations were already in progress and resulted in the surrender of Shah Nasr ed-Din (1831–96), who agreed to evacuate Afghanistan and to respect its borders henceforth.

See also PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1855–1857).

Further reading: A. J. Abraham, *The Awakening of Persia: The Reign of Nasr al-Din Shah, 1848–1896* (Berrien Springs, Mich.: Vandevere Publishers, 1993).

Anglo-Portuguese War (1612–1630)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Arabian Sea off western India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: English merchants wished to break into the East Indies spice trade; the Portuguese sought to maintain their control of trafficking in the Indian Ocean.
OUTCOME: With Portugal defeated at sea, England's East India Company set up shop in competition with the Dutch, and Portuguese influence in the area rapidly declined.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Hostilities ended with no formal treaty between nations, but in 1630 a trade agreement was concluded between the governors of Portuguese Goa and English Surat, both on the West Indian coast.

In 1600, when Queen Elizabeth I (1533–1603) chartered the English East India Company (only later would it be called the *British* East India Company, after England had incorporated Scotland and begun building its sea-borne empire), she had in mind muscling her way into the Spice Island trade, which she assumed meant going up against the Dutch monopoly of Indian Ocean traffic. Much to the surprise of East India Company merchants, however, when they actually arrived in the south seas it was not the Dutch but the Portuguese who controlled the Indian Ocean from their trading centers at Goa and elsewhere in western India.

Undaunted, the Englishmen established in 1611 a settlement at Masulpatam on India's east coast. Soon East India Company merchant vessels, armed to the teeth, set sail, determined to keep the Persian Gulf open to England's East Indies trade. Operating out of Surat, on India's western shore, the small English commercial-bellicose squadron would meet and defeat a larger fleet of Portuguese men-of-war in two engagements off Jask in 1612 and 1614. The first victory allowed East India Company officials to acquire trading rights at Surat and set up a post there in 1612; the second gave England superiority in the Arabian Sea. With the trade routes now open, the English adopted a policy of harassment and subversion, interfering with Portuguese shipping, supporting rebellions in Portuguese colonies, and lavishly assisting countries chafing under Portugal to escape its control. At Portuguese expense both the English and the Dutch East India companies secured new trade rights along the Indian coast and began setting up trading post after trading post. England's entry into the Spice Island traffic proved too much for a Portugal that had long been battling tooth-and-nail with the Dutch in the region (*see* PORTUGUESE-DUTCH WARS IN THE EAST INDIES), and in 1630 the Portuguese governor of Goa and the English governor of Surat reached a trade agreement, bringing the hostilities to a halt and transferring Portugal's trading centers in India to other nations. As Portugal's trade presence in the East Indies declined, so did its once-powerful influence in the region.

Further reading: Jean Sutton, *Lords of the East: The East India Company and Its Ships (1600–1874)* (London: Conway Martitime Press, 2000); Anthony Wild, *The East India Company: Trade and Conquest from 1600* (London: HarperCollins, 1999).

Anglo-Scottish War (1079–1080)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scotland vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northumbria and Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King Malcolm III Canmore of Scotland sought control of Northumbria.
OUTCOME: Malcolm was foiled, although warfare in the borderlands continued sporadically.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: No figures available, but losses were slight
TREATIES: None

William I the Conqueror (1035?–87) ostensibly secured Scottish homage after his invasion of Scotland in 1072. Nevertheless, the Scottish king Malcolm III Canmore (d. 1093), son of Duncan (r. 1034–40) and the monarch who began the consolidation of royal power in Scotland, continued to harry the border region, north of the River Tees, despite his having acknowledged William's overlordship. In 1079 Malcolm at last mounted a full-scale invasion of English territory, overrunning Northumbria down to the Tyne River. In response William led an Anglo-Norman army into Scotland. The two forces clashed in numerous skirmishes, but no major battle developed, and King Malcolm pledged his renewed allegiance to William. William then withdrew, taking the precaution, however, of building a large defensive castle at Newcastle-on-Tyne. It proved a prudent step, for Malcolm continued to raid the border region until he was killed in 1093 by William's son and successor, William II Rufus (r. 1087–1100).

See also WILLIAM I'S INVASION OF NORMANDY; WILLIAM I'S INVASION OF SCOTLAND; WILLIAM II'S INVASION OF SCOTLAND.

Further reading: Frank Barlow, *The Feudal Kingdom of England, 1042–1216* (London: Longman, 1972); Raymond Campbell Paterson, *My Wound Is Deep: A History of the Anglo-Scottish Wars* (Edinburgh: John Donald Publishers, 1997).

Anglo-Scottish War (1214–1216)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scotland (with backing of English barons) vs. English forces of King John I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The north of England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Scotland's King Alexander II invaded England at the behest of the English barons to pressure England's King John I into yielding more power to them.
OUTCOME: John's supporters in the north of England were suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: No figures available, but losses were certainly very light.
TREATIES: None

Around the turn of the 12th century, the English barons were pressing England's king John I ("Lackland") (1167–-1216) to grant them significantly expanded rights, and in 1214 they prevailed upon King Alexander II (1198–1249) of Scotland to invade northern England and harass King John's supporters there. This Alexander did, adding to the pressures that prompted King John in 1215 to conclude the Magna Carta, which ensured feudal rights and guaranteed that the king would not encroach upon baronial privileges. However, when the king persuaded Pope Innocent III (1160–1216) to nullify the Magna Carta, the barons continued to support Alexander's raids as part of their general revolt against John.

Although the war spanned two years, no major battles were fought, and the action was limited to raids in the north of England, near the Scottish border. Alexander succeeded in suppressing John's partisans in the border region and also eliminated there various contenders for his own throne. John's death in 1216 ended the hostilities, however, and Alexander established friendly relations with King John's successor, Henry III (1207–72), whose son-in-law he became.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1213–1214); ENGLISH CIVIL WAR (1215–1217).

Further reading: Frank Barlow, *The Feudal Kingdom of England, 1042–1216* (London: Longman, 1972); David Ditchburn, *Scotland and Europe: The Medieval Kingdom and Its Contacts with Christendom, c. 1214–1545* (East Linton, U.K.: Tuckwell, 2001); Rosalind Mitchison, *A History of Scotland,* 3rd ed. (London and New York: Routledge, 2002); Raymond Campbell Paterson, *My Wound Is Deep: A History of the Anglo-Scottish Wars* (Edinburgh: John Donald Publishers, 1997).

Anglo-Scottish War (1295–1296)

See SCOTTISH WAR (1295–1296).

Anglo-Scottish War (1314–1328)

See SCOTTISH WAR (1314–1328).

Anglo-Scottish War (1482)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England's King Edward IV sought to put a friendly king on the Scottish throne.
OUTCOME: The Scottish king, James III, was effectively deposed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truces concluded 1484, 1487, 1491

In the late 1470s, King Edward IV (1442–83) of England, always eager to see the rival kingdom of Scotland weakened, plotted with the brother of Scottish king James III (1452–88), Alexander Stuart, duke of Albany (c. 1454–85), to overthrow James. Shortly after this plot was hatched, nobleman Archibald "Red" Douglas (1449–1514), another enemy of the Scottish king, leagued with Albany. In 1479, however, Albany was arrested and imprisoned by James. Albany managed to escape, fleeing first to France and then to England. Here he gathered an army of invasion and then allied himself with Douglas and others in a bold foray into Scotland. At Lauder Albany made James a captive.

Albany did not execute the Scottish king but did compel him to watch the execution of a number of his friends, favorites, and courtiers. Following this the now powerless James was sent packing to Edinburgh, and Albany took up the reins of government while the English army he had raised proceeded to retake Berwick, the English stronghold that had been lost to Scottish forces during the SCOTTISH WAR (1314–1328).

See also SCOTTISH BARONS REVOLT.

Further reading: David Ditchburn, *Scotland and Europe: The Medieval Kingdom and Its Contacts with Christendom, c. 1214–1545* (East Linton, U.K.: Tuckwell, 2001); Rosalind Mitchison, *A History of Scotland,* 3rd ed. (London and New York: Routledge, 2002); Raymond Campbell Paterson, *My Wound Is Deep: A History of the Anglo-Scottish Wars* (Edinburgh: John Donald Publishers, 1997).

Anglo-Scottish War (1513)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern England
DECLARATION: Scotland declared war on England, August 11, 1513.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Continuation of ongoing power struggles between England and Scotland
OUTCOME: Ostensible English victory came at such cost that English forces withdrew, and border clashes between England and Scotland continued.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: England, approximately 15,000; Scotland, 30,000
CASUALTIES: At Flodden, the central battle of the war, 10,000 Scotsmen fell, together with a similar number of English.
TREATIES: None

Chronic warfare between England and Scotland prompted the Scottish king James IV (1473–1513)—known as "Rex Pacificator," King Peacemaker—to seek peace with England. However, when England's Henry VIII (1491–1547) invaded France (*see* ANGLO-FRENCH WAR [1542–1546]), longtime ally of Scotland, James IV felt he had no choice but to declare war on England. This was followed by an invasion of England. Unfortunately for James, the invasion got under way slowly and proceeded with much delay, which gave England's Thomas Howard (1443–1524), earl of Surrey, sufficient time to gather a defensive force.

On September 9, 1513, the Scottish forces occupied the high ground at Flodden Edge, a position readily defended by Jones's 20,000 French-trained pikemen and 9,000 Highlanders, backed by 17 cannons. Surrey, who had 14,000 infantry and 23 field pieces, saw a weakness in the

Scots' position. James outnumbered him two-to-one, but Surrey's modern artillery and his full complement of archers gave him, he believed, an advantage. Quickly surrounding Flodden, marching around Jones's flank, he forced the Scots to face to the rear. This accomplished, Surrey bombarded James's army with artillery and volleys of arrows. Despite James's order to the contrary, this provoked the pikemen to leave the relative safety of their hilltop position and charge down the hill. It was a pitched battle that lasted from the afternoon until nightfall. Repeatedly, the smaller English force repelled attacks from the Scots, and gradually, the Scottish army dwindled. By the end of the battle, 10,000 Scots lay dead, including James and most of his noblemen: nine earls and 14 lords. The Scots peerage was, in a single battle, reduced by half. The cost to the English in this defensive battle was also very heavy.

Burdened with war against the French, Henry VIII could not afford to capitalize on this hard-won victory. In a fit of mean spiritedness, the English refused to yield the body of James IV, but the army of Surrey departed the field. Scotland was not invaded, and James V (1512–42), infant son of the slain king, ascended the Scottish throne. Border warfare would remain chronic through 1560.

See also ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1542–1549); ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1559–1560).

Further reading: David Ditchburn, *Scotland and Europe: The Medieval Kingdom and Its Contacts with Christendom, c. 1214–1545* (East Linton, U.K.: Tuckwell, 2001); Norman Macdougall, *James IV* (East Linton, U.K.: Tuckwell Press, 1997); Rosalind Mitchison, *A History of Scotland,* 3rd ed. (London and New York: Routledge, 2002); Raymond Campbell Paterson, *My Wound Is Deep: A History of the Anglo-Scottish Wars* (Edinburgh: John Donald Publishers, 1997); Gervase Phillips, *The Anglo-Scottish Wars, 1513–1550* (Woodbridge, U.K.: Boydell Press, 1999); A. I. Short, *James IV of Scotland: Sovereign and Surgeon* (Durham, U.K.: School of Education, University of Durham, 1992).

Anglo-Scottish War (1542–1549)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In continuation of long-term conflict, England's King Henry VIII attempted to assert suzerainty over Scotland.
OUTCOME: Temporary occupation of Edinburgh, but no permanent conquest
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: England, 16,000; Scotland, 23,000
CASUALTIES: At the culminating Battle of Pinkie, 6,500 Scottish were killed, wounded, or captured; the English suffered approximately 500 casualties.
TREATIES: None with Scotland; 1549 treaty between France and England brought a de facto end to hostilities in Scotland as well.

Henry VIII (1491–1547) of England attempted to arrange a marital union that would, at last, unite England and Scotland. These plans collapsed after Ireland offered its crown to Scotland. Thus provoked, Henry renewed war with Scotland by boldly declaring himself Scottish overlord. He backed up this illegal claim with an invasion of Cumberland, which culminated in the November 25, 1542, Battle of Solway Moss. Here a numerically superior Scottish force attempted to defend against English invaders. Poorly led and wracked by mutinies, the Scottish were routed by the English. Broken in health, King James V (1512–42) died very shortly after the disastrous defeat, and the Scottish crown passed to his only child, Mary (1542–87).

In the meantime, Henry VIII's army pressed on to Edinburgh, storming it in 1544 and, in what the Scottish called the "Rough Wooing," sacked the town. Despite the almost total destruction of Edinburgh, the Scottish refused to surrender.

Henry VIII next attempted to strike a deal with Scottish dissidents (1545), without success. A renewed invasion led by Edward Seymour (c. 1500–52), duke of Somerset, followed. Somerset's 16,000 men were met by a 23,000-man Scottish force led by Mary's regent, James Hamilton (1516–75), earl of Arran. The Battle of Pinkie was fought at the River Esk on the Firth of Forth on September 10, 1547. Although substantially outnumbered, Somerset's force possessed better cavalry and artillery in addition to a contingent of arquebusiers. Offshore, he was supported by an English fleet under the command of Lord Edward Clinton (1512–85). The result was a Scottish rout: while the English lost perhaps 500 men, the Scottish suffered 6,500 casualties, including dead and wounded, and 1,500 prisoners of war. Henry died four months later on January 28, 1547.

Although decisive, the English victory at Pinkie did not result in the subjugation of Scotland as, once again, the English lacked forces sufficient to occupy the country. Henry's son, Edward VI (1537–53), succeeded to the throne, but real power passed to the old king's brother-in-law, the duke of Somerset. As regent, Edward Seymour proved neither far-sighted nor shrewd, and his many enemies in the ruling elite blamed him, not Henry, for having embroiled the country in a war with Scotland as well as France (*see* ANGLO-FRENCH WAR [1542–1546]). He was arrested and stripped of office in an October 1549 palace coup, which effectively ended the hostilities for the moment with Scotland. Seymour was executed two and a half years later for treason.

See also ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1513).

Further reading: David Ditchburn, *Scotland and Europe: The Medieval Kingdom and Its Contacts with Christendom, c. 1214–1545* (East Linton, U.K.: Tuckwell, 2001); Richard Glen Eaves, *Henry VIII and James V's Regency, 1524–1528: A Study in Anglo-Scottish Diplomacy* (Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 1987); Rosalind Mitchison, *A History of Scotland,* 3rd ed. (London and New York: Routledge, 2002); Raymond Campbell Paterson, *My Wound Is Deep: A History of the Anglo-Scottish Wars* (Edinburgh: John Donald Publishers, 1997); Gervase Phillips, *The Anglo-Scottish Wars, 1513–1550* (Woodbridge, U.K.: Boydell Press, 1999).

Anglo-Scottish War (1559–1560)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England and Scottish Protestants vs. Scottish Catholics and French forces in Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: During the ongoing conflict between Catholic and Protestant Scots, the Catholics appealed to France for aid and the Protestants to England.
OUTCOME: The French withdrew from Scotland, and the Presbyterian Church of Scotland (the Scottish Kirk) grew.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Negligible
TREATIES: Treaty of Edinburgh, July 6, 1560, among England, France, and Scotland; Treaty of Berwick, February 27, 1560, between England and Scotland.

Following after a decade the costly ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1542–1549), the 1559–60 conflict between the Protestants and Catholics of Scotland was more a stand-off or showdown than it was a full-scale war. In the midst of the heated religious conflict, Mary of Guise (1515–60), French Catholic widow of King James V (1512–42) of Scotland, withdrew to Leith Castle and, fearing for her life, secured French troops to come to her aid. For their part, the Scottish Protestants appealed to England's queen Elizabeth I (1533–1603) for troops. Although Elizabeth, cognizant of the perilous economic health of her kingdom and the relative weakness of her army, did not wish to provoke hostilities with France—much less its ally, Spain—she felt it her duty to defend Protestantism when it was threatened at her borders. Accordingly, she sent an army as well as a fleet and laid siege against Leith for the better part of a year. There was no battle, but at last the French yielded to this pressure and concluded the Treaty of Edinburgh, by which all foreign troops were to withdraw from Scotland. Separately, England and Scotland drew up the Treaty of Berwick, a mutual defense pact.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1557–1560); ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1482); ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1513); ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1542–1549).

Further reading: Richard Glen Eaves, *Henry VIII and James V's Regency, 1524–1528: A Study in Anglo-Scottish Diplomacy* (Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 1987); Rosalind Mitchison, *A History of Scotland,* 3rd ed. (London and New York: Routledge, 2002); Raymond Campbell Paterson, *My Wound Is Deep: A History of the Anglo-Scottish Wars* (Edinburgh: John Donald Publishers, 1997); Pamela E. Ritchie, *Mary of Guise in Scotland, 1548–1560: A Political Career* (East Linton, East Lothian, Scotland: Tuckwell, Press, 2002); David Starkey, *Elizabeth: The Struggle for the Throne* (New York: HarperCollins, 2001).

Anglo-Siamese War (1687)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam (Thailand) and French mercenaries vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siamese coast (Gulf of Thailand)
DECLARATION: England declared war in 1687.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Siam sought to check primarily the Dutch but also the growing English influence in the region by currying favor with the French; England found Siamese diplomacy a threat to its economic interests and sought to punish the Siamese for closing an English factory.
OUTCOME: Siam reversed its policy of open trade and closed its ports for 150 years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French East India Company, 600 mercenaries; British sailors and Siamese troops, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

At the age of 12 Constantine Phaulkon (1647–88), an adventurer destined to become one of the more audacious figures in the history of Europe's colonial relations with Southeast Asia, signed on with an English merchant ship docked in Greece soon to set sail for Siam (Thailand). Once there, Phaulkon, a polyglot, quickly added Thai to his growing repertoire of languages, eventually to include Portuguese, Malay, French, and English, in addition to his native Greek, all of which rendered him invaluable as an interpreter to the English (not yet "British") East India Company, which hired him in that capacity in 1670. During his eight years as a company factotum, Phaulkon met and befriended Siam's King Narai (1632–88), ultimately offering his services to the Thai court. Rising quickly to become acting minister of finance and foreign affairs, by 1684 he was virtually Siam's prime minister, taking a leading role in shaping Narai's foreign policy.

In collaboration with French Roman Catholic missionaries, principally the Jesuit Gui Tachard, the Greek soldier of fortune schemed to establish the French in Siam, persuading Narai that closer relations with Louis XIV (1638–1704) would help to balance the strong economic influence of the Dutch in the region. Siam and France exchanged envoys, and in 1685 a treaty was drafted granting Louis and the French East India Company numerous trading rights and allowing French troops to be stationed in the country. In the course of all the Franco-Thai diplomacy, Siam forced the English East India Company to close one of its factories. The English Crown responded in 1686 with a royal proclamation that withdrew the right of Englishmen to serve on foreign vessels and, to implement the decree and press for payment of damages for closing the factory, dispatched two English ships to Siam. Meanwhile, France had been adding fuel to the imperial fire Phaulkon and Tachard had lit under the Siamese king: Louis XIV made several additional and somewhat onerous demands of Narai and sent an armed expedition to Siam in 1687 to ensure he met them. Narai had, in fact, become suspicious of French designs, but Phaulkon reassured him by engaging 600 French East India Company garrison troops as mercenaries in the Siamese army to help man coastal forts.

The English ships arrived shortly after the French fleet, and the former sent the latter scurrying. Throughout the night Siam and French mercenary forces onshore shelled the English ships, sinking one, then killing a contingent of sailors who broached the beach before forcing the second ship to flee. Although the English soon afterward declared war, they did not pursue it, but under the threat of English attack, Narai had ratified the final treaty with France, incorporating all of Louis's demands.

In March 1688, King Narai fell seriously ill, and his brother Phetracta (Bedjara) took advantage of Phaulkon's consequent isolation to lead a coup by the anti-French faction at court. Phaulkon was executed and the French garrisons expelled. The effect of the Phaulkon affair was to reverse the policy of openness encouraged by former Thai rulers; Siam closed its ports to all foreigners for 150 years.

Further reading: George A. Sioris, *Phaulkon: The First Greek Counsellor at the Court of Siam: An Appraisal* (Bangkok: Siam Society, 1998).

Anglo-Sikh Wars

See Sikh War, First; Sikh War, Second.

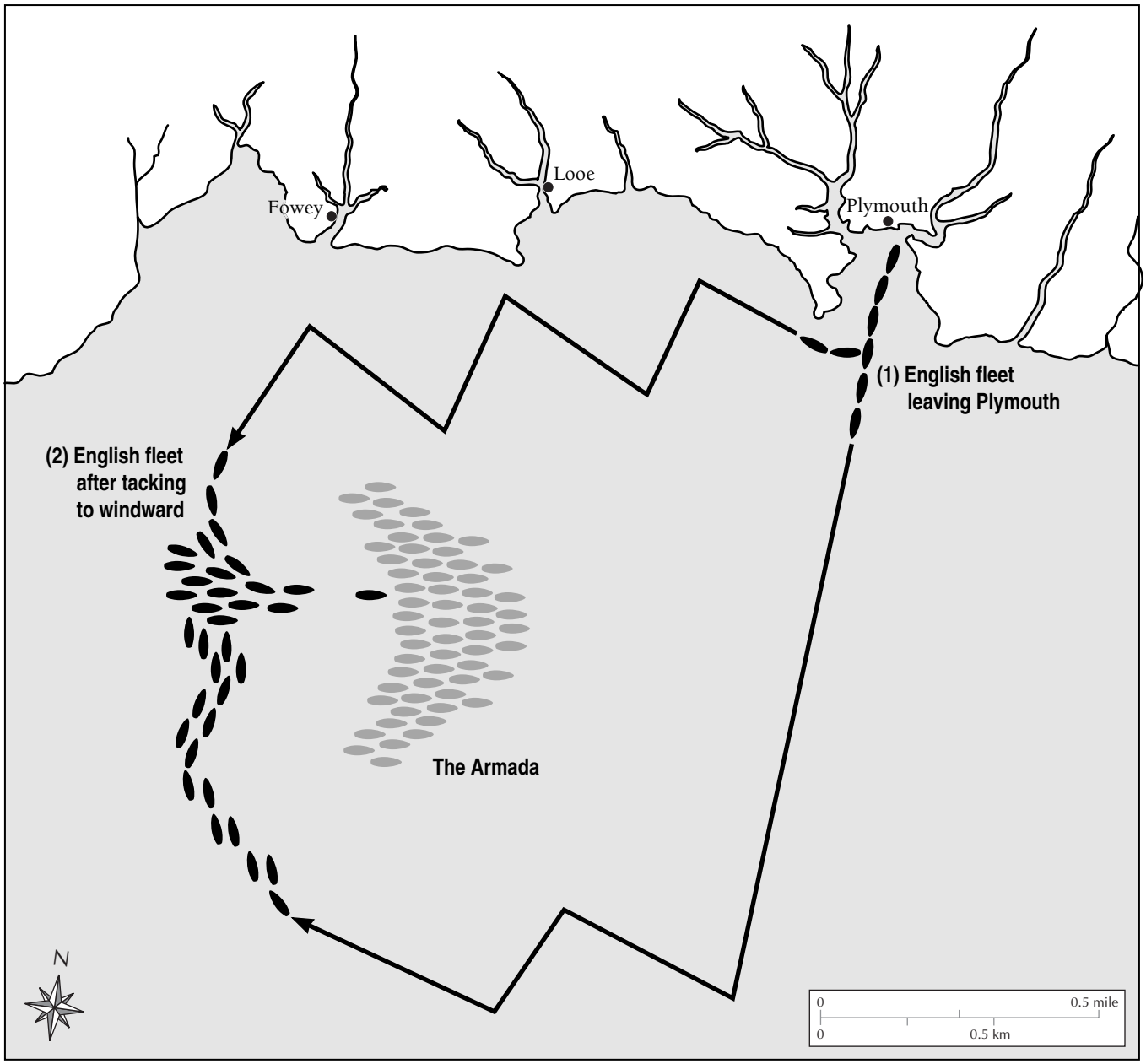
Anglo-Spanish War (1586–1604)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): At sea, off the Spanish coast, and in the English Channel; land action took place in Normandy, St. Malo, and Rouen, France; and in Cádiz, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Long-term power struggle between Protestant England and Catholic Spain; Spain's principal objective was to reclaim England for the Church of Rome.
OUTCOME: England successfully resisted Spanish domination.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Widely variable; the Spanish Armada consisted of 19,000 troops and 8,500 sailors in 20 great galleons, 44 armed merchantmen, 23 transports, and 43 lesser craft; England raised an army of approximately 60,000 to repel invasion.
CASUALTIES: Losses in the Spanish Armada were staggering; at least 63 of 130 ships were sunk; thousands of troops and sailors died. British losses throughout the years of conflict were slight.
TREATIES: Treaty of London, August 18, 1604

In 1585 England's queen Elizabeth I (1533–1603) reluctantly sent troops to aid the Dutch Protestants in an unsuccessful attempt to overthrow Spanish overlordship of the Netherlands. This brought deteriorating relations between Protestant England and Catholic Spain to a crisis, and in March 1586 Spanish admiral Marquis de Santa Cruz (1526–88) persuaded King Philip II (1527–98) of Spain to mount an invasion of England. The plan was for Alessandro Farnese (1545–92), duke of Parma, to take his Spanish troops out of the Netherlands and travel by convoy to invade England. Thus, the Spanish Armada was born.

As Spanish preparations got under way, Elizabeth commissioned the bold English "sea dog" Francis Drake (c. 1540–96) to harass Spanish shipping. On April 19, 1587, Drake, in command of a 23-ship flotilla, raided the Spanish port of Cádiz, where he destroyed 33 Spanish vessels and looted much Spanish treasure. During May and June Drake attacked Spanish ships off Cape St. Vincent, sacked Lisbon harbor, and captured a heavily laden Spanish treasure galleon in the Azores. This action set back Spanish preparations for the invasion, and before the Armada could be readied, Admiral Santa Cruz died on January 30, 1588. This was a great blow to Spanish sea power, since Santa Cruz's replacement, Alonso Pérez de Guzmán (1550–1619), duke of Medina Sidonia, lacked Santa Cruz's skill and experience as a seafarer, nor was he an experienced army commander.

Intelligence supplied by Drake gave Elizabeth plenty of advance notice to make preparations to repel the anticipated invasion. Naming Lord Howard of Effingham (1536–1624) to head her fleet, with Drake as his second in command, the queen overrode a recommendation for renewed sea raids, believing that it was more important at this point to keep the fleet close to home. With great vigor,



English fleet's initial engagement of the Spanish Armada, 1588

she saw to the raising of a large land army of 60,000 men, which was assembled by June 1588—in the nick of time, since the Armada got under way on July 12, 1588, and was sighted off Lizard Head, Cornwall, on July 19.

Against some 130 Spanish vessels, the English had Admiral Howard's 34 ships, another 34 under Drake's command, 30 more sailing out of London, and a 23-vessel squadron commanded by Lord Henry Seymour (1564–1632). Lesser vessels amounted to an additional 50. More important was the fact that the Spanish vessels mounted 2,431 guns, but including only 1,100 heavy pieces, versus 1,800 heavy, long-range British cannons. The Spanish, therefore, were outgunned—and in the first engagement off Plymouth on July 21, 1588, were also outsailed. The Armada lost one ship in this battle and suffered severe damage to several others, which were hit by long-range cannon fire. Two days later, on July 23, off the Devon coast, the action was exhausting but inconclusive. Although both sides expended much ammunition, the British could replenish their magazines, whereas the Spanish could not. Thus, on July 25, off Dorset, the English fleet enjoyed an advantage and was able to foil the Spanish plan to land at the Isle of Wight. Instead, low on ammunition, Medina Sidonia set off for the friendly port of Calais, where he

hoped he could replenish his supplies. Off Calais, during July 26–27, the English fleet, which now outnumbered the Spanish, fired on the Armada from long range.

The next day, July 28, off the coast of Flanders, the English sent fire ships—blazing hulks—into the Spanish anchorage. This created great panic among the Spanish, scattering the Armada. With the Spanish fleet in disarray, the English closed in, easily outgunning the Spanish. Nevertheless, although a number of vessels were badly damaged, no Spanish ships had been sunk by the time an early evening squall brought an end to the battle.

The squall that gave the Spanish a reprieve now developed into unfavorable winds that kept the Armada bottled up on the Flanders coast. Medina Sidonia's plan had been to refit and resupply his ships here, but the weather turned so treacherous that he decided to abort the invasion and head back to Spain. The winds dictated a route northward via the North Sea and around the British Isles. On August 2, as the Armada, now better concentrated, passed the Firth of Forth, the pursuing English fleet, low on provisions, was forced to break off the chase.

As this point, however the English fleet was not the most formidable of Medina Sidonia's enemies. Storms pounded the Armada, which was dogged even more viciously by starvation and thirst. In the long trip around Britain, 63 Spanish ships were lost to the elements, 15 more were captured or sunk by the English, 19 ran aground on the Scottish or Irish coasts, and 33 other vessels remain unaccounted for by history. Some Spanish survivors were massacred in Ireland. Few managed to find their way back to Spanish ports. For all practical purposes the great Spanish Armada had been annihilated.

Action in the years following the Spanish Armada was mostly slight and inconclusive. During 1589–96 small English forces were sent to the Continent: 4,000 men under Lord Peregrine Bertie Willoughby to Normandy in aid of Henry of Navarre (1553–1610) in 1589; troops landed at St. Malo and Rouen in 1591; and Cádiz was raided in 1596.

If the fighting was sporadic, the hostility between the two countries remained constant, even after Philip died in 1598. In 1601 Spain made a major effort to back a revolt brewing in Ireland (*see* TYRONE'S REBELLION), sending a force of 4,000 men to assist the rebels. When the rebellion was crushed and the Spaniards captured, the Iberian threat to the Tudor-ruled world was at an end. This was yet another hallmark of England's "golden" Elizabethan Age, which came to a close with the queen's death in 1603.

On August 18, 1604, James I (1566–1625) and Philip III (1578–1621) of Spain signed the Treaty of London, agreeing to peace between their two countries and formally ending more than a decade and a half of war between England and Spain.

See also DRAKE'S CARIBBEAN RAIDS.

Further reading: Felipe Fernandez-Armesto, *The Spanish Armada* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1988); Jan Giete, *Warfare at Sea, 1500–1650* (London: Routledge Press, 2000); John Lynch, *Spain 1515–1598: From Nation State to World Empire* (Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1991); Colin Martin and Geoffrey Parker, *The Spanish Armada,* 2nd ed. (Manchester: Manchester University Press, 2002); Geoffrey Parker, *The Grand Strategy of Phillip II* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1998).

Anglo-Spanish War (1655–1659)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England (with French allies) vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): West Indies, Canary Islands, Cádiz (Spain), and northern France
DECLARATION: Spain declared war on England in May 1655.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England wanted to achieve dominance over Spain in matters of trade.
OUTCOME: Spain ceded much of the Netherlands and suffered other losses to its empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: England, approximately 21,000 troops, sometimes augmented by French forces; Spain, widely varying
CASUALTIES: No overall figures available; Spanish losses at the Battle of the Dunes were 1,000 killed, 5,000 taken as prisoner; English losses in this battle were 400.
TREATIES: Peace of the Pyrenees, November 7, 1659

When the Puritans, led by Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658), took control of England following the civil wars, they beheaded Charles I on January 30, 1649, thereby alienating the crowned heads of Europe. Knowing that the Commonwealth the Puritans established would have to fight for its survival, the Lord Protector of England ultimately made his nation into a potent military power. From the start he understood he would have to deal with France, which sheltered the Stuart pretender to the throne. And he knew as well he would have to deal with the Dutch, who were trade rivals in England's increasingly important North American colonies. But he hoped, at least in the beginning, to strengthen his fledgling government by forging an alliance with Spain, the enemy of his enemies. The problem was that Cromwell remained a Puritan as well as a lord protector. He took an unyieldingly hard line in negotiations with the world's premier Catholic power, demanding extravagant trade concessions from the Spanish. When Spain refused, negotiations quickly broke down, and Cromwell dispatched an expedition to attack the Spanish holdings in the West Indies. Admiral Sir William Penn (1621–70) and General Robert Venables (c. 1612–87) led 2,500 British troops in the seizure of Jamaica in May 1655, thereby provoking a Spanish declaration of war.

At this point Cromwell struck an alliance with France for joint attacks on Spanish holdings in the Netherlands and at Dunkirk. The Spanish-held Dutch town of Maardyck was captured in the fall of 1657, and Dunkirk fell after a siege during May–June 1658. This was the work of a joint attack by the French under Marshal Henri de la Tour d'Auvergne, vicomte de Turenne (1611–75) and the British commanded by General Sir William Lockhart (1621–75). The Spanish defenders of Dunkirk, a garrison of 3,000, were soon reinforced by a 15,000-man army, which included 2,000 English Jacobites—partisans of Charles II (1630–85), pretender to the English throne and bitter opponent of Cromwell. (The Jacobites were led by James [1633–1701], duke of York, who was destined to be crowned King James II of England in 1685.)

The culmination of the Dunkirk siege came with the great Battle of the Dunes on June 14, 1658. The army sent to relieve the Spanish garrison at Dunkirk established its camp on the dunes between the beach and pasturelands northeast of the town. Marshal Turenne attacked the encampment on the morning of June 14 with 9,000 cavalry and 6,000 infantry, including French and English troops. Turenne managed the battle brilliantly, coordinating his advance with the offshore tide and timed to allow Turenne to carry out a flanking maneuver with his cavalry in order to trap the Spanish land flank.

Starting at 8 A.M., the battle was over by noon. While Turenne lost 400 men, the Spanish lost 1,000 killed and 5,000 as prisoners of war. Turenne then pursued retreating Spanish forces. By the terms of the Anglo-French alliance, Dunkirk was ceded to England. (Charles II sold it to France's Louis XIV [1638–1715] in 1662).

In the meantime, on September 9, 1656, British Royal Navy captain Richard Stayner (d. 1662) seized the Spanish Treasure Fleet off Cádiz, and during 1656–57 British admiral Robert Blake (1599–1657) imposed a crippling blockade on the Spanish coast. Then, on April 20, 1657, he sailed his fleet into Santa Cruz harbor in Tenerife, Canary Islands, where he sunk six treasure transports and 10 escort vessels and destroyed six forts. (Blake died on the return voyage to England.)

Reeling from its losses in the Netherlands, the West Indies, and along its own coast, Spain sued for peace in 1659, concluding the Peace of the Pyrenees on November 7. Spain had lost much of Flanders and relinquished some of its West Indian holdings. Oliver Cromwell did not live to see this triumph. He died on September 3, 1658, and was succeeded as Lord Protector by his son Richard (1626–1712).

See also DEVOLUTION, WAR OF; DUTCH WAR, FIRST; DUTCH WAR, SECOND; DUTCH WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: John Lynch, *Spain 1515–1598: From Nation State to World Empire* (Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1991); A. R. Pagden, *Lords of All the World: The Ideologies of Empire in Spain, Britain, and France, c. 1500–c. 1800* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1995).

Anglo-Spanish War (1727–1729)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Principally Britain and France vs. Spain and Austria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gibraltar, West Indies, Isthmus of Panama, Spanish Main
DECLARATION: Spain declared war on England in February 1727.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spain wanted to force Britain to cede Gibraltar and Minorca.
OUTCOME: Spain recognized British control of Gibraltar and made trade concessions to Britain and France; in exchange Britain and France agreed to the succession of Charles (son of the Spanish king Philip V) to the duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Tuscany in Italy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Gibraltar, 3,000 British defended against 18,000 Spanish.
CASUALTIES: At Gibraltar, Britain lost 107 killed, 208 wounded; Spain lost 700 killed, 825 wounded; 4,000 British seamen succumbed to disease in the West Indies.
TREATIES: Treaty of Vienna, April 30, 1725: basis of Spanish-Austrian (Holy Roman Empire) alliance; Treaty of Hanover, September 3, 1725: basis of British, French, Dutch alliance (to which was later added Sweden, Denmark, and certain German states); armistice, May 1727; Treaty of Seville, November 9, 1729: formally ended the war; Treaty of Vienna, July 22, 1731: Holy Roman Empire agreed to peace terms

The 1725 Treaty of Vienna created an alliance between Spain's King Philip V (1683–1746) and Charles VI (1685–1740), the Holy Roman Emperor. Backed by this alliance, Charles agreed to pressure Britain into ceding Gibraltar and Minorca to Spain. Instead of yielding to this pressure, however, Britain concluded the Treaty of Hanover (September 3, 1725), creating an alliance with France and Holland. (Subsequently, Sweden, Denmark, and certain German states joined the alliance as well.) The alliance was aimed at mutual defense and specifically targeted the destruction of the Ostend Company, a trading cartel operating from the Austrian Netherlands that competed with both the British East India Company and the Dutch East India Company. The conflict with Spain was further aggravated by the Spanish king's demand that his son, Charles (1716–88) rule the duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Tuscany, to which the Spanish asserted the right of succession by virtue of Philip's marriage to Queen Elizabeth Farnese (1692–1766), niece of Antonio Farnese, duke of Parma. England and France opposed the succession.

Amid mounting tensions Spain declared war on Britain in February 1727 and laid siege to Gibraltar. To the Spaniards' chagrin, however, Austria chose to remain neutral for fear of being dragged into a war with the entire Hanover Treaty alliance. For their part, the British retaliated

against Spain by attacking Spanish treasure fleets in the West Indies and by blockading Porto Bello in present-day Panama. Royal Navy vessels also cruised the coast of the Spanish Main harassing Spanish shipping there. The object was to prevent the transfer of Spanish treasure to Austria as inducement for its entry into the war.

Before the conflict could erupt into a full-scale war, an armistice was instigated by France and concluded in May 1727. A technical state of war continued, however, as Spain stubbornly refused to yield in negotiations with France and England. In 1729, however, Spain's Queen Elizabeth Farnese belatedly responded to Austria's refusal to honor the 1725 Treaty of Vienna and abruptly severed the Austro-Spanish alliance. This left Spain with little choice but to conclude a definitive peace treaty with the members of the Hanover Treaty alliance. Accordingly, by the Treaty of Seville (November 9, 1729) Spain recognized British control over Gibraltar and made liberal trade concessions to France and England. In return the Hanover alliance agreed to permit Charles's succession to the Italian duchies. A second Treaty of Vienna, July 22, 1731, secured the approval of Holy Roman Emperor Charles VI to the terms of the 1729 Treaty of Seville.

See also QUADRUPLE ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE; SPANISH SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE.

Further reading: John Lynch, *Bourbon Spain, 1700–1808* (Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1989); A. R. Pagden, *Lords of All the World: The Ideologies of Empire in Spain, Britain, and France, c. 1500–c. 1800* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1995).

Angolan Civil War (1975–2002)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA) vs. the National Movement for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) and National Front for the Liberation of Angola (FNLA)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Angola
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The UNITA sought to wrest control of the government from the Marxist Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA).
OUTCOME: UNITA and the government agreed to share power in 1991, but war broke out again in 1992.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: MPLA, 30,000; UNITA, 10,000; FNLA, 20,000; South Africa, 5,200; Cuba, 55,000
CASUALTIES: Angola, 340,000 soldiers and civilians; Cuba, 2,100
TREATIES: Several, but none lasting

After Portuguese West Africa secured its independence from Portugal on November 11, 1975, delegates from the three liberation movements met in Alvor, Portugal, to attempt to create a unified government. The Movimento Popular de Libertaçao de Angola, or Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA), under Dr. Agostinho Neto (1922–79), the União Naçional para Independencia de Angola, or National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA), under Jonas Savimbi (1934–2002), and the Frente de Libertaçao de Angola, or National Front for the Liberation of Angola (FNLA), under Holden Alvaro Roberto (b. 1923), agreed to form a coalition, but any unity they created was temporary. In March and April of 1975 Cuba began shipping arms and advisers to support Neto's MPLA, and civil war intensified. Later that year South Africa sent forces into Angola to battle the MPLA and its Cuban supporters, and at the Battle of Bridge 14 on December 12, 1975, the Cuban troops, despite their three-to-one advantage, were defeated by the South Africans. Two months later, however, Neto's MPLA and the Cubans took control of the FNLA stronghold at Huambo and forced many FNLA members to flee to Zambia. The South African government then withdrew from the war in April 1976 following an agreement with the MPLA guaranteeing protection of South African economic interests in Angola. That withdrawal cleared the way for Cuban troops to strike UNITA and force Savimbi's troops to withdraw from central Angola into the southeastern corner of the country. However, the new cold war aggressiveness of the United States under the administration of Ronald Reagan (1911–2004) in the early 1980s, with its no-strings-attached support for any kind of anti-Soviet movement, helped UNITA not only to continue its guerrilla warfare against the MPLA but to expand and strengthen its hold in the north, center, and south. Aided as well by South Africa's renewed effort to suppress the South West African People's Organization (SWAPO), which had bases in Angola, Savimbi had by the middle of the decade taken control of nearly one-third of the country.

But the MPLA acquitted itself well in the long Battle of Cuito Canavale, which lasted from March 1987 to March 1988. The loss of UNITA's military superiority, along with the dislike of South Africa's public, both white and black, for the war, soured the conflict for Pretoria. Talks resulted, leading to the December 1988 Angola-Namibia Accord and linking both Cuban and South African withdrawals from Angola to the independence of Namibia. Thus, the external actors, themselves about to enter a post–cold war era, now were urging negotiations on both sides of the Angola conflict.

UNITA soon broke the cease-fire, and in June 1989 it was almost destroyed by the MPLA's nine-month counteroffensive. This near defeat and the MPLA's carefully calculated decision to renounce Marxism-Leninism in favor of social democracy cleared the ground for the Bicese and Estoril Agreements of April–May 1990. These talks specified a UN-orchestrated integration of the Angolan military

and set multiparty elections for September 1992. In May of 1991 Eduardo Dos Santos (b. 1942), who assumed leadership of the MPLA after Neto died in 1979, and Savimbi signed a peace agreement in Lisbon that resulted in a new multiparty constitution. Despite some backsliding the peace generally held until Dos Santos won the UN-certified election with 49.6 percent of the vote. Savimbi rejected the results and full-scale civil war resumed. UNITA captured Soyo, which produces one-third of Angola's oil. It launched a 55-day siege of Huambo, where 10,000 people died and after which 100,000 fled for the coast. But when peace negotiations sponsored by the United Nations in 1993 at Addis Ababa and Abidjan failed to yield results thanks mostly to Savimbi's intransigence, the United Nations imposed sanctions against UNITA and Washington recognized the MPLA. South African mercenaries now flocked to the MPLA military, which began to make significant advances. By November 1994 Savimbi was ready to sign new peace accords.

The Lusaka Protocol, ending the so-called Third War, was ratified in May 1995 when Dos Santos and Savimbi met to confirm their commitment to peace. Under the agreement Savimbi accepted Dos Santos as president in return for the vice-presidency once UNITA disbanded. Later that year the first of 7,000 UN peacekeepers arrived in the capital of Luanda. But low-level conflict simmered as mutual distrust prevented Savimbi from either disbanding his forces or joining the new Angola government. Dos Santos moved against UNITA strongholds, especially in the diamond-rich northeast. The Luanda government, anxious to shut down UNITA bases in Zaire, supported the ouster of UNITA-backed President Mobutu (1930–97) in May 1997. Then Luanda's successful replacement candidate, President Laurent-Desire Kabila (1939–2001), came under attack by rebel forces in the newly renamed Democratic Republic of Congo in August 1998. By autumn 1998 full-scale fighting had resumed in Angola, a UN plane had been shot down, and Angola had intervened in the Congo's civil war. In 1999 the United Nations, chased out of the country by UNITA, abandoned its peacekeeping mission, and there was no end to the fighting in sight.

Then in February 2002 Savimbi was killed by government troops, and in April the Luanda government and UNITA signed a new cease-fire agreement. By May UNITA's military commander reported that 85 percent of his troops had gathered at demobilization camps. Many officials, both within Angola and internationally, remained concerned that food shortages and starvation in the camps set up for the thousands of refugees returning home after the cease-fire could threaten the peace process. Poverty ruled the countryside, and not just refugees but villagers as well were under pressure from famine. In June 2002 the United Nations launched broad appeals for aid for refugees while the medical charity, Médecins sans Frontières (Doctors without Borders) estimated that half a million Angolans were facing starvation as a legacy of the long-running civil war. Nevertheless, in August 2002 UNITA officially disbanded its army and Angola's defense minister proclaimed that the war had ended.

See also ANGOLAN WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Fernando Andresen Guimaraes, *The Origins of the Angolan Civil War: Foreign Intervention and Domestic Political Conflict* (Basingstoke, U.K.: Macmillan, 1998); Tony Hodges, *Angola from Afro-Stalinism to Petro-Diamond Capitalism* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 2001).

Angolan War for Independence (1961–1976)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portuguese West Africa (Angola) vs. Portugal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portuguese West Africa (Angola)
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Portuguese West Africa sought independence from Portugal
OUTCOME: Angola became independent from Portugal
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Portugal, 55,000; Angola, unknown
CASUALTIES: Portugal, 4,000; Angola, 25,000 guerrillas and 50,000 civilians
TREATIES: No treaty until the Treaty of Bicesse, May 1, 1991

In 1960 the Belgian Congo became independent and renamed itself Zaire. Inspired by this change, Portuguese West Africa (Angola) was soon a hotbed of rebellion. In February 1961 the Movimento Popular Libertação de Angola (Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola, MPLA), began a revolt against the colonial government of Portugal. Founded in 1956 with the help of the clandestine Portuguese Communist Party and led by Dr. Agostino Neto (1922–79), the MPLA drew support from the Soviet Union and was based at first in Brazzaville before moving to Zambia in 1965. From there it staged its raids into eastern Angola as the revolt spread. Meanwhile, another movement, founded in 1957 and headed by Holden Roberto (b. 1923) was leading the revolt in northern Angola. By 1966 it was called the Frente National de Libertação de Angola (National Front for the Liberation of Angola, FNLA). It drew its support from the Bakongo and rural Mbundu, was based in Zaire, and was supported by both the United States and China. A third movement, the União Nacional para a Independência Total de Angola (National Union for the Total Independence of Angola, UNITA), led by Jonas Savimbi (1934–2002), was also established by 1966, although, outside some nominal aid from the Chinese, it lacked both foreign backing and bases of operation. Combating the three liberation movements in

Portuguese West Africa as well as those in Mozambique and Guinea-Bissau required more and more of Portugal's resources, and by the late 1960s approximately 50 percent of the country's annual budget was consumed by its military actions in Africa. In Angola, at least, Portugal achieved some success. The deep divisions among the three liberation movements led them to fight each other as well as the Portuguese, who had the upper hand by the early 1970s. By 1974 all three guerrilla groups had been chased out of the country.

Then, with public dissatisfaction over the brutal conduct of the war growing in Portugal, a group of worried army officers overthrew the national government of Antonio de Oliveira Salazar (1889–1970) in Lisbon on April 25, 1974, and created a government that was willing to abandon the fight to retain control of Portuguese West Africa. A condition of relinquishing the fight, however, was a plan for orderly governmental succession. The three liberation organizations formed a coalition on two different occasions, but neither attempt at reconciliation was long-lived. When the Portuguese withdrew in November 1975, the pro-Western UNITA and FNLA, supported by South Africa, were still engaged in a struggle against the MPLA, which received troops, technical support, and arms from Cuba and the Soviet Union. Representatives met in Alvor in March and April of 1975 and briefly formed a coalition government under the MPLA's Neto, before falling out again. By February 1976 the MPLA, under Dr. Agostinho Neto (1922–79), was in control of the government and had been recognized by the Organization of African Unity (OAU) as the legal government of an independent Angola.

See also Angolan Civil War; Guinea-Bissauan War of Independence; Mozambican Civil and Guerrilla Wars; Mozambican War of Independence.

Further reading: Fernando Andresen Guimaraes, *The Origins of the Angolan Civil War: Foreign Intervention and Domestic Political Conflict* (Basingstoke, U.K.: Macmillan, 1998); Tony Hodges, *Angola from Afro-Stalinism to Petro-Diamond Capitalism* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 2001); Elaine Windrich, *The Cold War Guerrilla: Jonas Savimbi, the U.S. Media, and the Angolan War* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1992).

An Lushan's Rebellion (755–763)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The renegade general An Lushan vs. China's Tang (T'ang) dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Factions at court, vying for power and influence, prevented An Lushan from assuming the position of prime minister; the incensed An Lushan sought to topple the Tangs, declare a new dynasty, and place himself on the throne; Loyalists fought to defend the Tang dynasty and restore its ousted emperor.
OUTCOME: An Lushan was murdered, the six-year rebellion was at length quelled, and the Tang returned to power. The revolt, however, signalled the decline of the Tang dynasty, not only highlighting the civil and military deficiencies of the dynasty but becoming an instrument in its decline.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, est. 200,000; imperial troops, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In China during the middle of the eighth century, the Tang dynasty reached new heights during the long rule of Xuanzong (Hsuan-tsung) (685–762). Under his patronage China experienced an explosion of literature and the arts. The Middle Kingdom seemed truly the center of the universe, as the Chinese had always imagined it to be, and to the emperor's court in Changan there flocked not just Chinese historians, scholars, poets, dramatists, and entertainers, but foreign envoys, clerics, and traders offering tribute from countries all over Eurasia. For the first time in its history, China seemed to be truly opening itself to the outside world under the man the Chinese people had begun to call informally Ming Huang, "the Brilliant Emperor."

Opportunities abounded for the talented, the clever, and the ambitious, and not merely among the highborn. Neither were all foreign visitors to North China official dignitaries. Arab pearl divers, Mesopotamian adventurers, Turkish princes, Indian merchants, Japanese pilgrims, Malay pirates, and Tibetan youths all came to Tang China seeking glory or riches or freedom. Some found what they were looking for. A Sogdian merchant became the protector of Annam, then under Chinese hegemony. An Oman gem dealer returned home with a gold-lidded, black porcelain vase containing a single goldfish with ruby eyes that smelled of musk and brought him 50,000 dinar. And an obese Turkish soldier of fortune joined the Tang army as a mercenary, rose to the rank of general, and was made military governor of three important outposts in the northeast. His name was An Lushan (703–757), and it would one day soon be written in Chinese blood.

The relative openness of China at the time helps to explain how a Persian-born nomad raised in Mongolia could rise to military prominence in the provinces, but to understand how An Lushan suddenly vaulted to center stage in Tang history, one needs to know something about the inner workings of the Chinese government and the peculiar power enjoyed by its generals. When Xuanzong first became emperor, he appointed members of China's ancient northwestern aristocracy to be his close advisers, principally because he needed their support in order to

rule. But like the Tang emperors before him, he never trusted the arrogant nobles, and once he had consolidated his position he quickly reduced their numbers, relying instead on a corps of young, low-ranking scholars recruited directly through palace examinations to administer his government. The power struggles that ensued between the aristocrats and the examination graduates increasingly disrupted the civil functions of government.

The emperor did nothing to stop the disputes. Instead, he made matters worse by using eunuchs from his harem as personal agents to circumvent both the scholars and the nobles. As the day-to-day operation of the government deteriorated, a weary Xuanzong withdrew altogether from the affairs of empire, seeking solace in the pleasures of the harem and in mystic religious studies that he believed held the secret to earthly immortality. A few leading ministers ran the state, occasionally assuming dictatorial powers. To complicate the situation even further, various of the emperor's wives and concubines—the only ones who saw him with any frequency at all—began to meddle in public policy. The most persistent of them was Yang Guifei (Yang Kuei-fei; 703–757), who had been Xuanzong's son's concubine before the emperor took her for himself. And Yang Guifei looked to the emperor's soldiers for her allies.

A century before, when China had expanded into Central Asia, the Tang dynasts had reorganized their armed forces in order to deal more effectively with the hard-riding tribes of the steppes, creating a professional standing army and giving the field generals fighting distant battles the autonomy they needed to ensure victory. In the heady times of triumph, no one paid much attention when the generals recruited to their ranks nomads to help fight their former tribesmen, nor did Tang leaders stop to consider that the reforms would also give the generals tremendous personal power. In the eighth century the power of the field generals grew greater still as a result of the domestic disarray. The emperor had appointed as his official adviser Yang Guozhong (Yang Kuo-chung) (d. 757), a favorite cousin of his omnipresent concubine, Yang Guifei. To check the growing influence of the new adviser and his concubine cousin, the powerful Chinese prime minister, Li Linfu (d. 752), from the old northwestern aristocracy and then the dominant figure in the Chinese government, began to court favor with the generals of the northern armies, especially those of foreign descent, hoping they would prove more tractable than Chinese officers. One of those generals was An Lushan.

In 751 the Khitan Mongols invaded China. Chiefly through the efforts of An Lushan, the Tangs were able to repel the barbarians, thereby earning him notice at court and leading Li Linfu quickly to invite him to the capital. A capable enough soldier, An Lushan was, or pretended to be, something of a social buffoon. Corpulent and loud, he cut quite a figure in sophisticated Changan. A favorite of both the emperor and his consort, Yang Guifei, who enjoyed his clowning, he was once, three days after his birthday, sneaked into the harem wrapped in an enormous baby diaper. Such hanky panky led to rumors that he and Yang were lovers, but it was hardly likely Xuanzong would have shared her, or that An Lushan would have risked the emperor's ire. Not that Yang was beyond intrigue, especially if she could have seduced An Lushan away from Li Linfu's influence. But whatever the nature of the intrigues she engaged in with the crude general, they came to an abrupt end when Li Linfu died. Immediately, An Lushan, the emperor's favorite general, and Yang Guozhong, Yang's cousin and the emperor's closest personal adviser, began a bitter fight for the vacated prime minister's post. The court seethed with subterfuge and dirty politics, while the aging emperor merely looked the other way.

Meanwhile, the country was falling apart. Onerous new taxes had been imposed to raise the enormous amounts of money needed to defend China's borders against the Turks, Tibetans, and other northern tribes who threatened the seriously overextended empire. But the taxes were hardly enough to defray defense spending, and the shortfall in public funds made the overheated bureaucratic conflicts even worse. Given the hothouse harem atmosphere and the absentee emperor, no one was sure who ran the country. That was the situation when Yang Guozhong won the palace battle for the prime minister's post, probably because An Lushan, whatever else he might have been, was still a foreigner. The enraged general launched a rebellion.

The fighting lasted more than seven years, from December 755 to January 763, and it tore China asunder. An Lushan first returned to his minions in the north, planning to raise forces and march on Loyang, Xuanzhong's capital in the east, near present-day Beijing. Though Yang Guozhong could attack and undermine the general at court, Yang did not fare so well with members of the military. Many of them flocked to An Lushan's banner, especially after he claimed to have received a secret command from the emperor to get rid of the new prime minister. With 200,000 troops he quickly overran the Yellow River Valley and seized Loyang. An Lushan, seriously ill, perhaps with diabetes, remained in Loyang while his army marched on Changan, the imperial capital. The general in charge of defending Changan, Ko Shuhan, and prime minister Yang were bitter rivals, and fearing a coup, Yang goaded Ko into taking the field against the rebels. The Tang army was routed, and the way to the city lay wide open. After a six-month siege, Changan fell to the rebels in 756. Xuanzong had already fled with his entourage, escorted by a contingent of imperial guards. In a mutinous mood, the guards halted on the road and forced Xuanzong to execute both Yang Guifei, his concubine, and Yang Guozhong, her cousin the prime minister. Then, Xuanzhong made his way to Chengdou (Ch'engku) in Sichuan (Szechwan) province, where he set up a court in exile. Back in Loyang, An

Lushan declared himself emperor of what he called the Greater Yen dynasty, and a number of prominent Tang officials rushed to offer their support.

In the spring of 757, the imperial army counterattacked, retaking the imperial capital. In Loyang the rebel general, now nearly blind and extremely irascible, so ranted and raved that his attendants feared for their lives. Soon thereafter he lay dead, murdered by a eunuch slave with the connivance of his own son, An Qingxu (An Chingsu), who took command of the rebellion. There followed a bewildering series of assassinations and successions, of resurgent loyalist attacks and rebel counterattacks, and of mayhem and pillage across the face of North China. At one point Tibetan raiders, emboldened by the Chinese chaos, swept into Changan and occupied the city for two weeks, looting and raping before they burned to the ground the former metropolitan center of Asia. It was a bitter civil war, one of the most violent in Chinese history and one whose outcome was in doubt almost to the end. Finally, government forces were able to subdue the rebels, and Xuanzong, nearing 80, exhausted, and wracked with grief over the loss of Yang Guifei, returned to Changan to die in 762 while his son Taizong (T'ai-tsung; 762–779), now emperor, struggled to rebuild an empire that existed in name only.

The struggle would go on for another century, during which the great generals who had helped crush the An Lushan rebellion would become warlords ruling over the provinces they had recovered and fighting constantly among themselves. The rebellion had permanently damaged the prestige of the Tangs, establishing for good the influence of strong military leaders, rather than scholars, at court. Though the Tangs would cling to the throne, their dynasty had begun its long decline, and their once rich, stable, far-flung empire had become a troubled, divided state spinning into decline.

See also CHINESE WAR WITH NANCHAO.

Further reading: Howard S. Levy, *Biography of An Lu-shan* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1960); E. G. Pulleyblank, *The Background of the Rebellion of An Lu-shan* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1955).

Anson's Cruise (1740–1744)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): West coast of Spanish America and Manila, Philippines
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Britain hoped to launch a preemptive strike against Spain in anticipation of the War of the Austrian Succession in Europe by cutting off Spain's supply of wealth from the Americas.
OUTCOME: Britain failed to prevent Spain from entering the European war or to do much damage at all strategically, though Commodore George Anson's diminished fleet did manage to harass Spain's West Coast outposts in America, to capture one treasure-laden Spanish galleon, and to pave the way for British expansion in the Pacific.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Britain, slightly in excess of 1,000; Spain, unknown
CASUALTIES: Britain, around 1,000 dead, mostly from illness and shipwreck
TREATIES: None

When the tangled web of European alliances appeared to be leading Britain into what would become the War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION in 1740, the English Crown dispatched Commodore George Anson (1697–1762) to raid Spain's Pacific coast possessions—Chile, Peru, and Mexico—and to attack Spanish galleons on the high seas. Embroiled in the machinations of Prussia's Frederick the Great (1712–86) against the presumptive heir to the Austrian throne, Maria Theresa (1717–80), Britain's royal command hoped to avoid a head-to-head conflict with Spain on the Continent by cutting off its supply of income at the source, Spain's American colonies.

Given the commission in 1739, Anson was unable actually to begin his mission until mid-September of 1740 because of compounded delays in provisioning and in finding enough men—the mission, after all, required by its very nature that he circumnavigate the world. The tardy departure, however, cost Anson the element of surprise on which he had counted. Though the Spanish had become aware of British intentions and Spain's colonies had been warned to prepare for attack, Anson nevertheless set sail with a fleet of six warships—his flagship *Centurion,* plus *Gloucester, Severn, Pearl, Wager, Tyral*—and one supply vessel, *Anna Pink*. All were poorly manned, since the entire squadron boasted only 977 sailors, mostly untrained. There were some 200-plus marines among them, but they were fresh recruits with only minimal knowledge of the sea. Anson was lucky to have even them—an urgent request from Anson for more soldiers before shipping out had netted him a contingent of patients from a local hospital. Leading an ill-trained force in a late start against a ready enemy made many, including Anson himself, believe the mission was doomed from the start.

Once at sea, matters only grew worse. Another effect of starting in September was that Anson would have to approach Cape Horn in the autumn, when the westerlies were at their peak. By the time Anson's fleet began to be battered by gale-force winds, the ships' crews were all suffering from a severe outbreak of scurvy. Whipped about by storms and manned by sailors debilitated with scurvy, only three ships in Anson's fleet—*Centurion, Gloucester,* and *Tyral*—survived the passage round the Horn. Anson's fleet was cut in half, his fighting force, such as it was, reduced by some two-thirds, and his original mission

effectively dead in the water. But Anson was a capable and imaginative commander, and he simply redefined his objectives. He set sail for Acapulco, fighting his way up the coast and hoping to ambush the famed "Manila Galleon," a Spanish treasure ship—the *Nuestra Señora de Cavadonga*—before it left the Mexican port homeward-bound to Manila. Anson missed the Spanish ship by two weeks, arriving at Acapulco in September 1741.

For two years after rounding the Horn, Anson ravaged the western shores of the Americas, working his way up the coast first to Mexico and then beyond. After he had lost two more ships, Anson, determined to continue around the globe, decided to make a north Pacific crossing to China. When he reached the Portuguese settlement of Macao (near modern-day Hong Kong) on November 13, 1742, he arrived only with his flagship and some 210 men. Nevertheless, the *Centurion* was the first British warship to sail into Chinese waters, and its arrival created an uproar. The Portuguese, worried about the precarious trade agreements and protocol arrangements they had made with Chinese leaders in Canton, initially refused Anson's request for provisions and repairs despite pressure from Britain's East India Company. After careful negotiations with the Chinese, Anson secured his provisions and—recruiting more men—set sail in the spring of 1743, once again hoping to intercept and capture the *Nuestra Señora de Cavadonga*.

Sailing with a reinforced crew fueled by dreams of immense wealth, Anson departed Macao heading south toward the Philippines. In the South China Sea Anson lay in wait for the Manila-bound treasure ship. Greatly outnumbered but with superior weaponry and a greedy crew hungry for loot, the *Centurion* captured the *Cavadonga* after a fierce battle on June 20, 1743. Victory was sweet for the beleaguered Englishman. The booty came to somewhat more than 1.3 million pieces of eight and some 35,000 ounces of silver, worth a total of about £400,000. Thus fortified, Anson and his crew continued on their voyage around the world, arriving in London in June 1744 to a conqueror's welcome as the treasure they had captured was paraded through the streets in 32 wagons.

Anson may have failed at his mission, meeting none of the objectives set for him by the Royal Navy command, but his world cruise, highlighted by the sailing of the first British warship into Chinese waters and by the capture of the Manila galleon, became one of the more famous voyages in naval history. Despite the loss of all but one ship and more than 1,000 men, Anson returned a national hero, and his cruise sparked a wave of British expansion into the Pacific. Anson, a man of some imagination and initiative at a time when the Royal Navy was known for anything but the vision and pluck of its officers, not only became George, Lord Anson, the leading admiral of his day, but also went down in history as the "Father of the Modern British Navy."

Further reading: W. V. Anson, *Life of Admiral Lord Anson, the Father of the British Navy, 1697–1762* (London: J. Murray, 1912); S. W. C. Pack, *Admiral Lord Anson: The Story of Anson's Voyage and Naval Events of His Day* (London: Cassell, 1960); L. A. Wilcox, *Anson's Voyage* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1970).

Antiochus III, Invasion of Parthia by
(209–208 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syria vs. Parthia and Bactria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Parthia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Antiochus III's lust for conquest
OUTCOME: Antiochus was victorious, forcing Arsaces III, king of Parthia, to accept Seleucid suzerainty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but apparently disastrous for Parthia and Bactria
TREATIES: No document exists

Antiochus III (c. 242–187 B.C.E.), known as Antiochus the Great, was the Seleucid king of the Hellenistic Syrian Empire from 223 to 187 B.C.E. His hunger for new territory was insatiable and led him to expand the empire in the east, but also brought defeat in the west as he failed in his challenge to Roman power. Among his greatest triumphs was the invasion of Parthia in 209 B.C.E. He defeated the forces of King Arsaces III (212–171 B.C.E.) and, after occupying Hecatom pylos, Arsaces's capital southeast of the Caspian Sea, drove the Parthion king into a desperate alliance with Euthydemus (fl. late third century), king of Bactria. In 208 at the Arius River, Antiochus met the combined forces of Arsaces and Euthydemus. Severely wounded early in the battle, Antiochus nevertheless led his army to complete victory against the larger allied force. Both the Bactrians and the Parthians suffered heavy losses, but Arsaces III acknowledged the suzerainty of the Seleucids, and Antiochus allowed him to continue to rule.

See also BACTRIAN-SYRIAN WAR; EUTHYDEMUS'S REVOLT.

Further reading: John Ma, *Antiochus III and the Cities of Western Asia Minor* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Antony's Invasion of Parthia
See OCTAVIAN'S WAR AGAINST ANTONY; ROMAN CIVIL WAR (43–31 B.C.E.); ROMAN-PARTHIAN WAR (55–36 B.C.E.).

Apache and Navajo War
See UNITED STATES'S WAR WITH THE NAVAJOS AND JICARILLA APACHES.

Apache Uprising (1861–1865)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Apaches vs. United States and (separately) Confederate States of America
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Arizona and New Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The uprising began as a war of revenge, then became a general Apache resistance to American occupation when the Civil War depleted the western troops of the United States; the United States and the Confederate States of America fought to separately stop Indian raids.
OUTCOME: The Apaches were defeated, many of them sent to the Bosque Redondo Reservation, others escaping into the mountains to continue sporadic raids.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Apache and Yauapai, 2,000 warriors; United States, 4,000 soldiers; Confederate numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Apache, 1,400-plus killed or wounded, 9,000 captured; United States, 224 soldiers killed or wounded, 142 noncombatants killed or wounded
TREATIES: None, but the United States dictated terms of surrender in 1865

In 1861 the United States found itself embroiled not only with Confederate rebels in the American West (*see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: TRANS-MISSISSIPPI THEATER), but also in two major Indian wars, one with the Navajos, the other with the Apaches (*see* UNITED STATES' WAR WITH THE NAVAJOS AND JICARILLA APACHES). Trouble with the Apaches was actually the result of a disastrous incident that ignited a lasting conflict between Americans and Apaches.

Early in the war U.S. forces were withdrawn for service in the East, and as they departed the West they burned their military installations. The Indians, not understanding the "white men's war," assumed the evacuation was due to Indian pressure. That belief led to an increased aggressiveness on their part. Then in February 1861 the notorious "Bascom Incident" launched open warfare between the powerful central Chiricahuas and the Anglos. When U.S. soldiers, led by a second lieutenant named George N. Bascom, falsely accused Cochise (c. 1810–74), one of the most famous and charismatic of all Indian leaders, of kidnapping a white boy and tried to hold the Apache chief hostage until the boy was released, violence erupted. Casualties followed on both sides, and hostilities mounted in a pattern of escalating acts of violence perpetrated by one side against the other—a familiar scenario in Anglo–American Indian warfare. Now Cochise vowed to exterminate all Americans in Arizona. The escalation could not have come at a worse time for the Americans. With the nation involved in the Civil War and western garrisons about to be reduced as a result, warfare with the Apaches was bound to be costly to civilians. As it turned out, the whites and Apaches would spill one another's blood for the next quarter century.

The outbreak of civil war drained the army in the West, especially its officers. One-third of the army's officer corps, 313 men, left primarily western commands to take up arms on the side of the Confederacy. At this time Confederate Lieutenant Colonel John Robert Baylor (1822–94) took advantage of the Union army's weakness to sweep through the southern New Mexico Territory, from the Rio Grande to California, and proclaim the Confederate Territory of Arizona, which encompassed all of present-day Arizona as well as New Mexico south of the 34th parallel. Baylor appointed himself governor of this territory. There was not much the Union could do about it. Colonel Edward R. S. Canby (1817–73), commander of the Department of New Mexico, had his hands full with Navajo raids in New Mexico and unauthorized, highly provocative New Mexican counterraids.

But the Indians aligned themselves with neither the North nor the South. During this period Baylor was having his own Indian problems. While an epidemic of smallpox ravaged his troops, Chiricahua and Mimbreño Apaches, convinced that the Union soldiers had permanently withdrawn from the region, intensified their raids in the newly proclaimed Confederate territory. Confederate authorities organized a company of Arizona Rangers to punish the Indians, and the unit was soon augmented by a volunteer group calling itself the Arizona Guards. Neither was very effective, and the raiding continued unabated.

Meanwhile, Cochise had joined forces with an Apache leader of legendary stature, Mangas Coloradas (c. 1795–1863) (sometimes called "Red Sleeves" by the Americans), in war against the United States. There followed many small skirmishes in which some 150 whites were killed and half a dozen stage stations burned. The chiefs laid an ambuscade at Apache Pass to entrap an advance element of the 1,500-man California Column, en route to the Rio Grande to engage the Confederates and commanded by Brigadier General James H. Carleton (1814–73). The Battle of Apache Pass was a minor affair in which 10 Apache and several U.S. soldiers were killed; Mangas was wounded. The ambush was abandoned when light artillery routed the besiegers, but enmity remained.

In January 1863 Mangas surrendered to civilians who turned him over to the military. While a prisoner he was goaded unmercifully, and when he protested he was shot. An officer reported that he had been killed while trying to escape. His murder is still resented by Apaches.

Inclined toward extermination on principle, Carleton sent Colonel Christopher "Kit" Carson (1809–69) to Fort Stanton, New Mexico, with five companies under the appalling order that he was to kill all the men of the Mescalero tribe whenever and wherever he could find them. Carson believed in obeying orders, but he knew this directive was nonsense and ignored it. Eventually several

hundred Mescaleros were dispatched to Carleton's ill-conceived Bosque Redondo Navajo reserve, but they slipped away to their homeland at their earliest convenience.

In the immediate postwar period in Arizona, the U.S. military had to deal with numerous small Indian bands, thieving to survive, and the absence of any central enemy to fight. Several able military men assigned to the territory failed to pacify it. George Crook (1828–90), then a lieutenant colonel, was promised sufficient resources and authority to confront the problem decisively. He enlisted Apache scouts and several very able civilian chiefs of scouts to track down the troublemakers, and he also sent out numerous single-company columns under junior officers. Within a year or two he brought the situation under control. For that success he was promoted to brigadier general. He then turned his attention to the Apaches.

Meanwhile, Cochise and his Chiricahua retreated to the mountains, where for years they continued to organize and launch raids on those they saw, not without reason, as treacherous invaders.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Grenville Goodwin and Keith Basso, *Western Apache Raiding and Warfare* (Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1971); Alvin M. Josephy, *The Civil War in the American West* (New York: Knopf, 1991); Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod, *Encyclopedia of the American West* (New York: Macmillan Reference USA, 1996); Robert M. Utley, *Frontiersmen in Blue: The United States Army and the Indian, 1848–1865* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1967).

Apache War (1871–1873)

See United States–Apache War (1871–1873).

Apache War (1876–1886)

See United States–Apache War (1876–1886).

Appenzell War (1403–1411)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Swiss feudal district of Appenzell and the free town of St. Gall vs. the Abbey of St. Gall and Duke Frederick IV of Austria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Modern-day Appenzell Canton, Switzerland
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At issue were feudal obligations; the abbey and Duke Frederick wished to reimpose them, St. Gall and Appenzell to escape them entirely.
OUTCOME: Appenzell (and, by association, St. Gall) joined the Swiss Confederacy and became free of their former suzerain.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As the feudal economic order in Europe grew increasingly obsolete around the end of the 14th century and the social structures of feudalism began to collapse, vassal states found themselves under heavy pressure from their suzerains. Appenzell, a Swiss feudal district containing several legal and political communities, had been placed under the suzerainty of the Abbot of St. Gall by imperial decree in 1345. By the early 15th century, however, the free town of St. Gall, which had been granted the status of an imperial corporation because of its extensive textile trade, was financially independent of the feudatory district. Now the abbey, illegally demanded that St. Gall return to its former feudatory status and pay the assessments due under their old relationship. The town appealed to Appenzell for help, and in January 1401 eight communities agreed to ally themselves with St. Gall.

The abbey immediately sought to punish both Appenzell and St. Gall, sending a monastic army against the alliance in 1403. At the defile of Speicher on May 15, 1403, the alliance, which had strengthened its position by welcoming numerous mountain peoples into the coalition, soundly defeated the forces of the abbey. The abbot appealed to Hapsburg duke Frederick IV of Austria (fl. 1380–1410), who gladly sent troops to repress the "uprising." Frederick's troops and the abbey's forces attacked St. Gall and Appenzell simultaneously in 1405. The alliance, with the support of the count of Werdenberg-Heiligenberg, defeated the new attack just as handily as it had the previous, and in the flush of victory went on a violent spree against all feudal lords.

King Rupert of Germany (1352–1410), annoyed by the inability of Frederick to handle the situation and alarmed by the reign of terror in the countryside, without any authority whatsoever in the region, ordered the rebels once again to accept feudal control by the abbey. The alliance ignored Rupert's threats and in 1411 gained the support of the Swiss Confederacy. Under its protection the alliance was in no danger from either Rupert or Frederick, both of whom were powerless to act against the confederacy short of launching a full-scale war.

See also German Civil War (1400–1411); Swiss War against Savoy; Venetian-Milanese War (1404–1406).

Further reading: Charles Gilliard, *A History of Switzerland* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1978).

Aquitainian Rebellion (735)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The sons of Duke Eudo of Aquitaine vs. the French king Charles Martel

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southwestern France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At issue was who should inherit the duke of Aquitaine's estate—his sons or the French Crown
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed, and Aquitaine went to Charles Martel.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Eudo (Eudes), duke of Aquitaine (665–735), died, his estate was to revert to Charles Martel (c. 668–741), the son of King Pepin II (d. 714), as his rightful suzerain. However, Eudo's sons felt that Aquitaine was rightfully theirs, and they rose up in rebellion, sparking a larger revolt by a number of nobles at the very moment Charles was winning his smashing victory over the Muslims at Tours (Poitiers). The revolt was badly organized and poorly financed. Charles quickly returned to crush the rebellion before it gained any momentum. Eudo's sons were forced to pledge fealty to Charles, and they lost what they considered their patrimonial lands in Aquitaine to their sovereign.

See also FRANKISH-MOORISH WAR, FIRST; PEPIN'S CAMPAIGNS IN AQUITAINE.

Further reading: Paul Fouracre, *The Age of Charles Martel* (Harlow, U.K.: Longman, 2000); Pierre Riché, *The Carolingians: A Family Who Forged Europe* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1993).

Arab Conquest of Carthage (688–699)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Arab Muslims vs. Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Arabs sought to conquer Byzantium and convert its peoples to Islam.
OUTCOME: The Arabs took Carthage, chased the Byzantines completely out of Africa, and began to menace the empire's control of the sea.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After 25 years of war with the Persians the Byzantine Empire was prostrate (*see* BYZANTINE-PERSIAN WAR [603–628]). Byzantine emperor Heraclius (c. 575–641) had lost some 200,000 men and had seen the almost unimaginable riches of the empire squandered or destroyed. As Heraclius and his people began the long task of recovery, a troublesome new foe appeared on the eastern horizon—Arab Muslims, devotees of the religion of Islam founded by Muhammad (570–632) who were determined to convert the world by conquest. They swept out of Arabia to strike the Persian and Byzantine Empires, both totally exhausted by their long war. In the BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642), after overwhelming Persia, the Muslims quickly conquered Byzantium's eastern provinces, aided by the passive neutrality of the Syrians and the Egyptians. By the time Heraclius, infirm and unpopular, died of dropsy, all the empire east of Taurus had been lost to the religious warriors, though the Anatolian and Thracian heartland survived.

Heraclius's successors were faced with defending the empire's eastern boundaries against the Arab hordes, who launched numerous raids into Anatolia. They were able to maintain a frontier generally along the Taurus Mountains, but in the southwest the Muslims invaded the Byzantine Empire's North African lands in 688 (*see* BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR [668–679]). Their advance was ultimately halted by the use of Greek Fire, a volatile combination most probably consisting of quicklime, naphtha, sulfur, and sea water. There followed decades of sporadic hit-and-run warfare, during which both the Arabs and the Byzantines made raids on each other's cities and territories.

A more concentrated war broke out again in 698. Exploiting religious dissension between the empire's provinces and Constantinople, which resulted in widespread disunity, the Arabs assaulted and entirely destroyed the Byzantine-held city of Carthage. In 699 Arab forces drove the Byzantines from Utica, northwest of Carthage. The Arabs sacked Utica, and the Byzantines were thereby virtually eliminated from all of North Africa. This put the Arabs in a position to challenge seriously Byzantine control of the sea, which they began to do.

Further reading: Romilly Jenkins, *Byzantium: The Imperial Centuries, A.D. 610–1071* (New York: Random House, 1967); Cyril A. Mongo, ed., *The Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2003); Geoffrey Regan, *First Crusader: Byzantium's Holy Wars* (Stroud, U.K.: Sutton Publishing, 2001).

Arab Insurrection in Iraq (1920–1922)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain vs. Arab nationalists in Iraq
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Iraq (principally rural regions)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Arab nationalists sought independence for Iraq.
OUTCOME: Although the insurrection was put down, it prompted the British to look for honorable means of withdrawing from Iraq; withdrawal did not occur until 1936.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Britain and India, 60,000; Iraq, unknown
CASUALTIES: Britain and India, 2,269 killed, wounded, or missing; Iraq, 8,450 killed
TREATIES: Treaty of alliance between Britain and Iraq, October 10, 1922

Under the mandate system, instituted by the League of Nations following WORLD WAR I, the three disparate provinces of Mosul, Baghdad, and Basra were merged into a single political entity in an attempt to decree a nation out of very diverse peoples. The new country, Iraq, was placed under British control, but British statesmen were by no means agreed on what Britain's policies in and toward Iraq should be and just what kind of government should be set up. On the one hand, the Colonial Office proposed to exert direct control on Iraqi affairs in order to protect British interests in the Persian Gulf and in India. On the other hand, some British leaders thought it best to accommodate and conciliate Arab nationalists by means of a government of indirect control through an indigenous government under British supervision.

While British politicians debated this issue, events took a hand. Early in 1920 Emir Faisal (or Fay-al) I (1885–1933), son of Ali ibn Husayn, leader of the Arab Revolt (against the Turks) in 1916 (*see* WORLD WAR I: MESOPOTAMIA), created an Arab government in Damascus and was proclaimed king of Syria. In Damascus a group of Iraqi nationalists convened to proclaim Faisal's older brother, Emir 'Abd Allah, king of Iraq. This action triggered nationalist agitation in northern Iraq, which subsequently spread to tribal areas in the middle Euphrates region. By the summer of 1920 Iraq was in full-blown revolt against British rule, except in the major cities of Mosul, Baghdad, and Basra, where British military forces were garrisoned.

The British responded to the Arab nationalist revolt with force tempered by a degree of moderation, for even as British authorities acted against the nationalists, they looked more earnestly for a way to satisfy the growing public sentiment favoring withdrawal from Mesopotamia. To Arab demands for Iraqi independence, Britain responded in 1921 with an offer of the Iraqi throne to Faisal I, who would establish an Arab government, albeit under nominal British mandate. Faisal responded that he would accept the throne only if it were offered by the Iraqi people. This position gave him a nonaggressive means of suggesting to the British that the mandate be replaced by a firm treaty of alliance.

In March 1921 British colonial secretary Winston Churchill (1874–1965), advised by T. E. Lawrence (1888–1935) (a.k.a. "Lawrence of Arabia" for his touted deep affinity with the Arab cause), presided over a conference in Cairo to settle affairs in the Middle East once and for all. Sir Percy Cox (1864–1937), recently made high commissioner for Iraq, had already set up a provisional government when the Cairo Conference met. On July 11 the conference declared Faisal king of Iraq, provided that his government should be "constitutional, representative, and democratic," and directed Cox to conduct a plebiscite to that effect.

Faisal was crowned king on August 23, 1921. He signed a treaty of alliance with Great Britain on October 2, 1922.

In return for a promise to prepare Iraq for membership in the League of Nations "as soon as possible," the English had managed to reproduce most of the conditions of the old mandate without ever using the word itself. Not surprisingly, the treaty ran into strong opposition in the Iraqi Constituent Assembly but was finally ratified under pressure from the British on June 11, 1924. In July the assembly adopted a constitution, but it did not go into effect until King Faisal signed it on March 21, 1925.

Meanwhile, Iraqi nationalists, extremely dissatisfied with the British treaty, demanded immediate independence. It took five years, but ultimately the British capitulated, signing another treaty on June 30, 1930, which established a mere "close alliance" between the two countries and "frank" talk on matters of foreign policy affecting their "common interests." The new treaty was to go into effect after the now independent Iraq was admitted to the League of Nations on October 3, 1932.

See also DRUSE REBELLION; KURDISH RESISTANCE AGAINST IRAQ; PERSIAN REVOLUTION (1921).

Further reading: Phebe Marr, *The Modern History of Iraq* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1985); Eliezer Tauber, *The Formation of Modern Syria and Iraq* (Ilford, U.K.: Frank Cass, 1995).

Arab Invasion of Persia (262–264)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Palmyran Prince Odaenathus vs. Shapur I of Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia, Armenia, Mesopotamia, and parts of Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After routing Persian king Shapur I at the end of the Roman-Persian War of 257–261, the Arab firebrand Odaenathus, backed by Rome, invaded Persia itself.
OUTCOME: Odaenathus defeated Shapur and reclaimed Rome's lost provinces in the east.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Roman emperor Valerian died in captivity (c. 261) during the ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (257–261), his captor, King Shapur I (d. 272), overran Syria, retook Antioch, and

raided throughout the Roman east. Returning home loaded with booty from Asia Minor, Shapur's Persian army ran into a small Roman-Arab force west of the Euphrates River. Shapur was surprised and routed by Septimus Odaenathus (d. c. 267), prince of Palmyra, a Romanized Arab who made himself so indispensable to the new caesar, Gallienus (218–268), that the latter made Odaenathus his virtual coruler in the east. Given the title "Dux Orientis" as a reward for attacking, defeating, and executing Quietus, one of the so-called Thirty Tyrants, Odaenathus invaded Persia itself in 262.

Reinforced with a substantial number of Roman legionnaires, courtesy of Emperor Gallienus, Odaenathus attacked first the lost Roman provinces east of the Euphrates. Although his army was still comparatively small, composed mainly of light foot archers, cataphracts, and lancers plus his irregular light Arabian cavalry, Odaenathus nevertheless managed to drive off the Persians investing Edessa and to recapture Nisbis and Carrahe. Accompanied and assisted by his beautiful and capable wife, Zenobia (d. after 274), the Palmyran prince harassed Armenia and raided far into Mesopotamia over the course of the next two years. He consistently defeated Shapur and his generals, twice capturing the Sassanid capital of Ctesiphon. By 264 Shapur had had enough and sued for peace, freeing Odaenathus for another assignment—a successful punitive expedition against the Goths who had recently begun to ravage Asia Minor.

In 266, at the conclusion of that adventure, Odaenathus was murdered. Although his son Vaballathus (d. c. 273), became the new prince of Palmyra, true power, and Rome's eastern dominions as well, lay in the hands of his widow.

See also Aurelian's War against Zenobia; Zenobia's Conquest of Egypt.

Further reading: A. D. Lee, *Information, Frontiers, and Barbarians: The Role of Strategic Intelligence in the Relations of the Late Roman Empire with Persia and Northern Peoples* (Cambridge: University of Cambridge, 1987); Josef Wiesehöfer, *Ancient Persia: From 550 B.C.E to 650 A.D.* (London: I. B. Tauris, 1996).

Arab-Israeli War (1948–1949)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The newly formed state of Israel vs. the Arab countries of Egypt, Syria, Transjordan, Lebanon, and Iraq
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Israel
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Arab nations opposed the creation of Israel.
OUTCOME: Israel gained control of disputed areas in Palestine and began the development of a formidable standing army.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Israel, 45,000; Arab nations, 55,000
CASUALTIES: Israel, 21,000 soldiers and civilians; Arab nations, 40,000 soldiers and civilians
TREATIES: None

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The roots of Zionism are as old as the commencement of the Jewish Diaspora in the Babylonian Exile of the sixth century B.C.E., during which the Jews began longing for a return to Zion, or Jerusalem. But it was not until the emancipation of the Jews in 1791 during the French Revolution that organized Zionist movements first appeared.

During the 19th century, largely in response to rising nationalist sentiment throughout Europe coupled with persecution of European Jews, especially in Russia, Jewish political activists worked to raise the national consciousness of ghetto Jewry. Jewish financiers such as Moses Montefiore (1784–1885), Eduard de Rothschild (1868–1949), and Maurice de Hirsch (1831–96) backed several plans for the return of Jews to the Middle East, the most important of them led by Theodor Herzl (1860–1904), the man historically considered the founder and foremost leader of the modern Zionist movement. In 1897 Herzl's World Zionist Congress, held at Basel, Switzerland, created a worldwide political movement.

After some 20 years of struggle, the Zionist Congress secured the so-called Balfour Declaration. Contained in a November 2, 1917, letter from the British Foreign Office's Lord Arthur James Balfour (1848–1930) to Lord Rothschild, it was a clear statement of the British policy toward Zionism during World War I, endorsing the establishment of "a national home" for the Jewish people in Palestine.

Soon afterward, British general Sir Edmund Allenby (1861–1936) invaded Palestine, capturing Jerusalem in December. Following the war the League of Nations in 1922 approved a British "mandate" over Palestine and neighboring Transjordan, and the substance of the Balfour Declaration was written into the mandate.

The mandate was intended to encourage the development of self-government. Transjordan (modern Jordan) did indeed become autonomous in 1923 and was recognized as independent in 1928. However, in Palestine independence was withheld because of the apparently hopeless conflict between Arab and Jewish claims. Throughout the 1920s and 1930s Arab-Jewish violence was often intense, especially as more and more Jewish immigrants fled to Palestine from Nazi-dominated Europe, and the Jewish population of some 60,000 tripled by the end of the 1920s. Arab resentment against this mass immigration exploded into riots in 1929. Under the encouragement of the grand mufti of Jerusalem, an admirer of the Nazis, Arab rioting had become endemic by 1936. In response the Jews formed Haganah (Defense), and Palestine erupted into civil war.

By 1939 Haganah had grown from an underground militia to a semiprofessional army that served as a cobelligerent with the British during the war against Germany. But British diplomacy did not always reflect conditions in the combat zones. At the 1939 London Round Table Conference, the British government issued a "White Paper" promising the creation of an independent Palestine within a decade and limiting Jewish immigration to 1,500 individuals per month until 1944, when Jews would no longer be admitted at all. So Zionists turned from Great Britain to the United States for support, demanding in the May 1942 Biltmore Conference in New York the formation of an independent Jewish state—a demand that attracted much U.S. support.

The Nazi treatment of Jews spawned a sympathy for Zionism worldwide, and Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1882–1945) in his 1944 reelection campaign endorsed the founding of a "free and democratic Jewish Commonwealth." This put the United States at odds with Britain, which at war's end was seeking to maintain its hegemony in the Middle East through good relations with the Arabs. The more radical Jewish organizations—Menachem Begin's (1913–92) terrorist Irgun and the Abraham Stern Group—had turned against the British occupation by 1944.

During WORLD WAR II there had always been a subtle tension between Roosevelt and his ally and friend British prime minister Winston Churchill (1874–1965). Roosevelt disapproved of British and French colonialism and had little patience with Churchill's plans to shore up Britain's waning colonial empire after the war, especially in the Middle East. This lack of patience would color the "special relationship" between the two powers after the war, a faint if persistent irritant in the background of American-British diplomacy that came closest to breaking out into the open in the Suez Canal crisis of 1956. (*See* ARAB-ISRAELI WAR [1956].)

Immediately after the war, however, the United States was generally content to let the British wield their influence in the Middle East to protect American COLD WAR interests against the Soviet Union so long as it was evident that Britain continued to divest itself directly of its colonial holdings. In keeping with this subtle pressure, Britain conducted a gallant balancing act, favoring the growth of Arab unity in the region but striving to ensure that Arab governments favorable to Britain would dominate any such alliance. Thus, during the war Britain had supported an Arab unity conference that met in Alexandria, Egypt, in October of 1944, and led to the formation of the Arab League.

The league's founding members were Egypt, Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Transjordan, Saudi Arabia, and Yemen. Rivalries and tensions among league members and clauses calling for unanimous votes weakened the body, headquartered in Cairo, and often made it impossible for the league to adopt common policies. Unable effectively to resist the growing Zionism in Palestine, the league came increasingly under the dominance of an Egypt struggling to free itself of its French and British colonial past and thus did not become the ally for which Great Britain had hoped. Instead, Egypt used the league to develop a common Arab front against the continued British and French military presence in the Middle East as well as against Zionism.

If the Arab League was created first and foremost to prevent the birth of a Jewish state in Palestine, it was also formed in anticipation of liberation from the old colonial shackles. The Islamic nationalism that had been awakened during World War I by Allied promises of autonomy in exchange for Arab support in the conflict also finally reached fruition at the end of World War II. The first great wave of decolonization came when the British and the French, honoring their war-time promises, evacuated—then recognized the sovereignty of—Egypt and Syria in 1947 and Iraq in 1947. There was nothing magnanimous about the Allied support; it came in response to the strategic importance of the Middle East, deriving from its vast oil reserves, the Suez Canal, and its position along the south rim of the Soviet Union.

While the Arab kingdoms and republics, all Islamic, were not drawn to communist ideology, the USSR. hoped nevertheless to expand its influence by keeping up the pressure on Turkey and Iran and insinuating itself in the many quarrels of the region. From the beginning the most intractable of these disputes was the Arab-Israeli conflict. The situation was further complicated by the fact that immediately following World War II large numbers of Holocaust survivors sought homes in Palestine. When the immigration met with British resistance, renewed violence erupted, and a war-weary Britain, under U.S. pressure, at last caved in, turning the entire problem over to the United Nations in 1947. On May 14, 1948, the eve of Britain's evacuation, Palestine's Jews, who had been waiting since the Balfour Declaration for the homeland the British had promised them, proclaimed the state of Israel.

THE WAR AND ITS OUTCOME

The immediate result was the first of several Arab-Israeli wars, as Arab armies invaded the former Palestine on the very day that the Jewish state of Israel was formally created. The Arab nations of Egypt, Syria, Transjordan, Lebanon, and Iraq sent forces into the new country and seized control of territory in southern and eastern Palestine. Although new, the Israeli army was determined to halt the Arab advance. Now the lack of unity and cooperation within the Arab League and its alienation from Great Britain and France (and thus the United States) took their toll, as the Israelis pushed back the invaders in 1949. The United Nations secured a four-week truce in June, but fighting was under way once again in July. Periods of truce and warfare alternated throughout the year, and ultimately the Israelis gained control of the Negev Desert, with the exception of the Gaza Strip. Israel started seeking

armistices with its Arab neighbors beginning in February 1949, and by July of that year agreements had been concluded with Egypt, Syria, and Transjordan. Israel ended the conflict with its territory increased by half and in control of most of the disputed areas of Palestine. Perhaps even more significantly, the Israeli troops had become a strong standing army. As more Jews immigrated into Israel, some 700,000 Arab Palestinians fled the territory into Transjordan, whereupon the Israelis confiscated their property. The Middle East "problem" had been born.

See also ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1967); ARAB ISRAELI WAR (1973); INTIFADA, THE; LEBANON WAR.

Further reading: Dan Kurzman, *Genesis 1948: The First Arab-Israeli War* (New York: Da Capo Press, 1992); Edgar O'Ballance, *The Arab-Israeli War, 1948* (Westport, Conn.: Hyperion Press, 1981); Ilan Pappé, *The Making of the Arab-Israeli Conflict, 1947–51* (London and New York: I. B. Tauris, 1992).

Arab-Israeli War (Suez War, Sinai War) (1956)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Egypt vs. Israel, Great Britain, and France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sinai Peninsula and the Suez Canal zone in the Middle East
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When the new Egyptian president, Gamal Abdel Nasser, nationalized the Suez Canal, Britain and France, Egypt's former imperial overlords who were dependent on the canal for oil, secretly conspired with Israel to take back control of Suez by force and depose Nasser.
OUTCOME: Shortly after 10 Israeli brigades invaded Egypt on October 29, 1956, and routed Nasser's army, the two European nations on schedule and according to plan demanded that both Israel and Egypt withdraw from the canal zone and announced that they intended to intervene and enforce the cease-fire already called for by the United Nations. Under strong pressure from the United States, the French and the British, and then the Israelis, meekly abandoned their adventure. Nasser emerged from the crisis not merely a victor, but a national hero and leader of the so-called Third World of nonaligned nations.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Egypt, 150,000; Israel, 100,000; Anglo-French force, about 15,000
CASUALTIES: Israel, 189 killed, 899 wounded, 4 captured; Egypt (against Israel), 1,000 killed, 4,000 wounded, 6,000 captured; Egypt (against Anglo-French), 650 killed, 900 wounded, 185 captured; Great Britain, 16 killed, 96 wounded; France, 10 killed, 33 wounded.
TREATIES: None; ended with a UN-sponsored cease-fire between Egypt and Israel.

THE MAKING OF THE SUEZ CRISIS

Modern Egypt achieved nominal independence after centuries of foreign rule in 1922. Until Britain invaded and occupied the country in 1882, the land of the pharaohs had been—except for a brief period of occupation by Napoleon's army—a self-governing province of the Ottoman Empire. In 1914, as Ottoman rule collapsed in the wake of a series of petty Balkan wars, Britain deposed the Turkish lackey of a viceroy (called the "khedive") who ran Egypt and put his uncle, Husayn Kamil (1853–1917), in charge. Calling Kamil the "sultan," the British imposed martial law to protect the strategically vital flow of oil from the Middle East for the duration of WORLD WAR I. Kamil died in 1917, and his ambitious and lascivious brother, Ahmad Fuad (1868–1936), became sultan at a time when, fueled by British wartime repression and war-spawned deprivations, Egyptian nationalism was reaching a fevered pitch. The Ottoman Empire disappeared during the war, and afterward Egypt proposed sending a nationalist delegation to London to petition His Majesty for autonomy. Not only did Britain reject the delegation out of hand, they arrested and threw its leader, the charismatic Zaghlul Pasha (c. 1850–1927), in jail. When the nationalists in response launched industrial strikes against the British colonial government and terrorist attacks against its personnel, Lord Allenby (1861–1936)—the general who had defeated the Ottomans in Palestine—negotiated a settlement and declared Egypt independent "with reservations" in February 1922. The reservations were that Britain intended still to protect foreign interests, meaning the Suez Canal and the oil companies, and to supervise Egyptian defense. Sultan Fuad became King Fuad I and Egypt a constitutional monarchy, at least on paper, which, given that British troops remained in the country and Fuad remained the same old autocrat he had always been, did not mean much at all.

Gamal Abdel Nasser (1918–70) was four years old at the time, having been born in January 1918 in the village of Bani Morr in the Upper Egyptian province of Asyut to a middle-class family. Nasser began his rise to power in 1937, when he entered the military academy. During a short stint in the army as a second lieutenant, he met and befriended two other recent graduates, Zakaria Mohieddin (b. 1918) and Anwar al-Sadat (1918–81), who, with Nasser, would become prominent in the Nazi-backed Free Officers movement, which secretly campaigned against corruption and for the withdrawal of British troops. In 1941, he returned as an instructor to the academy, where he recruited members for the Free Officers Corps. During the 1940s and early 1950s, deep social unrest spread through Egypt under the rule of the sybaritic King Farouk (1920–65), Fuad's son and successor. Land was concentrated in the hands of the rich, malnutrition and disease were rampant, and peasants fled the dismal rural areas for the cities, where prices and unemployment were driven

steadily higher. The time was ripe for action by the Free Officers. Led by 200 officers, 2,000 troops stormed army headquarters in Cairo during the night of July 22–23, 1952. By morning Farouk had abdicated, and a new political order was in place under Major General Mohammed Naguib (1900–84) as its head. Nasser remained in the background as the Revolutionary Command Council took control, but in the spring of 1954, in a reaction against left-wing radicalism, Naguib was deposed, and it was Nasser who emerged as the self-proclaimed prime minister.

Land reform was Nasser's first order of business, but he knew that land reform was not enough to shake Egypt out of its downward economic spiral. A special stimulus was needed as well, and Nasser seized on the construction of the massive Aswan Dam on the Nile as a vehicle for economic recovery. He first negotiated with Britain and the United States for financial backing for the project. Uneasy about Nasser's courting of Eastern bloc and Soviet support (he had signed an arms deal with Czechoslovakia in 1956), Britain, the United States, and the World Bank withdrew from the project. On July 26, 1956, an undaunted Nasser nationalized the Suez Canal, whose proceeds had previously gone to European bondholders, and stated that use fees would be dedicated to constructing the new dam, predicting they would pay for it in five years. Fearing that the unpredictable Nasser might close the canal and cut off oil to western Europe, Britain and France began making plans to get it back and, if possible, depose Nasser. When diplomatic efforts appeared unlikely to settle the crisis, they struck.

THE WAR CABAL

After Nasser's nationalization of the Suez Canal, the British government ordered General Sir Hugh Stockwell (1903–86) to come up with a plan for seizing the canal using a joint Anglo-French expeditionary force. Understanding the impatience of the U.S. administration under President Dwight David Eisenhower (1890–1969) with British and French colonialism, the two powers sought to avoid at least the public appearance of imperialist aggression by entering into secret negotiations with Israel, exploring the potential to mask their planned invasion as a renewal of Arab-Israeli conflict (*see* Arab-Israeli War [1948–1949]).

Ultimately, the three countries came up with a modified version of such a plan: Israel would threaten the Suez Canal, and the Europeans would use that as an excuse to intervene. Britain and France would demand that both Israel and Egypt withdraw 10 miles from the canal. Counting on Egypt to refuse, the allies then planned to seize the canal. They code-named the operation "Musketeer." Once agreement had been reached, the French and English had to delay their invasion two months, from early September to early November, in order to coordinate their mobilization with Israel. For their part, the Israelis called the Sinai campaign "Operation Kadesh," and its stated objectives were to mount a military threat to the Suez Canal by occupying the high ground to its east and by capturing the Strait of Tiran. They hoped to create confusion in the ranks of the Egyptian army, thereby bringing about its collapse and the fall of President Nasser.

Nasser was aware that something was afoot, but he was ignorant of its extent. When he received reports of Anglo-French forces massing on Malta and Cypress, he promptly withdrew nearly half his Sinai garrison to the Canal Zone Delta, leaving behind only some 30,000 men under the Eastern Command of Major General Ali Amer (active 1940s–60s). Most of these were deployed in the northeast in static defense of the triangle formed by Rafah, Abu Ageila, and El Arish—easy targets for the Israeli juggernaut.

THE WAR AND ITS OUTCOME

As prearranged, on October 29, 1956, the Israelis attacked. They captured the Gaza Strip, Sharm el-Sheikh, and several other major spots before the British and the French—still according to plan—ordered both Israel and Egypt to cease fire and withdraw from the war zone. Following the script, Israel complied, and as expected the Egyptians refused, giving the allies their excuse. On November 5, 1956, Anglo-French paratroopers dropped near Port Said and attacked, killing Egyptian soldiers. There was little Nasser could do. The next day Egypt and Israel officially accepted a cease-fire arranged by the United Nations, which sent an emergency force (UNEF) to oversee the situation.

The fallout from the plan, however, was not what the English and French expected. The Soviet Union was not fooled by the ruse and threatened to intervene, and President Eisenhower, furious with Britain, France, and Israel, indicated that he would let the Russians bomb them to kingdom come if it came to that. As it had been the U.S. withdrawal of its promised aid to Egypt for the Aswan Dam project back in July that had led an angry Nasser to nationalize the Suez Canal in the first place, it was now pressure from the United States that forced the Anglo-French forces to back out. The imbroglio cost British prime minister Anthony Eden (1897–1977) his job, as he resigned under pressure. It took the United States another year and even more trenchant diplomatic pressure to make Israel give up the Gaza Strip and Sharm el-Sheikh, and even then the Israelis did not return the land to Egypt but turned it over to the UNEF.

Despite his military defeat, Nasser's reputation soared after the Suez crisis. He proceeded with the construction of the Aswan Dam, aided now by the Soviet Union, and he set out to realize yet another goal, the unification of Arab countries. In 1958 the government of Syria merged with Egypt to form the United Arab Republic. It was Nasser's goal to recruit all the other Arab countries into the fold.

The republic was short-lived, however. Not only did the another nations fail to join, but Syria withdrew in 1961. Nevertheless, Egypt became a haven for Arab radicals and anticolonial revolutionaries as Nasser welcomed political refugees from other Arab countries. Even as he embraced foreign radicals, he cracked down on civil freedom in his own country. The end seemed to come in 1967, when Nasser called for the withdrawal of United Nations Emergency Force troops from the Gaza Strip and instituted a blockade of Eilat, precipitating a preemptive war by Israel that destroyed Egypt's air force on the ground (*see* ARAB-ISRAELI WAR [1967]).

Further reading: Trevor Nevitt Dupuy, *Elusive Victory: The Arab-Israeli Wars, 1947–1974* (New York: HarperCollins, 1978); Trevor Nevitt Dupuy, *Land of Darkness, Shadow of Death: A Military History of the Arab-Israeli Wars, 1947–1973* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1976); Benny Morris, *Israel's Border Wars 1949–1956* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1997).

Arab-Israeli War (Six-Day War) (1967)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Israel vs. the Arab states of Egypt, Syria, Jordan, and Iraq
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Sinai Peninsula, the Gaza Strip, Jordan's West Bank, and the Golan Heights in the Middle East
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Israel had previously warned that it would go to war under any one of the following circumstances: the closing of the Strait of Tiran; the sending of Iraqi troops to Jordan; the signing of an Egyptian-Jordanian defense pact; or the withdrawal of U.N. peacekeeping forces. By 1967, due mainly to Egyptian president Nasser's leadership, all those conditions existed, making war all but inevitable.
OUTCOME: Israel captured the Sinai Peninsula, the Gaza Strip, and the West Bank of the Jordan River. As Israel occupied the captured territory with intentions of turning them into a buffer zone, the outraged Arabs protested to a world startled by Israel's display of military prowess.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Israel, 230,000; Egypt, 200,000; Syria, 63,000; Jordan, 56,000; Iraq, 90,000.
CASUALTIES: Israel, 800 dead, 2,400 wounded, 18 missing; Egypt, 11,500 dead, 15,000 wounded, 5,500 missing; Syria, 700 dead, 3,500 wounded, 500 missing; Jordan, 2,000 dead, 5,000 wounded, 4,500 missing; Iraq, 100 dead, 300 wounded.
TREATIES: None, the war ended with an unsponsored cease-fire on June 10, 1967.

Israel, a homeland for the century's most ruthlessly persecuted minority, came to a difficult birth in 1948 and had been in a chronic state of guerrilla warfare with neighboring Arab states ever since. Occasionally, as in the ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1948–49), the guerrilla and terrorist action flared into outright war. After the 1956 Suez crisis (*see* ARAB-ISRAELI WAR [1956]), in an attempt to stabilize the region, the United Nations sent an emergency force (UNEF) to Egypt but withdrew it in May 1967 at the demand of Egypt's president general, Gamal Abdel Nasser (1918–70). Once Nasser had secured removal of the UNEF, he sought to strangle Israel by means of a shipping blockade of the Strait of Tiran, closing the principal Israeli port of Eilat on the Gulf of Aqaba. With the blockade in place, Egyptian and Syrian forces mobilized along the border created at the end of the last war, and Israel responded in kind.

It was an all-too-familiar scenario, as both sides apparently braced for another round of guerrilla attacks along the borders like those that had taken place frequently since the 1956 war. But this time Israel stunned the Arabs—and the world—by launching on June 5 a massive air attack (urged by Israeli chief of staff Itzhak Rabin [1922–95]) on some two dozen Arab airfields, destroying more than 400 Egyptian, Syrian, and Jordanian aircraft on the ground. It was the bulk of the Arab air forces. Simultaneously, under the direction of General Moshe Dayan (1915–81), a one-eyed veteran of the 1956 war, ground forces invaded the Sinai Peninsula, Jerusalem's Old City, Jordan's West Bank, the Gaza Strip, and the Golan Heights, seizing and occupying these areas when an unsponsored cease-fire was declared on June 10, 1967.

Although the guerrilla and terrorist activity continued, and another war would erupt on Yom Kippur, the holiest of Jewish holy days, in 1973 (*see* ARAB-ISRAELI WAR [1973]), the 1967 Six-Day War marked a turning point in Israel's relation to the Arab world and the world at large. For centuries—and in no century more than the 20th—Jews had been regarded as vulnerable, as eternal objects of persecution, and as perpetual victims. The brilliant performance of the Israeli armed forces in the Six-Day War, achieving the century's most complete military triumph in proportion to the forces engaged and the length of the engagement, convinced Arabs and others that the Jews were no longer willing to be trifled with. As for the United States, which had favored and supported Israel from its inception as a nation, the Jewish state was now perceived as a strong ally and a key bulwark in the containment of the Soviet-allied or Soviet-leaning Arab states, which controlled so much of the oil Americans needed to run their industries and their automobiles.

On the other hand, while the brief three-front campaign clearly demonstrated the combat effectiveness of the Israelis and their superiority over their more numerous enemies, it also led the Israelis to underestimate the Arabs. The scope and speed of the victory was much enhanced by the fatal orders of Egyptian field marshal Ali Amer (active 1940s–60s) for a general withdrawal on June 6, which turned what was probably an inevitable defeat into an

embarrassing and disastrous rout. Holding Ali Amer and other Egyptians in unwarranted contempt led the Israelis to miscalculate Egypt's military potential a few years later in the Yom Kippur War.

The more immediate effect of the war, however, had come on June 9, 1967, the day before the cease-fire. Gamal Abdel Nasser appeared on Egyptian television to announce his resignation. Hundreds of thousands of Egyptians took to the streets to demonstrate their demand that Nasser remain in power. While some of the demonstrations may have been engineered by Nasser himself, it is undeniable that some were indeed spontaneous. A hard-liner against Israel and the West, supremely repressive at home, Nasser—from his assumption of power in 1954 until his death from a heart attack on September 28, 1970—was the most popular and influential Arab leader in the world.

As a result of the war, Jordan suffered severe economic setbacks, while Palestinians became stateless refugees, subject to martial law on the West Bank. The stage was set for decades of unrest and violence, which, as of the early twenty-first century, showed no signs of abating.

See also JORDANIAN CIVIL WAR.

Further reading: Trevor Nevitt Dupuy, *Elusive Victory: The Arab-Israeli Wars, 1947–1974* (New York: Harper-Collins, 1978); Trevor Nevitt Dupuy, *Land of Darkness, Shadow of Death: A Military History of the Arab-Israeli Wars, 1947–1973* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1976); Michael B. Oren, *Six Days of War: June 1967 and the Making of the Modern Middle East* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002).

Arab-Israeli War (Yom Kippur War, Ramadan War) (1973)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Israel (with U.S. matériel aid) vs. Egypt and Syria (with Soviet matériel aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Israel, Egypt, and Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Egypt and Syria sought recovery of territory lost to Israel in the Arab-Israeli War of 1967.
OUTCOME: The war ended with a cease-fire; the Arab allies failed to regain the territory they sought; both sides declared victory.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Israel, 300,000; Arab forces, 539,000
CASUALTIES: Arab allies, 8,500 killed; Israel, 6,000 killed and wounded
TREATIES: U.N. Resolution 338 on October 22, 1973, and cease-fire of October 25, 1973; Peace agreement of 1974

The conflict is known alternatively as the Yom Kippur War and, less familiarly, as the Ramadan War. The fourth major military confrontation between Israel and the Arab states since the establishment of Israel in 1948, the 1973 conflict pitted Israel against Egypt and Syria.

At issue was the failure to resolve territorial disputes arising from the ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1967), including the return of the Sinai to Egypt and the return of the Golan Heights to Syria. Egyptian president Anwar Sadat (1918–81) offered a peace initiative in the form of his proposal to sign an agreement with Israel provided that the Israelis returned all occupied territories. Israel adamantly refused to withdraw to the pre-1967 armistice lines. Frustrated and anxious to retain his credibility at home, Sadat became persuaded that the issues would be resolved only by initiating a war with defined and limited objectives.

Another cause of war was the overconfidence of the Israeli general staff. The military persuaded the Israeli government that the nation was safe from Arab attack and that, therefore, no pressing reason existed for trading territory to obtain a guarantee of peace. This confidence became Israeli military and political doctrine and, as a result, the Israelis were uncharacteristically ill prepared for the October attack by Egypt and Syria. Israeli commanders even allowed themselves to misinterpret the buildup of Arab forces along the Suez Canal as merely a military exercise.

On October 6, 1973—Yom Kippur, the holiest day of the Jewish year—a surprise attack came on two fronts. Egypt rapidly crossed the Suez Canal and overran the Bar-Lev defensive line. Simultaneously, Syrian forces advanced into the Golan Heights and very nearly reached the 1967 border with Israel.

The situation looked desperate for Israel, which, in the north, was outnumbered by nearly 12 to one. On this front Israeli counterattacks during the first few days of the war repeatedly failed, and at a high cost, especially in aircraft (the Israelis lost 150 planes). However, on October 10 Israeli forces began to make significant headway against the Syrians, who were pushed back. Israeli troops kept advancing, invading Syria itself. This prompted the Soviet Union to airlift matériel to Damascus and Cairo. To counter this, the United States airlifted supplies to Israel on October 12 and 13. On October 21 the Israeli forces broke out to cross the Suez Canal. They then surrounded the Egyptian Third Army.

The peril of the Egyptian Third Army brought a plea from Sadat to the Soviet Union. The USSR responded by threatening to send troops to assist Egypt. In order to avoid a major international crisis, U.S. secretary of state Henry Kissinger (b. 1923) was dispatched to Moscow to negotiate a cease-fire. This came in the form of UN Resolution 338, which established an immediate cease-fire and reinstated UN Resolution 242, "aimed at establishing a just and durable peace in the Middle East." When Israel violated the cease-fire, the Soviets again threatened to send troops, but the United States applied diplomatic pressure on Israel, which agreed to a second cease-fire on October 25, 1973. Both Israel and Egypt claimed victory.

A more formal peace agreement was concluded in 1974, which mandated a UN-controlled buffer zone between Syria and Israel.

The war cost Egypt and Syria some 8,500 soldiers killed. The economic loss to the two Arab nations was devastating: the equivalent of a year's gross national product. Perhaps even worse, the war compromised Arab autonomy by increasing dependence on the USSR. As for Israel, some 6,000 soldiers were killed or wounded. In economic terms Israel had suffered similarly to Egypt and Syria—roughly the equivalent of the annual gross national product (GNP). Moreover, the image of Israeli military invincibility was shattered, and Israel became increasingly dependent on U.S. military, diplomatic, and economic aid.

For the United States there were also consequences. The Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) doubled its oil prices, creating a severe gasoline shortage in the United States and contributing to U.S. (and worldwide) stagflation, a combination of inflation and recession during 1974–75.

Further reading: Trevor Nevitt Dupuy, *Elusive Victory: The Arab-Israeli Wars, 1947–1974* (New York: Harper-Collins, 1978); Trevor Nevitt Dupuy, *Land of Darkness, Shadow of Death: A Military History of the Arab-Israeli Wars, 1947–1973* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1976); Insight Team of the London *Sunday Times, The Yom Kippur War* (New York: iBooks, 2002).

Arab Revolt (1936–1939)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain and Jewish Zionists vs. Palestinian Arabs
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Palestine (now Israel)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Zionists wished to establish a Jewish state in Palestine; Arabs wished to drive the Jews from the region; the British hoped to maintain peace and prosecute the world war they were fighting against Germany.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quelled, but the British moved to limit Jewish immigration in the future and promised the Arabs an independent Palestine, which only fed the flames of unrest that ultimately led the Jews to declare a state of their own.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Totals unknown, but perhaps as many as 15,000 Arab terrorists were active.
CASUALTIES: Several thousand
TREATIES: London Roundtable Conference "White Paper," 1939

From 1936 to 1939 Palestine erupted into civil war. The Arab Revolt was an expression of Arab opposition to the partition of Palestine, and as a result the Arabs took control of the country outside the large cities and the Jewish settlements. The British suppressed the revolt after the loss of several thousand lives, and in 1939, the London Round Table Conference produced a "White Paper" promising the creation of an independent Palestine within a decade and limiting Jewish immigration to 1,500 individuals per month until 1944, when Jews would no longer be admitted to Palestine. In response Zionists in large measure turned from Britain to the United States for support, demanding in the May 1942 Biltmore Conference in New York the formation of an independent Jewish state, a demand that attracted U.S. backing. Following World War II large numbers of Holocaust survivors sought homes in Palestine. By 1947 a war-weary Britain turned the entire problem over to the United Nations, which voted to partition Palestine into Arab and Jewish states. On May 14, 1948, the eve of Britain's evacuation, Palestine's Jews proclaimed on their own the state of Israel, which led to the Arab-Israeli War (1948–1949).

Further reading: Ted Swedenburg, *Memories of Revolt: The 1936–1939 Rebellion and the Palestinian National Past* (London: Frank Cass, 1955).

Arab Revolt against the Turks

See World War I: Mesopotamia.

Arab Uprising in German East Africa (1888–1890)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Arab followers of Abushiri ben Salim al-Harthi, with tribesmen of the Tanzanian hinterlands vs. German East African government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): German East Africa
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Arab rebellion against German colonial rule
OUTCOME: Rebellion was suppressed, and the region came under direct control of the German government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In November 1884 Carl Peters (1856–1918), head of the German East Africa Company (Deutsch-Ostafrikanische Gesellschaft, DOAG), obtained land rights for more than 140,000 square kilometers of land in East Africa from the local chiefs, thereby beginning German colonization in Africa. Peters convinced Kaiser Wilhelm I's (1797–1888) "Iron Chancellor," Otto von Bismarck (1815–98), to declare the region a German protectorate in 1885. With

Germany's blessing the DOAG exploited the native labor and resources along the East African coast and even expanded beyond the negotiated realm, particularly into Zanzibar.

In 1887 indigenous Africans attacked two DOAG trading posts in Zanzibar. In April of the following year the company signed a treaty with the sultan of Zanzibar, Said Khalifa (1852–90), in effect bribing him in return for a 50-year lease of the Zanzibar coastline. The treaty, coupled with the increasing arrogance of the DOAG, touched off new hostilities. On September 4, 1888, an Arab landowner from Pangani, Abushiri ben Salim al-Harthi (fl. 1880s), organized an uprising. Together with black Africans from both the hinterlands and the coastal regions, Abushiri drove a number of DOAG representatives from the townships and took many others prisoner.

German cruisers, including the *Leipzig,* steamed in to protect the two key colonial posts of Bagamoyo and Dar es Salaam, where DOAG personnel remained until reinforcements arrived. On January 30, 1889, Bismarck approved a 2-million-mark loan to aid the German protectorate in East Africa. From this point on the region came under the direct control of the German Reich, which dispatched Captain Hermann Wissmann (1853–1905) as a military governor.

By the end of the year Abushiri was arrested and executed. Wissmann instituted a reign of terror throughout the region, murdering thousands of sympathizers and establishing harsh penalties for all transgressions against German authority. By 1890 the uprising had been crushed.

Further reading: Richard Oliver and Gordon Mathew, eds., *History of East Africa* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1963); Helmuth Stoecker, ed., *German Imperialism in Africa* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986).

Arab War

See Muslim Civil War (680–692).

Aragonese-Castilian War (1109–1112)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Aragon vs. Castile
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Castile, Spain
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A failed dynastic marriage led the two expansive Christian powers into a competitive war for dominance.
OUTCOME: Aragon succeeded in dominating Castile briefly in an uneasy union and in expanding its influence below the Ebro River.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the 12th century Christian Europe was engaged in the slow reconquest of lands taken by the Muslims on the Iberian Peninsula during the eighth century. Constant warfare along a shifting Muslim-Christian frontier only encouraged violent internal struggles on both sides of the varying border, and as a result there sprang into existence a number of all-but-independent principalities, kingdoms, city-states, and emirates, which were only sporadically subject to a central authority. Among those were Castile and Aragon, the former about to launch on a half-century of glorious expansion, the latter, smaller and obstinate, beginning to wend its way slowly toward becoming the dominant Mediterranean power in the century to follow. Meanwhile, they vied for position, and in 1109 a dynastic marriage was arranged between King Alfonso I "the Battler" (1073[?]–1134) of Aragon and Queen Urraca (1081–1126) of Castile. When the two monarchs fell to disputation, however, the prospective union of Aragon and Castile melted away. War erupted, and although Alfonso was victorious in the Battle of Sepulveda in 1111, fighting continued in a series of lesser clashes. The marriage between Alfonso and Urraca was dissolved in 1112, as was the tenuous union between their kingdoms. Alfonso returned to Aragon, which he vigorously expanded, capturing Saragossa from the Moors in 1118. This established Aragonese influence below the Ebro River and elevated the kingdom to dominance in the region.

Further reading: Raymond Carr, *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

Aragonese Civil War (1347–1348)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pedro IV vs. rebel Aragonese barons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aragon, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The barons fought to preserve rights granted them under charter by previous Aragonese rulers and to keep one of Pedro's daughters from assuming the throne after his death.
OUTCOME: Pedro quelled the rebellion and revoked the noble charters.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the 13th century expansionist Christian powers attacked the Iberian lands held by the Moors, ultimately confining them to a small enclave in southeastern Spain called Granada. Chief among these Christian kingdoms was Castile, which after a half century of glory began to

decline under mediocre rule. In the wake of that decline, the smaller Aragon grew steadily in influence on its way to becoming the most powerful state in the Mediterranean. Toward the close of the century, Pedro III (1239–85) of Aragon formed an alliance with the Byzantine Empire and fought the War of the SICILIAN VESPERS, during which he was excommunicated by the pope and successfully defended his throne against Rome-backed French pretenders (*see* ARAGONESE-FRENCH WAR [1284–1285]), consolidating his hold over Aragon and its prominent position on the peninsula.

In the course of his expansions, Pedro and his son Alfonso III (1265–91) granted Aragon's barons charter rights and privileges that would become the source of prolonged difficulties under their successors. After King Pedro IV (1319–87) proclaimed his daughter heir to the throne, his barons rebelled, triggering civil war in December 1347. At first the barons prevailed, and nominated an acceptable male successor. While Pedro was held hostage in Valencia, his supporters rallied. After he was released, Pedro led an army to victory at the Battle of Eppila on July 21, 1348. This enabled him to rescind the barons' charters and to assert absolute rule once again. His victory in the ARAGONESE-GENOESE WAR (1352–54), by which he retook Sardinia, cemented his authority.

See also ARAGONESE CONQUEST OF SARDINIA.

Further reading: Raymond Carr, *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

Aragonese Conquest of Sardinia (1323–1326)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Aragon vs. Pisa and Genoa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Corsica and Sardinia
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Aragonese were embarked on nearly a century of maritime expansion in the Mediterranean and sought to assert their control over Corsica and Sardinia, granted years before under the Treaty of Anagni.
OUTCOME: Aragon expelled the Pisans and Genoese from Sardinia but failed to take Corsica, which came under the full dominance of Genoa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the 13th century, as expanding Christian powers fought back the Moors on the Iberian Peninsula, Aragon grew steadily in influence at the expense of the larger and at first more glorious kingdom of Castile. King Pedro III (1239–85) led Aragon on its march to become the most powerful state in the Mediterranean, forming an alliance with the Byzantine Empire and launching the War of the SICILIAN VESPERS, a war that would last some 20 years, during which he was excommunicated by the pope and successfully defended his throne against Rome-backed French pretenders. His son and successor, Alfonso III (1265–91), and his successor, James II (c. 1260–1327), inherited not only the Aragon Crown but also the ongoing war. When it ended in 1295, James gave up Aragon's rights to Sicily in exchange for control of Sardinia and Corsica under the Treaty of Anagni.

Pisa and Genoa also eyed Corsica and Sardinia. Indeed, Sardinia already was dominated by Pisans in Cagliari and Iglesias. James understood that the conquest of Sardinia would require a substantial use of force. In 1323 he sent a fleet, under his son Alfonso (1299–1336), later King Alfonso IV, to pacify Pisa and Genoa. Within three years, both Iglesias and Cagliari had fallen to Aragon. Nevertheless, neither the Pisans nor the Genoese abandoned Sardinia. The struggle for control consumed 30 years and, even at the end of that period, a Pisan presence remained. It was not purged until 1421. As for Corsica, Aragon never dislodged the Genoese, who assumed complete control of the island by 1434.

See also ARAGONESE-GENOESE WAR.

Further reading: Raymond Carr, *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

Aragonese-French War (1209–1213)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Aragon vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern France
DECLARATION: Pope Innocent III called for a crusade against heretics in southern France (some of which was under the control of Aragon) in 1203.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France's Philip II used the excuse of the Albigensian Crusade to establish hegemony over southern France; Aragon's King Pedro I joined the so-called "heretics" to protect his own feudal holdings in the area.
OUTCOME: Pedro was killed, and the crusade went on.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spanish and heretics combined, 34,000; French (at that point), a few thousand
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

One of the more important events of the early 13th century in Europe was a crusade launched against the Albigenses, a sect of religious reformers in southern France that had been branded heretical by the Roman Catholic Church. French kings used the crusade to greatly expand

their control and power over the south at the expense of local barons. As the crusade degenerated into a civil war between France's northern and southern nobility, Aragon's King Pedro II (1174–1213) became caught up in the partisan cause of his brother-in-law, Raymond VI (1156–1222), count of Toulouse, against Simon IV de Montfort (c. 1160–1218), leader of the northern French cause.

The centers of the religious reform movement were Toulouse and the stronghold at Albi, where the Catholic clergy's failure to convert the heretics led Pope Innocent III (1161–1216) to proclaim the ALBIGENSIAN CRUSADE. France's Philip II (1165–1223) did not engage in the crusade personally, but he strongly urged his factotum, the half-English Montfort, to raise a substantial force among the northern barons, who campaigned across western Languedoc, destroying most of the south's military, and capturing most of its strongholds. At Albi and other heretical towns Montfort ruthlessly slaughtered the inhabitants. By 1213 only the cities of Toulouse and Montaubin still held out, and the counts of Toulouse, Foix, and Commings—all in the South—were the only nobles still daring to defy Simon. Other than Simon, most of the northern barons had returned home, leaving him to mop up the conquest and conversion.

Christian crusaders from the recently ended Fourth CRUSADE had helped Aragon's King Pedro destroy a Muslim kingdom at Valencia in 1209. Now they marched into Provence, an Aragonese holding in France, where heretic Albigensians were gaining a following, to join the Albigensian crusaders. Watching developments carefully, Pedro grew concerned over the increase in French royal power in southern France. Anxious to protect his own feudal holdings north of the Pyrenees and despite his own staunch Catholicism, he led a Spanish army into Languedoc to join the heretics and the followers of his brother-in-law. With a combined army of about 4,000 heavy cavalry and 30,000 foot soldiers, King Pedro and Count Raymond captured several of Montfort's fortified posts, then laid siege to Muret, one of the most important of Count Simon's strongholds, garrisoned by 700 men. Just as Pedro and Raymond arrived at Muret, Montfort and some 900 heavy cavalry joined the garrison.

Aware that Muret was low on supplies, and knowing that he could not expect timely relief from the north, Simon launched a daring if desperate plan. He enticed the besiegers to attack an apparently poorly defended gate on the city's southeast, and as the attackers rushed in Montfort and his cavalry ambushed them. Then, while all attention was turned to the slaughter at the gate, Montfort's cavalry suddenly dashed out into the open, leading the besieging generals to assume he was trying to escape. Instead, riding around low hills to the west, Montfort turned north, crossed the Longe River just north of Muret, dispersed a small force protecting the far bank, and surprised and smashed a much larger force under the Count of Foix. Pedro and his Aragonese were warned, but by the time they could form a line of defense they were hit by a violent frontal charge from two-thirds of Simon's small force. Outnumbering the French 30 to one, the Aragonese quickly engulfed them, only to be charged from behind by Montfort and 300 of his cavalry, who had just completed a wide sweeping envelopment. The Spanish broke and fled, suffering many casualties, not the least being King Pedro himself. Montfort's brilliant strategy paid off; Raymond's forces, the only portion of the heretical army so far not engaged in the battle, were quickly overwhelmed and all but annihilated. The Aragonese-French War was over. The Albigensian Crusade would continue for more than a decade, as Simon, urged on from Paris, rounded up heretic after heretic.

See also ARAGONESE-FRENCH WAR (1284–1285).

Further reading: Raymond Carr, *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Joseph R. Strayer, *The Albigensian Crusades* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1992).

Aragonese-French War (1284–1285)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Aragon vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aragon, Spain
DECLARATION: Pope Martin IV excommunicated the Aragonese king Pedro III in 1282 and gave his title to a French pretender.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: French king Philip III was attempting to claim the Aragonese throne for his son, to whom it had been awarded by the pope; Pedro, who the pope opposed for his expansions into Sicily, fought to keep his throne and his conquests.
OUTCOME: Pedro repulsed the French, consolidating Aragon's position on the Iberian Peninsula and making it a power in the Mediterranean.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Among the all-but-independent, expansionist, and intensely competitive Christian powers attacking the Moors and each other on the Iberian Peninsula during the 13th century was Aragon, growing steadily in influence at the expense of archival and sometime ally Castile. On its way to becoming the most powerful state in the Mediterranean, Aragon was led by King Pedro III (1239–85), who toward the end of the century formed an alliance with the Byzantine Empire and, pretending to sail on a crusade to Africa, actually landed in Sicily, sparking what over the course of the next 20 years would be called the War of the SICILIAN VESPERS. Though ultimately aiding the Aragonese in their eastward maritime expansion, the initial result of

the war was to get Pedro III excommunicated. An angry Pope Martin IV (c. 1210–85) went on to declare that Pedro had forfeited his right to rule Aragon because of his conspiratorial intrusion into the affairs of Sicily, and he offered the crown of Aragon to Charles of Valois (1270–1325), third son of King Philip III (1245–85) of France, who thought the French had a long-standing claim to the throne in any case. Philip allied himself with his uncle Charles of Anjou (also called Charles the Lame, c. 1254–1309), and invaded Aragon, seeking to take what the pope had offered and make his son king of Aragon and Sicily. Though the French invaders won a victory at Gerona in 1284, the following year they were forced by Pedro to retreat. While the French army was in Aragon its ranks had been ravaged by disease, which claimed the life of Philip III on the long march home.

See also ARAGONESE-FRENCH WAR (1209–1213).

Further reading: Raymond Carr, *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

Aragonese-Genoese War (1352–1354)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Aragon (with Venice and Catalonia) vs. Genoa and Sardinian rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sardinia and Corsica
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sardinia, taking advantage of troubles in Aragon, rebelled against Aragonese rule over the island; Genoa moved onto Sardinia to reclaim its former hegemony; Aragon fought to suppress the rebellion and reconquer Sardinia from Genoa.
OUTCOME: Aragon defeated the rebels, expelled the Genoese, and established a troubled hegemony over Sardinia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the 13th century Europe's efforts to reconquer the Iberian Peninsula from the Muslim Moors had led to the birth of a number of virtually autonomous principalities and kingdoms in present-day Spain. Among them was Aragon, which by the beginning of the 13th century was on its way to becoming a major power in the Mediterranean. After taking Sicily in the War of the SICILIAN VESPERS Aragon went on to capture Sardinia from Genoa and Pisa in 1324 (*see* ARAGONESE CONQUEST OF SARDINIA). Under King Pedro IV (1319–87) long-lasting trouble with the Aragonese nobles culminated in a violent civil war (*see* ARAGONESE CIVIL WAR). The Sardinians took the opportunity at that point to rise up against their local Aragonese rulers, and the Genoese, who had formerly run the island state, moved in to recapture their lost lands. Pedro secured an alliance with Venice and Catalonia to aid in suppressing the revolt in Sardinia. To neutralize the Genoese, who had taken advantage of the internal disorders to recover Sardinia, Pedro prevailed on his allies to do battle at sea. The Genoese were defeated in a naval battle in 1352, but a storm dispersed the Venetian and Catalan attacking fleet, giving the Genoese an opportunity to regroup. Thus reformed, a Genoese naval force attacked positions on the Sardinian and Corsican coasts. Pedro's forces pulled back, and Genoa installed Mariano de Arborea (d. 1368) as king of Sardinia.

Undaunted, the allies mounted a new naval offensive and in 1353 defeated the Genoese off the coast of Sardinia at Alghero. This time, after so hard won a victory, Pedro personally led troops when, in 1354, renewed rebellion erupted in Sardinia. He had no intention of giving the Genoese a fresh opening. Although the rebellion was not entirely crushed, an advantageous, albeit informal, peace was established. Nevertheless, while Aragonese rule had been more than nominally restored, rebellion persisted sporadically into the next century.

Further reading: A. Hyde, *Society and Politics in Medieval Italy* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1973); Anthony Molho and Kurt Raaflaub, *City States in Classical Antiquity and Medieval Italy* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1992); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

Aragonese-Neapolitan War (1435–1442)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Aragon vs. Naples
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Naples
DECLARATION: Aragon on Naples, 1435
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Alfonso IV, king of Aragon, fought a war of conquest when the crown, once promised him by Neapolitan queen Joanna, went instead to the duke of Anjou.
OUTCOME: Anjou was defeated and Alfonso became, with the pope's blessing, king of Naples as well as Aragon.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None identified

During the 15th century the small city-states of Italy fought almost incessantly in senseless wars of little consequence and almost no lasting results. The armies were filled with mercenary condottieri, soldiers who were for sale at any time to the highest bidder—even during the heat of battle—and no warrior, from private to general, felt safe going into a war, much less patriotic or glory-bound. They fought for personal profit, and they were not

eager to risk life or limb for those who were more their employers than their inspiration. Limited engagements became chess matches that were given up the moment it became clear one side or the other had gained an advantage. Heavy cavalrymen, bearing the brunt of battle, were so thoroughly armored they could hardly be seriously injured, and casualties were limited to prisoners of war or fools who for one reason or another decided to stand their ground. Central to the condottieris' business dealings during war was ransoming prisoners after a battle. As a result, for the next three centuries Italy would become a battleground for the great European powers and their more serious armies. On the Iberian Peninsula during the first half of the century, anarchy reigned except in Aragon, which—though it occasionally fell victim to internal disturbances—continued its reign as the major maritime power of the western Mediterranean.

Almost naturally, it seems, Aragon would attack the Italian seaport kingdom of Naples, especially after Alfonso IV (1396–1458), king of Aragon, who had been made heir to the throne in Naples by Neapolitan queen Joanna (1371–1435) in 1421, was disinherited by her two years later when he attempted to seize the crown prematurely. Joanna had turned to him in the first place for intervening on her behalf during the incessant conflicts—coached *and* refereed from Rome—that she engaged in with the Neapolitan nobility beginning in 1414. When she died in 1435, the throne went not to Alfonso but to René I (1409–80), duke of Anjou, and Aragon prepared to invade. The attack on Naples came the same year, but Anjou's forces defeated the Aragonese at the port of Gaeta, and a routed Alfonso was captured by the Genoese. Alfonso obtained the help of the duke of Milan (and his considerable purse), with whom he then made an alliance, inviting Milan to join the fight against Naples. In 1442 Alfonso defeated René in battle, took possession of Naples, and proclaimed himself king. In Rome the following year he was even recognized as such by Pope Eugene IV (1388–1431).

Further reading: Tommaso Astarita, *The Continuity of Feudal Power: The Caracciolo Di Brienza in Spanish Naples* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

Arapaho War

See Cheyenne and Arapaho War.

Araucanian Wars

See Spanish Conquest of Chile.

Arbogast and Eugenius, Revolt of (392–394)

Principal combatants: Rome vs. Arbogast and Eugenius
Principal theater(s): Northern Italy
Declaration: None
Major issues and objectives: A pagan general in the Roman army and his protégé attempted to take over the empire.
Outcome: Arbogast and Eugenius were defeated by Theodosius I, and Rome, East and West, was reunited for the remainder of Theodosius's life.
Approximate maximum number of men under arms: Unknown
Casualties: Unknown
Treaties: None

In the general disorder of the Western Empire during the late fourth century, the emperor of the East, Theodosius I the Great (347–395), commissioned Arbogast (d. 394), a Frankish general in the Roman service, to pacify the always rebellious Gaul. Having accomplished this, Arbogast now turned against Valentinian II (371–392), the emperor of the West, whose attempts to limit his authority in Gaul outraged him. It is likely that Arbogast instigated Valentinian's assassination in 392 so that he could appoint his own protégé, Eugenius (d. 394), as compliant emperor of the West.

With Eugenius installed, Arbogast conducted a pair of effective campaigns in Gaul, driving out Frankish invaders along the Rhine. Even with this victory, however, Theodosius refused to accept Arbogast and Eugenius as legitimate rulers of the West, and he led an army composed chiefly of Goths against the usurpers. They met in northeastern Italy at the Battle of Aquileia (also called the Battle of the Frigidus) on September 5–6, 394. Theodosius attempted to seize the initiative with a reckless attack against a position the more highly skilled Arbogast had carefully prepared. Theodosius was repulsed on the 5th, incurring heavy losses.

To his credit as a commander, Theodosius was able to regroup and rally his troops, and he renewed the attack on September 6. A violent windstorm seems to have aided his efforts, and this time he also made effective use of the brilliant Vandal general Flavius Stilicho (365–408), who achieved an overwhelming victory against Arbogast. Eugenius fell in battle, and Arbogast committed suicide two days later.

Further reading: J. B. Bury and F. J. C. Hearnshaw, *Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000); Michael Whitby, *Rome at War 229–696 AD* (London: Osprey, 2002); Stephen Williams and Gerard Friell, *Theodosius: The Empire at Bay* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1998).

Arcadian War (c. 471–469 B.C.E.)

Principal combatants: Sparta vs. the city-states of Arcadia
Principal theater(s): The central Peloponnese in modern-day Greece

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In light of Athens' growing influence in the newly founded Delian League, Sparta sought to reassert its fading glory as the foremost land power in Greece.
OUTCOME: Sparta defeated the Arcadians and reasserted its hegemony in the Peloponnese.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the fifth century B.C.E., as the Greek city-states began to work their way out from under the long shadow of the Persian Empire, the rivalry between Sparta and Athens came to dominate the history of the Hellenes. Especially after the Greek triumphs over Xerxes in 480 and 479 (*see* GRECO-PERSIAN WARS), Sparta, still the foremost land power in Greece, came to resent the new influence and respect enjoyed by Athens. Now preeminent at sea, Athens quickly moved to form a confederation of maritime states, a compact resembling the old Peloponnese League, and at Delos in 477 Athens joined with the city-states of Ionia and those of the Aegean islands to launch the Delian League. Ostensibly a compact aimed at keeping the Persians at bay in the Aegean and at freeing the Ionian states still under Persian control, the league was also a means, if not to Athenian hegemony, then at least to Athenian glory as the first among equals.

As a significant land power, Sparta sought to compete with and even overmatch the sea power of prosperous Athens by conquering the Peloponnese Peninsula. Of course, Sparta did not consult the lesser city-states of Arcadia in achieving this objective, and so conflict with those city-states was inevitable. Sparta sought to co-opt the chief Arcadian city-state, Tegea, by striking an alliance with it, but when Sparta failed to take control of Arcadia swiftly, Tegea turned against its ally. This signaled the lesser city-states of the region to unite in opposition to the invader, and, indeed, all of Arcadia, save Mantinea, allied against the Spartans.

Sparta always seemed to rise to meet military necessity precisely when circumstances were most adverse. Confronted by enemies everywhere, Sparta rallied, mobilized its full strength, and swept through Arcadia, forcing a major land battle at Dipaea in 470 B.C.E. The united Arcadian forces were badly defeated, so stunningly that mighty Tegea fell soon after the battle. Sparta now enjoyed dominion over Arcadia and, with it, substantial control of the Peloponnese. Yet Athens's continued dominance of the sea prevented Sparta from definitively winning the contest between the two great rivals.

See also ARCHIDAMIAN WAR.

Further reading: William George Grieve Forrest, *A History of Sparta, 950–192 B.C.E.* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1969); Bernard William Henderson, *The Great War between Athens and Sparta* (New York: Ayer, 1927).

Archidamian War (432–421 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sparta vs. Athens
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece
DECLARATION: Sparta declared war on Athens in 432 B.C.E.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sparta resented Athens's growing hegemony and high-handed treatment of allies in the Delian League and sought to destroy Athens as its major rival among the Hellenes.
OUTCOME: Sparta won, and a brief and uneasy peace ensued.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Nicias, 421 B.C.E.

In the fifth century B.C.E. the rivalry between Sparta and Athens came to dominate the history of the Hellenes, especially after the Greek triumphs over Xerxes in 480 and 479 (*see* GRECO-PERSIAN WARS). Sparta, still Greece's foremost land power, resented the new respect enjoyed by Athens, now preeminent at sea. Athens had formed a confederation of maritime states called the Delian League at Delos in 477 (*See* ARCADIAN WAR). Resembling the old Peloponnese League, the stated purpose of the compact between Athens, the city-states of Ionia, and those of the Aegean islands was to keep the Persians at bay in the Aegean and to free the Ionian states still under Persian control, but it fast became a means for Athens to expand its influence in the region. Sparta was not only jealous of Athens's growing power and prosperity, it also, like many Greek city-states, abhorred the Athenians' increasingly autocratic leadership of the Delian League. Athens, on the other hand, despised the military regimentation of Spartan life and found its brutal treatment of its war-slaves, the helots, distasteful. The great irony of the rivalry was that Athens, a democracy, tried to suppress the freedom of its allies, while Sparta, a military oligarchy, became the champion of self-determination among the city-states. When economic rivalry led Athens to attack Corinth in the First PELOPONNESE WAR, Sparta denounced her alliance with Attica and joined the Corinthians.

The war convinced Athenian leader Pericles (c. 495–429) of the folly of a policy of expansion in Greece proper because Athens simply lacked the manpower and the money to maintain both a large fleet and a large army. Clearly, the city's future glory and wealth lay in overseas trade and colonization, and Pericles built Athens's "Long Walls" to connect it with its seaport, Piraeus, as part of his strategy to create a self-contained and invulnerable metro-

polis free of mainland Greece and flourishing indefinitely by keeping command of its seaborne supply routes. By creating a defensive rather than an aggressive posture for Athens, Pericles hoped to remove the basis for conflict between his city and its neighbors. It did not work; Sparta remained jealous and, worse, saw the Long Walls as a threat. In 432 it declared war on Athens when the latter began economic reprisals against Corinth for its naval war on Corcyra, a Delian League ally.

The Spartan invasion of Attica led by the tyrant Archidamus (fl. 476–427) in 432 B.C.E. may be regarded as the opening phase of the Second (Great) PELOPONNESE WAR (431–404) or may be considered a war in its own right. As such, it is commonly referred to as the Archidamian War, and it proved initially destructive to Sparta. The Athenian leader Pericles, recognizing that Sparta's strength lay on land while Athens enjoyed dominance as a sea power, had all he could do to rein in his ground forces lest they be destroyed in fruitless battle. Instead, Pericles launched his fleet from Piraeus against Spartan positions on the Peloponnese coast. An effective naval blockade was created, which enabled a highly effective war of attrition against the Spartans.

At this point nature intervened in the form of a plague that swept Athens. Pericles succumbed, and Sparta seized the initiative. It launched a successful attack on Plataea, which fell in 427. Athens countered by capturing Sphacteria in 425, which elicited a peace offer from Sparta. Foolishly, the now poorly led Athenians spurned the offer, and Sparta responded by launching a series of spectacular land campaigns in northeastern Greece. Olynthus and other Athenian-held cities fell to Sparta. At the Battle of Amphipolis, in 442, the Spartans scored a signal victory, albeit with the loss of its brilliant general Brasidas (d. 422). Athens, however, lost its leader, Cleon (c. 422), successor to Pericles. Cleon had stubbornly resisted any accommodation with Sparta, and now his successor, Nicias (d. 413), leapt at the prospect of a cessation of ruinous war. He rushed into a hasty peace, which brought an end to the immediate hostilities, but failed utterly to resolve the deeper and broader conflict between the two great rival states. This paved the way to the far more momentous Second Peloponnese War, which would prove far more destructive to Athens.

Further reading: Donald Kagan, *The Outbreak of the Peloponnesian War* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1989). Donald Kagan, *The Peloponnesian War* (New York: Viking Press, 2003).

Archive War (1842)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Government of the Texas Republic vs. the citizens of Austin, Texas
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Austin, Texas
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: To prevent the transference of the capital from Austin to Houston, the citizens of Austin resisted the removal of official records to Houston.
OUTCOME: The archives remained in Austin, and Austin remained the capital of the Texas Republic.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: None

Texas declared itself a republic in 1836 and secured its independence from Mexico through victory in the TEXAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE. The capital of the new republic was established in Houston, founded in 1836 and named in honor of the leader of the independence struggle, Samuel Houston (1793–1863). In 1839 the capital was moved to Austin. However, in 1845, the still-fledgling republic was threatened with an invasion by Mexicans and Indians. President Houston thought it prudent to move the capital back to Houston temporarily. Accordingly, he directed that the government archives be transferred there from Austin. This incited the citizens of Austin to resist. Fearful that moving the archives would ultimately result in the permanent relocation of the capital to Houston, they absconded with and hid all official records. President Houston responded by sending troops to recover the records. The result was not armed conflict, but a bewildering series of deals and secret agreements. Finally, at the end of the year, Houston's soldiers located the archives, exhumed them, and loaded them on wagons for the trip to Houston. This action prompted an enraged mob to pursue the wagons. They forced the soldiers to turn around and to return the records to Austin. Fearing that the real casualty of the "war" would be the archives he was attempting to protect, Houston agreed not to remove the records and to maintain the capital in Austin. That city remains the Texas state capital today.

Further reading: William Ransom Hogan, *The Texas Republic: A Social and Economic History* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1969).

Ardasher's War with Rome *See* ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (230–233).

Ardoin's Revolt (1002)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ardoin, marquis of Ivrea vs. Otto III, Holy Roman Emperor
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lombardy in northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Otto III was seeking to renew the flagging fortunes of the Holy Roman Empire by establishing an ecclesiastical state centered in Rome; Ardoin led the Lombards in an uprising against the "outsider" Otto.

OUTCOME: Otto died, and Ardoin became king of the Lombards.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Otto III (980–1002) became the Holy Roman Emperor at the age of three, which left it up to his mother, Empress Theophano (c. 956–991), to suppress the civil wars that had plagued the reign of her husband, Otto II (955–983). Otto III reached his majority determined to restore the glory of the empire his grandfather, Otto I the Great (912–973), had virtually created anew from the ruins of Charlemagne's old domains. At 16, Otto led an expedition to Italy to appoint a new pope, Gregory V (972–999), who in turn officially crowned him emperor. In suppressing an antipapal revolt in 998, Otto, who had declared himself king of Lombardy, made clear his plans to create an "ecclesiastical empire" centered in Rome. That was when Ardoin (Arduin) (d. 1015), marquis of Ivrea, led the Lombards in northern Italy in a successful revolt against Otto's renewed Holy Roman Empire. Though opposed by Italian bishops, Ardoin won the support of the lay nobles. In February 1001 Ardoin's rebels laid siege to Otto's palace. The emperor withdrew to Pavenna, where he performed penance at the monastery of St. Apollinaris. Despite this, he was unable to wrest control of his palace and capital from the rebels. He sought aid from Henry of Bavaria (r. 995–1005), his cousin, but Otto died suddenly before help arrived. Ardoin was therefore proclaimed king of the Lombards at Pavia in February 1002.

See also ARDOIN'S WARS.

Further reading: Roger Collins, *Early Medieval Europe 300–1000* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1999); R. I. Moore, *The First European Revolutions, c. 970–1215* (London: Blackwell, 2000).

Ardoin's Wars (1004–1014)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ardoin of Lombardy vs. King Henry II of Germany
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lombardy in northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Henry II, as the Holy Roman Emperor, wanted to cement his control over Lombardy.
OUTCOME: Ardoin's attempts to retain control of Lombardy were thwarted.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As a result of action in ARDOIN'S REVOLT, the marquis of Ivrea, Ardoin (d. 1015), was proclaimed king of Lombardy in 1002, following the death of the Holy Roman Emperor, Otto III (982–1002) of Germany. Otto's successor to the German throne, Henry II (973–1024), also sought to reestablish his rights to Lombardy as part of the Holy Roman Empire. In 1004, therefore, he invaded northern Italy and quickly regained control there. Eager to affirm his hegemony, Henry caused his coronation as king of Lombardy, a rash act that provoked a revolt among the townsfolk of Pavia. The German army was overwhelmed and hastily withdrew with Henry, leaving behind a mob that ravaged the town.

Into this disorder Ardoin reentered, hoping to reclaim his rule over Lombardy. Recruiting the aid of Italian nobles, Ardoin led the overthrow of the powerful bishops who had supported Henry. In the meantime, despite his ignominious defeat in Pavia, Henry had succeeded in suppressing disorders in Rome, for which he was formally named Holy Roman Emperor on February 14, 1014, by Pope Benedict VIII. This did not overawe Ardoin, who was determined to assert his right to rule in Lombardy and even elsewhere in Italy. Accordingly, he mounted an attack on Henry's forces in Novara and Como. This time, however, Henry was in a much stronger position than he had been at Pavia, and Ardoin was repulsed. His army ruined, Ardoin withdrew to a monastery outside of Turin, where, broken in spirit, he died in 1015.

Further reading: Roger Collins, *Early Medieval Europe 300–1000* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1999); R. I. Moore, *The First European Revolutions, c. 970–1215* (London: Blackwell, 2000).

Argentine-Brazilian War (1825–1828)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Brazil vs. Argentina and Banda Oriental (Uruguay)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Port of Buenos Aires and the Brazilian-Argentinian border
DECLARATION: Argentina declared support for Uruguayan independence, December 1, 1825.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Argentina and Brazil fought over control of the Banda Oriental (Uruguay).
OUTCOME: Uruguay was created as an independent state.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Each nation fielded about 10,000 men.
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Itzuangó (February 20, 1827), Argentina lost 140 killed, 316 wounded; Brazil lost 170 killed, 92 wounded, 171 taken prisoner.
TREATIES: None

When Argentina elected to support the revolt of Banda Oriental (Uruguay) against Brazil on December 1, 1825, war-

fare between the rival nations erupted. Brazil had occupied Banda Oriental since the suppression of the URUGUAYAN REVOLT (1811–16). Now Argentina and its Uruguayan allies generally prevailed against Brazil both on land and at sea. On February 9, 1827, an Argentine naval squadron of five schooners and eight gunboats defeated a Brazilian force of 19 warships off Juncal on the Uruguay River. However, Brazil countered on April 9, 1827, when an 18-ship Brazilian squadron captured two Argentine brigs at Monte Santiago bank. This was followed by an Argentine victory at sea off Pozos on June 11, 1827. South of this position on March 7, 1828, a pair of Brazilian corvettes and two schooners attacked Argentine privateers in the Río Negro of Patagonia. The ill-considered attack cost Brazil a 20-gun corvette and both schooners.

On land the action began with an April 19, 1825, attack in the Banda Oriental by a small unit of revolutionaries. Within 17 days this rebel band of 33 Uruguayans had exploded into an army of 3,500, and on September 24, 1825, a rebel unit of 260 attacked 400 Brazilian troops at Rinçao das Galinhas, routing them.

On October 12 at Sarandi, 2,400 Uruguayans and Argentinians defeated 1,580 Brazilians, killing 200 and capturing 565. The attackers' losses were 35 killed and 90 wounded.

The largest battle was fought at Itzuangó on February 20, 1827. More than 8,000 Argentine troops fought 8,500 Brazilians, winning a victory, although at a cost that nearly matched the losses of the enemy: 140 Argentines killed in action and 316 wounded versus 170 killed among the Brazilians and 92 wounded, plus 171 taken as prisoners. A combination of consistent Argentine military success and Brazilian war weariness resulted in Uruguay's achieving independence on August 28, 1828.

Further reading: Jay Kinsbruner, *Independence in Spanish America: Civil Wars, Revolutions, and Underdevelopment* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 2000); George Pendle, *Uruguay* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1985).

Argentine Civil War (1851–1861)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Argentine rebels (with Brazilian aid) vs. Argentine government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Argentina
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Argentine government
OUTCOME: Buenos Aires became part of the Argentine Confederation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebel forces, 28,189; government forces, 22,000
CASUALTIES: At the decisive Battle of Monte Caseros (February 3, 1852), the rebels lost 600 killed or wounded and the government, 900 killed, 600 wounded, 7,000 prisoners.
TREATIES: None

On May 1, 1851, José de Urquiza (1800–70), governor of the Argentine province of Entre Rios, led a rebellion against Juan Manuel de Rosas (1793?–1877), governor and virtual dictator of Buenos Aires province. The neighboring province of Corrientes joined Urquiza, and Brazil, always eager to destabilize its rival, sent 3,000 infantry, a cavalry regiment, two artillery batteries, and a naval squadron to eliminate Rosas.

In July Urquiza led 5,000 troops from Entre Rios, who were joined by 1,500 from Corrientes (across the Uruguay River) against Rosas's forces, which had been maintaining a long siege against Montevideo. The siege was lifted, and by December 11, 1851, Urquiza's rebel forces numbered 28,189, including troops from Corrientes, Buenos Aires, other Argentine provinces, Uruguay, and dissident Brazilians. He led 24,000 into the major battle of Monte Caseros near Buenos Aires on February 3, 1852. He faced 22,000 government troops and, after four and a half hours of fighting, the army of the dictator Rosas collapsed. With this defeat Rosas was forced out of office. Government casualties included some 900 killed, 600 wounded, and 7,000 made prisoner. Urquiza's rebels lost 600 killed or wounded.

Urquiza now squared off against Buenos Aires–based dissidents known as the Centralist Porteños led by Bartolomé Mitre (1821–1906). The first major battle between the rivals came at Cepeda on October 22, 1859. Urquiza commanded a force of 14,000 (including a 32-gun artillery train) against 9,000 Porteños (and 24 guns) under Mitre. Mitre lost 2,000 of his men as POWs and had to abandon 20 of his valuable artillery pieces. However, on September 16, 1861, Mitre led 16,000 men and 38 guns against an equal number (plus 42 guns) under Urquiza at the Battle of Pavón. Superior generalship allowed Mitre to rout his rival, who lost 1,650 POWs and 37 guns. The Battle of Pavón put Mitre in control of all of Argentina except Entre Rios Province, which remained in Urquiza's hands until he was assassinated in 1871.

Further reading: Daniel K. Lewis, *The History of Argentina* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Nicolas Shumway, *The Invention of Argentina* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993).

Argentine "Dirty War" (1969–1983)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Argentine government and military junta vs. all political rivals, principally left-wing guerrillas
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Argentina
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Argentine government
OUTCOME: Although the leftists were defeated, the extreme right-wing junta ultimately lost control, and on October 30, 1983, democratic elections were held.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Government forces, 154,000 (plus thousands of right-wing terrorists); guerrilla forces, about 3,000
CASUALTIES: About 18,000 killed or "disappeared," mostly leftists
TREATIES: None

The so-called Dirty War was fought by a variety of guerrilla groups against the ruling military dictatorship of Argentina. Among the welter of organizations involved, the two main guerrilla armies were the Montoneros, a leftist group favoring the return of populist leader Juan Perón (1895–1974), and the People's Revolutionary Army (ERP), a radical Marxist group, established on July 28, 1970, which had the goal of leading a mass uprising.

As its name suggests, the war was not fought in set battles by regular armies but was a long sequence of guerrilla and terrorist acts, the first of which was the abduction, on June 1, 1969, and execution of former president Pedro Aramburu (c. 1903–70), a leading anti-Perónist, by the Montoneros. This was followed by low-level terrorist warfare, which included the August 15, 1972, escape of 25 ERP political prisoners in Patagonia. A handful hijacked an airplane and escaped, but 16 were captured and summarily machine-gunned to death. This act gave the Marxists martyrs, around whom they rallied, and on June 20, 1973, an airport celebration to welcome Juan Perón from 18 years of Spanish exile erupted into a gun battle in which 30 died and 300 were wounded.

Shortly after his return to Argentina, Perón again became president of Argentina, with his second wife, Isabel (b. 1931), as vice president. This temporarily quelled national violence, but that was renewed as Perón leaned increasingly toward the right. His death on July 1, 1974, brought Isabel Perón into office and reignited violence on a large scale. The ERP and the Montoneros consisted of at most a few thousand troops, whereas the Argentine government commanded a military of 85,000 soldiers, 33,000 sailors and marines, 17,000 airmen, and 19,000 paramilitary police troops. In addition, right-wing militias consisted of several thousands.

As the general violence escalated, the ERP was reinforced by guerrilla exiles from Chile, Bolivia, and Uruguay. These groups incited rebellion in rural districts, while the Montoneros focused on the cities. The Argentine army launched a sweeping offensive against the ERP in Tucuman during February–April 1975. The government forces, 8,000 strong, reported killing some 350 guerrillas, and within the first eight months of 1975 that toll had risen to 800. However, rebels launched several attacks directly on the military, including a December 23, 1975, assault on the arsenal at Monte Chingolo, a suburb of Buenos Aires. Simultaneously with this attack, some 170 guerrillas struck military and police targets in the city proper. Government forces repulsed all the attacks. A total of 85 guerrillas died, as did seven government soldiers and 10 civilians.

The chronic violence, compounded by the widespread corruption of the Isabel Perón regime, prompted the military to mount a coup, which ousted Perón on March 24, 1976. A military junta under General Jorge Rafael Videla (b. 1925) took draconian measures against the leftists. Between March 1976 and March 1977 1,700 guerrillas and leftist "sympathizers" were killed at the cost of 124 deaths among military forces.

The Argentine military actively recruited the assistance of right-wing terror squads, which initiated a campaign against some 25,000 political exiles living in Argentina. The most prominent of these was the former leftist president of Bolivia, Juan José Torres (1947–76), murdered by rightists in June 1976.

Despite the forces mounted against them, leftist guerrillas continued to strike back. In June 1976 the Montoneros assassinated federal police chief General Cesareo Cardozo and the next month detonated a bomb in the dining room of the Superintendency of Federal Security, killing 43 officers and wounding 100. In October Videla was the target of a bomb planted under a reviewing stand; he narrowly escaped death. But the July 1976 assassination of General Omar Carlos Actis by the guerrillas triggered massive retaliation from rightist terror squads, which assassinated some 50 prominent leftists, including the top members of the ERP.

The year 1976 was the bloodiest of the period of rightist repression, with a death toll of 1,480. In 1977, 677 died, and by 1978 the leftist guerrillas had been badly sapped, down to a few hundred hard-liners. By the end of the decade the guerrilla movement had been effectively crushed. About 9,000 leftists had lost their lives since 1970, and another 7,000 had simply vanished—disappeared—after arrest by the junta. The junta reported a total of 2,050 civilians killed by terrorists of the left as well as right during the period 1973–79. More objective observers attribute only about 700 deaths to leftist terrorism. The military government of Argentina also killed political refugees from neighboring nations. Pursuant to secret agreements with other right-wing South American dictatorships, "Operation Condor" killed 118 Uruguayan exiles, 57 Paraguayans, 49 Chileans, and nine Brazilians.

Between April 2 and June 14, 1982, the Argentine military was embroiled in war with Great Britain over control of the Falkland Islands (*see* FALKLAND ISLANDS WAR). After Argentina's initial success in overpowering the 84-man Royal Marine garrison at Port Stanley, the military leadership was discredited, and by June 14 the military governor

of the Falklands, General Mario Benjamín Menéndez (active 1970s–80s), surrendered to British major general Jeremy Moore (b. 1933). Three days later President Leopoldo Galtieri (1926–2003) resigned and was succeeded by Major General Reynaldo Bignone, who reconstituted the junta and began taking steps toward reinstating civilian rule. On October 30, 1983, Raúl Alfonsín (b. 1926) was elected president. Inaugurated on December 10, the new president quickly stated his intention to arrest the members of the military junta who had conducted the "dirty war" since 1976. He prosecuted members of the armed forces for human rights abuses, and a number of high-ranking government officials were tried, convicted, and sentenced to life imprisonment. Under pressure from the military, which threatened a new coup, Alfonsín pardoned most of those convicted before he left office in 1989.

Further reading: Iain Guest, *Behind the Disappearances: Argentina's Dirty War Against Human Rights and the United Nations* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2000); Daniel K. Lewis, *The History of Argentina* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003).

Argentine Revolt (1951)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Military cabal vs. government of Juan Perón
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Argentina
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bridling under the prospect of the election of Eva Perón as vice president (and therefore potentially commander in chief of the armed forces), a group of army generals staged a coup to overthrow both Peróns.
OUTCOME: The coup failed to overthrow Juan Perón, but it did prompt Eva Perón to withdraw her name from nomination as vice president.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The postwar economy of Argentina deteriorated precipitously under the regime of President Juan Perón (1895–1974), triggering in 1951 a rash of labor strikes, the most paralyzing of which was a general strike by rail workers. In response Perón imposed martial law, specifically targeting the striking rail workers by sending troops to break the strike. Perón justified this attack on his fellow countrymen by arguing that the strikes were the work of "foreign agitators." This claim was met with widespread skepticism, whipped up in large part by the liberal newspaper *La Prensa.* While taking action against the railway strikers, Perón forced the shutdown of *La Prensa.* This action was sufficient to touch off a spasm of national rioting. Perón then seized the paper. He was well aware, however, that the tide of national opinion had turned against him. Looking for a way to restore popular support for his regime, he nominated as his vice president his wife, Eva Perón (1919–52), an actress idolized by the Argentine public and affectionately known as Evita. Once again, however, Juan Perón had made a grave misjudgment. While Evita was popular with Argentines, the idea of putting a woman in a position from which she might succeed to the presidency—and to the position of military commander in chief—profoundly outraged the army high command. A cabal of generals staged a coup in September 1951. The attempt failed, however, and it proved the last gasp of the revolt against Perón. Although he remained in office, Evita prudently withdrew her name from nomination. Juan Perón stood for reelection on November 11, 1951, and was returned to office by a wide two-to-one margin.

Further reading: Robert D. Crassweller, *Peron and the Enigmas of Argentina* (New York: Norton, 1988); John Dechancie, *Juan Perón* (New York: Chelsea House, 1988); Frederick C. Turner, *Juan Perón and the Reshaping of Argentina* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1983).

Argentine Revolt (1955)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Argentine military vs. the government of Juan Perón
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Argentina
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Perón alienated much of Argentine society, including the Catholic Church. Following his excommunication, elements of the military twice moved against Perón to force his resignation.
OUTCOME: The action of the Argentine military (primarily the navy) overthrew Perón and installed a military dictatorship.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 4,000 naval personnel successfully ousted Perón.
CASUALTIES: At least 400 deaths, mainly civilian noncombatants.
TREATIES: None

Juan Perón (1895–1974) became president of Argentina in 1946 in large part on the strength of his promise of economic justice for the disaffected working class, a political stance inspired to a great extent by his wife, Eva Perón (1919–52), an enormously popular actress who was idolized by the so-called *descamisados,* the "shirtless ones," a vast underclass who saw her as a kind of intercessor with the powers that be. When "Evita" succumbed to cancer on July 26, 1952, the social heart of the Perón administration died as well. Not only did the people lose their faith in

Juan Perón's concern for them, but Perón himself moved toward the right and away from the concerns of the poor.

Beginning at the time of Evita's death, Perón's opponents, who included prominent merchants, the landed aristocracy, the military high command, and the Catholic Church, began to exploit the growing weakness of the dictator's support. The anti-Perón momentum gathered, and on June 16, 1955, after the Vatican excommunicated the dictator (for his record of anticlerical reforms), units of the Argentine navy and air force rose up against Perón. His residence, the Casa Rosada, or Pink Palace, was attacked from the air. The army, however, remained loyal to the dictator and moved against the Naval Ministry. Once that was captured, the revolt died down. Some 400 persons had been killed, mostly civilian victims of gunfire and aerial bombardment.

A new revolt broke out on September 16, 1955, engulfing Buenos Aires and inciting some 4,000 members of the navy, led by Admiral Isaac Rojas (1896–1956), to threaten an assault on the capital. Under threat of naval bombardment, Perón fled on September 20, making his way to Paraguay aboard a gunboat of the Paraguayan navy. He remained in exile for two decades, returning in 1973 (*see* ARGENTINE "DIRTY WAR").

See also ARGENTINE REVOLT (1951); ARGENTINE REVOLTS (1962–1963); PERONIST REVOLTS.

Further reading: Robert D. Crassweller, *Perón and the Enigmas of Argentina* (New York: Norton, 1988); John Dechancie, *Juan Perón* (New York: Chelsea House, 1988); Frederick C. Turner, *Juan Perón and the Reshaping of Argentina* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1983).

Argentine Revolts (1962–1963)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The "Gorillas" (ultraconservative military officers) vs. Peronistas (supporters of exiled president Juan Perón)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Argentina
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Gorillas sought to suppress the power of the Peronistas.
OUTCOME: General discontent with both sides led to the election of a moderate leftist president in 1963.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The overthrow of President Juan Perón (1895–1974) during the ARGENTINE REVOLT (1955) sent the former president into exile, but it did not purge Argentina of the Peronist political party, which continued to attempt to field candidates for political office. In 1962 the party's candidates were finally permitted on the ballot, and they enjoyed exceptional success, taking 45 of 86 seats in the Chamber of Deputies. Equally important, the Peronistas claimed nine of 14 governorships throughout the country.

Fearing a resurgence of Peronist government—and the eventual return of Juan Perón himself—ultraconservative anti-Peronist military leaders, known as the Gorillas, successfully blocked the elected Peronist candidates from assuming office. This action provoked a series of national labor strikes. Amid the political and economic chaos their own illegal action had created, the Gorillas turned the blame on the moderate government of Argentine president Arturo Frondizi (1908–95). His liberalism, they claimed, had opened the door to the Peronists, and they demanded his immediate resignation. Frondizi refused to step down, whereupon the Gorillas launched a successful bloodless coup d'état. Frondizi was exiled, and the Gorillas installed a military dictatorship administered by a junta.

The junta ruled in anticipation of elections to be held the following year, 1963. However, within the junta there was intense debate over whether to allow the elections at all or to continue a military dictatorship. In an act of extraordinary moral courage, General Juan Carlos Ongania (1914–95), one of the Gorillas, declared that the military should remove itself from government for the sake of the long-term well-being of Argentina. Ongania's recommendation was roundly ignored, however, and the Gorillas continued to govern. When elections were held in 1963, they saw to it that the Peronistas were barred from running. As they had done during the PERONIST REVOLTS of 1956–57, the Peronists cast blank ballots, but this peaceful form of protest was not the only form of agitation that accompanied the elections of 1963. Fighting broke out in the streets, and the nation seemed dangerously unstable. The result was the election as president of a compromise candidate, Arturo Umberto Illia (1900–83), who thoroughly pleased no faction. While the government was somewhat stabilized, it was essentially paralyzed, and Argentina's economy was subject to monumental inflation. The Peronista faction continued to loom as an alternative inviting to many.

See also ARGENTINE "DIRTY WAR"; ARGENTINE REVOLT (1951).

Further reading: Robert D. Crassweller, *Perón and the Enigmas of Argentina* (New York: Norton, 1988); James W. McGuire, *Peronism without Perón: Unions, Parties and Democracy in Argentina* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1999).

Argentine War of Independence (1806–1816)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Argentine Royalists (including Spanish regulars) vs. Nationalists (with aid from Great Britain, and France) and Argentina

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Buenos Aires, Montevideo, and the Río de la Plata areas
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In the chaos created by the Napoleonic Wars in Europe, Great Britain, cut off from its customary trade in South America, invaded Spanish Argentina, which, led by liberal revolutionaries, broke from French-controlled Spain, which led in turn to much internal struggle.
OUTCOME: Argentina became independent of Spain in 1816.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Royalists, 7,500; Nationalists, 6,000
CASUALTIES: Royalists, 4,000 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner; Nationalists, 1,200 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner.
TREATIES: None

The impact of the NAPOLEONIC WARS was felt outside Europe most spectacularly in Latin America. Napoleon's 1808 invasion of Iberia led to a destabilization of the mother country that ultimately cost Spain all its holdings in the New World, for when Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) placed his brother Joseph (1768–1844) on the Spanish throne, he dealt Spanish-speaking republicans in Central and South America a winning hand. All Creole society united in its opposition to the despised Joseph, and—at first shouting "Long Live King Ferdinand!"—mobs drove French emissaries out of capitals across the lower half of the Western Hemisphere. Then Spanish officialdom itself came under attack. For a year Spanish viceroys clung to power, but in 1810 Latin America's Creole population as a whole, acting in remarkable unanimity, arose in a huge spasm of republican anger and desposed their already powerless rulers. The rebellions struck almost every Latin province in the New World but Peru.

In Argentina rebellion began when Great Britain, cut off from its erstwhile trading partners by Napoleon's European boycott, in 1806 sent an expedition to the Río de la Plata between Argentina and Uruguay and attempted to grab pieces of the surrounding territory. The Spanish colony's militia took up arms and, under the command of Santiago de Liniers (1756–1810), repelled the British invaders from Buenos Aires. But before Liniers was able to force the British out of the Río de la Plata region, a larger expedition of some 8,000 arrived in 1807 to seize both Buenos Aires and Montevideo.

When news of Napoleon's advance into Spain (*see* PENINSULAR WAR) and his deposing of King Ferdinand VII (1784–1833) reached Buenos Aires, colonial liberals, encouraged by the British, removed the Spanish viceroy and replaced him with a provisional junta that included Cornelio Saavedra (1760–1828), Mariano Moreno (1778–1811), and Manuel Belgrano (1770–1820). Setting up the United Provinces of the Río de la Plata, they exiled royal officials and eased trade restrictions, all the while feigning loyalty to the true Spanish Crown. Meanwhile, back in Europe the liberals in the Cortes, Spain's traditionally weak parliament, were playing much the same game, leading the resistance against the French in the old king's name and promulgating reforms during the political chaos created by Napoleon's invasion.

The Río de la Plata junta invited the former Spanish provinces under the same viceroyalty as themselves—Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia—to join their cause but had no success, and the revolutionaries fell to fighting internally. By September 1811 a triumvirate had replaced the junta. The following year Spain itself established a representative government under the liberal Spanish Constitution of 1812. Provincial legislatures and town councils cropped up everywhere in both the mother country and the empire.

Belgrano sought to capitalize on the increasing weakness of Spain's central authority by mounting an all-out campaign to drive the Spanish out of Argentina altogether. In 1812 he led 1,000 citizens of Buenos Aires together with some 800 gauchos in blocking a Royalist invasion from Peru. This accomplished, he won a substantial victory against some 3,000 Royalists at Tucumán on September 24, 1812. The Royalists lost 450 killed and 687 prisoners, whereas Belgrano's forces suffered the loss of 80 killed and 200 wounded. He fought next at Salta on February 20, 1813, killing 481 of the Royalist's 3,400-man force; 114 were wounded and a spectacular 2,776 were taken prisoner. Belgrano's losses were 103 killed and 433 wounded of 3,700 men engaged.

Unfortunately for Belgrano, his attempt later in 1813 to invade upper Peru ended in the rout of his army at Vilcapugio on October 1. Of 3,500 troops, a mere 500 escaped death, wounding, or capture. On November 26, 1813, Belgrano again suffered defeat, at Ayohuma, losing 300 killed, 200 wounded, and 600 captured of 2,832 men engaged. Nevertheless, the independence movement was firmly launched in Argentina, as in the rest of South America, and the Spanish presence was simply worn down by 1816, when an Argentine congress at Tucumán declared the country independent and adopted a constitution.

As the world witnessed the beginnings of the great Central and South American liberations led by such men as José de San Martín (1778–1850), Simón Bolívar (1783–1830), and Bernardo O'Higgins (1778–1842) (*see* COLOMBIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; PERUVIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; VENEZUELAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE), Juan Martín de Pueyrredón (1776–1850) took power in Argentina as supreme dictator (July 9, 1816), heading up an Argentine legislature drawn from Buenos Aires and nearby provinces.

See also CHILEAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; PARAGUAYAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; URUGUAYAN REVOLT.

Further reading: Robert Harvey, *Liberators: Latin America's Struggle for Independence 1810–1830* (New York: Overlook Press, 2000); Daniel K. Lewis, *The History of Argentina* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003).

Argive War (494 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Argos vs. Sparta
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sepeia in the Peloponnese
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sparta, a rising power in Greece, sought to destroy its major rival, Argos, after two centuries or intermittent conflict.
OUTCOME: The Spartans defeated the Argives at Sepeia and became the dominant power in the Peloponnese, setting up four decades of conflict with newly democratic Athens.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

By the fifth century B.C.E. Argos held sway on the Peloponnese, its only serious rival at this point Sparta. The Spartan king, Cleomenes I (d. 490 B.C.E.), presiding over a period of general Spartan expansion, decided to challenge Argive hegemony in the Peloponnese. In 494 Cleomenes mounted an attack in the mountainous region of Sepeia, employing an unspecified ruse that succeeded in achieving total surprise. The Argive troops were in camp dining when the attackers descended on them. The outcome was a complete rout of the Argive army, and King Cleomenes went on to take the city of Argos. The newly established dominance of Sparta in the Peloponnese brought that city-state into direct conflict with Athens and set the stage for the First PELOPONNESE WAR and the even more destructive Second (Great) PELOPONNESE WAR.

Further reading: William George Grieve Forrest, *A History of Sparta, 950–192 B.C.* (New York: Norton, 1969); Thomas Kelly, *A History of Argos to 500 B.C.* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1977).

Arikara War (1823)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Arikara and Blackfeet vs. the U.S. Army, trappers working for the Rocky Mountain Fur Company, and Sioux
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Missouri River in the Dakotas
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Arikara, worried by the erosion of their role in the fur trade and hostile over the protection white traders afforded the Sioux, attacked a group of traders after one of them had been caught and killed for slipping into the Arikara camp to visit a young Indian woman; Colonel Henry Leavenworth mounted a punitive expedition against the Arikara and the Blackfeet, who had meanwhile ambushed some trappers.
OUTCOME: Leavenworth's forces pounded the Arikara villages into submission, but the Indians then slipped away and continued to raid, effectively closing the Upper Missouri to the fur trade.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 233 soldiers; 800 Sioux allies; 120 trappers. Arikara: Numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: 18 trappers, 11 soldiers, and 2 Sioux killed; Arikara losses unknown
TREATIES: None

In the spring of 1822, Andrew Henry (1775–1832), fur trader and lieutenant governor of Missouri, and his partner, William Ashley (1778–1838), built a fort at the mouth of the Yellowstone. On May 30 of the next year, the fur traders arrived at two Arikara Indian villages near the present-day North and South Dakota state line. The villages, which consisted of earthen houses contained within palisaded walls and ditches, were fortresses. Hostile for decades to white encroachment on their role in the fur trade, the tribe was especially incensed over recent protection afforded their ancient enemies, the Sioux, by white traders. Yet they were willing to sell badly needed horses to the Ashley party, and Jedediah Strong Smith (1798–1831) was dispatched with a party of 40 men to camp near one of the villages and negotiate the purchases. The first day he was successful, buying some 20 mounts.

The night that followed was stormy, but despite the weather one of Smith's men ventured into one of the Arikara villages seeking female companionship. Somehow, this provoked the Arikaras to attack the traders on June 2, 1823. A total of 14 of Smith's men died, and nine were wounded, including the famed trapper Hugh Glass (d. 1833). The French Canadian in charge of Ashley's keelboat refused to risk a rescue attempt. Some men got away in smaller boats. Some swam for it.

Colonel Henry Leavenworth (1783–1834), commander of Fort Atkinson, retaliated on June 22, 1823, setting out with six companies of infantry and an artillery detachment: 223 soldiers, joined by some 800 Sioux allies and 120 trappers. When the column reached the Arikara villages, the Sioux engaged the Arikaras first, killing 13 (two Sioux died). Leavenworth positioned his forces around the villages but declined to attack until his artillery could be brought to bear. The colonel exhausted his ammunition on the earthen towns, delayed attacking with the balance of his forces, and was deserted by his Sioux allies—from whom he now feared attack from the rear. He therefore opened negotiations with the Arikaras, who promised to return horses they had stolen from Ashley and to fight no more. That night, the Arikaras slipped out of the two villages. They did not return the horses. In the first punitive expedition against a Plains Indian tribe, Leavenworth had not only been humiliated, but, by failing to control the Arikaras, had lost the traditional river routes into the wilderness.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall Reference, 1993); LeRoy R. Hafen, ed., *Fur Traders, Trappers, and Mountain Men of the Upper Missouri* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1995).

Arjuna and Wang Xuanzi, War between

See SINO-INDIAN WAR.

Armageddon *See* MEGIDDO, SECOND BATTLE OF.

Armagnac-Burgundian Civil War (1411–1413)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The House of Burgundy vs. the House of Orleans and the count of Armagnac
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paris, France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At issue was the control of France; Burgundy and Orléans, the latter led by the duke of Armagnac, vied for the regency of Charles VI when he intermittently fell mad.
OUTCOME: After years of feuding, Orléans gained the regency for itself.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Charles VI (1368–1422) ascended to the Capetian throne of France in 1380, he had yet to reach his majority and remained under the tutelage of his uncles, who created an administrative Council of Twelve to rule France. From 1382 until 1388, when Charles declared he would rule alone, the council was headed by the powerful duke of Burgundy, Philip the Bold (1342–1404). After 1388 the duke expected to continue as top adviser to the king, but Charles, displeased with Philip's conduct during his minority, rebuffed the duke and instead named his brother, Louis, duke of Orléans (1372–1407), to the post. The appointment ignited the smoldering feud between the Houses of Orléans and Burgundy. The feud suddenly became significant when Charles began to suffer from severe bouts of insanity.

After Charles became incapacitated for an extended period in 1392, Philip the Bold, still the regent by law of succession, replaced Louis of Orléans. Philip's regency would continue off and on for the next 12 years as Charles intermittently waxed lucid or waned mad, and Philip became virtual ruler of France. Philip died in 1404 and was succeeded as duke of Burgundy by John the Fearless (1371–1419). Feuding between the two families continued as an acid personal rivalry between John and Louis arose, each currying the favor of the queen, Isabella of Bavaria (1371–1435). When it seemed that Louis had won over the queen, John denounced both of them and appealed to the citizens of Paris, calling for reform and honest government. However, John secretly had other plans. On the evening of November 23, 1407, Louis was returning from a visit with the queen when he was set upon by a band of men and beaten to death. Within a few days John confessed to ordering Louis's assassination.

Louis was succeeded as duke of Orléans by Charles (1391–1465), the son-in-law of Bernard VII, count of Armagnac (d. 1418). As patriarch, Bernard assumed the leadership of the Orléans—now the Armagnac—faction. Hostilities lay just below the surface for several years until 1411, when the Burgundians began courting English support, which infuriated the Armagnacs. There followed in the course of the next two years what amounted to a bitter, unadjudicated fratricide. What had long been a series of minor conflicts flared into open warfare and culminated in a few pitched battles, in which each house vied for control of France. The Burgundians aligned themselves with the Cabochiens, members of a loose trade union seeking industrial reform, and their support initially turned the tide against the Armagnacs. However, when the CABOCHIEN REVOLT turned brutal and a reign of terror stalked the streets of Paris, public support turned sharply against the Burgundians. John lost all favor at court and was ousted in 1413, leaving Charles of Orléans and Bernard Armagnac in possession of the regency as Charles VI again became incapacitated.

Further reading: R. C. Famiglietti, *Royal Intrigue: Crisis at the Court of Charles VI, 1392–1420* (New York: AMS, 1987).

Armenian Massacres (1894–1897)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ottoman government vs. Armenian minority
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Armenia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Attempt to crush an Armenian nationalist movement.
OUTCOME: Tens of thousands were killed, and the nationalist movement was temporarily suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 50,000–100,000 Armenians
TREATIES: None

Toward the end of the 19th century, the Armenians lived as subjects of the Ottoman Empire. As a Christian minority of some 2.5 million in the midst of an Islamic state, they were

routinely persecuted by their Ottoman overlords. In the 1880s a revolutionary socialist party, the Hunchak ("The Bell"), rose up among the Armenians, followed by an even more radical nationalist faction, the Dashnaktsutium ("Armenian Revolutionary Federation"). Fearing that he was losing his grip on the Armenians, Ottoman sultan Abdul Hamid II (1842–1918) launched a series of pogroms against the Armenians of the empire beginning in 1894.

The first action took place in Sasun, where Armenian protesters had assembled to demonstrate against oppressive taxation. Acting in concert with Kurdish tribesmen, Turkish police waded into the protestors and commenced a slaughter. This triggered a protest in the Ottoman capital of Istanbul, which resulted in a 10-day siege of terror against the Armenian quarter of the city. Hundreds were clubbed to death, and the violence soon spread throughout eastern Turkey. Trebizond and 13 other cities were swept with a wave of unprecedented violence in which more than 14,000 Armenians perished at the hands of the Turkish army acting with Islamic extremists.

In December 1895 at Urfa, the Turkish army held the Armenian quarter under siege for two months. When Armenians sought succor in a cathedral, the army stormed the sanctuary and killed 3,000. A total of 8,000 Armenians were killed in the siege of Urfa and its aftermath. Shortly after this in Zeitun (province of Cilicia), Armenian residents rose up against the Turks, taking some 400 prisoners. It was, however, the only significant resistance to the reign of terror.

The culmination of this first period of slaughter came in August 1896 in Istanbul. During two days an Islamic mob swept through the Armenian quarter, killing 6,000. At last, the Western European powers were sufficiently horrified to threaten intervention. This brought a halt to the rampage, although anti-Armenian violence continued sporadically through 1897. Estimates of the totals killed during the 1894–97 period vary from 50,000 to twice that number.

See also ARMENIAN MASSACRES (1909); ARMENIAN MASSACRES (1915).

Further reading: Vahakn N. Dadrian, *The History of the Armenian Genocide: Ethnic Conflict from the Balkans to Anatolia to the Caucasus* (New York: Berghahn Books, 1995).

Armenian Massacres (1909)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Turkish mob and army vs. Armenian minority
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day southern Turkey
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The suppression of rebellion by the Armenians against the Ottoman Empire
OUTCOME: Tens of thousands of Armenians were killed, and, once again, the nationalist movement was temporarily suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 20,000 Armenians
TREATIES: None

The YOUNG TURKS' REVOLT during July 1908–April 1909, which resulted in the overthrow of the Ottoman sultan Abdul Hamid II (1842–1918) and his replacement by Enver Bey (1881–1922) on April 25, 1909, created general disorder and turmoil. In this climate, Armenian revolutionaries rose up in Adana and other cities and towns of the province of Cilicia. The response among locals was mob violence. Aided and encouraged by the Turkish army, Islamic extremists slaughtered some 20,000 Armenians in the province.

See also ARMENIAN MASSACRES (1894–1897); ARMENIAN MASSACRES (1915).

Further reading: Vahakn N. Dadrian, *The History of the Armenian Genocide: Ethnic Conflict from the Balkans to Anatolia to the Caucasus* (New York: Berghahn Books, 1995).

Armenian Massacres (1915)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ottoman government vs. Armenian minority
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day southern Turkey
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The suppression of rebellion by the Armenians against the Ottoman Empire
OUTCOME: Armenian genocide
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 500,000 Armenians were killed or succumbed to disease and privation.
TREATIES: None

The worst of the three periods of Armenian massacre at the hands of the Turks (*see* ARMENIAN MASSACRES [1894–1897] and ARMENIAN MASSACRES [1909]) came in 1915, during WORLD WAR I. The Ottoman government, which never had to look far for an excuse to persecute the Armenians within its realm, determined that the Armenians of eastern Anatolia presented an imminent risk of collaborating with the Russians against Turkey, which was allied with Germany. Summarily, the government ordered the deportation of 1 million Armenians.

The process of rounding up the deportees was brutal. During a three-day period, 24,000 were killed in and around Van. At Bitlis 4,500 Armenians were ordered to dig

their own graves and then were shot. At Kemakh Gorge in June 1915, as many as 10,000 Armenians were herded to the edge of the gorge and pushed to their deaths. Of those who were actually deported instead of summarily executed, as many as 500,000 died of starvation, disease, and deliberate mistreatment as they were marched to exile in Mesopotamia (modern Iraq) and Syria.

Further reading: Vahakn N. Dadrian, *The History of the Armenian Genocide: Ethnic Conflict from the Balkans to Anatolia to the Caucasus* (New York: Berghahn Books, 1995); G. S. Graber, *Caravans to Oblivion: The Armenian Genocide, 1915* (New York: Wiley, 1996).

Armenian-Roman Wars

See ROMAN-ARMENIAN WAR (93–92 B.C.E.); ROMAN-ARMENIAN WAR (72–66 B.C.E.).

Aroostook War (1838–1839)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Farmers of the U.S. state of Maine vs. loggers of the British-Canadian province of New Brunswick
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aroostook River valley on the United States-Canadian border
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The 1783 Treaty of Paris failed to demarcate the United States-Canadian border, and thus both countries claimed the fertile, lumber-rich lands.
OUTCOME: After bloodless clashes and demonstrations of military bluster by both sides, the dispute was settled by negotiations.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The state of Maine rallied 10,000 volunteers; the U.S. Congress voted 50,000 troops to the cause; totals for the British-Canadian forces are unknown.
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: Webster-Ashburton Treaty of 1842

Conflict between the American Colonies and Britain (*see* AMERICAN REVOLUTION: COASTAL THEATER and AMERICAN REVOLUTION: FRONTIER THEATER) ended with the Treaty of Paris in 1783. The terms of the treaty, however, failed to demarcate the exact location of the north-south boundary between the U.S. state of Maine and the British-Canadian province of New Brunswick. The lands in question incorporated the lush Aroostook River valley, ideal for agriculture and rich with timber. For 30 years following the American Revolution, United States and British officials attempted to negotiate a settlement, but neither side was satisfied with the results. In 1831 the matter was placed before the king of the Netherlands for mediation. His decision so angered the citizens of Maine that the U.S. Congress was forced to reject the king's solution.

As the officials sought a compromise for the dispute, New England farmers and Canadian loggers moved into the Aroostook valley. Each group challenged the other, and before long both were making arrests of "trespassers." In March 1839 British troops from Quebec marched into Madawaska in the American sector. The Maine legislature immediately voted to free $800,000 in funds and called for 10,000 volunteers to defend the valley. The U.S. Congress appropriated $10,000,000 and allocated 50,000 troops for the cause. U.S. president Martin Van Buren (1782–1862) sent General Winfield Scott (1786–1866) to Augusta, Maine, to keep the peace. Scott successfully negotiated a truce with Sir John Harvey (1778–1852) on March 21, 1839, and a joint occupation of the contested 12,000 square miles until a settlement could be reached. In 1842 the Webster-Ashburton Treaty fixed the border to the satisfaction of both sides.

Further reading: Howard Jones, *To the Webster-Ashburton Treaty: A Study in Anglo-American Relations, 1783–1843* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1977).

Arrabal, Revolt of the (Revolt of the Suburb) (818)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebellious residents of a Córdoban *arrabal* vs. forces of Emir al-Hakam I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Córdoba and environs, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Residents of the Córdoban *arrabal* sought the overthrow of Emir al-Hakam I.
OUTCOME: The forces of Hakam I not only fended off an attack on the royal palace, but made extravagant reprisals against the Córdoban *arrabal*.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: In addition to the palace attackers, 300 residents of the Córdoban *arrabal* were killed; 60,000 residents were expelled from Spain.
TREATIES: None

Arrabal is the Spanish word for suburb, and this conflict is also known as the Revolt of the Suburb, the suburb in question being a settlement outside Córdoba, Spain. The origin of the revolt can be traced to 805, when the people of Córdoba rose against the Ummayyad emir of the city, al-Hakam I (d. 822). Hakam quickly suppressed the uprising, then took steps to ensure that it would not be renewed. He levied heavy taxes on Córdoba in the belief that this would effectively hobble the people. Predictably, however, the oppressive taxes served only to revive popular sentiment against him. In 818 residents of one of the suburbs outside Córdoba proper stormed the palace of the emir. The attack proved tragically fruitless, as palace guards not only repulsed the mob but slaughtered it.

In what came next, it is not clear whether the emir gave the order or whether the palace guards acted on their own. The guards fanned out into the *arrabal* and arrested some 300 of the most prominent residents. These individuals were crucified and left to hang as an example to others. Next, the guards pillaged the *arrabal,* rounding up virtually all inhabitants, some 60,000 people. They were banished from Spain. (Most settled in North Africa and took up outlaw lives as pirates.)

Further reading: Anwar G. Chejne, *Muslim Spain: Its History and Culture* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1974); Reinhart Dozy, *Spanish Islam: A History of the Moslems in Spain* (London: Frank Cass, 1972); W. Duncan Townson, *Muslim Spain* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1973).

Arundel's Rebellion (1549)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Humphrey Arundel vs. English Crown
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cornwall, England
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Violent peasant protest against religious and economic policies enacted by King Henry VIII
OUTCOME: Rebellion was crushed and Arundel was executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebel forces, 6,000; Royal forces, 8,000
CASUALTIES: At Farrington Bridge (July 27, 1549) 300 killed (including rebels and Crown forces); at Exeter, 1,000 rebels killed; at Stamford Courtney, 700 rebels killed
TREATIES: None

Cornish land baron Humphrey Arundel (1513–50) was so outraged by the economic policies of King Henry VIII (1491–1547) that he joined—and soon became leader of—a peasant revolt against the Crown. On July 27, 1549, his Cornish rebel force attacked royal troops at Farrington Bridge. Casualties were heavy on both sides—some 300 died—and the rebels were forced to retreat.

Arundel regrouped and recruited more than 6,000 volunteers from the countryside. With this force he laid siege against the fortified town of Exeter. On August 4, Lord John Russell, earl of Bedfordshire (1486–1555) and his royal troops, en route to relieve Exeter, were ambushed by rebel forces at St. Mary's Clyst. However, Russell's men easily outmatched the poorly organized and untrained peasants. More than a thousand Cornish rebels died, and Arundel was forced to lift his siege.

On August 17 Arundel returned for a final confrontation with the royalists at the battle of Samford Courtney. Arundel suffered a defeat that crushed the peasant movement: 700 Cornishmen died, including most of the rebellion's leaders. Arundel fled to Launceston, where he was promptly arrested and executed the next year.

See also ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1542–1549).

Further reading: Diarmaid MacCulloch, ed., *The Reign of Henry VIII: Politics, Policy and Piety* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1995); Jasper Ridley, *Henry VIII: The Politics of Tyranny* (New York: Viking, 1985); Derek A. Wilson, *In the Lion's Court: Power, Ambition, and Sudden Death in the Reign of Henry VIII* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2002).

Aryan Invasions (c. 2000 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Indo-Europeans vs. the Dravidians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Indus River valley
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Territorial conquest by the expanding Indo-Europeans
OUTCOME: Indo-Europeans established domination in the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No formal treaty

There is little known of the actual conflicts between the invading Aryans and the native Dravidians of the Indus River valley in today's Pakistan, but they are generally considered the beginning of military history in India/Pakistan and southern Asia. The Aryans, a name that meant "noble of birth and race," migrated from their ancestral home on the Eurasian steppes, crossing the Hindu Kush east of the Iranian Plateau. Travelling in tribal groups of varying sizes over a period of hundreds of years, they settled in the land they called "Sapta Sindhu," or the "land of the seven rivers," in which they found lush plains for their pastoral lifestyle. They conquered not by barbarity but by overwhelming the indigenous tribes with their sophisticated battle tactics and their swift, spoke-wheeled chariots, battle equipment never before used in the Indus valley.

At first the Aryans had no written language. They relied on the spoken word alone to preserve their elaborate system of spiritual ideas, transmitted in a body of poetry (later collected in the Rig Veda) that eventually defined the character of the subcontinent. Mingling their own oral traditions with ideas from the native populations, the fusion of the two produced Sanskrit, the enduring language of India. The Aryans' spiritual ideas blended with the beliefs of the indigenous people and evolved into Hinduism, a religion that has survived some 4,000 years.

Further reading: Jean Haudry, *The Indo-Europeans* (Washington, D.C.: Scot-Townsend Publishers, 1998); Shrikant G. Talageri, *Aryan Invasion Theory (A Reappraisal)* (Columbia, Mo.: South Asia Books, 1993); N. R. Waradpande, ed., *Mythical Aryans and Their Invasion* (Columbia, Mo.: South Asia Books, 1999).

Asens' Uprising (1185–1189)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgars and Vlachs vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace and Macedonia
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Bulgars sought independence from the Byzantine Empire.
OUTCOME: Bulgaria won its freedom in a tenuous independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: A truce was agreed to in 1189.

Late in the 12th century the Byzantine Empire controlled most of southeastern Europe, a situation many, trapped by the Byzantine juggernaut, found odious. In 1185 two brothers, lords from Turnovo, rose up in Bulgaria to throw off the Byzantine yoke and establish an independent state. After attracting a substantial following of both Bulgars and Vlachs, John (d. 1196) and Peter Asen (d. 1197) boldly declared Bulgaria independent, and John was crowned King John Asen I at Turnovo in the fall of 1185. The Byzantine emperor, Isaac II Angelus (d. 1204), quickly led his army into Bulgaria and crushed the rebels in 1186.

Thinking he had successfully stamped out the insurrection, Isaac returned to Constantinople. However, the Asens had fled to the Cumans, a clan of nomadic Turks, and successfully gained their support. With the aid of the Cumans, the Asens launched devastating guerrilla incursions into the border region of Thrace and Macedonia. Isaac led his army back into the field but was unable to stop, much less defeat, the raiders. Meanwhile, the Asens continued to curry support in Europe by appealing for help against the infidel to Frederick Barbarossa (c. 1123–90) and the other leaders of the Third CRUSADE. Their solicitations, however, yielded no results, and they continued to fight aided only by the Cumans.

Finally, Isaac was able to draw the Bulgars into open battle at Berrhoe in 1189—much to his regret, as it turned out. Isaac and the Byzantines were soundly defeated, and the ensuing truce granted limited autonomy to a Bulgarian state between the Balkan mountain range and the Danube River. Bulgarian independence remained tenuous, especially after Isaac again led an army into the region, this time successfully defeating the Bulgarians at the Battle of Arcadiopolis in 1194. When Isaac proved unable to consolidate his victory, however, the Bulgarians were able to hang on to their hard-won freedom.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (1261–1265).

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *The Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2003); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee* (New York: Knopf, 1992).

Ashanti, Rise of the (1600–1800)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ashantis vs. various other African kingdoms
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Ghana
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In the 18th century the Ashantis established a West African empire.
OUTCOME: Maintaining its expansion through active slave trade and the mining of gold, the Ashanti state grew rich and powerful enough to threaten the interests of British colonizers.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Ashanti were part of the Akan peoples who, in various tribal groupings, migrated around 1600 from the region of modern Ghana to settle in the jungle region west of the Volta and form a loose confederation for defensive purposes. During the following century they gradually expanded and increased their power in the Volta basin and farther west, coming into contact inland with nomadic tribes and along the coast with Europeans. In the 18th century the Ashanti developed a highly efficient and resilient empire in West Africa around today's southern Ghana that endured four major struggles against European imperial forces, mostly British, in the 19th century, only to be annexed by the British in the early 20th century (*see* ASHANTI WAR, FIRST; ASHANTI WAR, SECOND; ASHANTI WAR, THIRD; ASHANTI WAR, FOURTH).

In the 17th century the slave trade began to ruin the traditional society and power structures of the coastal regions of West Africa. The tribes of the so-called Gold Coast grew fatally weak under the impact of European trade, but the inland peoples were less affected, although they, too, participated in the slave raiding and thus experienced the inherent instability the trade brought with it—interminable warfare, mismatches in arms and wealth, loss of traditional social mores, and the like. By mid-century not only were the inland tribes selling their captives to the

Portuguese and Dutch on the coast but also to Arab slave traders from across the Sahara. The Arabs brought with them the Islamic religion, and it generally spread along the territory bordering the desert on the southwest.

Before the late 1600s the Ashanti had been vassals of the state of Denkyera, but the last decade of the century saw the rise of a new Ashanti king. Osei Tutu was an able leader, skilled in war, who began a struggle that by 1697 led to his conquest of the suzerain state and its surrounding areas. Tutu created the Ashanti Confederacy, which he ruled until 1731. Tutu established the capital city at Kumasi where the *sika dwa* (golden stool), which came to symbolize the wealth of Ashanti, was displayed. Much of the Ashanti wealth came from an active slave trade with Portuguese and Dutch traders on the coast. In return for slaves, the Europeans gave the Ashanti weapons to support their expansion and to maintain the Ashanti's ownership of the area's gold mines.

Ultimately, Osei Tutu was defeated and killed by the neighboring Akim people, and a period of disarray swept through the kingdom. His death was soon avenged by Opoku Ware, who became Ashanti ruler in 1731 and restored the kingdom. Beginning in 1752, with the reign of a warrior leader named Osei Kojo, the Ashanti dominions expanded in all directions. Of all the many tribal groupings in the jungle region, the Ashanti continued to conquer until by the end of the century they had stretched their empire into the open uplands of the middle Volta region and farther west, also approaching the Ivory and Gold Coasts, where France and Britain had been engaging in raids and counterraids that reflected various European wars. The homegrown and the foreign empires were face-to-face at the turn of the 19th century.

See also ASHANTI UPRISING.

Further reading: Edward W. Said, *Culture and Imperialism* (New York: Vintage, 1994); Carol Thompson, *The Asante Kingdom* (New York: Franklin Watts, 1999).

Ashanti Uprising (1900)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ashanti vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day Ghana
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After two centuries of war and four defeats at the hands of British colonial forces, the Ashanti staged a final uprising and besieged their former capital of Kumasi.
OUTCOME: British troops crushed the rebellion and pacified the Ashanti.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ashanti, 5,000; British regulars and native infantry, 2,956
CASUALTIES: Ashanti losses, unknown; Anglo-African losses, 150 killed, 800 wounded
TREATIES: None

At the turn of the 19th century during the height of the New Imperialism, Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, and Portugal were engaged in almost continuous fighting with the peoples of Africa to stabilize, pacify, and enforce their colonial empires in Africa. Such operations were generally successful, since the Europeans were heavily arming themselves and beefing up their militaries for a major war they all knew was coming in Europe itself. One challenge came to the British from the Ashanti, who had once ruled a large empire in West Africa but whose confederacy had been bled dry and ultimately dissolved by four colonial wars stretching across the entire 19th century (*see* ASHANTI, RISE OF THE; ASHANTI WAR, FIRST; ASHANTI WAR, SECOND; ASHANTI WAR, THIRD; ASHANTI WAR, FOURTH). From March through November of 1900 the Ashanti, under the leadership of Queen Yaa Asantewa (d. 1921), besieged Kumasi, which had been the capital of their union before the British (having burned it to the ground in a previous war) occupied it at the end of the last Ashanti War, and demanded the return of their exiled leaders. The uprising was ultimately suppressed by British troops and the Ashanti finally pacified.

Further reading: Robert B. Edgerton, *The Fall of the Asante Empire: The Hundred-Year War for Africa's Gold Coast* (New York: Free Press, 1995); Edward W. Said, *Culture and Imperialism* (New York: Vintage, 1994).

Ashanti War, First (1824–1831)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ashanti Union vs. Great Britain (with Fulani and other tribal allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gold Coast of Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ashanti Union had expanded its dominion to the Gold Coast, where Ashanti raids threatened British outposts and coastal tribes under British protection.
OUTCOME: The Ashantis were defeated and gave up their claims to various portions of the Gold Coast.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ashanti, 100,000; Britain and allies, 11,000
CASUALTIES: Ashanti, 5,000 killed; Britain and allies, 1,359 killed
TREATIES: Ashanti renounced the Gold Coast, 1831.

Armed with guns from Portuguese and Dutch slave traders, the Ashanti had established a large confederated kingdom in West Africa during the 17th century (*see* ASHANTI, RISE OF THE). In the early 1800s the confederation began expanding its territory again, moving toward the adjacent Gold Coast, one of the imperial enclaves of the British in Africa. In 1806 and 1807, under their king, Osei Bonsu (1780–1824), the Ashanti extended their dominions to the coast itself. Four years later, in 1811, Britain abolished the slave trade throughout its empire. But the slave trade had

helped make the Ashanti rich and powerful, and they continued their raids and their wars of conquest. Sir Charles M'Carthy (1770–1824), colonial governor of the British posts that dotted the Gold Coast, tried his best to defend the posts and to protect British settlers and coastal tribes from Ashanti war parties and slaving expeditions. When the colonial forces were defeated, and Governor M'Carthy killed in 1824, London sent reinforcements. In this way, the First Ashanti War began in earnest.

Most of the initial wave of reinforcements succumbed to disease, but a force of 11,000, mostly Fulani tribesmen under British command, defeated 10,000 Ashanti at the Battle of Katamanso on August 7, 1826. A total of 800 Fulani died, and 1,000 were wounded in the Afro-British unit, but 5,000 of the Ashanti fell, including 70 generals or princes. The defeat effectively ended Ashanti claims to suzerainty over the Gold Coast, although it was 1831 before the tribe formally renounced those claims.

See also ASHANTI UPRISING; ASHANTI WAR, SECOND; ASHANTI WAR, THIRD; ASHANTI WAR, FOURTH.

Further reading: Robert B. Edgerton, *The Fall of the Asante Empire: The Hundred-Year War for Africa's Gold Coast* (New York: Free Press, 1995); Edward W. Said, *Culture and Imperialism* (New York: Vintage, 1994).

Ashanti War, Second (1873–1874)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ashanti Union vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gold Coast of Africa and southern Ghana
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After a decade of raiding the British Gold Coast, the Ashanti invaded when the British continued to expand their empire in the region.
OUTCOME: The Ashanti were defeated, their capital was burned, and they were forced to pay a huge indemnity in return for British withdrawal from their homelands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ashanti: 60,000; Britain and native auxilliaries, 3,587
CASUALTIES: Ashanti, more than 3,000 killed; Anglo-African forces, 75 killed or died of disease
TREATIES: Treaty of Fomena, 1874

In January 1873 some 60,000 Ashanti warriors suddenly invaded the Gold Coast, suzerainty over which the Ashanti had renounced in 1831 after the First ASHANTI WAR. The invaders attacked a British coastal fortress at Elmina in October but were repulsed with the loss of about 1,000 warriors. Sir Garnet Wolseley (1833–1913), the British commander in the region, mounted a counteroffensive with 2,587 British troops and 1,000 African auxiliaries. He invaded Ashanti territory, forcing a battle at Amoafo on January 31, 1874. A mere 1,500 British and 700 African troops defeated 10,000 Ashanti there. Wolseley's losses were minimal—18 killed (another 55 succumbed to disease) and 394 wounded—whereas more than 1,000 Ashanti died or were wounded. King Kofi Kakari (r. 1867–74) agreed to the Treaty of Fomena in 1874, ending the war. In 1896 the Ashanti kingdom was annexed by the British.

See also ASHANTI, RISE OF THE; ASHANTI UPRISING; ASHANTI WAR, THIRD; ASHANTI WAR, FOURTH.

Further reading: H. Brackenbury, *Ashanti War, 1874* (London: Frank Cass, 2001); Joseph Emmanuel Condua-Harley, *Sagrenti War: An Illustrated History of the Ashanti Campaign, 1873–1874* (Privately printed, 1974); Robert B. Edgerton, *The Fall of the Asante Empire: The Hundred-Year War for Africa's Gold Coast* (New York: Free Press, 1995); Edward W. Said, *Culture and Imperialism* (New York: Vintage, 1994).

Ashanti War, Third (1893–1894)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ashanti Union vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Africa's Gold Coast (present-day Ghana)
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When a new Ashanti leader renewed the raids on British holdings along Africa's Gold Coast, the British tried to force a protectorate on the Ashanti Union.
OUTCOME: After the Ashanti were defeated in the field, they were forced to pay an indemnity and accept the British protectorate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Acceptance of British protectorate, 1894

About 20 years after the Second ASHANTI WAR, a new ruler, King Prempeh I (1871–1931), had taken power in the West African confederacy and began, once again, to send raiding parties into the British-controlled territory along Africa's Gold Coast. Bloody skirmishes took place between Prempeh's forces and British regulars beginning in 1893, the same year Prempeh refused to sign a new treaty the British tried to force on him, thus rejecting outright the proposed British protectorate over the Ashanti Union's tribal lands. As the tide of war turned against them in 1894, the Ashanti reluctantly accepted a British protectorate in the region and agreed to pay an indemnity for their raiding.

See also ASHANTI, RISE OF THE; ASHANTI UPRISING; ASHANTI WAR, FIRST; ASHANTI WAR, FOURTH.

Further reading: Robert B. Edgerton, *The Fall of the Asante Empire: The Hundred-Year War for Africa's Gold Coast* (New York: Free Press, 1995); Edward W. Said, *Culture and Imperialism* (New York: Vintage, 1994).

Ashanti War, Fourth (1895–1896)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ashanti Union vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day Ghana
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When the Ashanti refused to abide by the terms that ended the Third Ashanti War, war broke out with Great Britain once again.
OUTCOME: The Ashanti were defeated, their capital taken, their leaders exiled, and their union dissolved.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Nana Prempeh I (1871–1931), the Ashanti king, loathed the British protectorate imposed on the Ashanti Union after the Third ASHANTI WAR. He refused both to respect the rights of British colonials along the Gold Coast and to pay the indemnity the British had demanded at the close of the war. Within a year war had broken out again. This time, the British pushed inland and took Kumasi, the Ashanti capital they had captured and razed once before in 1874 during the Second ASHANTI WAR. They also captured and deported Prempeh and the other principal Ashanti leaders to the Seychelles Islands, dissolved the Ashanti Union, and firmly established their protectorate.

See also ASHANTI, RISE OF THE; ASHANTI UPRISING; ASHANTI WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: Robert S. Baden-Powell, *Downfall of the Prempeh: A Diary of Life with the Native Levy in Ashanti, 1895–96* (New York: Ayer, 1972); Robert B. Edgerton, *The Fall of the Asante Empire: The Hundred-Year War for Africa's Gold Coast* (New York: Free Press, 1995); Edward W. Said, *Culture and Imperialism* (New York: Vintage, 1994).

Assyria, Fall of (616–612 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Babylonia, Media, and the Scythians vs. Assyria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Most of the present-day Middle East
DECLARATION: None known
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebellions leading to the wars that destroyed Assyria began with a war for succession to the Assyrian throne between twin brothers; vassal states fought for their freedom from Assyrian rule, then to destroy Assyria itself; and Assyria fought at first to put down the revolts, then for its survival.
OUTCOME: The Assyrian Empire vanished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Assyrian Empire, which began around 3000 B.C.E., had disappeared from history by 612 B.C.E. Once the most dominant and feared power in the Middle East, the empire self-destructed in a crippling civil war that prompted Assyria's adversaries to unite and destroy the weakened empire.

During the reign of Assyria's last great king, Ashurbanipal (668–627 B.C.E.), his twin sons, Ashur-etel-ilani and Sin-shar-ishkin, fought over succession. The struggle began as a low-key affair during Ashurbanipal's lifetime when he announced that Ashur-etel-ilani was the legitimate heir, but after Ashurbanipal's death, it erupted into the open with immediate and dire consequences.

Though Ashur-etel-ilani ascended to the throne in 625, his brother declared himself counter king and split the kingdom. Numerous Assyrian vassal states rebelled: In southern Babylonia, Nabopolassar (fl. 625–605), leader of the Chaldeans, took advantage of the situation and drove the Assyrians out of Uruk, proclaiming himself king of Babylon (*see* BABYLONIAN REVOLT) and launching the Neo-Babylonian Empire (626–539); Palestine seceded from the empire; the Phoenicians staged an uprising; and Media united under King Cyaxares (d. 585 B.C.E.) and broke free from Assyrian rule.

Within a year, Ashur-etel-ilani was dead, and Assyria was in rapid decay. His brother gained the throne, but he, too, was quickly deposed by Ashur-etel-ilani's son Sin-shar-ishkun. With Uruk, Media, Syria, and Palestine all lost, the Assyrians were placed on the defensive, fighting now not for empire but for survival. Nabopolassar and Sin-shar-ishkun fought several wars between 625 and 623, the net result of which was Assyria's expulsion from all of ancient Babylonia.

Around 616, Cyaxares of Media, like Nabopolassar trained by Assyrian generals, attacked the Assyrian capital of Nineveh. The Scythians, however, remained loyal to Assyria and prevented the Medes from destroying Nineveh. Nabopolassar, in alliance with Cyaxares, diverted Assyrian troops along the Euphrates and defeated them at Kablinu, and in 615 the Medes were able to conquer Arrapkha and, the following year, Ashur. Given their victories, Cyaxares and Nabopolassar managed to convince the Scythian leader to join their coalition, which proved fatal for Assyria.

In 612 the powerful coalition crushed the Assyrians at Nineveh and decimated the population. Sin-shar-ishkun was burned to death in his palace, and the Assyrian Empire collapsed. After 609 all record of the once-mighty Assyrian Empire and its people simply vanished.

Further reading: Robert W. Rogers, *A History of Babylonia and Assyria* (Santa Clarita, Calif.: Books for Libraries, 1971); Nigel Tallis, *Assyria at War, 1000–610 B.C.* (London: Osprey, 2002).

Assyrian Conquest of Egypt (671–661 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Assyria vs. Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Egypt
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Assyrian conquest of Egypt
OUTCOME: Assyria conquered Egypt and launched massive new building programs financed by tributes collected from the Egyptians.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

After the assassination of the Assyrian king Sennacherib (fl. 704–681) in 681—famed and feared for his destruction of Babylon in 689 B.C.E.—an imperial council appointed Essarhaddon (fl. 680–669 B.C.E.) his successor in 680. Essarhaddon commenced rebuilding Babylon and made peace with longstanding enemies in Elam and Aramaean, allowing him to focus on an invasion of Egypt.

About 674 Essarhaddon attacked the Egyptians but soon withdrew because of strategic blunders. He returned in 671, however, and conquered the capital city of Memphis, bringing about the fall of Egypt itself. The conquest brought vast quantities of tribute to Essarhaddon's coffers, collected by his agents and administrators who were spread across 22 provinces. With these funds Essarhaddon undertook massive building programs in both Babylonia and Assyria.

Egyptian resistance was never fully crushed, however, and Essarhaddon was killed in 669 as he led an attempt to quell an uprising. Essarhaddon's son Ashurbanipal (668–627) relinquished Assyrian control of Egypt in 656.

See also ASSYRIAN WARS (746–609 B.C.E.).

Further reading: Robert W. Rogers, *A History of Babylonia and Assyria* (Santa Clarita, Calif.: Books for Libraries, 1971); Nigel Tallis, *Assyria at War, 1000–610 B.C.* (London: Osprey, 2002).

Assyrian Conquest of Palestine and Syria (c. 743–733 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Assyria vs. Palestine and Syria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day Middle East
DECLARATION: None known
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Assyria was empire-building, seeking to make all other states in the region tribute-paying vassals.
OUTCOME: Palestine and Syria were thoroughly subjugated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Up until the reign of Tiglath-pileser III (fl. c. 745–727), Assyria had repeatedly invaded Syria and Palestine but lacked the administrative organization to maintain control over the regions. Tiglath-pileser developed an efficient military state, overcoming Assyria's bureaucratic shortcomings and thus creating the conditions for his empire to dominate the Middle East.

In 743 Tiglath-pileser marched into Syria and defeated a Urartu army. Poised to capture the Syrian city of Arpad, Tiglath-pileser was met with heavy resistance. For three years he laid siege to the city. In 740 Arpad capitulated, and Tiglath-pileser decimated the population, killing virtually every inhabitant. Two years later a Syrian-backed coalition in the north attacked Assyria, meeting with equally disastrous results. By 735 Tiglath-pileser was master of all Syria, forcing tribute from every Syrian province from Damascus to Anatolia.

The following year, 734 B.C.E., the Assyrians conquered Palestine. The conquest gave Tiglath-pileser control of the important Gaza coastline, which proved a key link in obtaining tribute from the leaders of southern Arabia. Behind the emperor's back, his vassal states formed a secret alliance. The plot between Damascus and Israel against Assyria was revealed, however, when the leaders of Judah, refusing to join the alliance, approached Tiglath-pileser for protection. The Assyrian king responded by crushing Israel in 733. The next year the Assyrians marched on Damascus, executed the king, and replaced him with an Assyrian puppet. Both Syria and Palestine would remain in foreign hands for the next 27 centuries.

See also ASSYRIAN WARS (746–609 B.C.E.).

Further reading: Robert W. Rogers, *A History of Babylonia and Assyria* (Santa Clarita, Calif.: Books for Libraries, 1971); Nigel Tallis, *Assyria at War, 1000–610 B.C.* (London: Osprey, 2002).

Assyrian-Hurrian Wars (c. 1350–1245 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hurrian Mitanni vs. Assyria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day Middle East
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hurrian peoples of Mitanni fought against Assyria, a vassal state of the Mitanni Empire that first won its independence then began to build an empire of its own.
OUTCOME: Ultimately, the Assyrians conquered the Hurrians and made Mitanni part of the Assyrian Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

The Hurrians, a nomadic people from eastern Anatolia, settled in Mesopotamia at the beginning of the second

millennium B.C.E. By the 15th century B.C.E. the Hurrians had been assimilated into the Mitanni Empire. At its peak, during the reign of Tushratta (fl. c. 1390–c. 1340), the Mitanni Empire stretched from the Mediterranean to the Zagros Mountains and into northern Syria. The capital city, Wassukkani, located along the banks of the Khabur River in Mesopotamia, served as a buffer between the Egyptians and the Hittites, both of whom coveted favorable relations with Mitanni rulers.

At the beginning of the 14th century B.C.E. Assyria was a semiautonomous kingdom within the Mitanni Empire, subject to Mitanni leaders, to whom Assyria paid tribute. Around 1350 the Assyrian king Ashur-uballit I (fl. c. 1365–c. 1330), with the aid of the Hittite leader Shubbiluliuma (fl. c. 1375–c. 1335), staged a revolt against his overlord Tushratta (r. 1300s). The Mitannis, caught off guard and already exhausted from war with the Hittites, were forced to acknowledge an independent Assyria and give up territory in northern Mesopotamia. The new kingdom, which Ashur-uballit named the land of Ashur, was the homeland from which Assyria's own empire was launched.

Shortly after losing Assyria, Tushratta was arrested and executed by his son Artatama. With the Hurrian-Mitanni kingdom now in disarray, Assyria and an allied neighboring state, Alshe, attacked, conquered, and divided between them the Mitanni Empire. The kingdom of Mitanni itself retained some of its autonomy for the time being owing to the relations between royal families.

Upon the death of the Assyrian king Ashur-uballit, his son Enlil-nirari (fl. c. 1328–c. 1320) began a series of wars against Babylonia and the Kassites. At Sugagi, located in the Tigris, Enlil-nirari's army met a Kassite force led by Kurigalzu (14th century B.C.E.) and crushed it, thus extending Assyrian borders even farther. Assyrian expansion, however, opened the door for trouble among the Mitanni. Mitanni king Artatama II (r. 1400s), who was friendly with the Assyrians, faced an internal coup made up of anti-Assyrian rebels. These rebels, mostly a people called the Harri, supported a pretender to the throne named Mattiuaza (fl. 1400s). Artatama persecuted the Harri, forcing them to flee to the Kassites for aid. The Kassites, still reeling from their defeat at Sugagi, were in no shape to anger Assyria and refused to come to the aid of the Harri. By then, however, the Hittite king Shubbiluliuma had seen an opportunity to establish a puppet regime in Mitanni; deciding to support the Harri rebels, he invaded Mitanni, placed Mattiuaza on the throne, and drove the Assyrians out of the kingdom.

The new Assyrian king, Arik-den-ili (fl. c. 1307–c. 1275), was too busy conquering the eastern territories of Niginti, Arnuni, and Kuti as well as the western Semitic tribes of the Sutu and Akhlamu to respond to Shubbiluliuma's gambit. It was not until his son Adad-nirari (fl. c. 1397–c. 1275) ascended to the throne that the Assyrians confronted the Mitanni situation. After conquering the Kassite king Nazimaruttash II (1308–1282) at Kar-Ishtar, Adad-nirari avenged the loss of Mitanni by defeating both Mitanni king Shattuara I (fl. c. 1300) and his Hurrian successor Wasashatta (fl. c. 1300) around 1300, victories that consolidated Assyria's Mesopotamian conquests into an empire.

Adad-narari's son Shalmanser I (fl. c. 1274–c. 1245)—one of the first practitioners of psychological warfare (it was reported that he blinded his enemies in one eye)—expanded the Assyrian borders into southern Armenia by conquering the territory of Uruatru. Under Adad-nararith (1307–1275), the last of the Hurrian strongholds in Mitanni capitulated, and Assyria began its march toward becoming the dominant power in the Middle East.

See also ASSYRIAN WARS (c. 1244–1200).

Further reading: Robert W. Rogers, *A History of Babylonia and Assyria* (Santa Clarita, Calif.: Books for Libraries, 1971).

Assyrian Wars (c. 1244–1200 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Assyria vs. Babylonia and various other kingdoms
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day Middle East
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Assyrian Old Kingdom embarked on wars of conquest following the decline of Egypt and the Hittites.
OUTCOME: The Old Kingdom conquered Babylonia and other powers in the region, only to fall itself to Babylon after being weakened by internal coups.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

The emergence of the Assyrian Old Kingdom in the 13th century B.C.E. was the result of a decline of the once-powerful Egyptian and Hittite kingdoms in the Middle East. The Egyptian Ramses II's (fl. 1292–1225) wars with the Hittite leader Hattushilish III (r. 1275–1250)—and subsequent treaty in 1271—weakened the areas of Syria and Palestine, allowing the Assyrians under the brutal Shalmaneser I (fl. c. 1274–c. 1245) to take control of the Babylonian-Hittite–backed Mitanni kingdom and set their sights on Armenia and southern Mesopotamia. The period from c. 1244 to c. 1200 was dominated by Shalmaneser's son Tukulti-ninurta (fl. c. 1244–c. 1208), whose wars of conquest defeated both the Hittites and the powerful Kassite dynasties in the region. He became known in Greek legend as Ninos and also established the Assyrian fourth capital city at Kar-Tukulti-Ninurta, or Nineveh.

Upon his father's death Tukulti-ninurta resumed the elder's northwest campaigns in Na'iri and Rapiku. In Na'iri the Assyrian army fought and defeated a coalition of 43 kings. In eastern Anatolia Tukulti-ninurta forced a migration of more than 20,000 residents across the Euphrates River. Tukulti-ninurta's most impressive campaigns occurred in Babylonia, where he defeated a succession of Babylonian kings culminating around 1240 with the capture and execution of King Kashtiliash (IV) and the subsequent Assyrian destruction of Babylon. For seven years Assyria incorporated Babylonia as a province until an internal revolt began in Assyria. The coup, led by Tukulti-ninurta's son Ashur-nadin (r. 1207–1203) and nobles from the hinterland, deposed the Assyrian leader and subsequently executed him.

After murdering his father, Ashur-nadin ascended to the throne. His rule marked a period of decline in Assyria. The Elamites forced him out of Babylon, and his successors, Ashur-nirari III (fl. 1203–1197) and Enlil-kudurusur (fl. 1197–1192) participated in a dual reign that was crushed by the Babylonians around 1200. The Assyrian Old Kingdom had come to an end.

See also ASSYRIAN WARS (c. 1200–1032 B.C.E.).

Further reading: Robert W. Rogers, *A History of Babylonia and Assyria* (Santa Clarita, Calif.: Books for Libraries, 1971).

Assyrian Wars (c. 1200–1032 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Assyria vs. Armenia, Anatolia, Syria, and Babylonia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day Middle East
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Assyrian expansion and conquest
OUTCOME: Assyria asserted dominance in the Near East during the reign of Tiglath-pileser I.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

The enthronement of Tiglath-pileser I (r. c. 1116–1077 B.C.E.) dramatically reversed the long decline of the Assyrian Empire. Whereas Assyria had been losing territory since about 1213 B.C.E., Tiglath-pileser I revived its military traditions and began a modernization of the military, which would reach its apogee of development under Tiglath-pileser III (r. 744–27).

Tiglath-pileser I turned his attention to the south and took advantage of the decadence of the Kassites in Babylonia. That dynasty had been badly eroded by warfare with the Elamites, and by 1180 much of Babylonia was ripe for the taking. Tiglath-pileser I led his forces against Muski (southern Armenia), using this as a stage from which he launched invasions into Anatolia (modern Turkey) and northern Syria. Once these regions had been conquered, Assyria was in a position to challenge Babylonia itself. About 1100 Tiglath-pileser I invaded Babylonian territory proper, and the kingdom soon fell to him.

By the time of the death of Tiglath-pileser I in 1077, the decline of Assyria had not only been arrested, the kingdom was now the preeminent power in the entire Middle East. Assyrian hegemony did not long survive, however, and it was up to Tiglath-pileser III to restore its former glory.

See also ASSYRIAN WARS (c. 1032–c. 746 B.C.E.).

Further reading: John Oates, *Babylon* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1967); Robert W. Rogers, *A History of Babylonia and Assyria* (Santa Clarita, Calif.: Books for Libraries, 1971); Nigel Tallis, *Assyria at War, 1000–610 B.C.* (London: Osprey, 2002).

Assyrian Wars (c. 1032–c. 746 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Assyria vs. Aramaean city-states, Armenia, Babylonia, Chaldea, and other kingdoms
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day Middle East
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After a period of decline, the Assyrian Empire began to assert itself once more in a series of wars of conquest.
OUTCOME: Assyria came to dominate the Middle East, its kingdom stretching from the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

The history of the Assyrians began around 3000 B.C.E., when a Semitic tribe settled at Ashur on the northern Tigris, but it was not until the 11th century, during the reign of Tiglath-pileser I (r. c. 1115–c. 1077), that Assyria truly became the dominant power in the Middle East (*see* ASSYRIAN WARS [1200–1032 B.C.E.]). Following Tiglath-pileser's death the Assyrian Empire diminished under the successive reigns of his three sons and his grandson, Ashurnasirpal I (c. 1050–c. 1032). At the close of the 10th century a rebirth of the Assyrian Empire occurred when a new generation of strong tyrants emerged. The wars that followed between around 1000 to around 746 were largely offensive and succeeded in expanding the ancient kingdom from the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf.

The greatest threat to the Assyrians in the 10th century was the periodic invasions of the Aramaeans, whose nomadic disposition and strong rural ties kept the Assyrian

leadership from maintaining control of its own borders. Around 934, after about 100 years of Assyrian decline, Ashur-dan II (934–912) ascended to the throne. Under his leadership the Assyrian borders were secured and the Aramaean encroachment halted. Ashur-dan's successor, Adad-nirari II (c. 911–891), continued Assyria's aggressions against the nomads by leading six offensives along the borders of Arabia. Adad-nirari II used his superior forces to subdue Babylonia during two campaigns around 930–04. Relative peace followed Ada-niriari II's death in 891, until the rise of the great Assyrian military leader Ashurnasirpal II (c. 882–859).

Under Ashurnasirpal II the Assyrian forces became the most feared of invaders. Brutal and deliberate, they incited terror by impaling or skinning alive their enemies. Thanks to their connections with the Hittites, the Assyrians were the first Middle Eastern state to incorporate iron into their arsenal. With archers, sophisticated battering-rams—a priceless weapon in attacking fortified cities—and chariots, their highly efficient armies were unstoppable.

In 883 Ashurnasirpal led his first campaign along the northern Tigris and destroyed the city of Nishtun, in modern day Kurdistan. He then suppressed a Syrian-backed revolt in the city of Suru in 882 and followed that with a victory over the Aramaeans in the north. The Assyrians then pushed into Babylonia and captured Suhu in 878. As the empire expanded, Ashurnasirpal consolidated his command and developed a highly trained force capable of responding to revolts throughout the kingdom. In 875 he crossed the Orontes River and penetrated Phoenicia, where the Phoenician leaders wisely agreed to pay him tribute. In Ashurnasirpal's last battle he quelled a revolt of the Kashiari Hill tribes in northwest Assyria in 866.

Ashurnasirpal's son Shalmaneser III (858–824) succeeded him and continued the Assyrian expansion. First he struck out against Syria, where he added the northern territory to the empire. He was less successful in his siege of Damascus in 841. In southern Mesopotamia Ashurnasirpal also managed to extract tribute from the king of Israel, Jehu, in 841. His armies plundered Phoenicia and fought with mixed results against the Armenians, Cilicians, and Chaldeans.

Ashurnasirpal's successor, Shamsi-Adad V (823–811), rekindled the Assyrian feud with Babylonia from 818 to 812, a traditional rivalry that would last until the Assyrians completely destroyed Babylon in 693 (*see* BABYLON, FALL OF). Shamsi-Adad also engaged Armenia with little success and conquered Chaldea, an area south of Babylonia.

The reign of Adad-nirari III (810–783) marked the last years of Assyrian expansion for a time. In 804 Adad-nirari's armies marched to Gaza, but he could not penetrate Damascus. Border wars in the north and a rebellion in Babylonia were quelled, but it was evident Assyria was suffering from its tremendous expansion. Of the three successive kings, Shalmaneser IV (783–773), Ashur-dan III (722–55), and Ashur-hirari V (754–746), only Shalmaneser IV was able to conquer territory (around Ararat). Yet he was defeated by the Syrians in 773, which sent Assyria into another period of decline.

See also ASSYRIAN WARS (c. 746–609 B.C.E.).

Further reading: John Oates, *Babylon* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1967); Robert W. Rogers, *A History of Babylonia and Assyria* (Santa Clarita, Calif.: Books for Libraries, 1971); Nigel Tallis, *Assyria at War, 1000–610 B.C.* (London: Osprey, 2002).

Assyrian Wars (c. 746–609 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Assyrians vs. numerous kingdoms of the Middle East
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Middle East
DECLARATION: No formal declaration recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Assyrian dominance of the region
OUTCOME: Assyria built and maintained a vast empire over the course of about six centuries, although by the beginning of the sixth century B.C.E. the empire was clearly doomed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No formal treaties recorded

These were the years of the Assyrian Empire's greatest glory and its ultimate extinction. Despite the immense expansions achieved by Tiglath-pileser III (fl. c. 745–727 B.C.E.) and his three successors, Sargon II (fl. 722–705), Sennacherib (fl. 705–681), and Essarhaddon (fl. 680–669), the empire that had begun around 3000 B.C.E. would totally disappear by 609 (*see* ASSYRIA, FALL OF).

Descended from the Semites who migrated from the Eurasian steppes in the third millennium B.C.E. to the middle regions of the Tigris River valley, the Assyrians first assumed control over the fading Hittite world after 1200 B.C.E. At its height, some six centuries later, the Assyrian Empire stretched as a huge arc from the Persian Gulf westward across Syria to the Mediterranean and southward to include Palestine and Egypt.

A military coup around 745 B.C.E. brought the Assyrian general Pul to the throne. He declared himself Tiglath-pileser III and succeeded not only in reviving the declining empire's fortunes but also in taking it to its zenith. Before Tiglath-pileser the Assyrian kings lacked the administrative ability to control the new provinces they carved out of conquered territories, but the general-turned-emperor reorganized the state and centered it around a powerful standing army equipped with superior weapons—iron spears, chariots, and battering rams.

Tiglath-pileser's military strategy was three-pronged: quell the Aramaean revolt south of Babylonia, annex Syria,

and reclaim the northern borders around Urartu, northeast of the Tigris-Euphrates valleys. In 746 he marched to Babylonia, where he joined his vassal king Nabu-nasir (fl. 747–734) to fight successfully at Radhan in the south along the Tigris and to press across the river to the banks of the Uknu. Unlike his predecessors, Tiglath-pileser left his own men in charge of the conquered lands and also built a fort, Kar-Ashur, to prevent future upheavals. With his southern borders secured by about 744, Tiglath-pileser directed his conquests toward the east and the northern territories of Urartu.

In order to divert the massive Urartu army, Tiglath-pileser campaigned in Media (central Iran) before turning north. After pillaging the unprotected territories around Media, the Assyrian army marched to Syria and defeated a contingent from Urartu in 743. From there the stage was set for an Assyrian show-down with the Urartu general Sarduris II (760–730) and his coalition forces at Kishtan. The Assyrians routed the Urartu general and forced him to retreat over the border. For the next three years Tiglath-pileser laid siege to Arpad—a defiant Urartu-backed city in Syria—until it broke in 740. More than 70,000 prisoners were taken, and the city was demolished.

Until his death in 727 Tiglath-pileser III waged almost continuous warfare in the region. He defeated Hamah in 739, Damascus and Syria in 732, and southern Iraq in 731. He drove the trouble-making Chaldean prince Ukinzer (r. 732–29) from Babylon in 729. The Assyrian Empire now encompassed land from the Persian Gulf to the Armenian mountain ranges and south to Egypt.

The reign of Tiglath-pileser's son and successor, Shalmaneser V (726–722), was mostly uneventful except for a 724 conquest of Israel against a Jewish army led by Hoshea (reigned over Israel, c. 730–722), an anti-Assyrian leader in the region whose exploits are documented in the Old Testament.

In 721 Shalmaneser's successor, Sargon II, defeated the Elamites, an upstart tribe from the east who had conquered Israel the previous year and forced a migration of Israelites who would become known as the Ten Lost Tribes. Subsequently Israel became a province of Assyria, paying tribute in return for internal autonomy. Sargon II defeated Gaza in 717 and won a border struggle with the Egyptian army in 716. After he was killed in an ambush in 705 in northwestern Iran, Sargon II's son Sennacherib ascended to the Assyrian throne.

Sennacherib quelled a rebellion in Babylonia in 703. He then marched the Assyrian army into western Iran, attacking and defeating a coalition force of Egyptians, Syrians, and Palestinians in 701. Sennacherib's troops laid siege to a defiant Jerusalem, led by Hezekiah (late eighth–early seventh century B.C.E.). A plague, however, decimated Sennacherib's troops, and the siege was lifted. Nevertheless, by the end of Sennacherib's campaign of expansion, the Assyrian army had captured 46 fortified cities and obtained the surrender of more than 200,000 people.

A Babylonian uprising occurred again in 700. In response Sennacherib's navy sailed south of Babylonia and attacked Elam—a kingdom sympathetic to the Babylonian rebellion—by sea. The Elamites responded by taking Assyrian Babylonia and deposing the king, Merodach-Baladan II (r. 721–710 B.C.E. and 703). Not until 689 was Sennacherib able to launch a counteroffensive on Babylonia. The Assyrians destroyed Babylon. Sennacherib had the waters of the Arakhtu River diverted so that the city was flooded. In the process he levelled the great temples of Babylon (*see* BABYLON, FALL OF).

An internal coup in 681 was responsible for Sennacherib's assassination. His son and successor, Essarhaddon, rebuilt Babylon and led several expeditions against Egypt. In 671 the Assyrians conquered the Egyptian city of Memphis, but they could never really control the continuous rebellions launched by the city's Ethiopians. In fact, Essarhaddon died while trying to suppress a revolt in Memphis in 669, and despite his many successes in battle, a certain inertia had crept into the Assyrian Empire that led to its final decline.

Assyria under King Ashurbanipal (668–627) managed to quell the all-but-constant rebellion in Egypt, driving the Ethiopian king of Egypt, Taharqa (fl. 690–664), out in 668. Taharqa's nephew, Tanutamon (r. 664–653), renewed hostilities with Assyria in 664, but Ashurbanipal defeated the rebellion and forced Memphis to resume paying tribute. In 656 Egypt regained its independence when it drove out the Assyrian administration. Ashurbanipal failed to respond because of an Elamite uprising in southern Babylonia. Ashurbanipal crushed the state of Elam, seized the capital city of Susu, and killed the Elamite king, Shilhak-In-Shushinak (r. 680–653). In 652, out of fear of an imminent Assyrian invasion, the Babylonian king, Shamash-shuma-ukin (r. 667–648), formed a coalition against Assyria with Ashurbanipal's own brother, Shamash-shum-ukin. Ashurbanipal defeated the coalition in 648 after laying siege to Babylon for three years. Shamash-shuma-ukin died in what would prove to be the last of Assyria's major victories.

In 635 a civil war erupted in Assyria between Ashurbanipal's sons over the coming succession. As a result Assyria's enemies began to take advantage of the weakened state. Ashurbanipal himself died in 627, and the empire disintegrated rapidly. The following year the nomadic Chaldeans, led by King Nabopolassar (fl. 625–605), conquered Babylonia, and the Scythians claimed both Syria and Palestine. The Babylonians expelled the Assyrians in 623. In 616 the Medes, an old nemesis of the Assyrians, attacked the empire's capital city, Nineveh; it fell four years later. (*See* ASSYRIA, FALL OF.)

Although a skeleton Assyrian army led by King Ashuruballit II (611–609) fought against the Babylonians and the Medes, the empire was clearly doomed.

See also ASSYRIAN CONQUEST OF EGYPT; ASSYRIAN CONQUEST OF PALESTINE AND SYRIA.

Further reading: John Oates, *Babylon* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1967); Robert W. Rogers, *A History of Babylonia and Assyria* (Santa Clarita, Calif.: Books for Libraries, 1971); Nigel Tallis, *Assyria at War, 1000–610 B.C.* (London: Osprey, 2002).

Asturian Uprising (1934)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Socialist antigovernment strikers vs. Spanish government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Asturias, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spanish left-wingers and Socialists objected to the involvement of the Catholic Church in affairs of state through right-wing, prochurch ruling parties; ultimately, the struggle was for control of the fledgling Spanish republic.
OUTCOME: The strikers were suppressed, and the right-wing military gained a crucial influence in Spanish politics.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 70,000 miners; unknown number of government troops
CASUALTIES: 1,051 strikers killed; 2,951 wounded; 30,000 taken prisoner; government troops, 284 killed, 486 wounded
TREATIES: None

After the more or less sudden dissolution of General Miguel Primo de Rivera's (1870–1930) dictatorship in Spain in 1930, leadership of the country floundered. King Alfonso XIII (1886–1941), who had engineered Primo's resignation, though nominally the country's leader, had been ruined in the eyes of politicians and the public by his earlier support of the dictatorship; he was subsequently overthrown and a republic established. Political parties struggled for consensus among business, church, and labor groups that controlled huge voting blocs in the face of the 1933 elections, which had been set when the Left Republicans and the Socialists had forced the provisional government to resign in their favor in 1931.

The first elections of the Second Republic polarized the interest groups, and the new government began on shaky enough ground even before uprisings occurred in both Seville and Barcelona. The conservative business interests sought a strong union with the Spanish Roman Catholic Church and urged the ultraconservative prochurch Confederación Española de Derechos Autónomos (CEDA) to join the government.

The opposition Socialist Party objected to the right-wing CEDA and planned a nationwide general strike for the fall of 1934, trying to force the government's hand on the issue of the church's involvement in affairs of state. In conjunction with the strike, the Socialists also called for simultaneous uprisings in both Madrid and Catalonia, site of the earlier demonstration in Barcelona. On October 5 more than 70,000 strongly unionized miners, directed by the local revolutionary councils set up by the Socialists, walked off the job in the northwestern province of Asturias. They quickly moved from strike to rebellion and occupied the town of Oviedo, taking control of the radio station and other key communications within a few hours. They burned the Catholic churches and killed more than 40 people, 29 of whom were priests.

The conservative government in Madrid dispatched right-wing general Francisco Franco (1892–1975) and the Spanish Foreign Legion to deal with the insurrectionists. Franco ruthlessly crushed the revolt and set about exacting retribution on the miners. Amid a Madrid-mandated news blackout, there were reports of brutal atrocities on the part of Franco's men, but they could hardly be substantiated with no information going in or out of Asturias without Franco's approval. More than 1,000 rebels were killed, almost 3,000 were wounded, and more than 30,000 were captured, tortured, and tried for treason and other crimes. The rebels lost 90,000 rifles, 10,000 cases of explosives, and as many as 30,000 hand grenades. Government losses were 284 killed and 486 wounded. The government's actions further polarized the country and served as a harbinger to the SPANISH CIVIL WAR (1936–1939).

Further reading: Antony Beevor, *The Spanish Civil War* (New York: Penguin USA, 2001); Hugh Thomas, *The Spanish Civil War* (New York: Modern Library, 2001).

Athens's War with Corinth

See PELOPONNESE WAR, FIRST.

Aurangzeb, Wars of (1636–1657)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul leaders of northern India vs. the Persians and Uzbek Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North India and Kandahar, Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Mogul (Muslim) leaders of India attempted to spread their control over the region of present-day Afghanistan.
OUTCOME: Mogul leaders of India lost control of Kandahar, which remained under the control of Persia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Aurangzeb (1618–1707) was the second son of the Mogul shah Jahan (1592–1666) in India. In the period just prior to the wars named for him, Aurangzeb consolidated the

conquests of his father. He then set about ensuring that the great rivals of the Moguls, the Marathas, would remain confined to the western Deccan. Operating from bases in the sultanates of Bijapur and Golconda, Aurangzeb periodically invaded the Maratha borderlands, taking key forts and even pushing Mogul holdings into the Deccan.

Shah Jahan named his son governor of Gujarat in 1645 but quickly dispatched him to Balkh in Transoxiana. There he fought and defeated the Uzbek Turks. Five years later Aurangzeb led an army against Kandahar, with the object of seizing it from the Persians and Uzbek Turks. His first attempt failed—his force was outnumbered—but he recovered from the attempt with his army intact and returned in 1652 with a larger force. Aurangzeb fought near Kandahar for two months before personally withdrawing and handing command to his older brother, Dara Shikoh (1615–59). This commander likewise failed to take the city, and in 1653 Aurangzeb returned to the Deccan. Although he retook Golonda and Bijapur, Kandahar remained in Persian and Uzbek hands, and most of the Deccan was still dominated by Marathas under Sivaji (1630–80).

See also MARATHA-MOGUL WAR (1647–1665); SHAH JAHAN'S REVOLT.

Further reading: S. R. Bakshi *Aurangzeb: The Great Moghul* (Columbia, Mo.: South Asia Books, 2000).

Aurelian's War against Tetricus (273–274)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Gaul
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaul (France), Britain, and Spain
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to reestablish its control over Gaul.
OUTCOME: Gaul was reunited with the Roman Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Lucius Domitius Aurelianus (c. 215–275), an Illyrian general of great ability, was proclaimed Emperor Aurelian in 270 and resolved to reverse the decline of the Roman Empire, especially its holdings in Gaul, Britain, and northern Spain. This region was now under the control of its own emperor, Gaius Pius Esuvius Tetricus (d. c. 276) and by 273 was the only major region of the Roman Empire in which dissidence was the leading note.

Aurelian understood that the grasp of Tetricus was, at the moment, weak. He had endured mutinies within his forces and was continually battered by Gothic invasions from the north. Determined to exploit the dissident emperor's vulnerability, Aurelian led his legions over the French Alps and into Gaul. In 273 at Châlons (Châlons-sur-Marne), he met Tetricus in battle. Surprisingly, Tetricus offered only half-hearted resistance. His army quickly folded, and he himself fled the field, turned coat—on himself!—and defected to Aurelian. Together they defeated the remnants of what had been Tetricus's army.

With Tetricus out of the way, Aurelian stormed across the rest of Gaul and the other two territories, successfully rejoining them to the empire. Although Aurelian then returned to Rome with Tetricus in tow, a humbled prisoner forced to march in the emperor's triumph, Aurelian subsequently named him to govern southern Italy.

See also ROMAN-GOTHIC WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Alaric Watson, *Aurelian and the Third Century* (London: Routledge, 1999); John F. White, *Restorer of the World: The Roman Emperor Aurelian* (Stapelhurst, U.K.: Spellmount Publishers, 2004).

Aurelian's War against Zenobia (271–273)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Palmyra
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria, Egypt, and Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When Zenobia of Palmyra tried to establish her independence from Roman rule, Emperor Aurelian led the charge to bring her back into the empire.
OUTCOME: Zenobia was defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

In 259 Septimus Odaenathus (d. 266), prince of Palmyra, rose as a military strongman in the east after handily defeating the Persians and rebuking their raids upon his regions. Three years later Odaenathus attacked, defeated, and executed Quietus (d. 260), one of the so-called Thirty Tyrants vying for power in Rome. As a reward the emperor Gallienus (c. 218–268) named Odaenathus "governor of all the East" and "King of Kings" and gave him wide latitude in local matters as well as regional military arrangements. Odaenathus lived up to the responsibility by invading and retaking the lost Roman provinces east of the Euphrates. Accompanying Odaenathus was his capable wife, Zenobia (d. c. 274), who challenged Rome by naming herself empress after his death in 267. Although her son Vaballathus (d. c. 273) was crowned emperor, Zenobia assumed de facto control of most of the empire's eastern holdings.

Zenobia held Syria, Egypt, Mesopotamia, and the bulk of Asia Minor. Determined to wrest these prizes from her, Emperor Aurelian (c. 215–75) met her army at the Battle of Immae near Antioch in 271. After a hotly contested struggle Aurelian emerged the victor over Zenobia's leading general,

Zobdas (fl. third century). Although the Palmyran army withdrew intact, Aurelian gave them no quarter, pressing the pursuit and forcing them to a stand at Emesa in 272. There he defeated Zenobia's forces yet again.

In the face of defeat, Zenobia took flight to Palmyra, her capital in the desert. Aurelian set up a siege and resisted Persian harassment as well as attacks from nomadic tribespeople. In 272 Zenobia surrendered and received pardon from Aurelian, who entrusted Palmyra to her care. No sooner had he left, however, than Zenobia declared independence from the empire. Virtually turning on his heel, Aurelian returned and renewed the siege of her capital. This time Palmyra crumbled, and Aurelian let his legions loose upon the city. It was sacked, and although Zenobia attempted to escape, she was captured and carried back in triumph to Rome.

See also AURELIAN'S WAR AGAINST TETRICUS; ZENOBIA'S CONQUEST OF EGYPT.

Further reading: Richard Stoneman, *Palmyra and Its Empire: Zenobia's Revolt against Rome* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1995); Alaric Watson, *Aurelian and the Third Century* (London: Routledge, 1999); John F. White, *Restorer of the World: The Roman Emperor Aurelian* (Stapelhurst, U.K.: Spellmount Publishers, 2004).

Australian Irish Convict Revolt (1804)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Irish convicts vs. British colonial authorities in Australia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): New South Wales
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The convicts, feeling unjustly imprisoned, rebelled, seeking to escape the penal colony.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was suppressed and its leader publicly executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 266 convicts; 56 colonial troops
CASUALTIES: Convicts, 15 killed in combat, 8 executed; colonial troops, none
TREATIES: None

The history of the British penal colonization of New South Wales begins in 1788, when the first 730 convicts arrived at Botany Bay and settled at Port Jackson. Although there are different opinions as to what use the British had for the continent down under, the employment of penal colonies as a source of cheap labor in farming and development was certainly one of them, occupying a prominent place in Britain's colonial policy in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. Sydney Cove became the penal colonies' operations center for the British, and around it flourished smaller farming penal colonies.

In 1803, Lieutenant Colonel David Collins (served as Tasmanian governor, 1804–10) arrived in Port Phillip (near present-day Melbourne) from England with 308 prisoners. Because of the adverse conditions at Port Phillip, Collins petitioned the king for permission to relocate to Van Dieman's Land, the present-day island of Tasmania. Once granted, a penal colony was developed in Sullivan's Cove, the modern Hobart Town, Tasmania. The penal colony of Sullivan's Cove was made up of Irish criminals and political prisoners, many of whom had never been tried. Such injustices led to an uprising on March 4, 1804.

The Australian Irish Convict Revolt began at a penal farm outside Sydney called Castle Hill. Some 266 Irish convicts broke out, ransacked a nearby settlement, and, armed with farm tools and guns, rallied around their leader, Philip Cunningham (d. 1804). Cunningham had developed a plan to escape New South Wales by taking the town of Parramatta. That evening the British declared martial law and detached Brevet Major George Johnston and Lieutenant Colonel William Paterson with their troops to Parramatta. By the morning of March 5 they arrived, having marched 20 miles overnight. There ensued an unsuccessful round of negotiations, followed by gunshots. The revolt was quelled easily enough: 15 convicts were killed in the fighting and Cunningham was detained.

On March 6 the Irish rebel leader was hanged along with seven others. Nine convicts were transported to Newcastle after being flogged, and all Catholic worship was suspended in the colony. British authority had been fully restored in the region.

Further reading: Robert Hughes, *The Fatal Shore: The Epic of Australia's Founding* (New York: Random House, 1986); A. G. L. Shaw, *Convicts and Colonies: A Study of Penal Transportation from Great Britain and Ireland to Australia and Other Parts of the British Empire* (Melbourne, Australia: Melbourne University Press, 1977).

Australian Rum Rebellion (1808)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Australian liquor interests and their military supporters vs. colonial governor William Bligh
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sydney, Australia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bligh, with typical bluster, sought to rule Australia with an authoritarian hand; the local liquor interests and military commanders sought to deny his authority and have him removed from office.
OUTCOME: Bligh was court-martialed and acquitted; the Australian military leader of the rebellion was court-martialed and convicted.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1805, after a distinguished naval career, English sea captain William Bligh (1754–1817) was awarded the governorship of New South Wales. On instructions from the king to "clean up" the colony, Bligh departed Britain for the Pacific the following year. His arrival in Sydney was met with both approval from the residents and apprehension by profiteers and monopolists. Bligh immediately instituted monetary reforms and prohibited barter in liquor. He then began to question the legality of certain land leases and labor practices in the colony.

Bligh's "high-handed" policies provoked considerable resistance among the Australians to their famously temperamental new governor, and in February 1807 two local leaders, John Macarthur and Captain Edward Abbott, challenged Bligh's proclamations by purchasing or setting up stills. In response, Bligh tightened the government's hold on the supply of rum in the colony and confiscated the stills. Macarthur, however, had many supporters; he sued the government for the return of his stills and won. Bligh responded by impounding Macarthur's trading ship *Parramatta* at Port Jackson. On December 15, 1807, Bligh arrested Macarthur for sedition, claiming he had breached local naval regulations. A trial date was set for January 25, 1808.

Although Bligh succeeded in gaining the support of the settlers—he received a petition of gratitude signed by 900 settlers on January 1, 1808—he could not control the pro-liquor officers who had infiltrated his very administration. They were Macarthur's trump card. The court consisted of six military officers and a judge-advocate named Richard Atkins. Atkins, a hard-drinking old gentleman, was one of Macarthur's creditors. On the day of the trial Macarthur petitioned the court—Atkins and the six pro-liquor officers—to remove Atkins because of his obvious conflict of interest. The request was upheld over Atkins's protest, and Macarthur was released on bail.

On January 26, 1808, the Rum Rebellion began. Atkins revoked Macarthur's bail, arrested him, and reconvened the court with himself in charge. Atkins demanded the six officers be tried for treason. Bligh responded by summoning them to the Government House the following morning, but by that evening New South Wales corps commander George Johnston arrived and released Macarthur from jail. He then marched to the Government House and arrested Bligh, without incident, for unsubstantiated violations of royal authority. Martial law was declared, with Johnston the acting head of the colony.

Bligh was detained for more than a year because he refused to promise to return to England. Finally, in February 1809 he agreed, but once aboard the *Porpoise,* Bligh reneged, took control of the vessel, and sailed to Hobart, where he hoped to gain the support of Lieutenant Colonel David Collins, in order to regain Sydney. Collins, however, was no more receptive to Bligh than anyone else in the colonial military had been, and Bligh waged an unproductive harassment campaign of Sydney from the surrounding waters. In 1809 the British government recalled Bligh, and he returned to London and a court martial. In the subsequent trial Bligh was acquitted of the charges brought against him and promoted to rear admiral in 1812. Lieutenant Colonel George Johnston then faced his own court martial for his role in the Rum Rebellion, and he was convicted and removed from office.

Further reading: H. V. Evatt, *Rum Rebellion: A Study of the Overthrow of Governor Bligh* (Hawthorn, Australia: Lloyd O'Niel, 1971); Ross Fitzgerald and Mark Hearn, *Bligh, Macarthur and the Rum Rebellion* (Kenthurst, Australia: Kangaroo Press, 1988).

Austria with France and the Piedmont, War of

See ITALIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Austrian Netherlands Civil War (1477–1492)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Archduke Maximilian of Austria vs. the Netherlands
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Netherlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Archduke Maximilian wanted to secure control of the Netherlands, which he had gained through his marriage to Anne of Burgundy.
OUTCOME: Maximilian secured control of the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Archduke Maximilian (1459–1519) of Austria assumed dominion over the Netherlands by virtue of his marriage to Mary of Burgundy (1457–82). The death of Mary in 1482 prompted Maximilian to declare himself regent over the Netherlands for his young son Philip (1478–1506). Parts of the Netherlands had chafed under Maximilian's heavy-handed rule for years, and when he continued to assert control after the death of Mary, two cities, Ghent and Bruges, rebelled. Rejecting Maximilian's claim to the regency, they took Philip prisoner. To make matters worse, both Ghent and Bruges also endorsed the Treaty of Arras (1482) between Austria and the Netherlands, which stipulated an end to Maximilian's rule over Burgundy.

Driven by more than sufficient cause for war, Maximilian dispatched an army to Flanders to liberate his son. The boy was recovered in 1485, and once this had been

accomplished Maximilian imposed an oppressive military government on the Netherlands. He also intensified the FRANCO-AUSTRIAN WAR of 1477–93, which was extremely unpopular with the people of the Netherlands.

Heedless of the political climate he had created in the Netherlands, Maximilian personally traveled to Bruges to preside over the legislature in 1487. However, when citizens learned that he was approaching the city with German mercenary troops, they closed the city gates, attacked Maximilian's train, and made him a prisoner. The intervention of the Holy Roman Emperor, Maximilian's father, Frederick III (1415–93), secured his release in 1488, but the archduke was forced to agree to the promulgation of a new constitution limiting his authority.

Maximilian withdrew to Germany, only to return to the Netherlands in 1490 intent on abrogating all constitutional promises. The Low Countries were in general turmoil during this period, and Maximilian was obliged to crush rebellions in Ghent (1491) and throughout the country the following year. In 1492 he laid Sluys under siege, forcing the rebels to sue for peace. This at last secured the region for himself and his son. Maximilian's prestige regained, he was elevated to Holy Roman Emperor on the death of his father and ruled to his own death in 1519.

Further reading: J. C. H. Blom and Emiel Lamberts, eds., *History of the Low Countries* (New York: Berghahn Books, 1999).

Austrian Revolution (1848–1849)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Austrian people vs. Emperor Ferdinand I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Austria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Uprising against conservative Hapsburg regime, especially foreign minister Prince Metternich
OUTCOME: Austria adopted a new constitution that called for national equality, an end to serfdom and feudalism, and a reformed court system.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebel forces, unknown; government troops, about 10,000
CASUALTIES: Rebels, 3,000 killed; government forces, 219 killed, 1,047 wounded
TREATIES: None

The year 1848 was one of widespread revolution in Europe, with uprisings in France, Italy, Germany, Hungary, and Schleswig-Holstein, although only those in Italy and Hungary were protracted. The other uprisings were brief, albeit intense, and they were for the most part confined to urban centers.

Particularly hard hit during 1848 was the Hapsburg Empire, which embodied all the corrupt and bigoted conservatism that the young egalitarian zealots of Europe most despised. Hapsburg authorities had to put down uprisings in Italy and Hungary as well as one in the very heart of their empire.

On March 13, 1848, hordes of Viennese poured into the streets of the Hapsburg capital to protest the policies of Emperor Ferdinand I (1793–1875) and, even more, Prince Fürst von Metternich (1773–1859), the emperor's archconservative foreign minister. In response to the initial tumult, Ferdinand dismissed Metternich and promised a host of liberal reforms, including the promulgation of a new constitution. Some 30 Viennese died in the first wave of the uprising, which subsided after the departure of Metternich and the promises of the emperor—although not before sparking similar revolts in Cracow, Poland (then a part of the Hapsburg domain), on April 25–26 and Prague (now the capital of the Czech Republic, but at the time part of the Hapsburg Empire) on June 11–18. Hapsburg forces responded brutally in both cities, making extensive use of artillery against the rebels. Hundreds of citizens died in both cities.

In Vienna the uprising was renewed on October 6 in sympathy with an uprising in Hungary. The 10,000-man army that had crushed the rebellion in Prague was marched into Vienna on October 25, and by October 31 the new Viennese uprising had been quashed. Government losses were 247 killed and 1,047 wounded. The rebels manning the barricades lost at least 3,000 killed.

Although the Austrian uprising had been extinguished, Ferdinand I yielded to popular pressure and abdicated in favor of his nephew Franz Joseph (1830–1916) on December 2. Only 18 at the time of his rise to the throne, Franz Joseph would prove a long-lived emperor and would carry the faltering Hapsburg dynasty into the next century and the cataclysm of WORLD WAR I.

See also FRENCH REVOLUTION (1848); GERMAN REVOLUTION; HUNGARIAN REVOLUTION (1848–1849); ITALIAN REVOLUTION; SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN REVOLT.

Further reading: Robert John Weston Evans and Hartmut Pogge Von Strandmann, eds., *The Revolutions in Europe, 1848–1849: From Reform to Reaction* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Peter Jones, *The 1848 Revolutions* (New York: Addison-Wesley, 1995); Priscilla Robertson, *Revolutions of 1848* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1968).

Austrian Succession, War of the (1740–1748)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Prussia, France, Spain, and Bavaria vs. the Quadruple Alliance of Austria, Saxony, Britain, and the Netherlands
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Silesia, Bohemia, Prussia, and the Austrian Netherlands

DECLARATION: Prussia on Austria, December 16, 1740
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Maria Theresa, following the death of her father, Holy Roman Emperor Charles VI, in 1740, found herself assailed by several claimants challenging the Pragmatic Sanction of 1713, which guaranteed her possession of Austria and the other Hapsburg domains. Some European powers were poised to carve up the loose empire, and Frederick II of Prussia actually invaded one province, Silesia, in 1740, starting the First Silesian War. France, Spain, Bavaria, and Saxony rallied to Frederick's cause. Great Britain, colonial competitor with both Spain and France in the New World, sided with Maria Theresa. More narrowly, Frederick II of Prussia fought to cement his hold on Silesia; France fought to gain control of the Austrian Netherlands; Maria Theresa fought to hang on to the Austrian throne and Austrian territory; and England fought to check the ambitions mainly of France, which meant checking those of Prussia as well.
OUTCOME: The War of the Austrian Succession and its associated conflicts in America and India were ended less on account of the powers involved having achieved their political and military objectives than from a general state of exhaustion on all sides. French ambitions were checked for the moment; Frederick retained the region of Silesia; and the Pragmatic Sanction was reaffirmed, and Maria Theresa gained recognition of her husband as Holy Roman Emperor, returning Europe basically to the status quo ante bellum.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Austria, 204,000; France, about 200,000; strength of other belligerents unknown
CASUALTIES: Austria, 120,000 killed or wounded; France, 140,000 killed or wounded; losses of other belligerents unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Dresden, December 25, 1745; Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, October 8, 1748

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

When Frederick II (1712–86) came to the throne of Prussia in 1740, the realm he inherited had been a kingdom for only two generations. A hundred years before, Germany had been a patchwork of several hundred supposedly independent principalities, fragmented states that had achieved their autonomy by challenging the authority of the House of Hapsburg's unwieldy Holy Roman Empire during the horrors of the THIRTY YEARS' WAR. Frederick's great grandfather, Frederick Wilhelm (1620–88), the Great Elector, was a Hohenzollern prince and elector of Brandenburg who ruled over a number of scattered territories in the north of the old empire.

Sometimes by war, sometime by diplomacy, more often by astute marriages, the House of Hohenzollern had brought together distant and disparate holdings. Berlin, the old heartland of the electorate, lay some 400 miles from the Baltic province of East Prussia, from which it was cut off by a good-sized slab of Poland, while far to the west lay small counties such as Cleves, Mark, and Ravensburg, the last of these closer to Amsterdam than Berlin. Yet the Great Elector, by sheer will, somehow began to weld these scattered lands into a state ruled by a centralized government. For this kingdom Frederick Wilhelm's son was granted a crown by the Hapsburg emperor and began calling himself Frederick I (1657–1713), king *in* Prussia. (He could not style himself king *of* Prussia, since East Prussia was ruled by Poland; nor could he claim to be king of Brandenburg, since that would have given him the right to grant titles of nobility within the Holy Roman Empire, an enterprise profitable enough that the Hapsburgs wanted it for themselves.)

In 1713 Frederick William I (1688–1740) succeeded his father, Frederick I, and immediately abandoned the French manners and excessive ostentation of the first king in Prussia's court. He lived frugally, fostered what would become the famed Prussian military style, and continued the work of his grandfather and namesake—strengthening the state and expanding and improving his army. When he produced an heir, he tried to regulate his son's life just as he was regulating his army and his country, and when young Frederick II showed a liking for such unmanly pastimes as card games, flute playing, and novel reading in addition to his military drills, his father subjected the boy to a series of public humiliations. An aborted plot to escape to England and beg for asylum led to the court-martial and beheading of the young friend who helped Frederick II come up with the plan, and Frederick himself was tossed in jail. He gave up and formally submitted to his father, who left Frederick at his death a well-structured if puritanical military state and an army mustering 80,000 troops, equal to that of Austria, a country 10 times the size of Prussia. Despite his father the 28-year-old Frederick who acceded to his throne was an admirer of Voltaire and determined to create a Prussia embracing the best principles of the Enlightenment. On the other hand, thanks to his father Frederick was ready for military challenge when it came.

As with the War of the SPANISH SUCCESSION, once again the House of Hapsburg lay at the roots of a new instability in the European system. Emperor Charles VI (1685–1740), like the Spanish king 40 years before, was about to die without an heir, at least without a male heir. His plan had been to leave the rule of Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, and the southern Netherlands to his daughter, Maria Theresa (1717–80). Although her sex barred her from ruling in Germany as Holy Roman Emperor in her own right, she could share the crown with her husband if he were elected emperor. To these ends Charles secured a "Pragmatic Sanction" in 1713, guaranteeing Maria Theresa the succession to all the Hapsburg domains, and signed by

the major European states including Prussia. When she came to the throne the same year as Frederick, however, he seized the Austrian province of Silesia with relative ease for, as he said, the "reason of state."

During the First SILESIAN WAR that ensued, Austria, Saxony, Britain, and the Netherlands formed the Quadruple Alliance against France, Bavaria, and Prussia. Maria Theresa, herself a mere 23 upon her ascension, had, like Frederick, abandoned her beloved youthful pursuits—riding, dancing, and playing music—to immerse herself in the affairs of state. Unschooled in politics, she was both stubborn and deeply religious, both of which helped her in the long run not only to secure her hereditary lands but also to reign over them effectively for four decades. Three claimants to the throne—Charles Albert (1697–1745) of Bavaria who became Holy Roman Emperor for a while, from 1742 to 1745; Philip V (1683–1746) of Spain; and Augustus III of Saxony (1696–1763)—disputed her succession, and since Bavaria, Spain, and France also wanted to plunder what they now perceived as an Austria grown weak, they fought on in Bohemia and in the Austrian Netherlands against the Quadruple Alliance. Thus did Frederick's action spark the War of the Austrian Succession.

For eight years, from 1740 to 1748, Europe was engulfed in a conflict that also extended to North America (as KING GEORGE'S WAR) and colonial India (as the First and Second CARNATIC WARS). Thus, the War of the Austrian Succession might be considered a world war and was a drawn-out prelude to the SEVEN YEARS' WAR of 1756–63 (called in America the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR), the first truly global conflict.

FIRST SUCCESSES

After Maria Theresa's forces lost their first large-scale encounter with Frederick in 1741 and Prague fell to the French and Bavarians that same year, the empress ceded Silesia to Prussia in 1742, hoping thereby to secure Frederick's neutrality as she moved to retake Prague and to invade Bavaria. Her victories in Prague and Bavaria persuaded Saxony to re-ally itself with her, and Sardinia worked against the forces of Spain and Naples. Thus bolstered, Maria Theresa's forces were able to push the French army toward the Rhine, where it was met in battle by British forces under the direction of George II (1683–1760), who scored a decisive victory at Dettingen, Bavaria, on June 27, 1743. Following this the French retreated west across the Rhine and turned their attention to Austria's territories in the Netherlands. In the meantime, Frederick II reentered the conflict in 1744, prosecuting what has been called the Second SILESIAN WAR.

THE FONTENOY CAMPAIGN, 1745

In May 1745 Marshal Saxe (1696–1750) with about 70,000 French troops and accompanied by Louis XV (1710–74) and the Dauphin, invaded Tournai in Flanders. William Augustus (1721–65), duke of Cumberland, led Maria Theresa's allied army against the French. At the Battle of Fontenoy, Saxe positioned 52,000 men at Fontenoy to block the advance of Cumberland's army. So ill with dropsy that he had to be carried to the field on a stretcher, Saxe refused to give up his command. The allies mounted a frontal attack after dawn on May 10, but the French defensive line thwarted their progress. Cumberland then drew up three lines totaling some 15,000 infantry to attempt to smash through the center of the French position. As the three lines approached the French position, Lieutenant Colonel Lord Charles Hay (d. 1760) walked out between the lines, pulled a flask from his pocket, toasted the French, saluted, led his troops in three cheers, and then scurried back to his own line. The French, returning the salute and cheers, were stunned when a huge volley was fired from the English line. Despite the advance of the allied army, the French king refused to flee, and Saxe arose from his litter, mounted his horse, and established a second line of defense, which soon ended the attack. After the victory at Fontenoy, Saxe went on to capture Tournai, Ghent, Bruges, Oudenarde, Ostend, and Brussels between May and September of 1745.

HOHENFRIEDBERG CAMPAIGN, 1745

Charles VII had ruled Bavaria as a puppet of the anti-Austrian coalition and was restored by Prussia and France to his Bavarian lands in 1744 but died just three months later, whereupon Austria turned on Bavaria and defeated its army at Amberg on January 7, 1745.

While the army of the Quadruple Alliance (Britain, Austria, Saxony, and the Netherlands) fought the French invested at Fontenoy and Tournai in Flanders, Austrian and Hungarian irregulars struck at the Prussian army in the very Silesia Frederick II had first taken over in 1740 after announcing his support of Maria Theresa's succession to the Hapsburg throne. With pressure from the irregulars, he stationed 60,000 men at Frankenstein, while Charles of Lorraine (1712–80) marched toward the region with an army of 80,000 Austrians and Saxons, which he positioned at Landshut in the mountains of western Silesia. On June 3, 1745, Charles marched toward Breslau and set up camp near Hohenfriedberg. At dawn on the following day, his army awoke to face an attack by the Prussians. The fierce fighting resulted in 9,000 killed and wounded and 7,000 prisoners for the allies. Frederick's total losses were about 1,000 men. The Austrian and Saxon survivors then fled into Bohemia. Frederick pursued them with about half his army, leaving the rest to handle the irregulars in the south.

For three months the opposing armies maneuvered inconclusively along the upper Elbe in northeastern Bohemia. Frederick then began to withdraw his army of 18,000 men to Silesia and halted at Sohr. Charles followed with his reinforced army of 39,000 men. At the Battle of

Sohr, which opened on September 30, 1745, Charles outmaneuvered the Prussian king by seizing the heights to the rear of the Prussian army and cutting off its line of retreat. Frederick ordered a right wheel, and in the ensuing movements the Prussians overwhelmed the Austrian left. The Austrians fled to the northwest, and Frederick once again had access to the passes into Silesia. In October and November Charles gathered reinforcements for his allied army. His army and another allied army under Marshal Rutowski (fl. 1700s) advanced toward Berlin. Frederick quickly moved from Silesia toward Dresden. On November 24 and 25 the Prussian army dealt two strong blows to the allies, and Charles was forced to withdraw to Bohemia. In the meantime another Prussian army under Leopold of Anhalt-Dessau (1700–51) marched up the Elbe and met Rutowski at his defensive position between Meissen and Dresden. At the Battle of Kesselsdorf Rutowski was overwhelmed, and his army withdrew in disorder.

Faced with a number of Prussian victories and the withdrawal of the English troops from the allied army, Maria Theresa sought immediate peace. With the Treaty of Dresden, signed December 25, 1745, Maria Theresa recognized Frederick's conquest of Silesia. In return he recognized the election of Maria Theresa's husband, Francis I (1708–65), as the Holy Roman Emperor.

NETHERLANDS CAMPAIGNS, 1746–1748

While the Treaty of Dresden brought the Hohenfriedberg Campaign of the War of the Austrian Succession to a close, the war itself was far from over. Marshal Saxe continued to push his French army against the major fortresses in the Austrian Netherlands. First, he took Antwerp and then cleared the region between Brussels and the Meuse. At the Battle of Raucoux, Charles of Lorraine's allied army was defeated near Liège on October 11, 1746, and the armies withdrew into winter quarters on opposite banks of the Meuse. The following year the prince of Orange (1711–51) and the duke of Cumberland (1721–65), who had withdrawn from the war to help settle the Jacobite Rebellion (1745–1746) in Scotland, came to the aid of the allies, but in their first encounter with Saxe's French army—at the Battle of Lauffeld—they were defeated. Saxe sent a corps to besiege and capture Bergen-op-Zoom. In 1748 a large Russian army marched across Germany to join the allies in the Netherlands. Maastricht fell to an assault by Saxe on May 7. Meanwhile, Austria's ally, Britain, which was winning the war at sea and threatening France's rich West Indian colonies, figured it was time to bring hostilities to a close. The British warned Maria Theresa they would cut the subsidies to her and her army unless she would agree to peace negotiations. The resulting Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle restored all conquests on both sides with few exceptions. Prussia retained control of Silesia, and the Pragmatic Sanction, which had outlined the line of succession after the death of Charles VI, was reaffirmed. While the 1748 treaty recognized no changes in territory other than Prussia's taking possession of Silesia, it did signal the emergence of Brandenburg-Prussia under Frederick the Great as a major player among the European nations, one of the two German keys—the other, of course, being Austria—to a new balance of power on the continent.

THE IMPACT OF THE WAR

Britain became the maintainer of that new balance in the 1750s. The British saw it as essential that they preserve Prussia and use it as a counterweight to French power on the Continent, especially since France was now a threat to the Austrian Netherlands. At the bottom of much of these European maneuverings lay the struggle for empire going on between the French and the British, particularly in colonial North America. England's colonies were mostly gathered into compact settlements along the Atlantic seaboard, while the French, much fewer in number, had nevertheless been spreading down from Canada into the vast American interior and effectively expanding the French fur trade with the American Indians. A France fully occupied on the Continent was a France that could ill afford the expense and attention required to secure its hold on the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, a fact that instead would have to rely on the thin string of far-flung and weakly garrisoned forts and trading posts it had been establishing.

After the War of the Austrian Succession, Frederick the Great turned conservative, concentrating on holding Silesia. Meanwhile, Maria Theresa, determined to win it back, turned to yet another woman who had come to occupy a European throne. Empress Elizabeth (1709–62), daughter of Peter I the Great (1672–1725), had, with the support of the Imperial Guard, seized power in Russia in 1741. Now she and Maria Theresa entered into secret agreements that contemplated the near-dismemberment of Prussia. Thus it was that Britain rushed to Frederick's side, supplying Prussia with the vital British subsidies that had once sustained Austria.

By 1754 undeclared conflict had begun along the French and British frontiers in North America. And since the conflict between France's European and colonial interests were weakening its hand, France undertook a famous "reversal of alliances" in the so-called Diplomatic Revolution of 1756, in which the French agreed to support their old enemy, the House of Hapsburg, in its bid to reclaim Silesia in return for the cession to France of the long-coveted southern Netherlands. Thus, France, Austria, and Russia were linked against Britain and Prussia, and the stage was set for a major European conflict with ramifications in America and India.

In the long run the Treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle had been the product of exhaustion rather than genuine resolution, a mere truce, really. Although it restored the status quo in America, too, giving Louisbourg back to France, its very focus on that fort caught the attention of both

countries and made them aware of the increasing strength, and thus increasing importance, of England's American subjects. That awareness itself would spark a new, even more destructive, worldwide conflagration now smoldering in the American wilderness, where the locals would call it the French and Indian War. Back in Europe, where its roots lay, it would become known as the Seven Years' War.

Further reading: M. S. Anderson, *The War of the Austrian Succession, 1740–1748* (New York: Addison-Wesley, 1995); Reed Browning, *The War of the Austrian Succession* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995).

Austro-Hungarian War *See* HAPSBURG DYNASTIC WARS.

Austro-Prussian War (1756–1764) *See* SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

Austro-Prussian War (1866) *See* SEVEN WEEKS' WAR.

Austro-Swiss War (1385–1388)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria vs. Switzerland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Switzerland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hapsburgs invaded Swiss Confederation lands, seeking additional territory.
OUTCOME: The Austrians suffered a series of defeats, resulting in a two-decades-long peace and strengthening the Swiss Confederation, thereby establishing the foundation of modern Switzerland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Battle of Sempach (July 9, 1386), the Swiss fielded 1,600 pikemen against 6,000 Austrians.
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but heavy among the Austrians
TREATIES: Zurich Treaty of 1388

Throughout most of the Middle Ages the cantons of Switzerland had existed in competition with one another, and there was virtually no sense of a Swiss nationality. However, in response to oppression from the Hapsburgs, the cantons and other Swiss communities, loosely constituted as they were, banded together for the purpose of defense. The most important of the cantons, Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden, created the Everlasting League in 1291, which led to the creation of a Swiss Confederation early in the 14th century.

In 1385 the confederation was put to the test when Duke Leopold III of Austria (1351–86) encroached on confederation territory. This brought a preemptory response from the confederation, which took the initiative by invading Hapsburg-controlled Rothenburg and Sempach. Provoked, Leopold launched a full-scale invasion of Swiss territory. On July 9, 1386, 6,000 Austrians attacked a mere 1,600 Swiss pikemen. Austria's heavy cavalry was not much use in the broken mountain fields and so fought dismounted. They were at first successful against the outnumbered Swiss but eventually fell victim to their own heavy armor. Exhausted in the difficult terrain, the Austrians allowed gaps to develop in their line of attack. The highly skilled Swiss were quick to exploit these openings. In a counterattack they readily penetrated the faulty Austrian lines and devastated the numerically superior army. Leopold III was killed in the final assault on the dismounted cavalrymen.

Sempach was the decisive battle of the war. However, one more great battle was fought at Näfels in 1388. Again showing themselves masters of tactics suited to mountainous terrain, the Swiss set up an ambush in which they let loose an avalanche of boulders on the advancing Austrians. Thus, thrown into panic and disorder, the Austrians were handily defeated in detail and concluded a hasty truce, which was soon formalized as the Zurich Treaty of 1388. The victory greatly enhanced the prestige and power of the Swiss Federation, which, by the beginning of the 15th century, would include a total of eight member cantons.

Further reading: Douglas Miller, *The Swiss at War 1300–1500* (London: Osprey, 1998); William E. Rappard, *Collective Security in Swiss Experience, 1291–1948* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1984).

Austro-Swiss War (1460)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria vs. Swiss Confederation
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rhine region of Switzerland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Swiss Confederation wanted to push the Hapsburgs north of the Rhine.
OUTCOME: For the most part, the confederation was successful; the Hapsburgs retained a few small holdings south of the Rhine.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Constance, 1461

As a result of the OLD ZURICH WAR, the Hapsburg Austrians were driven out of the Aargau in 1450. Nevertheless, the Hapsburgs' presence continued to loom over the Swiss cantons. Hapsburg duke Sigismund (d. 1496) ruled the Tyrol, while Holy Roman Emperor Frederick III (1415–93), member of a rival branch of the Hapsburg family, walked a thin

line between asserting his imperial rights in Switzerland and maintaining his claims to Hapsburg power. Ultimately, his decision was to side with rival Hapsburgs against the Swiss Confederation.

Thanks to its success in the AUSTRO-SWISS WAR (1385–1388), the Swiss Confederation was both powerful and prestigious. Appreciating this, Frederick III made the mistake no effective leader can afford to make: He threatened war but repeatedly deferred action. Sensing weakness, the Swiss Confederation assumed the offensive. When Frederick's man in the Tyrol, Sigismund, was excommunicated in 1460 because of a dispute over papal succession, the confederation found its pretext for launching a war. Dispatching an army to the Rhineland, the confederation occupied Frauenfeld, then laid siege against Winterthur. The siege was soon broken, but the confederation did wrest the canton of Thurgau from the grasp of Sigismund. This gave the confederation a strong hand in negotiating a favorable peace at Constance in 1461. By the treaty hammered out there, the Hapsburgs relinquished many of their holdings in the Swiss territories.

Further reading: Douglas Miller, *The Swiss at War 1300–1500* (London: Osprey, 1998); William E. Rappard, *Collective Security in Swiss Experience, 1291–1948* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1984).

Austro-Swiss War (Swiss-Swabian War) (1499)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria (and Holy Roman Empire allies) vs. Switzerland (and French allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Switzerland
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Swiss sought independence from the Holy Roman Empire.
OUTCOME: Maximilian's Swabian troops were decisively defeated, and the Swiss achieved independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Basel, September 22, 1499

After the Hapsburgs were driven out of the Swiss Aargau in 1450 (*see* OLD ZURICH WAR), Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian I (1459–1519), a Hapsburg, sought revenge by asserting imperial control over and levying burdensome taxes on the eastern cantons of Switzerland, where the border with Austria was in hot contention. The Swiss Confederation secured an alliance with the French, stubbornly resisted the Holy Roman Empire, and thereby provoked open warfare.

Maximilian enjoyed the support of the cities of southern Germany and opened up fronts along the northern and eastern borders of the Swiss territory. In a period of a few months, five battles were fought in succession: at Hard, Bruderholz, Schwaderloh, Frastenz, and Claven. None of these was decisive, although the Swiss generally prevailed.

The major battle of the war was fought on July 22 at Dornach and resulted in the defeat of an army led personally by Maximilian. Unable to recover from this reverse, Maximilian sued for peace and, by the Treaty of Basel (September 22, 1499), granted the Swiss cantons virtual independence from the Holy Roman Empire.

See also AUSTRO-SWISS WAR (1385–1388); AUSTRO-SWISS WAR (1460).

Further reading: Douglas Miller, *The Swiss at War 1300–1500* (London: Osprey, 1998); William E. Rappard, *Collective Security in Swiss Experience, 1291–1948* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1984).

Austro-Turkish War (1529–1533)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Austrians wanted to recover the portion of Hungary lost to the Ottomans; the Ottomans wanted to take Vienna.
OUTCOME: Two-thirds of Hungary remained in Ottoman hands, but the assault on Vienna was twice repulsed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Austrians, 78,000; Ottoman Turks, 200,000
CASUALTIES: Austria, unknown; Ottoman Turks, several thousand (mostly victims of snowstorms and starvation)
TREATIES: A truce ended the war in 1533.

Ottoman victory in the HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1521–1526) gave the Ottoman Turks control of some two-thirds of Hungary. The Austrians, however, quickly acted against Ottoman Hungary, forcing John Zápolya (1487–1540), king of Ottoman Hungary, into Polish exile in 1527.

John called upon the Turks at Constantinople for help, and Sultan Süleyman I the Magnificent (1496–1566) swore to march on Vienna and take the city. The sultan rapidly mobilized some 80,000 to 120,000 men and invaded Hungary in May 1529. Joining him was the rebellious Zápolya with 6,000 cavalrymen.

Buda was the first objective, which fell on September 8. The German garrison there was slaughtered. On September 27 Süleyman's forces were outside Vienna and commenced bombardment of the city while Turkish engineers began undermining the walls. Süleyman did not count on the tenacity of the defenders, however, who fought from within the walls and also periodically sortied into the attackers with great effect. On October 6 some 8,000 Austrians surged out of the city and wreaked havoc among the Turks, killing 600 before withdrawing within

the city again. The Austrians knew that time was on their side. The sultan's army would be hard put to maintain the siege through winter, and on the night of October 14–15 Süleyman did finally withdraw.

The retreat of the Ottoman Turks was a logistical nightmare. Poorly supplied, continually harried by Austrian peasants, freezing, and starving, they plodded homeward. Thousands perished, and much valuable equipment was abandoned.

In 1531 Archduke Ferdinand (1503–64) launched a counteroffensive but was unable to retake Buda. In 1532 Süleyman also regrouped, assembling at Belgrade a vast invasion force at least 200,000 strong. The Turks were on the march by June, and they faced an army under Charles V (1500–58) of only 78,000, but these troops were so skillfully deployed that Süleyman was effectively held at bay. Chastened by the experience of his first invasion, the sultan repeatedly avoided a frontal attack. Instead, from August 9 to 28 the Turks attacked the fortress of Guns, a relatively minor outpost. Even this siege proved unsuccessful, and, at last, Süleyman gave up. After withdrawing down the Drava River, he concluded a truce in 1533. By that time, however, he had lost control of large numbers of his troops, who continued indiscriminate and highly destructive raids, triggering the AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1537–1547).

Further reading: Rhoads Murphey, *Ottoman Warfare: 1500–1700* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1999); V. J. Parry and M. J. Kitch, *Hapsburg and Ottoman Empires* (London: Sussex Publications, 1982).

Austro-Turkish War (1537–1547)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: 1537
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of Hungary
OUTCOME: After suffering many defeats, Austria was allowed to retain its portion of Hungary in exchange for tribute payment.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Austria, 24,000; Ottoman numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Austria, 20,000 killed; Ottoman losses unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Adrianople, 1547

Following the truce that ended the AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1529–1533), two incidents provoked the Ottoman sultan Süleyman I the Magnificent (1496–1566) to start a new war against the Austrians at Vienna. In 1537 a force of 24,000 Austrians and Bohemians attacked the Ottoman fortress at Essek; they were repulsed. In that same year the Ottoman governor of Moldavia was suspected of conspiring with Vienna, which prompted Süleyman to occupy Moldavia the following year and install a new governor. To head off war John Zápolya (1487–1540), king of Ottoman Hungary, concluded a pact with Austria's archduke Ferdinand (1503–1564), agreeing that each would retain what he presently controlled until Zápolya's death. If Zápolya died childless (at the time of the pact, he was as yet unmarried), his lands would devolve upon Ferdinand.

Unfortunately, John Zápolya did not secure Süleyman's consent to the pact. With great optimism, the Hungarian monarch married in 1539 but died the following year, though not before fathering a son, John II Sigismund (1540–71). Despite the infant heir, Ferdinand laid claim to Zápolya's lands and marched against the Hungarian capital of Buda.

Süleyman learned of the pact belatedly but mobilized quickly, sending a force to hold Buda in 1541. The neighboring city of Pest fell to him at this time as well. Although victorious, Süleyman sought a negotiated settlement. He demanded the return of territories seized after the death of Zápolya, but he offered payment for Austrian Hungary. Ferdinand made the mistake of failing to respond decisively, and Süleyman took the delay as a sign of weakness. He invaded from Belgrade during April–September 1543 and made quick work of the chain of Austrian fortresses defending the route to Buda. This persuaded Ferdinand to respond favorably to Süleyman's original terms. For his part, Süleyman was now pressed by the demands of the ongoing TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1526–1555) and was therefore eager to settle with the Austrian archduke. A truce was called in 1545 followed two years later by the Treaty of Adrianople, by which it was Ferdinand who retained Austrian Hungary in return for a tribute paid to the Ottomans.

The treaty specified a five-year peace; however, this was broken by the outbreak in 1551 of the AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1551–1553).

Further reading: Rhoads Murphey, *Ottoman Warfare: 1500–1700* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1999); V. J. Parry and M. J. Kitch, *Hapsburg and Ottoman Empires* (London: Sussex Publications, 1982).

Austro-Turkish War (1551–1553)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria vs. Ottoman Turks (with French alliance)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of Hungary
OUTCOME: The war was inconclusive but resulted in the three-way division of Hungary among Austria, the Ottoman Empire, and Transylvania, making the area a powderkeg.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Although fighting ceased in 1553, the Treaty of Constantinople was not concluded until 1563.

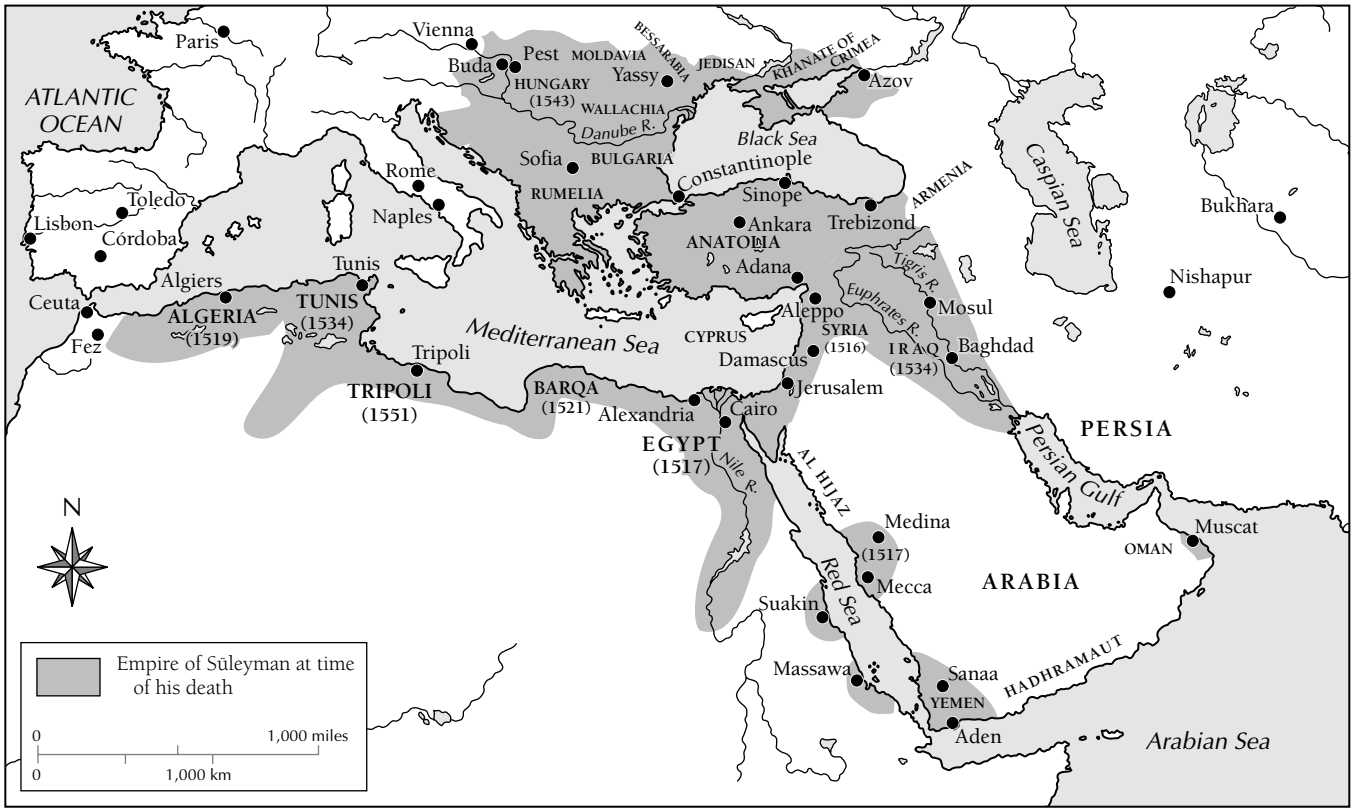
The Peace of Adrianople, which ended the AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1537–1547), was slated to hold for five years. But Austria's signatory, Archduke Ferdinand (1503–64), broke the treaty in 1551 because Buda, now in the hands of the Ottomans, separated Austrian Hungary from Transylvania. Ferdinand invaded Transylvania, laying siege to Lippa, the Transylvanian capital. The Ottomans launched a counteroffensive. In 1551 Ottoman amphibious forces captured Tripoli, which had been held by the Knights of St. John. While Ottoman and French ships raided the Mediterranean—capturing Bastia on Corsica in 1553—Ottoman land forces concentrated on Hungary. In 1551 three key fortresses fell to the Ottomans, leading to the collapse of Temesvár, which became an Ottoman province. An Ottoman attack on the fortress city of Erlau failed in 1552, prompting the Ottomans to sue for peace. It was a proposal the beleaguered Austrians quickly accepted.

Both sides sought to exploit the armistice. The Ottomans were able to turn full attention to the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1526–1555), and the Austrians used the interval of peace to attempt the consummation of the annexation of Hungary. In the end a treaty of 1563 created the worst possible scenario with regard to Hungary. It was trisected into three hostile regions, one controlled by Transylvania, one by Austria, and the third by the Ottomans. The stage was set for a long series of wars: AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1566), AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1591–1606), AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1663–1664), AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1683–1699), and AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1716–1718).

Further reading: Rhoads Murphey, *Ottoman Warfare: 1500–1700* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1999); V. J. Parry and M. J. Kitch, *Hapsburg and Ottoman Empires* (London: Sussex Publications, 1982).

Austro-Turkish War (1566)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria vs. Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Modern Croatia (at the time part of Austria-Hungary)
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Turks marched against Austria on the pretext that the Austrian emperor had failed to pay an already established tribute and for Austrian attacks on Transylvania; actually, the Ottoman sultan sought to vindicate himself for former defeats.
OUTCOME: A Pyrrhic victory for the Turks
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottomans, 100,000; Austro-Hungarians, 2,300
CASUALTIES: Ottomans, 3,000 killed or wounded; Austro-Hungarians, 2,300 killed
TREATIES: Treaty of Adrianople, 1568



Ottoman Empire at the conclusion of the war and on the death of Süleyman the Magnificent

In May 1565 Süleyman I the Magnificent (1496–1566) attacked Malta, failed, and resolved to make an assault on the Hapsburgs at another location. When the new emperor of Austria (and Austrian Hungary), Maximilian II (1527–76) refused to pay the Ottomans the tribute due them for continued possession of Austrian Hungary, Süleyman had an amply justifiable cause for war.

In July 1566 the aged Süleyman invaded Austria with 100,000 troops and laid siege against Szigeth on August 5. That fortress town was defended by the Croatian count Miklós Zrinyi (1508–66) with a mere 2,300 troops. However, the town was well fortified, and Zrinyi's men were able to repulse three assaults along the narrow causeways leading into Szigeth. Nevertheless, by September 8 the count had a mere 600 troops fit for action. Deciding to make a last stand, he set charges to detonate his powder magazines, and he led a suicidal sortie from the town. Virtually all of the forces, including Count Zrinyi, were killed. The Ottomans rushed into the town's citadel and were caught by the explosion of the magazines. A total of 3,000 Ottoman troops were killed or wounded. As for Süleyman, he, too, was dead, having succumbed to dysentery two days before the collapse of Szigeth.

The taking of Szigeth was a Pyrrhic victory. The Ottoman forces did not remain in Hungary but withdrew to Constantinople. During the entire march back those around Süleyman maintained the fiction that he was still alive. His body was carried concealed from view, in a closed litter. His successor, Selim II (1524–74), concluded the Treaty of Adrianople in February 1568, making peace with Emperor Maximilian.

See also Austro-Turkish War (1551–1553); Austro-Turkish War (1591–1606); Austro-Turkish War (1663–1664); Austro-Turkish War (1683–1699); Austro-Turkish War (1716–1718).

Further reading: Rhoads Murphey, *Ottoman Warfare: 1500–1700* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1999); V. J. Parry and M. J. Kitch, *Hapsburg and Ottoman Empires* (London: Sussex Publications, 1982).

Austro-Turkish War (Fifteen Years' War, "Long War") (1591–1606)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria vs. Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary and the Balkans
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of Hungary and the Balkan territories
OUTCOME: Despite many gains and losses during the war, the Ottomans ultimately won only two minor fortresses; most importantly, the war signaled the end of Ottoman expansion into Europe.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Austro-Hungary, 40,000; Ottoman Empire, 100,000
CASUALTIES: Austro-Hungary, 23,000 killed; Ottoman Empire, about 20,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Zsitva-Torok, November 11, 1606

When Holy Roman Emperor Rudolf II (1552–1612) unilaterally terminated tribute payments to the Ottoman Empire for possession of Austrian Hungary in 1591, threats were issued and skirmishing broke out, but the Ottomans actually lost ground in central Hungary and Romania. War began in earnest in 1594 when Grand Vizier Sinan Pasha (d. 1596) led 100,000 troops into northern Hungary. The following year on October 28, 1595, Sigismund Báthory (1557–1606), prince of Transylvania, led Austro-Hungarian forces against the invaders at Guirgevo. Sinan was defeated.

In September 1596 the new sultan, Mohammed III (d. 1603), renewed the invasion, again with 100,000 men. They targeted the fortress town of Erlau. The massive force succeeded in taking the town, whereupon a force of 40,000, including Austrians, Germans, Transylvanians, and Hungarians, advanced to regain it. Twice the Ottomans sent forces to intercept the advance, and twice, on October 24 and October 26, 1596, they were repulsed. Then the Hapsburg forces counterattacked, penetrating the camp of the sultan and capturing some 50 artillery pieces. However, the Ottomans replied with a devastating surprise cavalry attack on the German-Hungarian flank. This was sufficient to create panic in the entire force, and the Hapsburgs lost some 23,000 men. Ottoman losses were also heavy—probably 20,000 killed or wounded—and the army was in such a state of exhaustion that it did not capitalize on its victory. The result was that warfare within the Ottoman-Hungarian borderlands continued sporadically until 1606, when, on November 11, the Treaty of Zsitva-Torok ended hostilities.

See also Austro-Turkish War (1566); Austro-Turkish War (1551–1553); Austro-Turkish War (1663–1664); Austro-Turkish War (1683–1699); Austro-Turkish War (1716–1718).

Further reading: Rhoads Murphey, *Ottoman Warfare: 1500–1700* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1999); V. J. Parry and M. J. Kitch, *Hapsburg and Ottoman Empires* (London: Sussex Publications, 1982).

Austro-Turkish War (1663–1664)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria (with French and German mercenaries) vs. Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary and Transylvania
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A continuation of the Transylvanian-Turkish War of 1657–62, this war was fought over possession of portions of Hungary.

OUTCOME: Turkey was confirmed in its suzerainty over Transylvania, but Transylvania and part of Hungary were demilitarized for a period of 20 years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Austria, 60,000; Ottoman Empire, 120,000
CASUALTIES: Austria (and mercenaries), 9,000 killed; Ottoman Empire, 8,000 killed
TREATIES: The Treaty of Vasvar, 1664

Ottoman victory in the TRANSYLVANIAN-TURKISH WAR of 1657–62 emboldened the Ottomans to invade Hungary with some 120,000 men under Grand Vizier Ahmen Koprulu Pasha (1635–76) in 1663. Ultimately, the Ottomans had as their objective the taking of Vienna itself. However, an Austro-Hungarian force under Adam Forgach (1643–63) successfully blocked the advance of the invaders at Neuhausel, and the advance did not resume until spring 1664, now with an army reduced to about 80,000 men.

The Ottoman force was met in battle by some 60,000 Austrians (augmented by French and German mercenaries) at the convent of St. Gotthard on the Raab River on August 1, 1664. Prince Charles of Lorraine (1604–75) engaged in single combat with an unidentified Ottoman artillery officer. Charles killed his opponent, which thereby neutralized Ottoman artillery. In the meantime, Austrian cavalry and mercenary infantry prevailed against the numerically superior Ottoman force.

Losses were very heavy: perhaps 9,000 Austrians and mercenaries killed and 8,000 Ottoman troops killed. Both sides were eager for peace and on August 11 concluded the Treaty of Vasvar, calling for 20 years of peace.

See also AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1566); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1551–1553); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1591–1606); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1683–1699); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1716–1718).

Further reading: Rhoads Murphey, *Ottoman Warfare: 1500–1700* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1999); V. J. Parry and M. J. Kitch, *Hapsburg and Ottoman Empires* (London: Sussex Publications, 1982).

Austro-Turkish War (1683–1699)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria (with a Holy League consisting of the Holy Roman Empire, Venice, Poland, and, after 1686, Moscow) vs. Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary and the Balkans
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Primarily, the possession of Hungary
OUTCOME: The Ottomans, badly defeated, were driven out of Hungary.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Holy League, 142,343; Ottoman Empire, 200,000
CASUALTIES: Holy League, 49,200 killed or wounded; Ottoman Empire, 156,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: The Treaty of Karlowitz, January 26, 1699

On March 3, 1683, an Ottoman army of 200,000, allied with a Transylvanian force, invaded Hungary from Adrianople. Austria and Poland united to defend against the invaders, 150,000 of whom commenced a siege of Vienna on July 17, 1683 (see VIENNA, SIEGE OF). Vienna's garrison consisted of about 11,000 regular troops and 6,000 volunteers. However, the defenders possessed superb artillery, which held off the Ottomans until September 12, 1683, when an Austro-Polish force of more than 60,000 arrived. By this point the Viennese garrison had lost 5,000 regulars and 1,700 volunteers, although the Ottomans had suffered losses amounting to some 40,000 killed or wounded, so that when the Austro-Polish force attacked from the heights of Kahlenberg, they faced a reduced Ottoman-Transylvanian force of about 138,000. Immediately seizing the initiative, the Austro-Polish army made a devastating attack that cost the Ottomans 15,000 killed and as many as 25,000 wounded. The Austro-Polish relief force lost 1,800 killed and 3,200 wounded.

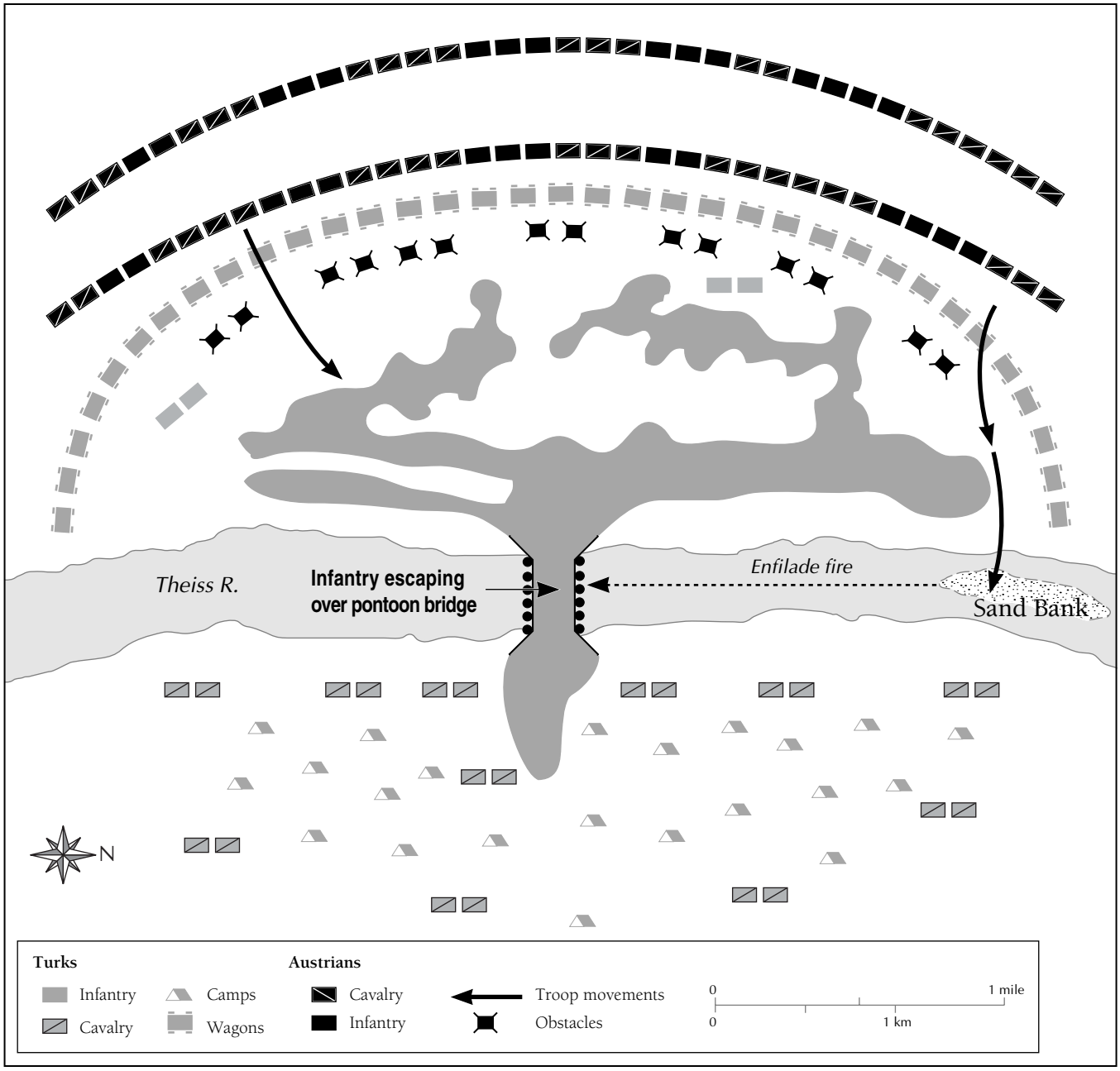
As the Ottoman force retreated the Austro-Polish army pursued. The Ottoman column crossed the Danube on a boat bridge, which collapsed, adding another 7,000 fatalities to the Ottoman toll.

The victory at the Siege of Vienna brought an end to the Ottoman threat against Europe. However, the war continued, albeit with many lulls. In 1684 Charles of Lorraine (1604–75) attempted to take Buda, which the Ottomans had held for 145 years. Charles failed, and half of his 34,000-man army perished. A second siege resulted in victory, however, on September 2, 1686, although Austrian losses in this campaign amounted to some 20,000 killed or wounded.

On August 12, 1687, Charles defeated the Ottomans at the Battle of Harkány, inflicting some 20,000 casualties. This victory liberated Croatia from the Ottoman Empire.

In 1687 Sultan Mohammed IV (1648–87) was overthrown, and the new sultan, Süleyman II, renewed the struggle against the Austrians and their allies. Holy League forces were defeated at Zernyest, Transylvania, in August 1690, allowing the Ottomans to capture most of Serbia by October. Belgrade fell to the Turks on October 8. In response Louis of Baden (1655–1707) led Holy League forces in a counteroffensive and defeated a combined Ottoman-Transylvanian force at the Battle of Szalánkemén on August 19, 1691, inflicting some 20,000 casualties on the 80,000-man army. With this Transylvania became a Hapsburg possession.

The war continued in desultory fashion until Sultan Mustafa II (r. 1695–1703) invaded Hungary with 50,000 troops in 1697. At the Battle of Zenta on September 11



Battle of Zenta, September 11, 1697

Mustafa's force was met by 31,343 Holy League troops under Eugene of Savoy (1663–1736). Eugene attacked when the Ottoman army was divided on either side of the River Theiss and was in the process of crossing a bridge. Eugene destroyed the bridge, then drove the invaders into the river, killing perhaps as many as 29,000 while suffering no more than 50 casualties himself, killed and wounded.

Zenta was one of the worst defeats suffered by the Ottoman Empire, and it prompted the Treaty of Karlowitz, concluded on January 26, 1699. Austria received most of Hungary and Transylvania, and the Hapsburgs thereby supplanted the Ottomans as the major power in southeastern Europe.

See also AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1566); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1551–1553); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1591–1606); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1663–1664); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1716–1718).

Further reading: Rhoads Murphey, *Ottoman Warfare: 1500–1700* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1999); V. J. Parry and M. J. Kitch, *Hapsburg and Ottoman Empires* (London: Sussex Publications, 1982).

Austro-Turkish War (1716–1718)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria (with Venice) vs. Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary and the Balkans
DECLARATION: Austria declared war on the Ottomans, in 1716.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of Hungary and the Balkans
OUTCOME: The Ottomans were decisively defeated, relinquishing to Austria Hungary and most of the Balkans.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Austria, 123,000 men; Ottoman Empire, approximately 310,000 men
CASUALTIES: Austria, 40,000 killed and wounded; Ottoman Empire, more than 80,000 killed and wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Passarowitz, July 21, 1718

At the opening of 1716, Austria's emperor Charles VI (1685–1740) joined in an alliance with Venice against the Ottoman Empire. While the Venetians fought the Ottomans chiefly at sea (*see* VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR [1714–1718]), Austria bore the brunt of the land war. When 110,000 Ottoman troops advanced northward from Belgrade, Prince Eugene of Savoy (1663–1736) intercepted with 63,000 soldiers at Peterwardein. Despite Ottoman superiority of numbers, the Austrians prevailed, killing 6,000 Ottoman troops and wounding as many as 14,000 while suffering losses of 3,000 killed and 2,000 wounded.

From Peterwardein, Eugene laid siege to the Ottoman stronghold at Temesvár. After five weeks, on October 14, 1716, Temesvár fell. It was the last Ottoman fortress in Hungary.

During the summer of 1717, Eugene besieged Belgrade, most formidable of the Ottoman's European fortress cities. Eugene had 60,000 men against the Ottoman garrison of 30,000, but an Ottoman relief force of 180,000 men advanced against Eugene. Taking the initiative, Eugene led 40,000 against this vast force, winning a remarkable victory on August 16, 1717. Ottoman losses at this battle were 20,000 dead or wounded. The Austrians suffered 5,400 killed or wounded. The relief force having withdrawn from the field, Belgrade surrendered to Eugene on August 21, 1717.

The fall of Belgrade laid open Serbia, Wallachia, and the Banat to the Austrian army, and the Ottoman losses continued to mount. The Ottomans sued for peace, and on July 21, 1718, the Treaty of Passarowitz was concluded, giving Austria Temesvár and Belgrade as well as part of Wallachia, while Venice garnered Dalmatia and a portion of Albania. In all, Austria had suffered 40,000 casualties, killed or wounded, but had inflicted almost precisely twice this number of casualties on the Ottoman forces.

See also AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1566); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1551–1553); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1591–1606); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1663–1664); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1683–1699).

Further reading: Rhoads Murphey, *Ottoman Warfare: 1500–1700* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1999); V. J. Parry and M. J. Kitch, *Hapsburg and Ottoman Empires* (London: Sussex Publications, 1982); Karl A. Roider, *Austria's Eastern Question, 1700–1790* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1982).

Austro-Turkish War (1736–1739)

See RUSSO-TURKISH WAR (1736–1739).

Avar Wars for Empire (562–601)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Avars vs. Franks, Bulgars, Slavs, and Romans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany, Italy, and the Baltic Peninsula
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chased from Central Asia, the Avars were determined to conquer an empire in the West.
OUTCOME: Decades of conquest left the Avars with an empire stretching east from the Julian Alps to the Volga and south from the Danube River valley to the Baltic Sea.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None recorded

Native to the steppes that lay between the Volga, Kama, and Ural Rivers, the Avars, akin to the Huns and Tartars, were driven from their homeland by the Turks around 555. Relocating to the northern Caucasus, the Avars, under the leadership of their great chief, Baian (fl. sixth century), were determined to conquer central Europe and dominate the region as they once had Central Asia. In 562 the Avars invaded westward into Germany, but, during the course of several large battles in Thuringia, they were repulsed by the counterattacking Franks, led by the sons of Clotaire I (d. 561). The Avars then looked to the east and made raids into the eastern Roman Empire in 564 before concluding an alliance with the Germanic Lombards in their war against the Gepidae in Italy. In exchange for Avar support, the Lombards agreed to give the Avars 10 percent of their livestock and any conquered Gepidae territory.

In a classic pincer movement the Avars invaded from the northeast while the Lombards attacked from the northwest, converging in the Danube River valley and

crushing the Gepidae. Alboin (d. 572), king of the Lombards, personally slew the Gepidae king and then took his reluctant daughter as a bride. The Avars and the Lombards followed their victory with a campaign that decimated the Gepidae lands. Seeing the ferocity with which the Avars waged war, Alboin realized that they—having annexed all Gepidae lands—were now potentially his most dangerous enemy. He quickly concluded a new alliance with them and migrated south across the Alps and into northern Italy, leaving Pannonia and Noricum to the Avars but putting enough distance behind him to create a buffer zone between the two people.

In the east Justinian (b. 483), who had managed to hold the Roman Empire together through sheer force of will and his tremendous personal influence, died in 565. Several years later Baian recognized that the empire lay vulnerable, and he fully intended to take advantage of the situation. The king of the Avars turned his attention especially to the city of Sirmium. The Romans had occupied the city during the joint Avar-Lombard attack on the Gepidae, but Baian reasoned that it was rightly his, since it had been a Gepidaen city, and—as everyone knew, per his agreement with Alboin—all Gepidae now belonged to him. When the Romans refused to hand Sirmium over, Baian laid siege to the city and at the same time offered generous terms. All he wanted, he said, was a silver plate, some gold, and a ceremonial toga; he would gladly break off the siege, since he had fighting to do elsewhere, but to come away with nothing would be disgraceful before his allies. Sirmium's city elders had no authority to accept terms but passed them on to Rome, recommending their acceptance. While he was waiting for a reply, Baian sent 10,000 Huns into Dalmatia to ravage the countryside as a show of force. The emperor Justin II (d. 578), and later Tiberius (d. 582), refused to accept either the terms or the surrender of Sirmium and hastily prepared for war. The subsequent Roman offensives were ill-advised and never successful. In 580 the Avars took Sirmium for good.

After securing Sirmium, Baian swept south against the Slavs and marched through the Balkans undefeated, reaching the Aegean Sea in 591 and again in 597. The southward expansion would mark the zenith of Avar supremacy. For more than a quarter century Baian and the Avars were essentially without military peer in central Europe. Save for the early defeat at the hands of the Franks, Baian was never defeated in the field. His luck would end, however, with the ascension of the emperor Maurice (582–602). Although Tiberius died in 582, Maurice was not able to consolidate his power and sufficiently gain control of the army for another decade. But beginning in 595 Maurice and his general, Priscus (fl. sixth century), engaged in a series of decisive campaigns ranging from the Black Sea to the Theiss River, successfully gaining the upper hand against the Avars. In 601 Priscus soundly defeated Baian on the south bank of the Danube at the Battle of Viminacium. Although Baian's defeat at Viminacium ended the Avars' unchecked dominance in the region, Baian maintained suzerainty over an empire that stretched east from the Julian Alps to the Volga and south from the Danube River valley to the Baltic Sea.

See also Avar-Xiongnu War.

Further reading: J. J. Saunders, *The History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001); E. A. Thompson, *The Huns* (London: Blackwell, 1999).

Avar-Xiongnu War (c. 380)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Avars vs. Xiongnu (Hsiung-nu) Huns
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern China
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Expansion of the Avar dynasty
OUTCOME: The Xiongnu peoples were defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

The Avars, a Mongol people from the steppe regions of inner Asia, began a clanlike existence around the middle of the fourth century. Within their ranks arose a powerful leader named Toulon (fl. fourth century), who pushed his people to move south. Around 380 the Avars, led by Toulon, defeated the Hun band known as the Xiongnu. The Avars pushed the Xiongnu to the south and west and apparently exacted tribute from them. Following his triumph Toulon took the title of khan. With the defeat of the Xiongnu, the Avars continued their migration. During the 6th and 7th centuries they would wage war on the Northern Wei Empire, amassing a powerful empire themselves (*see* Avar Wars for Empire).

Further reading: J. J. Saunders, *The History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001); E. A. Thompson, *The Huns* (London: Blackwell, 1999).

Axe, War of the (1846–1847)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British colonists of South Africa vs. the Xhosa tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vicinity of the Great Kei River in South Africa
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Part of a century-long conflict between the Xhosa people and white settlers

OUTCOME: The Xhosa were driven from their homelands when the English Crown annexed contested lands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As British colonists and Dutch Boers settled more and more of South Africa, they began to encroach on the Xhosa people, who were increasingly hard pressed by unremitting famine and drought. The Xhosa responded by harassing the colonists, principally by cattle theft and raids on trading posts.

In 1846 British authorities dispatched a small number of troops to patrol "Kaffirland"—the Xhosa were derisively called Kaffirs by the British—after a Xhosa tribesman had escaped from detention at Fort Beaufort. He was being held for having allegedly stolen an axe. The troops demanded that the Xhosa give up the escaped detainee, and when they refused a war erupted. For just under two years, the Xhosa harried the frontier of British and Boer settlement. There were no formal "set" battles in the War of the Axe, but British troops unrelentingly policed the region until the Xhosa were driven not only from the frontier but out of their homeland entirely. The region vacated was annexed by the British Crown.

See also BOER WAR, FIRST; BOER WAR, SECOND (GREAT); BOER-ZULU WAR.

Further reading: Noel Mostert, *Frontiers: The Epic of South Africa's Creation and the Tragedy of the Xhosa People* (New York: Knopf, 1992); J. B. Peires, *House of Phalo: A History of the Xhosa People in the Days of Their Independence* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1982).

Avytthayan-Chiengmai Wars *See* THAI WAR (1371–1378); THAI WAR (1387–1390); THAI WAR (1411); THAI WAR (1442–1448); THAI WAR (1451–1456); THAI WAR (1461–1464); THAI WAR (1474–1475); THAI WAR (1492); THAI WAR (C. 1500–1529); THAI WAR (1660–1662).

Aztec Wars of Expansion (c. 1428–1502)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Aztecs vs. rival tribes; during a brief civil war, the rival Aztec cities of Tenochtitlán and Tlatelolco fought.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Imperial expansion
OUTCOME: The Aztecs conquered and subjugated most rival tribes, primarily to the south of their capital at Tenochtitlán (modern Mexico City).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the Battle of Zamacuyahuac the Aztecs fielded 24,000 men.
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Zamacuyahuac the Aztecs lost 20,000 men.
TREATIES: No documents have been identified.

The Aztecs first appeared as a nomadic warrior tribe who settled on two islands in Mexico's Lake Texcoco, Tenochtitlán and Tlatelolco, about 1325. These island locations were natural fortresses from which the Aztecs waged a series of expansionist wars against lesser tribes.

During the reign of the "Black Serpent," Emperor Itzcoatl (1428–40), the Aztecs fought the Tepanaca tribe, who lived on the western shore of Lake Texcoco. This tribe, correctly fearing Aztec aggression, attempted to blockade Tenochtitlán and Tlatelolco, effectively holding the Aztecs under siege and cutting off all supplies, including water. Itzcoatl led an expedition against the Tepanaca in 1428. It developed into a prolonged war, but by 1430 the Aztecs had gained the initiative and laid siege to the rival tribe in its own capital. With the Tepanaca crushed, Itzcoatl took the war to its ally, the people of the city of Xochimilco, which fell in 1433, bringing the first phase of Aztec aggression to an end.

Under Montezuma I (also called Moctezuma I, or Ilhuicamina, "One Who Frowns Like a Lord"), the Aztecs undertook an even more aggressive campaign of expansion. From 1440 to 1468, the span of this emperor's reign, the Aztec Empire was pushed far to the south of Tenochtitlán. Montezuma I established the Aztecs as a powerful trading people, and the empire flourished.

Montezuma I was succeeded by Axayactl, who pressed the Aztec program of expansion eastward all the way to the Gulf of Mexico. At the same time he further enlarged the Aztec sphere of influence to the southwest, stopping only at the Pacific coast.

In 1473 a civil war (sometimes called the War of Defilement) broke out between Tenochtitlán and Tlatelolco. Tlatelolco struck alliances with other Aztec cities opposed to the power of Tenochtitlan. However, Tlatelolco unwisely provoked war prematurely, before any of its allies could be brought to bear on the conflict, and Tenochtitlán acted swiftly to crush its rival.

The next recorded Aztec war came five years later, in 1478. Tenochtitlán at this point had become the central city of a three-city league, which included Tlacopán and Texcoco. The league launched a war against the Tarascans, a traditional mutual enemy. Under Axayactl's inept command, however, the army of the league was deployed in a piecemeal and divided fashion. This violation of a timeless tactical principle—never divide your forces in the face of the enemy—brought on disaster at the Battle of Zamacuyahuac. On the first day of the battle, the Aztec forces were defeated in detail. Axayactl regrouped on the second

day and led a make-or-break charge against the Tarascans. The result was an even worse defeat. Of 24,000 league forces deployed, all but 4,000 fell in battle.

By 1481 the Aztecs had fully recovered from the disaster at Zamacuyahuac, and in the six-year reign of Emperor Tizoc, from 1481 to 1486, they pushed the frontier of their empire to the southeast. On balance, the Aztecs gained significant territory, although the war of expansion was by no means an unqualified success. The era of true imperial triumph came under the reign of Ahuitzotol, from 1486 to 1502, when Aztec forces made an extensive sweep, primarily far to the south. These southern acquisitions spanned both coasts.

See also SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO.

Further reading: Frances Berdan, *The Aztecs of Central Mexico: An Imperial Society* (Fort Worth, Tex.: Harcourt Brace College, 1990); John Bierhorst, tr., *History and Mythology of the Aztecs: The Codex Chimalpopoca* (Tempe: University of Arizona Press, 1998); Ross Hassig, *War and Society in Ancient Mesoamerica* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1992); Richard F. Townsend, *The Aztecs* (London and New York: Thames and Hudson, 2000).

B

Babur's Conquest of Bihar and Bengal
(1528–1529)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mughal Empire vs. Afghan forces of the former sultan of Delhi
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern and eastern India
DECLARATION: No known declarations
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Babur's continued conquest of India
OUTCOME: Babur consolidated northern and eastern India under the Mughal dynasty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: About 25,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

In 1528 Babur (1483–1530), founder of India's Mughal dynasty, having descended from both Genghis Khan (c. 1167–1227) and Tamerlane (1336–1405), was already a military adventurer of some distinction, an accomplished writer, and an able statesman, but it was his conquests of Bihar and Bengal that firmly established his military genius, giving him near-total control of northern and eastern India. Beginning with Babur's first movements into the Punjab in 1515 (*see* BABUR'S RAIDS ON THE PUNJAB), he was almost constantly at war, and although one campaign flowed from the next, each of his four campaigns into India is viewed by most historians as a separate military action. Once he had taken the Punjab as his base of operations, Babur was forced to deal with individual chieftains who opposed him and with the remnants of the Lodi sultanate. Although Babur and his 10,000 troops, armed with artillery, had defeated and killed the sultan of Delhi, Ibrahim Lodi (fl. 1517–26), and his 40,000 troops at the Battle of Panipat in 1526 (*see* BABUR'S INVASION OF NORTH INDIA), the sultan's brother, Mahmud Lodi (r. 1516–17), who succeeded as sultan, concentrated all the sultanate's remaining resources on expelling the invader from northern India. As part of his attempt to do so, the new sultan organized a Rajput confederacy of Indian-Afghan chieftains, led by Rana Sanga (fl. 16th century) of Chitor. However, Babur easily defeated the confederacy at the Battle of Khanua in March 1527.

Babur was now free to deal with the Lodi sultanate and conquer the eastern provinces of Bihar and Bengal. The early part of the campaign was almost anticlimactic compared to his earlier adventures. He used the same tactics he had used in the several battles at Panipat: defensive fortifications, coordinated attacks, and wheeling cavalry charges. Only two regions remained in defiance of him, the fortress at Chanderi, which he captured in January 1528, and the east, where the sultan waited for him. In May 1529, after crossing the Ganges River, Babur met the sultan's forces at Patna, where the Ganges and the Gogra Rivers meet. Again Babur enticed his opponent to attack, and after three brutal days of combat the Battle of the Gogra ended on May 6, 1529, with Babur in sole possession of northern and eastern India. Although he would die a year later and his grandson, Akbar the Great (1543–1605), would be the one to consolidate the vast Mughal Empire, Babur most certainly must be considered its father.

Further reading: Wheeler M. Thackston, ed. *The Baburnama: Memoirs of Babur, Prince and Emperor* (New York: Modern Library, 2002); University of Dacca History of Bengal Publication Committee, *History of Bengal: Hindu Period* (New Delhi: Orient Book Distributors, 1974).

Babur's Invasion of North India (1525–1526)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Babur's Afghan Turks vs. troops of the Delhi sultan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern India
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Babur's attempt to unify India
OUTCOME: Babur conquered northern India.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the Battle of Panipat: Babur, estimates of 10,000; Ibrahim, 40,000
CASUALTIES: Babur, unknown; Ibrahim, 15,000
TREATIES: Unknown

The invasion of northern India was an overt and calculated move by Babur (1483–1530) to supplant the sultan of Delhi as master of the region and establish the Mughal Empire. Beginning with Babur's first movements into the Punjab in 1515 (*see* BABUR'S RAIDS ON THE PUNJAB), he was at near-constant war. Most historians identify Babur's incursions into India as four separate campaigns, although one campaign flowed into the next.

With the death of the governor of the Punjab (*see* BABUR'S LAHORE CAMPAIGN), Babur was in sole possession of Lahore and established it as a base of operations for his upcoming campaign against the sultan, Ibrahim Lodi (fl. 1517–26). Starting from Lahore in 1525, Babur marched on Panipat, approximately 30 miles north of Delhi, with 10,000 men and the first firearms in use outside the Ottoman Empire.

Arriving at Panipat on April 13, 1526, Babur settled in for a defensive war and prepared solid fortifications. Moving his cavalry and artillery (some dispute whether he actually had artillery) back, Babur put out a forward defense of some 700 baggage carts tied together. The only gaps in the line were where he positioned his artillery. When word spread that a great army was opposing the sultan, several thousand Hindu and Muslim troops flocked to Babur as reinforcements. That still gave him fewer than 15,000 troops versus the sultan's approximately 40,000 men. The two armies were idle for eight days until Ibrahim ordered an attack on April 21, 1526, beginning the Battle of Panipat.

The Delhi troops were stalled at the first line of carts when Babur's firepower opened up on them. In succession Babur ordered his infantry up and then ordered a cavalry charge on both flanks. The Mughals quickly routed the sultan's forces and inflicted about 15,000 casualties, including the death of Ibrahim. Moving with lightning speed, Babur occupied Delhi within three days and proclaimed the Mughal Empire. After dealing with various local chieftains along the Ganges River valley, Babur's position in northern India was relatively secure, although his new subjects by no means rushed to embrace him.

See also BABUR'S CONQUEST OF BIHAR AND BENGAL.

Further reading: Wheeler M. Thackston, ed. *The Baburnama: Memoirs of Babur, Prince and Emperor* (New York: Modern Library, 2002); University of Dacca History of Bengal Publication Committee, *History of Bengal: Hindu Period* (New Delhi: Orient Book Distributors, 1974).

Babur's Lahore Campaign (1524)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Babur's Afghan Turks vs. troops of the Delhi sultan and governor of the Punjab
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lahore, India
DECLARATION: No declarations
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conflict resulted from Babur's alliance with the governor of Punjab who was in a contest with his own brother, the sultan of Delhi for autonomy from the sultanate. Babur invaded Lahore in support of the governor of the Punjab.
OUTCOME: Babur, after defeating the Sultan of Delhi, claimed Lahore for himself.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The first conquest of Babur (1483–1530) that would be incorporated into the Mughal Empire, Lahore was in itself only a precursor to greater campaigns. BABUR'S RAIDS ON THE PUNJAB in 1515 started nearly 15 years of continual war, although each of his four campaigns into India is viewed as a separate military action. Prior to Babur's movements into the Punjab, his aid was sought by the governor of the Punjab, Dawlat Khan Lodi (fl. 16th century), against his own brother, the sultan of Delhi, Ibrahim Lodi (fl. 1517–26). Dawlat Lodi sought autonomy in the Punjab. Babur gladly lent support, as he had plans of his own to conquer the region, just as his forefather Tamerlane (1336–1405) had done more than a century before. Babur marched his force south and attacked the imperial army at Lahore in 1524, easily defeating the sultan's forces.

The defeat of the sultan caused an uproar in Lahore, and Babur seized control of the region. However, when the governor attempted to make a union with Babur, he quickly learned that Babur had no intention of giving up Lahore. Alliances forsaken, Dawlat Lodi then attacked Babur and temporarily drove him from Lahore that same year. The death of Dawlat Lodi soon thereafter brought Babur's return. He easily defeated all usurpers and awaited the much bigger showdown with the sultan for dominance in the region.

See also BABUR'S INVASION OF NORTH INDIA; BABUR'S CONQUEST OF BIHAR AND BENGAL.

Further reading: Wheeler M. Thackston, ed. *The Baburnama: Memoirs of Babur, Prince and Emperor* (New York: Modern Library, 2002); University of Dacca History of Bengal Publication Committee, *History of Bengal: Hindu Period* (New Delhi: Orient Book Distributors, 1974).

Babur's Raids on the Punjab (1515–1523)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Babur's Afghan Turks vs. various Indian forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Punjab, India
DECLARATION: No declarations
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The beginnings of Babur's conquest of the region, in which he attempted to emulate his ancestor, Tamerlane, in unifying India
OUTCOME: Indecisive until Babur's 1524 attack on the Punjab. His 1515–23 campaigns were more reconnaissance than conquest.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Essentially a series of forceful reconnaissances, Babur's (1483–1530) raids on the Punjab served as a military coming-out for a young tactical genius who would soon establish a vast empire in the region. Beginning with Babur's first movements into the Punjab in 1515, he was at nearly continual war. Although one campaign seemed to flow into the next, each of his four campaigns into India are viewed as separate military actions. The direct descendant of both Tamerlane (1336–1405) and Genghis Khan (c. 1167–1227), Babur, after a series of initial failures to regain his ancestral homeland of Samarkand in modern-day Afghanistan, set his sights on conquering India, as his forefather Tamerlane had done more than a century before (*see* TAMERLANE'S INVASION OF INDIA). Babur viewed India as rightfully and historically his.

Babur made four raids on the Punjab between 1519 and 1524, partly to conquer, partly to announce his presence and familiarize himself with the territory and political climate in anticipation of a later invasion. It was clear to him that the sultanate was torn with dissension and ripe for an overthrow.

In 1524 the governor of the Punjab, Dawlat Khan Lodi (fl. 16th century), sought Babur's aid in ruling Kabul against the governor's brother, the sultan of Delhi, Ibrahim Lodi (r. 1517–25). Dawlat Lodi resented the sultan's attempts to usurp any local authority he might retain and sought to teach the sultan a lesson by essentially hiring a mercenary, Babur. Babur's offensive against the sultan is dealt with in BABUR'S LAHORE CAMPAIGN.

See also BABUR'S INVASION OF NORTH INDIA; BABUR'S CONQUEST OF BIHAR AND BENGAL.

Further reading: Ikram Ali, *History of the Punjab* (Columbia, Mo.: South Asia Books, 1993); Wheeler M. Thackston, ed. *The Baburnama: Memoirs of Babur, Prince and Emperor* (New York: Modern Library, 2002); University of Dacca History of Bengal Publication Committee, *History of Bengal: Hindu Period* (New Delhi: Orient Book Distributors, 1974).

Babylon, Fall of (689 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Assyria vs. Babylon, Aramas, and Elam
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Babylon
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Hegemony in Babylonia
OUTCOME: Destruction of the city of Babylon
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

In 705 B.C.E. the Assyrian king Sargon II (fl. c. 721–705 B.C.E.)—known in Babylonia as The Liberator—died, and his son Sennacherib (fl. 705–681) became king. Sennacherib was an able and aggressive ruler whose reign would be marked by his struggles over Babylon. In 703 Prince Marduk (r. 703–702 B.C.E.), with the help of forces from Elam, reclaimed the crown of Babylonia and forged alliances with Assyria's enemies in the hope of destroying Sennacherib's empire. However, Sennacherib defeated the coalition army of Babylonians, Aramaeans, and Elamites in 702 and forced Marduk again to abdicate.

Preoccupied with an insurrection in Syria and Palestine and the siege he was waging on Jerusalem (*see* ASSYRIAN WARS [C. 746–609 B.C.E.]), Sennacherib placed Bel-ibni (r. 702–700 B.C.E.), an Assyrian, on the Babylonian throne. In 700 Bel-ibni rebelled and proclaimed independence from Assyria. In response Sennacherib deposed the traitor and replaced him with his son Ashurnadin-shum (r. 700–694).

In the meantime the Assyrian leader prepared for a major offensive against Elam. While the Assyrians attacked Elam by sea, the Elamites captured Babylonia by land, placing their own king on the throne. Although he made impressive advances in the south, Sennacherib was now faced with a northern invasion.

In 691 at the Battle of Halule on the Diyala River, the Assyrians defeated the combined forces of Elamites and Chaldeans, which opened the door for Sennacherib's 689 siege of Babylon. For nine months he blockaded the city until it fell. Once inside, the Assyrians completely destroyed the city. They leveled the temples and diverted

water from the Arakhtu Canal so that it flowed over the ruins. For the next eight years the once glorious city lay wasted.

See also BABYLONIAN REVOLT.

Further reading: Henry W. F. Skaggs, *Babylonians* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2000); Henry W. F. Skaggs, *Greatness That Was Babylon: A Survey of the Ancient Civilization of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley* (London: Sidgwick and Jackson, 1991).

Babylonian Captivity of Jerusalem (601–538 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Egypt and Judah vs. Babylon
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Jerusalem
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of Judah and its principal city, Jerusalem
OUTCOME: Babylon captured and sacked Jerusalem
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 601 B.C.E., Judah struck an alliance with its former enemy, Egypt, in the hope of defeating Babylon and gaining independence from Babylonian vassalage. Three years later, in 598, a Babylonian army invaded Judah and occupied Jerusalem, its principal city. Babylon enthroned a new vassal king, Zedekiah (early sixth century), who, however, proved not to be the puppet Babylonian leaders had intended. He renewed the 601 alliance with Egypt, thereby triggering a larger Babylonian invasion of Judah in 589. Zedekiah responded by leading a general uprising against the occupiers, and in 588 a Babylonian army laid Jerusalem under 18 months of siege. In 587 the city's walls were breached, and the Babylonian hordes stormed Jerusalem.

King Zedekiah and many of his followers made a strategic retreat, hoping that by fleeing the city and avoiding capture they might be able to secure Egyptian aid for a counterattack. This hope collapsed when the Egyptians refused to join the fight, and Zedekiah and many of his fellow rebels were captured. The king was blinded, and most of the others executed.

The Babylonians reserved their greatest vengeance for Jerusalem itself. The city was burned and then leveled. The people, dispossessed, were exiled to Babylon. It was not until 538 that the Babylonian captivity of Jerusalem ended, thanks to the Persian emperor Cyrus the Great (c. 600–529), who defeated the armies of Babylonia, liberated the Jews, and gave them leave to return to Judah and Jerusalem.

See also BABYLONIAN REVOLT.

Further reading: Henry W. F. Skaggs, *Babylonians* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2000); Henry W. F. Skaggs, *Greatness That Was Babylon: A Survey of the Ancient Civilization of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley* (London: Sidgwick and Jackson, 1991).

Babylonian Revolt (626 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chaldea and Media vs. Assyria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Uruk, a region of Babylonia (in present-day Iraq)
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of the Uruk
OUTCOME: Assyria lost control of Uruk.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

As the ancient Assyrian Empire declined (*see* ASSYRIA, FALL OF), numerous alliances were struck aimed at splitting up the vast holdings of the once unshakable empire. One of these, formed in 626 B.C.E. between Nabopolassar (fl. c. 625–605), ruler of the Persian Gulf kingdom of Chaldea, and Cyaxares (d. 585) of Media, mounted a revolt that drove the Assyrians out of Uruk. Nabopolassar then proclaimed himself king of Babylonia. His son Nebuchadnezzar (fl. 605–562), of Old Testament reknown, restored Babylonia to its grandeur.

See also BABYLONIAN CAPTIVITY OF JERUSALEM.

Further reading: Henry W. F. Skaggs, *Babylonians* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2000); Henry W. F. Skaggs, *Greatness That Was Babylon: A Survey of the Ancient Civilization of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley* (London: Sidgwick and Jackson, 1991).

Bacon's Rebellion (1676)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebel frontier settlers under Nathaniel Bacon vs. the Tidewater government of Virginia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Colonial Virginia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bacon sought glory at the head of settlers disgruntled with the Tidewater establishment for evincing more concern over their trade relations with the local Indians than with the security of the frontier.
OUTCOME: Bacon's forces were defeated and the Virginia government was restored.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Bacon, 500; Virginia, fewer than 200

CASUALTIES: About 100 colonists and 200 Indians were killed.
TREATIES: None

In the summer of 1675 a detachment of the Virginia militia seeking to avenge the death of three local farmers at the hands of the Nanticoke Indians mistakenly killed a group of friendly Susquehannocks (*see* MARYLAND AND VIRGINIA'S WAR WITH THE SUSQUEHANNOCKS). When Virginia's governor, Sir William Berkeley (1606–77), sought to control the all-too-familiar cycle of violence sparked by the killing, he found himself facing an outright rebellion led by Nathaniel Bacon (1647–76), a rebellion that in many ways foreshadowed the AMERICAN REVOLUTION a century later.

After the Virginia militia killed the wrong Indians, the Nanticokes, Susquehannocks, and allied tribes in both Maryland and Virginia fell to vengeance raiding, and frontier settlers began to desert their homes.

It was at this juncture that Nathaniel Bacon, cousin to Lady Berkeley—wife of Virginia governor William Berkeley—arrived in the colony. He bought two plantations on the James River, and Berkeley appointed him to the House of Burgesses. The fiery Bacon learned that a group of frontiersmen who had had enough of Berkeley's cautious Indian policies were preparing to take matters into their own hands. Bacon assumed leadership of the group and, enlisting the Occaneechi Indians as allies, he attacked the Susquehannocks and captured a stock of fur, then fell to arguing with the Occaneechi over the spoils and attacked them in turn. Though Bacon returned to the English settlements a hero, Berkeley posted him as a traitor on May 26, 1676, and arrested him when he entered Jamestown to take his seat in the House of Burgesses.

Bacon admitted his guilt, and Berkeley pardoned him on June 5. Bacon immediately raised an army of 500 men in Henrico County, Virginia, led it to Jamestown on June 23, and demanded that the Burgesses commission him commander of all forces fighting the Indians. The terrified assembly granted the commission, and Bacon set out on another campaign—again against friendly Indians, the Pamunkeys of eastern Virginia. In the meantime, on July 29, Berkeley managed to repeal Bacon's commission and again proclaimed him a traitor but failed to raise an army willing to move against him. The rebellion spread, and within a week a number of Virginia's most substantial planters took an oath to support Bacon and his "rabble." He continued his indiscriminate war until September 13, when he returned to Jamestown, seized the wives of burgesses loyal to the governor, and used them as shields while his men constructed siege lines. By September 18 Bacon had pushed Berkeley and his meager forces into exile on the Eastern Shore, then put Jamestown to the torch.

At this point New York's powerful royal governor, Edmund Andros (1637–1714) intervened, threatening to take the Susquehannocks permanently under his colony's jurisdiction. In response to this threat, Bacon's support eroded. Berkeley rallied a force against him and retook Jamestown, forcing Bacon to a stand in mid-October at Yorktown, where he was cut down not by Berkeley's musket balls but by dysentery.

Further reading: Wilcomb E. Washburn, *The Governor and the Rebel: A History of Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia* (New York: Norton, 1999); Thomas J. Wertenbaker, *Bacon's Rebellion, 1676* (Charlottesville: University of Virginia Press, 1980).

Bactrian-Hellenic Invasion of India
(c. 200–c. 175 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bactria vs. natives of the Punjab and the Indus Valley
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northeastern Afghanistan and India
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Attempts to secure the eastern outposts of the Seleucid Empire
OUTCOME: Bactrian forces advanced to and controlled the Indus Valley.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Bactria, located in present-day Afghanistan and Russia, temporarily won its independence from the Seleucid Empire, the Hellenic regime in Persia, in 256 B.C.E., but Antiochus III (242–187), the Seleucid emperor, defeated Euthydemus (fl. late third century), the ruler of Bactria, in 208. Euthydemus was allowed to keep his title and his independence, and his kingdom continued to serve as the guardian of the eastern outpost of the Seleucid Empire (*see* BACTRIAN-SYRIAN WAR).

To protect that outpost and give a buffer zone to the Hellenic region, Euthydemus embarked on a campaign against India. He first marched southeastward into Gandhara, modern-day northeastern Afghanistan, and pushed into the Punjab by 195. Euthydemus died the same year he reached the Punjab, but his son Demetrius (c. 200–167) continued the Bactrian advances into India. Demetrius advanced as far as the northern edge of the Indus Valley sometime around 175. This penetration marked the height of Bactrian-Hellenic power and influence. Demetrius was assassinated in 167 (*see* BACTRIAN-PARTHIAN WAR), and the Bactrian influence diminished.

Further reading: C. A. Kincaid, *Successors of Alexander the Great* (Chicago: Argonaut, 1969); Plato, *Euthydemus,* trans. by Rosamond Kent Sprague (Indianapolis:

Hackett Publishing Co., 1993); H. Sidky, *The Greek Kingdom of Bactria: From Alexander to Eucratides the Great* (Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 2000).

Bactrian-Parthian War (167–160 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bactria vs. Seleucid Empire and Bactria vs. Parthia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Seleucid Empire and Parthia vied for control of Bactria and its lucrative trade with China.
OUTCOME: Status quo ante bellum
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None recorded

Alexander the Great's body was scarcely cold before his officers began quarrelling over control of the empire. When asked on his deathbed to name a successor, Alexander (356–323 B.C.E.) is supposed to have mumbled "the strongest," and the struggle to claim that distinction lasted two generations. During the course of the struggle, the empire broke apart. The eastern possessions in India and Afghanistan were the first to go, most reverting to their local leaders. The Greek city-states soon fell into their old disputatious routine, most eventually sorting themselves into two new groupings, the Aetolian and Achean Leagues. The remainder of the empire was portioned out among Alexander's top generals, the bulk of it going to the descendents of Seleucus I Nicator (c. 358–280), the "Seleucids." Bactria, an ancient country lying between the mountains of the Hindu Kush and the Oxus River in what is now part of Afghanistan and Tajikistan, had long served as a crossroads for the overland trade between East and West. Originally part of Seleucus's Alexandrian patrimony, Bactria—thanks to its prosperous economy based on its well-established trade with China and to its excellently trained military—grew into a powerful province, becoming independent in 256.

But Bactria's trade had also long been the envy of other kingdoms, some more powerful. For nearly a century Parthia, just then the major enemy of the aging Seleucid Empire to which Bactria had once belonged, had been developing ravenous designs on the country; now the Seleucids, too, were considering reconquest, in no small part because of Bactria's profitable Far Eastern trade.

In 167 the Seleucids invaded Bactria with an army led by Eucratides (d. 159). They were met by Demetrius (200–167), the Greek-descended ruler of Bactria, who was unable to turn back the invaders. Demetrius was killed in action, and the Bactrians were routed. Eucratides assumed the throne of Bactria in the name of the Seleucid Empire, but the travails of Demetrius led to much disorder, a fact that Mithradates I (r. 171–138) of Parthia took advantage of by invading Bactria's border regions around 167 and raiding Eucratides' army. The nearly decade-long war that followed between Seleucid Bactria and Parthia proved inconclusive, save for some small gains by Parthia in the Turanian border region, and ended status quo ante bellum.

See also BACTRIAN-HELLENIC INVASION OF INDIA; BACTRIAN-SYRIAN WAR; DIADOCHI, WARS OF THE.

Further reading: Getzel M. Cohen, *The Selected Colonies: Studies in Founding, Administration, and Organization* (Wiesbaden, Germany: Steiner, 1978); C. A. Kincaid, *Successors of Alexander the Great* (Chicago: Argonaut, 1969).

Bactrian-Syrian War (208–206 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bactria and Parthia vs. Syria (Seleucid Empire)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bactria
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Seleucid conquest of Bactria
OUTCOME: Bactria acknowledged Seleucid suzerainty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No surviving documents

Bactria was a kingdom in north-central Asia that had won its independence from Persia. A rich kingdom, it lured the Seleucid king Antiochus III the Great (242–187), who was intent on rebuilding the Hellenistic Empire of his ancestors and annexing it to his Syrian Empire. Fearing that this annexation would extend the Seleucid realm to the border of Persia, the Parthian king Arsaces III (212–171) led an army to block Antiochus's advance. When Arsaces was defeated, he turned to the king of Bactria, Euthydemus (fl. late third century), and proposed an alliance. The allies met the Syrians at the Battle of the Arius River in 208 but were soundly defeated. At this Arsaces capitulated to Antiochus and accepted Seleucid suzerainty. Euthydemus did not surrender, however, but withdrew his army in good order to Bactria, his capital city. Syrian forces followed him, winning a number of minor battles along the way, then laid siege to Bactria for the next two years. Remarkably, the Bactrians withstood the siege. Unable to conquer Bactria, Antiochus offered generous peace terms to Euthydemus. In exchange for nominal recognition of Seleucid suzerainty, Euthydemus was permitted to maintain direct governance of Bactria.

See also BACTRIAN-PARTHIAN WAR; DIADOCHI, WARS OF THE.

Further reading: H. Sidky, *The Greek Kingdom of Bactria: From Alexander to Eucratides the Great* (Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 2000).

Bahmani Civil War (c. 1490–1512)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bahmani's Sunni sultan vs. Shi'ite nobles and provincial governors
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India's Deccan region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Under pressure from Hindu enemy states, Bahmani lost control of its Shi'ite rebels, who sought to break away from the much weakened Delhi sultanate.
OUTCOME: The Bahmani sultanate collapsed into smaller independent successor states—Bijapur, Berar, Bidar, Golconda, and Ahmadnager—all vulnerable to resurgent Hindu states in the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the wake of TAMERLANE'S INVASION OF INDIA, the sultanate of Delhi collapsed completely, hopelessly fragmenting north India. As a consequence, the history of the Deccan in the 15th century continued to be dominated by the struggle between the Muslim sultans of Bahmani—a splinter of the foundering Delhi sultanate, now nominally subject to the Timurids of Persia—and the Hindu kings of Vijayanagar. For most of the century Bahmani was also engaged in frequent conflicts with its Muslim neighbors to the north and northwest, Malwa and Gujarat, and Hindu Orissa to the northeast. By the last decade of the century, attacks by resurgent Vijayanagar and Orissa had devastated Bahmani.

Under pressure from the encroaching Hindu kingdoms, the sultan had imported new blood into his administration, Timurids from Afghanistan and Persia. But these newcomers were Shi'ites, and they grew increasingly hostile to the traditionally Sunni nobility. By the end of the century, Shi'ite officials had gone from surly resentment of the Turkish old guard to arrogant disobedience of the sultan himself. Soon the sultan lost all control over his minions, as the old Sunni nobility broke away and began establishing kingdoms of their own within the quickly collapsing sultanate. Inevitably one of the Shi'ite governors, Qutub-ul-Mutlik (fl. early 1500s) also seceeded from the Delhi sultanate, and in 1512 declared Golconda independent. The sultan could offer only token resistance to this, the establishment of the first Shi'ite dynasty in the Deccan. There was little of the old sultanate left to defend in any case, and Bahmani simply disappeared upon the sultan's death. As a result, the frontiers of the two Hindu states met along the Frishna River, setting the stage for Vijayanagar to expand at Muslim expense in the Deccan.

See also BABUR'S RAIDS ON THE PUNJAB; DELHI SULTANATE WARS WITH JAUNPUR; VIJAYANAGAR WARS.

Further reading: Haroon Khan Sherwani, *The Bahmanis of the Deccan* (New Delhi: Munshiram Manoharlal, 1985).

Bahmani-Delhi Sultanate War (1346–1347)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bahmani sultanate vs. Delhi sultanate
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Deccan, India
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Delhi Sultanate tried to consolidate Muslim control over the Deccan region of India by relocating Muslims from Delhi to the Hindu area; the Deccan Muslims revolted.
OUTCOME: The Deccan Muslims formed their own sultanate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Virtually none
TREATIES: None

By the beginning of the 13th century the Muslim conquest of Hindustan was complete (*see* MUHAMMAD OF GHUR, CONQUESTS OF). After a period of some turmoil, Muslim rule became perpetual under the so-called Slave dynasty of the sultanate of Delhi that had conquered the Deccan at the turn of the century (*see* DELHI SULTANATE RAIDS IN SOUTH INDIA). For 100 years, North India experienced periods of relative stability punctuated by anarchy—dynastic changes, Mongol raids, Hindu uprisings, and persistent civil warfare among the dynasty's Turkish nobility.

The reign of the second Tughluk sultan of Delhi, Muhammad (fl. 1325–51), proved to be the apex of the sultanate and marked the beginning of its decline. A ruthless and impractical intellectual, he had defeated a Mongol invasion early in his reign only to turn to plans for conquering Persia, plans whose logistical requirements proved too much for him. At one point the sultan sent a large army into the mountains between India and Tibet in order to force the relatively insignificant hill tribes to accept his suzereignty, a task he accomplished at the cost of 100,000 men. Meanwhile, his dominions in the Deccan tried to break away.

The sultan had already turned his back on the traditional policy of controlling the south through vassal rulers and brought the three remaining Hindu states under direct Muslim control. Then, in an effort to settle additional Muslim nobles in the south and, at the same time, to keep them under his thumb, he had established a second capital at Daulatābād (Devagiri). In 1327 he forced an emigration from Delhi and then moved there himself. Not only did the move give him effective control over the fecund

and rich Deccan and Gujarāt, it also allowed him access to India's western and southern ports, the keys to the subcontinent's fabulously profitable overseas trade with the Middle East, Africa, and East and Southeast Asia.

No sooner had the sultan set up court in the south than trouble broke out every place else—in north India, along the western border, and in Bengal. Muhammad ibn Tughluk moved back to Delhi to crush his rebelling aristocracy and to fend off a Mongol invasion that had reached the gates of the original capital. Having lost full command over the north, he found himself now losing authority over those he had settled in the south. While he was quelling a revolt in Lahore, the Muslim governor of Ma'bar declared his independence. The Hindu chiefs also dared to revolt, forming several new states, the most important being Vijayanagar. By 1346 he had put down rebellions in virtually every Indian province and lost control of many of the rest of his southern possessions—Gulbaraga in 1339, Warangal in 1345–46.

The revolt in Daulatābād was led by Hasan Gangu, who founded the Bahmani dynasty as Alaud-Din Bahman Shah (fl. until 1358). The sultan sent an army to suppress Gangu's revolt, but it never reached the Deccan. He changed his mind and recalled his forces because another revolt had broken out in Gujarāt, which he spent the last five years of his life trying to suppress. Alaud-Din outlived the ham-handed Muhammad bin Tughluk by seven years, consolidated Muslim control of the western Deccan region, made Warangal a feudal state, and launched 175 years of war with the region's Hindu kingdoms, especially the powerful realm of Vijayanagar.

See also Bahmani Civil War; Vijayanagar Wars with Bahmani.

Further reading: Peter Jackson, *The Delhi Sultanate: A Political and Military History* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1999); V. D. Mahajan and Savitri Mahajan, *The Sultanate of Delhi* (Delhi: S. Chand, 1963); Haroon Khan Sherwani, *The Bahmanis of the Deccan* (New Delhi: Munshiram Manoharlal, 1985).

Baldwin of Flanders, Revolt of (1006–1007)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Count Baldwin IV of Flanders vs. Henry II, king of Germany
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Belgium and western Germany
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Power and loyalty were the issues, territorial expansion the objective. Baldwin, vassal to the duke of Burgundy, felt no loyalty toward the German king and Holy Roman Emperor Henry and sought to expand Flanders at German expense. Also expanding his holdings, Henry sought to bring both Burgundy and Flanders to task, clipping the power of the former and assuming sovereignty over the latter.
OUTCOME: Henry regained the German land lost to Flanders; Baldwin became Henry's vassal but maintained control over Ghent.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Baldwin's pledge of fealty to Henry II

After the death of Otto III (980–1002), nominal king of Germany and Holy Roman Emperor, his third cousin Henry II (973–1024) "the Saint" took the German throne and the designation of emperor. However, Henry was, in fact, but one of many German rulers, some equally powerful, some more powerful than he, and the princes and their various vassal states felt little goodwill toward the new king, much less any sense of fealty to the new Holy Roman Emperor. To consolidate, and even to expand, the kingdom he inherited from Otto, Henry frequently went to war with neighboring principalities. He particularly enraged the Franks and the powerful duchy of Burgundy. One Burgundian, Count Baldwin IV (988–1035), from the vassal state of Flanders, was himself expanding his holdings, mostly against the Capetian king of France, Robert II (c. 970–1031). In the closed world of medieval European warfare, Henry and Baldwin were bound to clash.

In 1006 Baldwin marched his army east and occupied the town of Ghent. From there Baldwin advanced to the Scheldt River, where he violated German soil by crossing and seizing the town of Valenciennes in the late spring. Henry, meanwhile, marched into the Burgundian village of Basle, a move that would signal the end of Burgundian independence from the empire. At Basle Henry made an alliance in June 1006 with Baldwin's overlord, Robert (c. 970–1031) the Pious of Burgundy. The two agreed on a joint expedition to retake Valenciennes. The alliance, of course, made enemies of lord and vassal, Robert and Baldwin, and it did neither Robert nor Henry much good—Baldwin turned both their armies back.

In the summer of 1007 Henry decided to try again, to discipline Baldwin and retake Valenciennes, this time alone. He led a large army across the Scheldt, laid waste to the countryside, and forced Baldwin to surrender Valenciennes and accept terms. Henry forgave Baldwin's insolence in return for an oath of fealty, and he granted his new vassal control of Ghent. Although Baldwin was defeated, his acceptance of Henry as his new lord won for Flanders its first foothold beyond the Scheldt. Thus did Flanders become a feudatory possession of both France and Germany. In France the Flemish lands were called "Crown Flanders," in Germany, "Imperial Flanders."

See also Ardoin's Revolt; Ardoin's Wars.

Further reading: Johan Huizinga, *The Waning of the Middle Ages* (New York: Dover, 1999); David Nicholas, *Trade, Urbanization and the Family: Studies in the History of Medieval Flanders* (Burlington, Vt.: Ashgate, 1996).

Balkan War, First (1912–1913)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgaria, Serbia, Greece (Balkan League), and Montenegro vs. Turkey
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Balkans, principally Macedonia, Albania, Thrace, Salonika, and Constantinople
DECLARATION: October 8, 1912, Montenegro declared war on Turkey; October 17, 1912, Balkan League declared war on Turkey.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: By the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the Ottoman Empire was in steep decline, its government so corrupt and feeble that it was popularly called "the sick man of Europe." In 1911 Italy declared war on Turkey, primarily to wrest Libya from Ottoman control. The chief Balkan states, Bulgaria, Serbia, and Greece, determined to capitalize not only on Turkey's general weakness but also on its preoccupation with the Italian war, formed a military alliance, the Balkan League, in 1912. Montenegro unofficially allied itself with the league as well. The allies now seized on Ottoman misrule in Macedonia as a pretext for a war by which the Balkan states hoped to eliminate Turkish influence in their region and make substantial territorial gains.
OUTCOME: Turkey lost all its European possessions except for the Chatalja and Gallipoli peninsulas; members of the Balkan League disputed the division of Macedonia; and Montenegro was forced to relinquish its conquest, Scutari, to Albania, a nation created by the Treaty of London.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Bulgaria, 180,000; Serbia, 80,000; Greece, 50,000; Montenegro, 30,000; Turkey, 240,000. Figures are for regular forces; the belligerents (except for Montenegro) also drew on additional reserves.
CASUALTIES: Turkey, 30,000 deaths from battle and disease; Balkan allies, 55,000 deaths from battle and disease
TREATIES: Treaty of London, May 30, 1913

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Hapsburg Empire was the multinational heir of the Holy Roman Empire's universal approach to European government. Not as technologically retrograde as Russia, Austria-Hungary—the "Dual Monarchy"—remained nevertheless, like Russia, a vastly agricultural land. But the Austrian Germans and the Hungarian Magyars did not enjoy the kind of dominance over their ethnic minorities that the Great Russians exercised over the czar's subject peoples (with the important exception of the Russian Poles). The House of Hapsburg sat precariously at the head of some 5 million Czechs and Slovaks, 3 million Serbs and Croats, an almost equal number of Romanians, 2.5 million Poles, and 1 million or so Slovenes, all longing to be free.

Thus, the basic problem of Austria-Hungary's emperor Franz Joseph (1830–1916) was how to accommodate an ardent ethnic nationalism without sparking the dissolution of his empire. And the emperor could expand only at the expense of his ancient enemy, Ottoman Turkey, where he was hemmed in by Europe's elaborate alliance system.

Established six centuries earlier, the Ottoman Empire had at its height controlled most of central and eastern Europe, western Asia, and North Africa. For the past 300 years the Ottomans had steadily been losing ground, a process rapidly accelerated in the past quarter century. All but bankrupted by constant warfare and corrupt rulers, the Turks nevertheless still played an important political role in the European balance of power established by Otto von Bismarck (1815–98)—Germany's Iron Chancellor and the man who had all but built contemporary Europe with its complicated system of interlocking alliances.

The Turks were well aware that all three of the great powers of central and eastern Europe, Germany, Austria, and Russia, longed for various Ottoman holdings, especially in the Balkans, but since no one in Europe could agree on how to carve them up, it became essential to European peace that no single major player stake a claim. Thus, the nations of Europe, including Britain and France, made sure the Turkish Empire did not fall to pieces precisely in order to check the potential growth of their competitors. Indeed, since the Congress of Vienna in 1814–15, which had settled Europe's affairs after the NAPOLEONIC WARS, Austria-Hungary owed its continued status as a great power chiefly to its uncertain symbiosis with the Ottomans. In fact, Bismarck, unwilling to see Russia expand into the Balkans, had declared Austria-Hungary "a European necessity" in light of the Ottoman decline.

But as the various Balkan peoples shucked the cultural and political yoke of Istanbul (or, as they called it, Constantinople), they and their ethnic brethren just over the line in Austria-Hungary clamored for true freedom from Vienna as well, which kept Austria-Hungary in seemingly permanent crisis. If Germany considered the Dual Monarchy a bulwark against czarist ambition and the keystone to Europe's balance of power, the other players—Britain, France, and Russia—increasingly found the Hapsburgs hopelessly out of step with the times and thought their empire close to moribund. By the time the Berlin agreement ran out in 1907, the Hapsburgs ruled the most despised country in Europe after Turkey, and the Great Powers, now realigned, were no longer willing to carry Austria-Hungary the way they had the declining Ottoman Empire for most of a century.

Meanwhile, after Russia's embarrassing defeat in the RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR of 1905, Moscow aimed its expansionist ambitions back to the west, and the Great Russian Bear loomed once again over the Balkans. The Turks still controlled Macedonia, but it was ringed by "independent" Greece, Montenegro, Serbia, and Bulgaria, all vulnerable to Russia's seductive support. Together they would become the Balkan League in 1912, hoping to benefit by the interplay between empires. Serbia posed the biggest threat to

Vienna because it had ethnic ties to Serbs and Croats inside Austria-Hungary. In years past Franz Joseph had bribed Serbia's ruling dynasty to keep its people in line, but in 1903 a bloody coup d'état had brought to power a violently anti-Hapsburg clan, and now Russia was egging on the Balkan League nations it supported to action. Ironically, then, the Balkan League, which would soon attack the Ottomans, was formed originally to limit Austria's increasing power in the region at the expense of Turkey.

Britain and France were disinclined to discourage the czar; they even (if unofficially) sympathized with the nationalist ambitions of Austria-Hungary's ethnic minorities. Heedless of undermining the Hapsburg dynasty, such policies—official *and* unspoken—pushed the emperor and his ministers toward a mortal choice: die fighting or die by slow diplomatic dismemberment, the way Turkish Europe was dying. At the same time Austria's only reliable ally, Germany, had—for internal reasons, and because of the international machinations of Britain, France, and Russia—come to accept the inevitability of war. The "keystone" of Europe's balance of power, which provided the precarious stability that allowed other powers to follow their imperial dreams, was being worked loose. Once Austria-Hungary was in effect yanked out from under the protections of the overall alliance system, the entire diplomatic edifice would collapse. No one in Europe was unaware of what was happening. Even Bismarck had predicted years before that the next war would come because of "some damn fool thing in the Balkans." Indeed, all the powers had been building up mass armies just in case.

Then, on July 3, 1908, the Ottoman Empire's Third Army Corps in Macedonia launched a revolt against the provincial authorities in Resna that quickly led to rebellion throughout the empire and brought into positions of power and authority the "Young Turks," European-influenced revolutionaries intent on modernizing Turkey (*see* YOUNG TURKS REVOLT). Although eventually they would succeed internally in reforming the government and fostering Turkish nationalism, their revolt shook the already seriously destabilized Balkans and led directly to WORLD WAR I, during which their ham-handed handling of foreign affairs resulted in the final dissolution of the Ottoman state.

Late in the 19th century, the empire's current ruler, Sultan Abdulhamid II (1842–1918), had revoked the constitution governing its polyglot provinces and unleashed a vicious secret police force. The sultan's state terror horrified the empire's intelligentsia, but it was his massacre of tens of thousands of Armenians in the 1890s (*see* ARMENIAN MASSACRES OF 1894–1897) that made him an international pariah. Beset by a tide of rising nationalism among its subject peoples and Balkan neighbors, twisted hither and yon by the ambitions and demands of the Great Powers, Ottoman rule verged ever closer to total collapse. The Young Turks wanted to save the ailing empire, not destroy it. When young officers from the Third Army Corps stationed in Macedonia's Salonika (now Thessalonika, Greece), frustrated by irregular pay and rotten equipment, formed the Ottoman Liberty Society and began conspiring with Turkey's exiled intellectuals, the stage was set. First came a series of mutinies, then the uprising in Macedonia. Then the deep-seeded ideological differences among the Young Turks resurfaced, preventing them from taking effective control of the government, and over the next two years the sultan staged a destabilizing counterrevolution. Not until 1913 did the Young Turks set themselves up as the arbiters of Ottoman politics. Meanwhile, the old empire had fallen apart in the Balkans.

Turkish Bulgaria promptly took advantage of the chaos to declare its independence in 1908, and that same year Austria-Hungary quickly annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina. Turkish Crete proclaimed its union with Greece, though threats from Istanbul kept Greece from immediately acting on the declaration. In 1911 Italy invaded and overran Tripoli (today's Libya) in the ITALO-TURKISH WAR. Even while this conflict still raged, the small Christian states of the Balkans—Serbia, Montenegro, Greece, and Bulgaria—formed the Balkan League, ostensibly to check Austro-Hungarian ambitions on the peninsula. Their ambitions stirred by the Italians' successes, they now suddenly attacked European Turkey, with Montenegro first declaring war on Turkey on October 8, 1912, only to be quickly followed by the others. The Young Turks almost immediately came to terms with Italy, but it did not help to prevent the First Balkan War.

COURSE OF THE WAR

Turkish forces in the Balkans included 140,000 troops in Macedonia, Epirus, and Albania, plus about 100,000 in Thrace. The Balkan League mustered 180,000 Bulgarians, 80,000 Serbs, and 50,000 Greeks, all regular army forces. If reserves were mobilized, each nation could double its available forces. Montenegro had a tiny force of 30,000 who, however, were highly capable guerrilla fighters. Potentially, the Ottomans could bring even larger numbers into the fray. However, the Greeks controlled the Aegean, which would effectively block, at least for some time, reinforcement. An even bigger disadvantage for the Turks was the generally poor level of the officer corps. The Ottoman Empire had made extensive use of German military advisers to modernize the imperial armies, but while the German influence was profoundly felt in organization, equipment, and the training of enlisted men, much of the old-line officer corps refused instruction.

The Balkan League allies invaded Turkey's eastern provinces during October 17–20, 1912. General Radko Dimitriev (fl. 1912–17) led three Bulgarian armies into Thrace, advancing on Adrianople. General Radomir Putnik (1847–1917) led three Serbian armies into Turkish provinces from the north while Crown Prince Constantine (1868–1923) led Greek forces from the south. These two forces planned to converge on the Vardar Valley, where,

pincers-fashion, they could close in on Turkish units in the region. Constantine detached a small force to invade Epirus while he led the main army relentlessly into the Vardar Valley. At the Battle of Elasson (October 23, 1912), Constantine defeated the Turks, forcing them to fall back on Monastir. Ideally, Constantine would have given chase and attacked the retreating force from the rear. However, the Bulgarians broke with the agreed-on strategy by sending a division toward Salonika. Constantine realized that the Bulgarians were attempting to grab this region and turned east to intercept their advance. On his way to Salonika, Constantine met heavy Turkish resistance at Venije Vardar during November 2–3. After a fierce battle, which included ancillary Greek losses at Kastoria and Banitsa, Constantine regained the initiative and defeated the Turks on November 5. From Venije Vardar, he continued toward Salonika as remaining Turkish forces in the region withdrew to Yannina.

While the Greeks advanced from the south, the Serbs descended from the north, defeating a small Turkish detachment at Kumanovo on October 24 but encountering stauncher Turkish resistance in the Babuna Pass, near Prilep. Here the Serbs were stalled, but skillful tactical leadership threatened the Turks with double envelopment and forced them to evacuate Skopje and fall back on Monastir.

At Monastir the reinforced Turks, 40,000 strong, offered battle on November 5. A first bold Serbian thrust at the Turks' left in an attempt to gain the high ground exposed the Serbs to a strong counterattack. The Turks rapidly transferred men from the center to reinforce the left for the counterattack; this enabled them to regain the high ground and to inflict heavy casualties on the Serbs, but it so weakened the Turk center that a Serb thrust broke right through. With the Greeks now approaching from the south, Turkish resistance crumbled, and the Battle of Monastir turned disastrous for them. Half the force at Monastir, 20,000 Turks, were killed, wounded, or captured. The remainder retreated in bad order to the fortress at Yannina, where they were instantly laid under siege by the Greeks, who pinned them down until March 3, 1913, when the fortress finally fell. Just four days after the Monastir debacle, on November 9, the 20,000-man Turkish garrison holding Salonika surrendered to the Greek forces about to storm the city. Thus, Constantine was able to beat the Bulgarians to Salonika, occupying this prize just one day in advance of the arrival of the Bulgarian army.

While the Greeks, Serbs, and elements of the Bulgarian forces were operating in Macedonia, the main Bulgarian forces—the First, Second, Third Armies—advanced into Thrace from October 22 to December 3, 1912. In sharp fighting at Seliolu and Kirk Kilissa during October 22–25, Turkish forces under Abdalla Pasha (b. 1860) were defeated but regrouped intact. He established a 35-mile front from Lülé Burgas to Bunar Hisar. While the Bulgarian Second Army laid siege to Adrianople, the First and Third Armies turned to the east to attack the Turks along the Lülé Burgas–Bunar Hisar line. The Battle of Lülé Burgas began on October 28 with a poorly coordinated Bulgarian attack on the north end of the Turkish line. The Turks readily repulsed this first thrust, but their line was too thin to withstand the attacks that now spread along it. They withdrew to the fortified Chatalja Line, where they concentrated between the Black Sea and the Sea of Marmora to block access to Constantinople. Laying siege to that city, the Bulgarians repeatedly attempted to breach the Chatalja Line but were repulsed during November 17–18 with heavy losses. The two armies were stalemated and stopped fighting on December 3.

Just six weeks earlier, no one could have imagined that by November 3, 1912, Balkan troops would be standing before the walls of Constantinople, or that five days later the Greeks would enter Salonika, or that by the end of November the Serbs would have taken the port of Durazzo on the Adriatic, giving landlocked Serbia a link to the sea. In short, the Turkish army, much to everybody's surprise, virtually collapsed in the face of the invasion. On December 5 the Turkish government begged the Balkan belligerents for an armistice until peace talks could be arranged.

LONDON PEACE CONFERENCE

If the Balkan victory shocked the three Great Powers of central Europe, the Ottoman rout dismayed them. Germany had been husbanding new relations with the Young Turks while it constructed its Berlin-to-Baghdad Railway. Austria, expecting the Turks to make short work of the Serbs, was instead treated to the sight of them triumphant on the Adriatic. The day Serbian troops marched into Durazzo, the Hapsburg emperor mobilized nearly 1 million men and demanded the Balkan state withdraw from the seaport. But Russia endorsed the Balkan League and promised to defend its Turkish conquests. The message was clear: If Austria moved against Serbia, Russia would respond, and a general European war would surely follow. At the same time, Russia was not exactly thrilled by Bulgaria's success, since the czar had always intended that Russian troops should occupy Constantinople, not the Bulgarian army.

Recognizing that the actions of the Balkan League had the potential to badly destabilize an already potentially explosive Europe, England's foreign secretary Sir Edward Grey (1862–1933) sought to contain the conflict by proposing a conference of the Great Powers, who agreed to meet in London beginning on December 10, 1912. Even while Grey set about his mission, Greece and Montenegro, ignoring the armistice, continued to fight. Attended by the belligerents as well as by the Great Powers of western Europe, the London Peace Conference got under way on December 17, 1912, but after less than a month of negotiation, the conference dissolved on January 13, 1913. The armistice, such as it was, remained in force until the January 23 coup d'état at Constantinople. Turkish nationalists

of the Young Turk movement, under the leadership of Enver Bey (1880–1922), overthrew the Ottoman regime and denounced the armistice. Fighting resumed on February 3, but the war continued to go badly for the Turks. The fortress at Yannina fell on March 3, 1913, with the surrender of 30,000 Turkish troops to Crown Prince Constantine. Shortly after this, on March 26, Adrianople fell to a joint Bulgarian-Serb siege. It took the Bulgarian-Serb forces two days to storm the city's defenses, and losses were heavy—9,500 killed or wounded—but they persevered. Shukri Pasha (fl. 1912) surrendered the city's 60,000-man garrison. The following month Serbs came to the assistance of Montenegrin guerrillas who had laid siege to Scutari. The two allies fell to disputing, and the Serbs withdrew on April 16. Despite this, the Turks surrendered to the Montenegrins on April 22.

The Turks returned in haste to the peace table, ready now for the Great Powers to impose a settlement. On May 30, 1913, the Treaty of London was signed, bringing the First Balkan War to an uneasy close. The short treaty, primarily the work of the Great Powers, was subscribed to by the weary belligerents but failed to specify just how the territorial gains would be distributed among the Balkan allies. For certain, Turkey lost all of its European possessions except for the Chatalja and Gallipoli peninsulas, but Montenegro, whose guerrillas had fought hard to gain Scutari, were forced to relinquish this conquest to Albania, which was granted independence, a nation newly created by the Treaty of London. Crete went to Greece, but Macedonia—so said the Great Powers in faraway London—was somehow to be partitioned among the Balkan states. As the members of the Balkan League argued over the division of Macedonia, landlocked Serbia continued to bid for additional territory there, hoping, even in the face of Russian opposition, to hang on to a seaport. Bulgarians squared off against Greeks and Serbs, and Bulgaria, traditionally a bitter rival of Serbia in any case, responded by attacking both it and Greece. It had taken about a month for the Balkan League to crumble and the SECOND BALKAN WAR to begin.

Further reading: Edward J. Erickson, *Defeat in Detail: Ottoman Army Operations in the Balkan Wars, 1912–1913* (Westport, Conn.: Praeger, 2003); Mark Mazower, *Balkans: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); Naim Turfan, *Rise of the Young Turks: Politics, the Military and Ottoman Collapse* (London: I. B. Tauris, 1999).

Balkan War, Second (1913)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgaria vs. Serbia, Greece, Romania, and Turkey
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Balkans
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: As the Great Powers met in London to hammer out the Treaty of London, Bulgaria, already at odds with the rest of the Balkan League over plans for dismembering Macedonia, attacked former ally Serbia in June 1913, kicking off a second Balkan war.
OUTCOME: Under the peace imposed by the Great Powers, Bulgaria was forced to cede Salonika to Greece, northern Dobruja to Romania, much of Macedonia to Serbia, and most of Thrace back to Turkey. The Ottomans retained Adrianople but lost almost all their holdings in Europe. All this left the Balkans politically unstable.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Greece, 121,544; Bulgaria, unknown; Other combatants, unknown
CASUALTIES: Bulgaria, 20,000; Greece, 2,500; Turkey, 2,000; Romania, 1,500; Serbia, 18,500
TREATIES: Treaty of Bucharest, August 10, 1913; and Treaty of Constantinople, September 29, 1913

The Treaty of London, which concluded the FIRST BALKAN WAR earlier in the year and by which the Balkan League acquired Turkey's Balkan possessions, left questions of just to which victor should go the spoils. While the conference of Great Powers (Britain, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia) continued to meet in London to hammer out the remaining problems, Bulgaria precipitously challenged Greek and Serbian claims to Macedonia. On June 29, 1913, scarcely a month after signing the treaty, Bulgaria, swollen with hubris over its earlier conquests from Turkey, attacked its former allies Serbia and Greece, seized Salonika, and crushed the ill-prepared Serbian army. Bulgaria's hasty action backfired, however, when Romania, neutral in the last conflict, fell on the Bulgars' unprotected rear. Romania's army crossed the Danube and threatened Sofia. Meanwhile, Turkey, too, allied with Greece and Serbia against Bulgaria, swiftly recaptured Adrianople on July 10, 1913. When the kaiser backed King Carol I (1881–1914) of Romania and the Russian czar refused to come to the aid of Bulgaria, its own maverick prince Ferdinand (1861–1948) quickly sued for an armistice. The Great Powers once again intervened with a blend of threats, coercion, and compensatory bribes to impose peace in the Treaty of Bucharest.

The treaty, signed on August 10, 1913, compelled Bulgaria to cede Salonika to Greece, northern Dobruja to Romania, and much of Macedonia to Serbia. In a separate 1913 Treaty of Constantinople, Bulgaria returned most of Thrace to Turkey. This time, the Sublime Porte, as the Ottoman government called itself, retained Adrianople, but overall the Ottoman Empire had lost more than 80 percent of its Balkan territory and more than 70 percent of its European population.

Nobody was foolish enough to think matters in the Balkans had been truly settled. Already, the term *Balkanize* had been coined for any collapse into petty factions. For the Great Powers, meeting in London, it did not matter so

much who was stabbing who in the back, or which little country got which piece of real estate. What mattered was that they keep talking until they were sure that small wars would not spread naturally through the entangling alliances into general war. But, as Otto von Bismarck (1815–98), chancellor of Germany, had warned, without the Ottomans to keep in line, the Hapsburgs seemed to have lost their purpose in the European scheme. And since the Great Powers no longer planned to organize the Balkans around the arthritic needs of Austria-Hungary's Dual Monarchy, nobody could seem to agree on the safest way to handle the Turks' former holdings in Europe.

Both Balkan Wars and the long London conference left Hapsburg hopes in tatters, too. What to do about the rise of ethnic nationalism, debated by Austrian statesmen for half a century, was a question they could hardly dodge any longer. Most of Europe's diplomats had come to the opinion that some form of federalism, which allowed for political autonomy, was best, but such measures, even when the Austrians suggested them, had always been vetoed by the Hungarians, who—since the reforms carved up their half of the empire—stood to lose their equal standing in the Dual Monarchy. Conrad Franz (1852–1925), count von Hötzendorf, Austria's chief of the general staff, joined the growing chorus in Germany that favored a preventive war. The heir apparent, Francis Ferdinand (1863–1914), archduke of Austria, however, took the longer, more liberal view, saying that he would live and die a federalist, since federalism was the only thing that could save the monarchy.

For the moment, the Great Powers in London congratulated themselves on maintaining peace in a volatile region during precarious times, and 10 days after the signing of the treaty disbanded their conference. But peace was hardly the word for what they had wrought. Although all the Balkan allies—including Bulgaria—had gained territory at the expense of the Ottomans, Bulgaria refused to become reconciled to its defeat, and the other Balkan states, too, remained restless for yet more land. As Croats and Slovenes, who had long been under Austrian Hapsburg rule, eyed the growth of Serbia, they dreamed of joining the Serbs in a union of South Slavs ("Yugoslavia"). Secret societies, many of them workshops for terror, formed in Serbia and began agitation and assassinations across the border. The instability of the Balkans in general was especially dangerous because of the complex alliances with Russia and the powers of central and western Europe. Within a year a Serb national would kill the moderate heir apparent to the Austrian throne, and the world would erupt into WORLD WAR I.

Further reading: Edward J. Erickson, *Defeat in Detail: Ottoman Army Operations in the Balkan Wars, 1912–1913* (Westport, Conn.: Praeger, 2003); Mark Mazower, *Balkans: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); Naim Turfan, *Rise of the Young Turks: Politics, the Military and Ottoman Collapse* (London: I. B. Tauris, 1999).

Bannockburn, Campaign of (1314)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bannockburn, Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Scottish independence from England, which the Scots fought to secure, the English to deny
OUTCOME: Edward II suffered perhaps the worst defeat in English history, giving Scotland de facto independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Scotland, 8,000; England, 24,000
CASUALTIES: Scotland, fewer than 5,000; England, 15,000 or more
TREATIES: None

Driven by personal ambition, Robert the Bruce (1274–1329) had courted both sides in William Wallace's (c. 1272–1305) revolt (*see* WALLACE'S REVOLT) against Edward I (1239–1307), king of England. Robert had murdered a rival baron while in Edward's employ, then assumed leadership of the rebellion after Wallace had fallen, and had himself crowned king of Scotland at Scone. Forced into exile in Ireland shortly thereafter by Edward's 1306 invasion of Scotland, Bruce returned the following year to launch another revolt (*see* BRUCE'S REVOLT), intending to clear the English out of Scotland for good. The Scots rallied to his cause, and by 1313 only Stirling, Dunbar, and Berwick remained under English control. Bruce laid siege to the English garrison at Stirling Castle in 1313. Edward I had died during the first year of Bruce's revolt, at the very beginning of a new campaign to rid his kingdom again of the troublesome and treacherous Scot, and thereafter his son, Edward II (1284–1327), had abandoned for a number of years his father's fixation on Bruce. Now King Edward II responded differently, assembling a large army, equipping it lavishly, and leading his vastly superior force—he outnumbered Bruce three to one—on a determined march north to Stirling.

Before the English arrived Robert arranged his 8,000 men in a 2,000-foot front outside Stirling at Bannockburn on high ground overlooking a marsh. To his left lay thick woods, to his right a brook. Hiding his left flank among the trees, Bruce had his right flank deployed at a bend in the stream, where the Scots had built defense entrenchments and set numerous booby traps. Edward had no choice but to charge up the hill, crossing the bog to get there. On June 24, 1314, Edward ordered his troops to advance, and the heavily armored knights splashed ahead, sinking into the bog as Scottish spears and arrows showered down on them. Mercilessly cut down, many never cleared the marsh. The English center became so crowded and confused that English archers attempting to shoot

over the melee struck their own troops. Scottish spearmen then drove the archers back.

When Edward attempted a flanking movement through the woods, he was crushed by the Scots' reserve force who then faked a flanking movement of their own. Edward panicked and fled the field, and those left among his troops followed him. The Scots attacked in pursuit down the hill and slaughtered thousands of trapped and retreating Englishmen. In a battle considered by many to be the greatest defeat ever inflicted on the English army, Edward suffered losses of 15,000 or more while the Scots lost less than a third of that total. Although Edward refused to acknowledge Scotland's independence, Bannockburn essentially guaranteed the Scots freedom from the English.

See also MARCHES, REBELLION OF THE; SCOTTISH WAR (1295–1296); SCOTTISH WAR (1314–1328).

Further reading: G. W. S. Barrow, *Robert Bruce and the Community of the Realm of Scotland* (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 1988); Ronald McNair Scott, *Robert the Bruce: King of Scots* (Edinburgh: Canongate, 1988).

Bannock War (1878–1879)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bannocks and Northern Paiute Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Idaho and Oregon
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Resistance to white incursions and white violations of treaty agreements
OUTCOME: Indians returned to the reservation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Varied, 200 Indian warriors attacked civilians, May 30–June 8, 1878; at battle of Silver Creek (June 23, 1878), Indians, 450; United States, 1,000 in both battles
CASUALTIES: United States, 9 killed, 24 wounded; Indians, at least 78 killed, 66 wounded, 731 prisoners taken; civilians, 31 killed
TREATIES: None

Buffalo Horn (d. 1878), an important chief among the Bannock of Idaho, had served the U.S. Army as a scout during the NEZ PERCÉ WAR of 1877. Now Buffalo Horn gathered about him a significant following among the Bannocks and their neighbors, the Northern Paiutes (whose own best-known leader was Winnemucca [d. 1882]). The expansion of white settlement was depleting game and even camas roots, a staple food that the Indians dug on Camas Prairie, 90 miles southeast of Boise, Idaho. The right to dig for these roots was guaranteed by a solemn treaty, but settlers' hogs were destroying the roots. The reservation system, inept and corrupt, failed to supply sufficient rations to make up for the shortage of food. Indeed, asked what had caused the Bannock War, one army official replied: "Hunger. Nothing but hunger."

On May 30, 1878, a Bannock shot and wounded two whites. The Bannocks, Shoshonis, and Sheepeaters who lived on the Lemhi Reservation (and who were collectively called the Lemhis) and many of the 600 Bannocks who lived at the Ross Fork, or Fort Hall, Agency in southeastern Idaho submissively reported to their agencies. Buffalo Horn, however, who commanded a following of about 200 warriors, including Northern Paiute and Umatilla in addition to Bannock, launched a raid in southern Idaho, killing 10 whites. The attacks continued until June 8, when civilian volunteers killed Buffalo Horn in a skirmish near Silver City.

Without their leader Buffalo Horn's warriors rode to Steens Mountain, in Oregon, where they found Northern Paiute followers of a militant medicine man named Oytes and a rebellious chief known as Egan, who had led them off the Malheur Reservation on June 5. They made an alliance, pitting about 450 warriors against a slightly larger number of soldiers led by General O. O. Howard (1830–1909).

Howard pursued the Indians vigorously after an attempt at a negotiated settlement failed. He chased the forces of Oytes and Egan off Steens Mountain and, on June 23, engaged them at Silver Creek. After a daylong, indecisive battle, the Indians fled.

Howard mustered an additional 480 troops and resumed the pursuit, seeking to prevent the Bannock-Paiute force from combining with other Indians. From the end of June through the first week of July, the hostiles evaded Howard, laying waste to whatever ranches lay in their path.

On July 8 one of Howard's commanders discovered the Indian position on high bluffs along Birch Creek near Pilot Butte, Idaho. Climbing the steep bluffs, the cavalry attacked, but the Indians were able to make their escape.

After the Battle of Birch Creek, Oytes and Egan moved their followers south, apparently to seek refuge and allies among the Nez Percé. When Howard dispatched troops to block them, they moved north again, toward the Umatillas Reservation. Captain Evan Miles arrived at the reservation on July 12 with infantry, artillery, and cavalry reinforcements. To his relieved surprise, the Umatillas chose not to join forces with the Bannocks and Paiutes but set themselves up only to observe the battle.

The battle began on July 13. By July 15 the Umatilla decided to participate—on the side of the U.S. Army. A party of Umatillas approached the Bannocks and Paiutes on pretense of joining them. They tricked Chief Egan into coming away from his warriors and killed him.

Additional troops arrived, and on July 20 the augmented forces pursued the fleeing Bannock-Paiute band, which now split up into small, disorganized, but highly destructive raiding parties. General Howard divided and fanned out elements of his command along a vast front extending from Nevada to Idaho. The tactic proved successful, and by August the Paiutes began returning to the reservations. On August 12 Oytes himself surrendered. By September most of the Bannocks gave up, fighting a final battle in Wyoming on September 12, 1879.

Like most western Indian wars of this period, the struggle was supremely exhausting yet did not result in heavy casualties. Nine troopers died, 24 were wounded, and at least 78 Indians slain.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall Reference, 1993); Brigham D. Madsen, *The Bannock of Idaho* (Moscow: University of Idaho Press, 1958); Frank C. Robertson, *The Fall of Buffalo Horn* (New York: D. Appleton, 1928).

Ban Zhao's Central Asia Campaigns

See Pan Chao's Central Asia Campaigns.

Barbary Wars *See* Algerine War; Tripolitan War.

Bar Cocheba's Revolt (132–135)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Jewish rebels vs. Imperial Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Judea
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Reacting to the emperor Hadrian's anti-Jewish policies, aimed evidently at suppressing their religion and destroying their temple in Jerusalem, the Jews rose up in anger against the empire.
OUTCOME: The Jews were crushed and scattered throughout the world.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At least 35,000 Romans; unknown number of Jews
CASUALTIES: Unknown number of Romans; 580,000 Jewish dead
TREATIES: None

The Roman emperor Hadrian (76–139) came to power at the height of the empire's great Pax Romana between 1 and 200, and he spent most of his reign traveling to every corner of his empire, which most historians agree he ruled on the whole wisely and well. Concentrating on consolidation and control, Hadrian immediately upon assuming the throne made peace with the Parthians, abandoning Trajan's (53–117) ill-starred conquests east of the Euphrates but holding on to Armenia. Back in Rome, he put down a conspiracy of discontented generals; in Britain he supervised the construction of the great northern wall that today bears his name; and in Mauretania he personally put down an insurrection before hastening east to meet with the Parthian ruler Osroes (c. 130) to avoid threats of a new war.

But for all the subtlety of his foreign policy and the sureness of his military actions, Hadrian blundered in his handling of the Jews of Palestine. There on his tour of the Eastern Empire, the emperor concluded that he needed to integrate the troublesome Jews more fully into Roman civilization and proscribed circumcision and public instruction in Jewish law, founded a Roman colony in Jerusalem, and erected a shrine to Jupiter Capitolinus, the supreme Roman god, on the ruins of the old Jewish Temple.

The outraged Jews, led by Simon Bar Cocheba (Simeon Bar Kokhba) (d. 135), rebelled in 132. Reputed to be descended from the House of David, this aggressive and hot-tempered leader was hailed by the most respected rabbi in Jerusalem as the Messiah. Bar Cocheba called himself *nasi* ("prince") and issued his own coins whose legend proclaimed "Year 1 of the liberty of Jerusalem." Not surprisingly, members of the fast-growing Jewish sect the Romans called "Christian" refused to join what had turned into a major revolt as the followers of this newest christ stormed Aelia and severely damaged the Egyptian Legion. By the summer of 134, the rebellion had grown serious enough to force Hadrian himself to leave Rome and visit the battlefield. There he summoned the governor of Britain, Sextus Julius Severus (gov. c. 131–134), who arrived with 35,000 men and turned the tide of the war.

The Romans reoccupied Jerusalem, and General Severus steadily wore down the rebels. Vanquishing some 985 Palestinian settlements, he caught up with Bar Cocheba at his stronghold of Bethar, where the rebel messiah was slain defending the town. The rest of the Jewish resistance was easily crushed, and the casualties were truly stunning, even by Roman standards: 580,000 died, not including those who perished of starvation or disease.

As Hadrian now harshly suppressed Judaism altogether, ancient Judaea was desolated, and the Jews as a people were all but destroyed. The Romans barred the remnant Jewish population from Jerusalem, forcing the dispersal of the Jews throughout the world. So costly, however, did Hadrian find the victory that he expressly refused a triumphal entry back in Rome when he reported on the war to the Senate.

See also Dacian War, First; Dacian War, Second; Jewish Revolt (66–73); Jewish Revolt (115–117).

Further reading: Julian Morgan, *Hadrian: Consolidating the Empire* (New York: Rosen Central, 2002); Jacob Neusner, ed., *History of the Jews in the Second Century of the Common Era* (New York: Garland, 1990).

Barcelona Radical Uprising (1933)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish government troops vs. Barcelona republican and Catalan radicals
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Barcelona and other major Spanish cities
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Defending the new republic against the reactionary forces of monarchism
OUTCOME: The uprising was suppressed, but the unrest culminated in the Spanish civil war of 1936–1939.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1930 the quasi-dictator of Spain, Miguel Primo de Rivera (1870–1930), stepped down and was replaced as premier by the irascible and unpopular army general Dámaso Berenguer (1873–1953). By the end of the year the military garrison at Jaca mutinied and demanded the ouster of Berenguer, the overthrow of the king, Alfonso XIII (1886–1941), and creation of a republic. Although the mutiny of December 12–13, 1930, was quickly suppressed and its leaders executed, revolt ran wild within the Spanish military, and on April 14, 1931, Niceto Alcalá Zamora (1877–1949) successfully led a republican coup against Alfonso XIII, who was, for the most part, peacefully deposed.

By the summer of the following year, Spanish reactionaries revolted against the new republic at Seville. The country rapidly splintered into many sharply opposed parties, right and left. Feeding off the energy of this political situation, the Catalan radicals of Barcelona rose up against the republic.

Since the beginning of the century, Barcelona had emerged as an economic powerhouse on the Iberian Peninsula. This newfound strength and influence reawakened the dormant urge for Catalan self-rule. Indeed, Barcelona had been given semiautonomous status in 1913 and had maintained itself in this way until 1923. In 1931 Barcelona radicals declared a Catalan republic, and, rather than resist, the Spanish government granted the city an even greater degree of self-government. This made Barcelona the de facto focus of the general republican movement in Spain, and on January 8, 1933, republican radicals joined those who advocated complete Catalan independence in an uprising. Inspired by the Barcelona revolt, other cities rose up in support of the new republic and in opposition to the reactionary monarchists and counterrevolutionaries. Government troops were dispatched to Barcelona and elsewhere to restore order.

Unrest continued to ebb and flow in Spain, culminating in the SPANISH CIVIL WAR (1936–1939).

See also ASTURIAN UPRISING; CATALAN REVOLT (1934).

Further reading: Antony Beevor, *Spanish Civil War* (New York: Penguin, 2001); Hugh Thomas, *Spanish Civil War* (New York: Random House, 2001); Peter Wyden, *The Passionate War: The Narrative History of the Spanish Civil War, 1936–39* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1983).

Bardas Phocus's and Bardas Skleros's Rebellion *See* BYZANTINE REVOLTS.

Bardas Skleros's Revolt *See* BYZANTINE REVOLTS.

Barons' War (1263–1265)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: English barons under Simon de Montfort and his son vs. King Henry III and his loyalists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Wales and central England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The barons rebelled against Henry III after he abrogated the Magna Carta; they sought to assert their rights and end his misrule.
OUTCOME: Ultimately, the royalists prevailed. However, Prince Edward was elevated to the position of real power behind Henry III's throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the Severn River, barons, 40,000; royalists, 20,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

On June 19, 1215, the English barons compelled King John I (1167–1216) to sign the Magna Carta, establishing the supremacy of law over Crown and, in the process, guaranteeing broad rights to the feudal barons. The following year the inept Henry III (1207–72) ascended the throne and immediately abrogated the Magna Carta by ruling imperiously and capriciously. In response to the king's mismanagement, a group of barons, led by Simon de Montfort (c. 1208–65), earl of Leicester, established a commission of reform in 1259 in an effort to redress the king's errors. Like the king, however, the commission governed poorly. Henry reasserted his royal prerogatives and opposed Montfort's reform party, which prompted Montfort to lead the barons in rebellion.

The first major battle of the rebellion took place at Lewes on May 14, 1264. Montfort laid siege to Rochester when Henry, fresh from having successfully taken Northampton, arrived at the head of a relief column. Montfort, with great tactical skill, fought a cavalry battle that resulted in the decisive defeat of Henry's forces. The only bright spot for the king was the performance of his son, Prince Edward (1239–1307) (who would later rule as Edward I), who managed to drive a portion of the barons' army from the field. Henry, however, was taken prisoner and secured his release only by agreeing to broad concessions that made Simon de Montfort the greatest power in England. Nevertheless, many royalists remained in the field, and Montfort made an alliance with Llywelyn Ap Grupfudd (d. 1282), the prince of Wales, to fight them. Montfort enjoyed little success, and on July 8, 1265, Prince Edward led a large army against Montfort at Newport. Outnumbered, Montfort was soundly beaten and quickly retreated to the safety of Wales. Repeatedly he attempted to break out to return to central England, but Edward defended the Severn River, checking each attempt.

In July 1265 Simon de Monfort the younger, son of the rebellious baron, led a large army of 30,000 men out of London to march to his father's relief along the Severn.

Edward, commanding an army of 20,000, was now caught between the armies of Montfort, father and son. Outnumbered two-to-one, Edward made a forced march from Worcester east. This put him in position on August 2 to surprise the army of the younger Montfort at the Battle of Kenilworth. Swift and terrible, the battle nearly wiped out the young rebel's forces. However, Edward's move freed up the army of the senior Montfort, who now crossed the Severn from Wales into England. He pressed swiftly toward Stratford by way of Evesham to join his son. In response to the senior Montfort's break out, Edward drove his thoroughly exhausted army on a night march to the southwest during August 3–4. His object was to trap the senior Montfort before his army of 7,000 could unite with the remainder of his son's forces. Reaching the Stratford-Evesham road at dawn on August 4 with two-thirds of his forces, Edward attacked Montfort, whose army was trapped in a cul-de-sac formed by a bend in the Avon River. Desperate, Montfort charged Edward's center. At the brink of exhaustion, Edward's men nevertheless fought vigorously, virtually wiping out Montfort's army. Among the tactics Edward employed was positioning his forces so that Montfort's men had to approach over a narrow bridge. This slowed their onslaught and made many of them easy targets. Among the slain was Simon de Montfort.

The culmination of a brilliant combination of strategy and tactics, the Battle of Evesham elevated Prince Edward to a position of power behind the throne. From this point forward his father ruled in name only. With the Barons' War effectively over after the Battle of Evesham, Edward's armies mopped up the vestiges of rebellion at the battles of Axholme (1265), Chesterfield (1266), and Ely (1267).

See also English Civil War (1215–1217); English Conquest of Wales; English Dynastic War; Henry II's Campaign in Wales.

Further reading: R. R. Davies, *Domination and Conquest: The Experience of Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, 1100–1300* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990); Margaret Wade LaBarge, *Simon de Montfort* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Basque War for Independence (1959–ongoing)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Basque separatists vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: People of the Basque regions of Spain desired autonomy from the Spanish government. Spain, on the other hand, wished to keep prosperous industrial and agricultural regions of the Basque provinces within Spanish control.
OUTCOME: In 1980 the Basque provinces received some measure of autonomy, although the reforms did not satisfy the most extreme Basque nationalists, who sought complete independence from Spanish rule.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Including a brutal terrorist campaign that would nearly topple the established government in Madrid, the Basque War highlighted the historical political instability in Spain. Within the Iberian Peninsula there are some regions that cannot be classified as simply Hispanic, chief among them the Moorish descendant states of Valencia, the Catalans in Barcelona, and the seven-province region (four in Spain, three in France) in the western Pyrenees known as the Basque country. In an attempt to promote harmony among the various nationalities and languages that diversify Spanish history, the Bourbon monarchy granted some of the regions limited autonomy in the early 18th century in the form of unique tax structures, separate military arms, and limited local legislative authority.

The regional autonomy, however, did not last. It was revoked in 1876 after the Second Carlist War, in which the Basques and Catalonians threw their support to Don Carlos III (1848–1909), the Carlist pretender to the Spanish throne. After a brutal civil war and a long siege of the Basque stronghold of Pamplona, the Carlist-Basque alliance collapsed, and Don Carlos fled. When the Bourbon monarchy was reestablished, Alfonso XII (1857–85) was not as conciliatory as his ancestors. He revoked the Basque *flueros* or *fors,* the traditional Basque laws, though he allowed the Basques' popular assemblies some small measure of autonomy. In July 1876 the Spanish parliament, the Cortes, codified the centrality of the Spanish government in the Constitution of 1876, thereby ending all hopes of Basque independence under the restored monarchy.

Basque hopes for autonomy were renewed in 1931 when the Bourbon government of Alfonso XIII (1886–1941) was toppled and a provisional republic was declared. Basque hopes were short-lived, however, as the Spanish Civil War (1936–1939) broke out and the republic all but collapsed under the unrelenting force of Generalissimo Francisco Franco (1892–1975). In opposition to Franco, the Popular Front Government was established to restore the republic in early September 1936, immediately granting Catalan autonomy, but only doing likewise for the Basques after they pledged support for the republican Loyalists. The Statute of Guernica allowed bilingualism within the region, a local representative body, and local administrative responsibilities, while leaving foreign policy and defense to the national government.

Franco quickly garnered fascist support from Italy and Germany. Italy sent aircraft, ground troops, artillery, and tanks. Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) was delighted to test his burgeoning Nazi war machine, sending Panzer divisions as well as the 6,000 men and 100 planes of the Condor Legion. Against Franco's well-supplied forces, the Loyalists

received support from the Soviet Union and, eventually, from volunteer forces from France, Britain, and the United States.

On April 26, 1937, the Basque market town of Guernica was bombarded by German aircraft—nine waves of them, unloading their destruction in 20-minute intervals. The town of 7,000 had no defenses. By the end of the attack, 70 percent of the town had been destroyed, 1,600 were dead, and another 900 were wounded.

For the following four decades, Guernica became a powerful rallying cry for the Basque people and an inspiration in their quest for a separate nation. For the rest of the world, it signaled a horrifying new era in warfare. The powerful tools of modern warfare hardly distinguished between trained soldier and civilian or between strategic objective and quiet village square. War, in the 20th century, was everywhere.

Franco's war, however, continued, and the Loyalists could not match the generalissimo's firepower. By early spring 1939 the war was over. Franco immediately set up tribunals to search out Loyalists and other possible opponents to his nascent regime. Chief among his targets were the Basques, thousands of whom were executed in the postwar witch hunt. Many Basques fled to Paris, where they kept quiet and kept alive through the Basque Nationalist Party (Partido Nacionalista Vasco, or PNV), an organization founded in 1894 to promote the Basque cause.

At first Franco's policies opposed the renewal of autonomy for the Basque country. He ended all economic privileges, something that had been retained even after the Second Carlist War, and he outlawed the Basque flag and language. By the late 1950s, however, factions of the Basque people again organized to promote separation from Spanish rule.

In 1959 youthful members of the Basque Nationalist Party formed the Basque Homeland and Freedom Party (Euzkadi ta Azkatasuna, or ETA) in frustration over the PNV's unwillingness to engage in armed struggle for the cause of Basque separatism. At first espousing revolutionary socialism as its goal, the ETA allied itself with liberation groups of similar causes and tactics—the Irish Republican Army, Palestinian liberation groups, and the Red Brigade of Italy. The ETA's members trained in South Yemen, Algeria, and Libya, learning the tactics of public sabotage and, later, assassination.

Organized as a network of cells under the control of an eight- to 10-member directorate, the ETA began a systematic campaign of guerrilla terrorism aimed at the Franco regime, particularly wealthy industrialists of the Spanish oligarchy. By the mid-1960s the group had split into two factions: One sought the traditional goal of Basque autonomy, and the more radical faction favored a Marxist-Leninist brand of Basque independence and the use of violent means to achieve its goals. At first the ETA's targets were regional; its acts of violence, in large part, went unnoticed beyond Spain's borders.

Franco fought back. His regime's retaliation and repression in the Basque provinces were severe. The police arbitrarily used arrests, beatings, and torture to suppress the group. From the ETA's inception in 1959 to Franco's death in 1975, the generalissimo declared a state of military emergency six times in the two most militant Basque provinces. Also during the first years of the ETA's struggle, the majority of political prisoners in Spanish jails were Basques, even though they accounted for about 5 percent of the Spanish population. By 1970 all the leaders of the ETA had been arrested for murder and tried in the city of Burgos. In the eyes of the world, the subsequent execution of five ETA members only enhanced Franco's image as a repressive, brutal ruler.

Still, the ETA's attacks continued. The ETA assassinated Franco's prime minister, Luis Carrero Blanco, in December 1973. Carrero Blanco, a hard-line Francoist, had reveled in the suppression of the Basques, and his assassination threw the Franco government into crisis. Franco, though in bad health, restored order within the government and made way for his succession.

With Franco's death in 1975, Juan Carlos (b. 1938) as king oversaw Spain's peaceful transition to democracy. Juan Carlos, like his predecessor, refused to grant autonomy to the Basques, and the terrorist activities increased in both frequency and ferocity, even as the ETA founded a political wing called "Herri Batasuna" in 1978. In 1979 a bomb was planted at the Madrid airport, killing scores of civilians. Spanish military officers now became targets, too. But 1980 proved even bloodier, ETA's bloodiest to date, with 118 people killed by terrorist attack.

In October 1980 Juan Carlos finally offered a home-rule bill that equalled the 1936 Guernica Statute. The bill was approved by Basque voters but rejected by the ETA, who demanded total independence. The ETA vowed to fight on; in February 1981 the chief engineer of the Lemoniz nuclear power plant was kidnapped and subsequently murdered. In response to the murder, government troops were deployed to the region in March, but this only heightened the violence. Moreover, the government received a setback in 1984 when the Spanish courts overruled a plan to ban the ETA.

The ETA became a renegade outfit, now opposed by both the Madrid government and the new Basque government created as a result of the 1980 referendum. Finally bowing to pressure to halt the terrorist activity, the ETA approved a legislative pact in January 1985 between the newly elected president of the Basque Country and the national government granting autonomous authority to the region in exchange for a joint offensive against terrorism. Basque Country was still a part of Spain although it had its own representative body and in some cases existed outside national statutes. Small, hard-core factions of the

ETA continued the violent activity, but the organization became increasingly difficult for the government to deal with; it became so fractured that it was impossible to decide what was a legitimate ETA action and what was a renegade criminal act.

The ETA, however, hardly had a monopoly on criminal acts. The new socialist government of Felipe González (b. 1942) attempted to combat the ETA's violence by setting up antiterrorist "liberation" groups, who were accused of operating as death squads and who were responsible for the murders of 28 suspected ETA members. Nevertheless, secret talks between the ETA and the government were held in 1992 in Algeria but failed to bring an end to the conflict, after which Spain's politics took a turn to the right with the rise of the right-wing opposition Popular Party. Many, especially those in the ETA, saw the party as the political heir of General Franco, and in 1995 the ETA attempted to assassinate its leader, José María Aznar (b. 1953) with a car bomb.

In March 1996 the Popular Party won the general election, and Aznar became prime minister. The crackdown on the ETA many expected from the new government never materialized, but in 1997 the ETA launched a new campaign against local Popular Party politicians, kidnapping and killing young Basque councilor Miguel Angel Blanco (1968–97) in July. The brutal murder sparked national outrage, and some 6 million took to the streets to condemn ETA violence.

Aznar's government then adopted a hard line against the ETA and in December 1997 sentenced all 23 leaders of Herri Batasuna to jail for seven years for collaborating with the terrorist group. The case centered on a video featuring armed and masked ETA guerrillas, which the party tried to show during the general election campaign, and it was the first time any members of the party had been jailed for cooperating with the ETA. As a consequence in February 1998 Herri Batasuna elected a new provisional leadership, and in March 1998 Spain's main political parties engaged in talks to end violence in the Basque region without involving the government. It was just about this time as well that a peace agreement was reached in Northern Ireland and signed in April 1998. Traditionally close to the Irish Republicans, with its political wing, Herri Batasuna, modeled after Sinn Féin and schooled in negotiation by its politicians, the ETA was heavily influenced by the Irish peace process. Thus, when public disapproval was only renewed in June 1998 by the latest car bombing, which killed Popular Party councillor Manuel Zamarreno (1956–98), the ETA changed tactics. In September 1998 it announced its first indefinite cease-fire in its 30-year campaign of violence. Effective from September 18, the cease-fire was intended to set the stage for talks between Herri Batasuna and the Spanish government. In May 1999 there occurred the first meeting between the ETA and the Spanish government in Zurich, Switzerland.

At length, however, the Spanish government dismissed the cease-fire as a stalling tactic to allow the ETA to rebuild in order to return to the armed struggle, and certainly during the truce the ETA did raid several arms depots and munitions factories, although there were no major terror attacks while the cease-fire was in effect. Still, the almost daily attacks in the Basque region itself against property belonging to local politicians or against post office vehicles and banks, which were seen as symbols of Spanish sovereignty, continued unabated regardless of who talked to whom or promised what. By August Prime Minister Aznar was accusing the ETA of being scared of peace and challenging the organization to prove its commitment to ending the violence. Instead, the ETA severed all contact with Madrid and in November 1999 announced an end to its 14-month cease-fire, citing as reasons the lack of progress in the talks with the Spanish government, certain repressive measures taken by that government, and the failure of mainstream Basque nationalists to work together on the creation of an independent Basque state. In both January and February 2000 came the explosion of new car bombs in Madrid and in the Basque capital, Vitoria, their booms heralding a return to the decades-long, violent separatist campaign.

Violence in the form of terror attacks continued in 2001, and Spain was swept by a series of car-bomb attacks during 2002. On March 17, 2003, Spain's Supreme Court upheld a government ruling that outlawed Batasuna as a terrorist organization. Despite the ruling, the Basque situation remained unstable as of 2004. Indeed, the detonation of 10 terrorist bombs in commuter trains and stations in Madrid on March 11, 2004, was widely attributed to Basque separatists of the ETA; subsequent investigation, however, pointed to al-Qaeda terrorists (*see* UNITED STATES'S WAR ON TERRORISM). As of fall 2004, Madrid and the Basque Autonomous Community government continued to negotiate the nature and degree of Basque autonomy.

See also ASTURIAN UPRISING; CATALAN REVOLT.

Further reading: Wayne Anderson, *The ETA: Spain's Basque Terrorists* (New York: Rosen Publishing Group, 2003); Jeff C. Pratt, *Class and Nationalist Movements in Europe* (Sterling, Va.: Pluto Press, 2003).

Basuto Gun War (1880–1881)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Basuto vs. British colonial authorities
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sotho, southern Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Basuto resisted British efforts to disarm them.
OUTCOME: Arbitration called for the Basuto to keep but register their arms and pay an indemnity; the terms of the arbitration seem never to have been carried our or enforced.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Arbitration agreement, 1881

This brief outburst of violence between the Basuto of Sotho, southern Africa, and the British began when the British attempted to disarm the Basuto in the years following the death of all powerful king Moshoeshoe (d. 1870). The Basuto had requested British protection against the Boers (Dutch-descended farmer-colonists in southern Africa), but they found British demands to relinquish all sovereignty and self-direction distasteful. When the Basuto set about arming themselves, the British, wishing to assert control, sent in troops to begin disarming the Basuto. This incited a rebellion. Both sides, however, quickly agreed to accept the arbitration of the British high commissioner, Sir Hercules Robinson (1824–97), who ordered that the Basuto might retain their weapons provided that they license them. He further ordered the Basuto to pay a modest indemnity to the British for harm done in the short-lived rebellion. While the Basuto agreed to accept these terms, the British troops withdrew from Basuto territory, and the provisions of the arbitration were never enforced or carried out.

See also BASUTO WAR; BOER WAR, FIRST; ZULU WAR.

Further reading: Martin M. Evans, *Encyclopedia of the Boer War, 1899–1902* (Santa Barbara, Calif.: ABC-CLIO, 2000); Byron Farwell, *Queen Victoria's Little Wars* (New York: Harper and Row, 1972); Lawrence James, *The Savage Wars: British Campaigns in Africa, 1870–1920* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1985).

Basuto War (1858–1868)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Basuto vs. Boers of the Orange Free State
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Basutoland, South Africa
DECLARATION: King Moshweshwe declared war on Boer settlers in 1858.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of South African territories
OUTCOME: To prevent Boer expansion, Great Britain annexed Basutoland to its South African colony.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Thaba Bosiu (1866)

In 1854 the British government recognized the Boers, descendants of the original Dutch colonists in South Africa ("Boer" is Dutch for "farmer") of the Vaal-Orange River area as an independent state, which later became known as the Orange Free State. Once independent of the British Empire's officially more moderate policy toward indigenous Africans, the Boers—slaveholders who considered themselves native to the subcontinent—were free to express even more openly their traditional hostility toward blacks. They launched a series of range wars against local tribes.

The territory of Basutoland (present-day Lesotho), ruled by King Moshweshwe (c. 1786–1870), stoutly resisted Boer expansion, and in 1858 Moshweshwe declared war on the settlers. The Basutos initially were successful in defending their land, but by 1865 the increasing number of Boer settlements in the Orange River basin provoked new hostilities. This time the Boers gained the advantage and annexed large portions of Basutoland.

Moshweshwe appealed to the British, who arranged mediation talks that resulted in the 1866 Treaty of Thaba Bosiu, a treaty much favoring the Boers. The discovery of diamonds and gold the following year in South Africa touched off a frenzy of colonial activity, which hardened British anti-Boer sentiments. On the brink of extinction as a tribal "nation" by 1867, Basutoland made one last appeal to the British, who this time took action on their behalf by cutting off key ammunition routes to the Boers. With a typical lack of finesse, the empire provocatively annexed Basutoland for itself in the name of protecting black Africans and checking Boer excesses, thus setting the stage for the Transvaal Revolt, sometimes called the First BOER WAR.

See also BASUTO GUN WAR.

Further reading: Byron Farwell, *Queen Victoria's Little Wars* (New York: Harper and Row, 1972).

Batavian Revolt (69–71)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebel Roman legions in Batavia and Gaul vs. the Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Rhine River valley
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence of Gaul and the German provinces in the Rhine River valley, spurred by the political chaos created when four rival generals sought to claim the throne of the Roman Empire following Nero's suicide.
OUTCOME: Vespasian became emperor, crushed the revolt, and disbanded the rebel legions.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the death of the Roman emperor Nero (37–68), there ensued a mad power struggle among Servius Sulpicius Galba (3 B.C.E.–69 C.E.), legate in Spain, who was declared emperor by his troops and who was also so

acclaimed by the Roman Senate after he had been recognized by the emperor's elite bodyguard, the Praetorian Guard; Marius Salvius Otho (32–69), legate in Portugal (then called Lusitania), who had Galba murdered by the Praetorians after they had switched their allegiance to him; Aulus Vitellius (15–69), legate of Lower Germany, who also had been proclaimed emperor by his legions and who marched to Rome to defeat and kill Otho; and Titus Flavius Vespasian (9–79), a competent commander in Judaea, who had been proclaimed emperor by his troops as well and who had the backing of the legates in Syria and Egypt. As Vitellius and Vespasian vied for support throughout the empire, the power struggle upset the delicate imperial balance in the Rhine River valley and in the province of Gaul, where Rome had always moved cautiously to make sure that more than a mere river kept the Gauls from joining their tribal cousins the Germans on the opposite shore.

On the Lower Rhine the Batavians had been loosely confederated with Rome in its campaigns against other German tribes and had provided soldiers for the auxiliary. The Batavian auxiliary legion was commanded by Claudius Civilis (d. 71), who was ordered by Vespasian's chief supporter, Antonius Primus (fl. 60), to detain any forces being sent to Vitellius in Italy, where a civil war between the two generals had broken out (*see* ROMAN CIVIL WAR [68–69 C.E.]). Civilis followed his orders, hoping to assert Batavian and Gallic independence in the process. He quickly overwhelmed the small garrison in the area and garnered support from the other Batavian legions as well as several German tribes. His hopes of mounting a joint Gallic-Batavian insurrection were quickly squelched when his envoys to Gaul were not well received. In fact, Roman reinforcements were already on their way to Gaul, determined to prevent Civilis from subverting the Gallic tribes to his—or, as they thought, Vespasian's—cause.

Civilis moved to attack legion headquarters in Castra Vetera at the mouth of the Lippe River. After an unsuccessful attempt to storm the camp, the rebels resorted to a siege. Vetera was saved only when Vitellius's reinforcement garrison arrived in early 70 to relieve the besieged camp. By then, however, back in Italy Vitellius himself had been defeated. When Vespasian was crowned emperor, Civilis's ruse of fighting to support Vespasian came to an end. Although Vetera had been saved, the rebels were as strong as ever. The majority of the reserve troops at Vetera were sent out to pursue Civilis. By mid 70 the revolt had spread to Upper Germany, and Mainz was besieged. Again a reserve force relieved the city, but again it was unable to weaken the rebels. Given the initial successes of the rebellion and the strength of the rebel army, many of the Gallic tribes now rushed to join the insurrection.

Swelled by the new recruits, the rebel army again laid siege to Vetera. This time the rebels overran the garrison, massacring the inhabitants and burning the fortress to the ground. It would prove to be the high-water mark of the rebellion. Tribal rivalries on both sides of the river soon caused any goodwill created by shared triumphs to disintegrate. Vespasian dispatched Quintus Petillius Cerialis (governor of Roman Britain, 71–74) to deal with the insurrection, and he met Civilis's forces at Treves in 71. Cerialis smashed the rebellion and immediately put Civilis to death, then disbanded the four legions that had taken up arms against Rome.

Further reading: Keith Wellesley, *The Year of Four Emperors* (London and New York: Routledge, 2000).

Batetelan Uprisings (1895–1900)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Batetelan rebels vs. Congo Free State
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Congo (Democratic Republic of the Congo)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Batetelas rose up against the incredibly harsh treatment given them by the minions of King Leopold II.
OUTCOME: The Batetelas were crushed, but Leopold's nearly genocidal cruelty in the Congo was exposed, which eventually led to his loss of the area as a royal preserve.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the latter half of the 19th century, the European powers launched a bargain-basement rush on what they collectively called the "Dark Continent," each trying to carve out a colonial parcel of Africa for its own exploitation and profit. In Equatorial Africa's Congo region (modern-day Democratic Republic of the Congo), the Belgians quickly came to dominate, chiefly because the Belgian king, Leopold II (1835–1909), took a deep personal interest in the area. In 1876 he founded the Association Internationale du Congo to explore the Congo River and its surroundings, with Sir Henry Morton Stanley (1841–1904) as his main agent. When Anglo-Portuguese forces arrived in the Congo basin in 1884 to lay claim to all they could, Leopold defeated their attempts at conquest and gained recognition by the United States and the leading European powers as the sovereign of the Etât Indépendent du Congo (Congo Free State) in 1885.

Wild rubber, the Congo's major cash crop, came especially into demand after 1891, giving birth to the region's chief extractive industry. By then it was abundantly clear that King Leopold considered the vast area—80 times the size of Belgium—his personal property. His minions soon had a reputation among the native peoples of East and Central Africa as especially cruel, even bloodthirsty, taskmasters. In 1895 the Batetelas, one of the more combative

of the warlike tribes of the Congo basin, rose up against the greedy and grim Belgian imperialists. Leopold, even as he basked in the European spotlight for his humanitarian efforts on the "Dark Continent," brutally crushed the uprising. Two years later the determined Batetelas struck again, this time taking control of a large span of the eastern Congo. For three years they fought off the Belgians, whose forces were commanded by Baron François Dhanis (1861–1909). Eventually Leopold's colonial army prevailed, however, killing off the more stubborn Batetela leadership and brutally subjugating the remaining population. But the damage was done. In 1904 international exposure of Leopold's mistreatment of Africans—some estimates put the genocidal slaughter at 11 million—especially in the rubber industry, marked the onset of the decline of Leopold's personal rule. Great Britain, with backing from the United States, pressured Belgium to annex the Congo Free State to redress the "rubber atrocities," and it did so by parliamentary act in 1908, thus forming the Belgian Congo.

See also DAHOMEYAN-FRENCH WAR, FIRST; DAHOMEYAN-FRENCH WAR, SECOND; ITALO-ETHIOPIAN WAR (1895–1896); MANDINGO-FRENCH WAR, FIRST; MANDINGO-FRENCH WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Adam Hochschild, *King Leopold's Ghost: A Story of Greed, Terror, and Heroism in Colonial Africa* (New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1998); John de Courry MacDonnell, *King Leopold II, His Rule in Belgium and the Congo* (New York: Negro Universities Press, 1969).

Bavarian Succession, War of the
(1778–1779)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Prussia vs. Austria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bohemia
DECLARATION: Prussia declared war on Austria, 1778.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Prussia invaded Bohemia to prevent Austria from gaining a part of Bavaria in a dispute over succession to the Bavarian throne.
OUTCOME: By treaty Prussia gained the Franconian principalities of Bavaria, while Austria retained a portion of Lower Bavaria; Charles Theodore was confirmed as elector of Bavaria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Austria, 128,000; Prussia 152,000
CASUALTIES: Austria, 3,265 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner; Prussia, 3,431 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner
TREATIES: Treaty of Teschen, May 13, 1779

Derisively called the "Potato War" because it was more memorable for the sight of poorly supplied and underfed soldiers foraging for food than for any battle, this comparatively minor conflict between Austria and Prussia was the result of Prussian king Frederick II the Great's (1712–86) desire to prevent Austria from gaining a part of Bavaria. When Bavarian elector Maximilian III Joseph (1727–77) died without an heir, rule over the Bavarian duchy passed to the Palatinate elector, Charles Theodore (1724–99). He in turn agreed to cede Lower Bavaria to Austria. Frederick II the Great sought to block this cession by invading Hapsburg Bohemia in 1778. Yet the war that resulted produced almost no military contact between the belligerents thanks to Austria's Maria Theresa (1717–80), who approached Frederick II directly and persuaded him to conclude the Treaty of Teschen between Austria and Prussia. The treaty awarded Prussia the Franconian principalities of Bavaria, while Austria retained a portion of Lower Bavaria, both relatively minor territorial adjustments. The treaty settled the underlying question of the Bavarian succession by confirming the sovereignty of Charles Theodore.

See also AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE; SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Robert B. Asprey, *Frederick the Great: The Magnificent Enigma* (New York: Ticknor and Fields, 1986); Christopher Duffy, *Frederick the Great: A MIlitary Life* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1985).

Bavarian War (War of the Landshut Succession)
(1503–1504)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Palatine under Rupert vs. the Holy Roman Empire and Wittelsbach family allies
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bavaria
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The death of the baron of Bavaria-Landshut precipitated a struggle between his son-in-law, Rupert (also son of the elector of Palatine), and other members of the baron's family allied with Maximilian I of the Holy Roman Empire for control of the baron's lands.
OUTCOME: The death of Rupert and his wife ended the fighting; the lands in contest were amicably divided among the Holy Roman Empire, the Palatine, and the duke of Bavaria-Munich.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Totals unknown; 18 defenders of Kufstein were executed by imperial forces.
TREATIES: None

For centuries Bavarian lands had been divided among the ruling Wittelsbach family as three separate duchies, connected by alliances and family relationships. With the death of George the Rich, baron of Bavaria-Landshut, on December 1, 1503, the baron's lands came into dispute.

Prior to his death, George had made a succession agreement with his two cousins, Dukes Albert (1467–1508) and Wolfgang (b. c. 1482) of Bavaria-Munich, assuring them control of the Landshut holdings after his death. However, when his will was read, it became apparent that George had bequeathed his territory to his daughter Elizabeth (1478–1504) and her husband, Rupert (d. 1504), son of the elector of neighboring Palatine.

In league with Albert and Wolfgang, Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian I (1459–1519) presided over an imperial hearing at Augsburg to determine the legitimacy of each side's claims. Finding fault with both claims, Maximilian proposed the partitioning of the Landshut lands. Before his ruling could be implemented, however, young Rupert seized the town of Landshut and attempted to negate the partitioning order. Maximilian, faced with a direct challenge to his authority, swiftly decreed Rupert banned from the empire on April 23, 1504, and called for imperial forces to defeat the rebel. The Swabian League and other traditional enemies of the Palatine quickly heeded the emperor's call and went to war, devastating southern Germany. Through skillful diplomatic maneuvering Maximilian was able to isolate the Palatine by keeping France out of the fray.

The superior imperial forces proved too much for Rupert, and by the fall of 1504 the rebel forces found themselves on the brink of disaster. At the Battle of Regensburg on September 12 Rupert, commanding mostly Bohemian mercenaries, was heavily defeated. After Regensburg only Kufstein held out for Rupert, and Maximilian quickly laid siege to the town. After three weeks the town surrendered, and 18 defenders, including the garrison commander, were executed.

Victory was complete for Maximilian when both Rupert and Elizabeth suddenly died in late 1504, leaving nearly everyone happy. The emperor now had control of the region around his dominions in Tirol, the elector of the Palatine was content with the portions he received, and Albert and Wolfgang, with their portions, were able to unite almost all of Bavaria.

See also THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: C. Scott Dixon, *The Reformation and Rural Society: The Parishes of Brandenburg-Ansbach-Kulmbach, 1528–1603* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996); Johannes C. Wolfart, *Religion, Government and Political Culture in Early Modern Germany: Lindau, 1520–1628* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2002).

Bay of Islands War (First Maori War, Hono Heke's War) (1844–1847)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Maori peoples of New Zealand vs. British settlers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North Island, New Zealand
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Maori, resentful of Europeans' encroachments on their lands, the subjugation of their chiefs to British authority, and the ill effects of British settlement upon their culture, attacked a British garrison on North Island.
OUTCOME: Fighting ended with the defeat of the Maori warriors, and peace continued for most of the following 15 years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Maori, 700 warriors; Britain, 1,500
CASUALTIES: Maori, 260; British, 57
TREATIES: None

Since Captain James Cook's (1728–79) explorations of New Zealand in 1769–70, European whalers, sealers, and traders insinuated a capitalist system that tied New Zealand's inhabitants to Europe's economy. Soon settlers followed sailors and traders, and they brought with them a hunger for native Maori lands. Britain annexed New Zealand in 1838 and established means, initially acceptable to the Maori, for European land purchases in exchange for Maori protection. But by means legal and not, the Europeans, too quickly to suit the Maori, appropriated lands and thus threatened Maori culture. The tension between New Zealanders and Europeans exploded into the WAIRAU AFFRAY in 1843 over contested land purchases illegally made by the New Zealand Land Company. A settlement favorable to the Maori satisfied them but did not solve the ongoing contest for land.

A local Maori chief, Hone Heke (dates unknown), marched on the British garrison of Russell, or Kororareka, on July 8, 1844, and cut down the British flagpole, a symbolic act of his resentment toward the European presence. The following January he did it twice more. The British had had enough and, after re-erecting the pole, built a blockhouse around it. Undaunted, Hone Heke, with another chief, Kawiti, and 700 warriors, marched on Kororareka on March 11, seizing the blockhouse and cutting the pole down for the fourth time. The chief was not finished. The Maori warriors then advanced on the town and sacked it, forcing both the townspeople and the undermanned garrison to flee.

The governor general, Captain Robert FitzRoy (1805–65), ordered a punitive expedition into the field against the rebels, but Heke and Kawiti quickly annihilated the force in two short engagements. FitzRoy was recalled and replaced by Captain George Grey (1812–98). Grey quickly sent a large force into the field and attacked the heart of traditional Maori warfare, the *pa*. A *pa* is the base of operations for Maori warfare both spiritually and tactically. It is also a fortification. The force first attacked Kawiti's *pa* in January and defeated it without much struggle. Grey's troops then attacked Hone Heke's *pa* at

Ruapekapeka on January 11, 1846, and quickly overran it. Heke did not acknowledge defeat but vowed not to take the field against the British again. Although indiscriminate skirmishes continued for the next year, the fighting was essentially over, but the land disputes would resume with a vengeance in the First Taranaki War (Second Maori War) of 1860.

See also Taranaki War, Second; Taranaki War, Third.

Further reading: James Belich, *Victorian Interpretation of Racial Conflict: The Maori, the British and the New Zealand Wars* (Montreal: McGill-Queens University Press, 1989); Paul Moon, *Hone Heke: Nga Puh Warrior* (Auckland, N.Z.: David Bing Publishing, 2001).

Bay of Pigs Invasion (1961)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: CIA-backed anti-Castro guerrillas vs. Cuban government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bay of Pigs, southern Cuba
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A CIA-backed attempt to topple the communist regime of Fidel Castro
OUTCOME: The invasion failed completely—a humiliating defeat for the administration of President John F. Kennedy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anti-Castro Cuban exile invaders, 1,500; far outnumbered by Cuban defense forces
CASUALTIES: Invaders, 150 killed, 1,250 captured; Cuba, 54 killed
TREATIES: None

The United States supported Fulgencio Batista y Zaldívar (1901–13) since he had come to power as Cuban dictator in 1952. Batista, however, was corrupt and repressive, and very soon a revolutionary movement crystallized under Fidel Castro (b. 1926/27) and other leaders. In 1959 Castro led a successful rebellion against Batista and became the new premier of Cuba. He was at first cordial to the United States, but, beginning in 1960, he aligned Cuba increasingly with the Soviet Union and seized American oil refineries, sugar mills, and electric utilities on the island.

As early as 1959, when Castro became premier, the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) began planning an invasion near Guantánamo Bay, the U.S. naval and marine base in southern Cuba, at a place called the Bay of Pigs. Although planning began during the administration of Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969), the invasion stepped off on April 15, 1961, with the bombing of Cuba by what appeared to be defecting Cuban air force pilots (they were, in fact, exiles supported by the CIA). This was during the early months of the new administration of John F. Kennedy (1917–63). Three Cuban military bases were bombed, and the airfields at Camp Libertad and San Antonio de los Baños and Antonio Maceo airport at Santiago de Cuba were fired upon. (Seven people were killed at Libertad and 47 elsewhere.) Two of the B-26 bombers involved in the attack flew to Miami, apparently to defect to the United States.

The invasion proper began at 2 A.M. on April 17 at the Bay of Pigs. Two battalions came ashore but soon found themselves bogged down in a swampy marsh. For their part, Cuban forces were quick to react. Castro's air force was small, but he ordered it into action against the slow-moving, bogged-down invaders and their command and control ship and supply vessel offshore. Both ships, the command vessel *Mariposa* and the supply ship *Houston,* were attacked. *Mariposa* was sunk and *Houston* beached. The loss of these vessels destroyed the coordination as well as the logistics of the invading forces. The invaders were cut off.

On April 18 Castro's air force shot down 10 of the 12 aircraft of the invaders, and over the next 72 hours Cuban ground forces pounded the 1,500 men of the invasion forces using howitzer, cannons, and tank fire. Ultimately surrounded, the invaders began to surrender. Some fled into the hills. The death toll among the invaders was 114; 36 subsequently died in Cuban prisons. Some other prisoners were incarcerated for up to 20 years. Many of the surviving invaders were released during 1962–65 after private donors paid what amounted to a ransom of $53 million in food and medicines for Cuba.

See also Cuban Revolution.

Further reading: James G. Blight and Peter Kornbluh, eds., *Politics of Illusion: The Bay of Pigs Invasion Reexamined* (Boulder, Colo.: Lynne Rienner Publishers, 1998); Christina Fisanick, *Bay of Pigs* (Detroit: Gale, 2004); Victor Andres Triay, *Bay of Pigs: An Oral History of Brigade 2506* (Gainesville: University Press of Florida, 2001).

Bear Flag Rebellion (1846)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: American settlers vs. Mexican Californians (Californios)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): California
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: American adventurers in California, seeking to take advantage of the deteriorating relations between Mexico and the United States and fearful of repression from California's Mexican authorities, launched a revolt.
OUTCOME: The Americans proclaimed the independent "Bear Flag" Republic; shortly afterward American forces arrived to claim the territory for the United States.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 2,858 troops plus 5 ships; Californios, 500
CASUALTIES: United States, 59 killed or wounded; Californios, 44 killed or wounded

TREATIES: American sovereignty was recognized under the Treaty of Cahuenga signed on January 13, 1847; California was ceded to the United States under the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo signed on February 2, 1848.

U.S. president James K. Polk (1795–1849), owed his election in 1844 to the powerful and growing expansionist lobby in the Democratic Party, and he would never forget it. Thus, Polk is often depicted as a war-mongering imperialist who in 1846 provoked the UNITED STATES–MEXICAN WAR in order to grab the American Southwest and California from a poor and overmatched neighbor. Expansionist he certainly was, and that war he would surely fight, but he negotiated his way into control over the Pacific Northwest territories of present-day Oregon and Washington, and when he wanted California, he was willing first to make a cash offer: $40 million.

He sent John Slidell (1793–1871) to Mexico to negotiate the purchase, but Mexican president José Joaquín Herrera (1792–1854)—like most Mexican leaders, determined to keep the United States out of his country—refused to see the envoy. Thereupon Polk commissioned the U.S. consul at Monterey, Thomas O. Larkin (1802–58), to organize, albeit quietly, into a separatist movement sympathetic to annexation, à la Texas (*see* TEXAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE). Larkin might have succeeded in this had Polk given him sufficient time, but the president had heard rumors that the British vice consul in San Francisco was successfully wooing Southern California's governor, Pío Pico (1801–94), over to the notion of a British protectorate, and Polk, who always played his hand close to his chest, grew impatient.

Meanwhile, John Charles Frémont (1813–90), the western explorer and adventurer who was just then busy surveying potential transcontinental railroad routes for the U.S. Bureau of Topographical Engineers, happened to camp with 60 armed men near the fort John A. Sutter had built in what one day would be the city of Sacramento. Their presence sufficiently disturbed José Castro (1810–60), governor of Northern California, that he ordered them to leave the province. Frémont responded by moving his men to a hilltop, Hawk's Peak, and raising the Stars and Stripes. Before Castro could dispatch a military force to counter this act of defiance, Thomas Larkin intervened and defused the situation. Frémont and his band retired to the lower Sacramento Valley and then started for Oregon.

En route they were met by a messenger, Lieutenant Archibald Gillespie (1812–73), who brought letters from Frémont's father-in-law, U.S. senator from Missouri Thomas Hart Benton (1782–1858), as well as news that war between the United States and Mexico was imminent, that the U.S. warship *Portsmouth* was anchored in San Francisco Bay, that the rest of the Pacific fleet was anchored off Mazatlán, primed for attack, and that U.S. and Mexican troops faced each other across the Texas border. According to Frémont's later account, Gillespie delivered one additional item: secret orders from Polk authorizing him to take action to bring about rebellion in California.

Most historians do not believe Frémont. He turned back to California, they say, on his own, and on his own he assumed command of the Bear Flag Revolt.

Frémont's camp was set up close to the American settlements near Sutter's Fort. Many of the settlers, fired up by rumors of an impending Mexican attack, gathered at the camp for protection and to formulate a plan of action. But settlers were not the only Anglos attracted to Frémont's enclave. A motley crew of hunters, trappers, and ship-jumping sailors, all under the loose leadership of one Ezekiel Merritt, came to Frémont with rumors that a herd of horses was being driven to the Mexican militia for use in a campaign against the settlers.

With Frémont's blessing Merritt and his crew intercepted the horses and diverted them to the Anglo camp. Having committed this act, Merritt anticipated Mexican reprisals and therefore determined to continue the offensive. In company with another Anglo-Californian leader, William B. Ide (1796–1852), Merritt took 30 followers to Sonoma on June 14, 1846, intent on capturing this, the chief settlement in the area. The party surrounded the home of Mariano G. Vallejo (1808–90), a retired Mexican army colonel and the town's leading citizen, and informed him that he was a prisoner of war. The colonel was, in fact, a staunch supporter of annexation to the United States, and his reaction to "capture" was to invite three of Merritt's party inside to negotiate "surrender" terms while the remainder of the band was provided with breakfast in the form of a freshly killed bull.

When the three negotiators failed after some time to emerge from the house, another man was sent in. He, too, disappeared. At this point, Ide ventured inside himself—and found the original three negotiators snoring in a drunken stupor while the fourth struggled with consciousness and the unfinished instrument of surrender. Yet the die was cast. Ide completed the surrender document, which Vallejo signed, after which he was sent to Fort Sutter, the rebellion's first prisoner. In Sonoma 25 men remained as a garrison, Ide's followers named him president of the California Republic, and a flag emblazoned with the image of a grizzly bear was raised over the town plaza on June 15.

On June 24, in an engagement known as the Battle of Olompali, Ide drove off the small force Governor Castro had mounted against the Bear Flaggers. Two American lives were lost. Meanwhile, by receiving Vallejo as a prisoner, Frémont had dropped any pretense of neutrality in the California rebellion. On June 25 he marched his small force into Sonoma, high handedly and summarily took over command from Ide, and set out with 134 men to avenge the two deaths suffered at Olompali. Three Mexicans encountered along Frémont's march south were made to expiate the American casualties, while the body of Castro's army simply fled before Frémont's approach. On July 1 Frémont captured the Presidio at San Francisco, an easy victory in as

much as the fortress had been without garrison for many years. He took the precaution of spiking a Spanish cannon there—but, then, it had not been fired in half a century.

Two weeks later, on July 7, 1846, an American squadron under Commodore John D. Sloat (1781–1867) landed at Monterey, California's capital, took the harbor and the town without firing a shot, hoisted the Stars and Stripes, and proclaimed California American territory: The Bear Flag Rebellion had just been superseded by the United States–Mexican War. When General Stephen W. Kearny (1794–1848) arrived, he discovered California already under U.S. control. Sloat retired from the U.S. Navy and was replaced by Commodore Robert F. Stockton (1795–1866); he and Frémont were very much in charge of the situation. Kearny vied for command with Stockton, and Frémont backed the commodore while the U.S. government stood by the general. As a result Frémont was afterward court-martialed for insubordination, but meanwhile he was in charge of defending Northern California. Lieutenant Archibald Gillespie, with a force of 50, saw to Southern California.

In the fall of 1846, there was an insurgency against the American occupation by some poorer Californios and Mexicanized Indians, many of them *vaqueros,* or Mexican "cowboys," led by José María Flores, who chased Gillespie north to Monterey and retook Santa Barbara, Los Angeles, and San Diego. In December, 80 of them defeated Kearny's force of 100 dragoons reinforced by 38 of Gillespie's troopers at San Pasqual. At that point Commodore Stockton intervened, landing 400 of his sailors at San Diego and retaking Los Angeles, where he was joined by another 400 or so reinforcements from Frémont.

The Americans treated the insurgents generously under the Treaty of Cahuenga, and resistance to American sovereignty disappeared. California was formally ceded by Mexico in 1848 as part of the United States–Mexican War's peace settlement. That same year the world was to receive the news that gold had been discovered near Sutter's Fort on the American River, which kicked off a gold rush that populated the new territory with Anglos more quickly than anyone had imagined and greatly exacerbated the regional conflicts that were already threatening to tear the American union apart.

See also ARCHIVE WAR.

Further reading: John S. D. Eisenhower, *So Far from God: The U.S. War with Mexico, 1846–48* (New York: Random House, 1989); Allan Nevins, *Frémont: Pathmarker of the West* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1992).

Bear River Campaign (Shoshoni War) (1863)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Shoshoni Indians and allied tribes vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Utah
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Taking advantage of the U.S. Army's manpower shortage during the Civil War, the Shoshoni and others raided emigrant and mail trains; the U.S. Army fought to contain the raids.
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; though the United States enjoyed a few victories in battle, the army failed to contain the Indian raids.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 300; Indians, 300
CASUALTIES: Indians, 224 killed, 160 women and children captured; United States, 14 killed, 49 wounded
TREATIES: "Treaty of Peace and Friendship," October 1, 1863

During the Civil War the United States was faced with a number of campaigns against Native Americans at the very time it was fighting disunion. The Minnesota (Santee) Sioux outbreak (*see* UNITED STATES–SIOUX WAR [1862–1864]), in which the major actions were quickly resolved and which was far away from the battlefields of the War between the States, was less serious than the NAVAJO WAR of 1861–63 and the APACHE UPRISING of 1861–63, both of which involved more extensive raiding on the part of the Indians in the areas where Yankees and Rebels were themselves fighting (*see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: TRANS-MISSISSIPPI THEATER). The major problem was really one of manpower: The outbreak of civil war drained the army of the West, especially of its officers. One-third of the army's officer corps, 313 men, left primarily western commands to take up arms on the side of the Confederacy. Most of the western tribes were aware that the whites were fighting each other, and many were encouraged if not to launch major resistance efforts, as the Santee, Navajo, and Apache did, then at least to step up their raiding of Anglo-American settlements. The American Civil War, in short, seemed to the Indians to increase the odds in their favor.

By 1863 the Shoshoni and Ute Indians of the Great Basin were routinely attacking immigrant and mail routes west and south of Fort Laramie, Wyoming. Brigadier General James Craig (1817–88), operating out of Fort Laramie and Fort Halleck, had fewer than 500 troops to patrol thousands of miles of trail. Fortunately for him, Colonel (later Brigadier General) Patrick Connor's (1820–91) California troops—the 3rd California Infantry and a portion of the 2nd California Cavalry, a total of 1,000 men—had arrived to garrison the forts of Utah and Nevada late in 1862.

In Utah the Shoshoni, Bannocks, and Utes were hitting the mail and telegraph route as well as killing prospectors on their way to the Montana mines. In January 1863 Connor took 300 men, chiefly cavalry, from Fort Douglas, Utah, and set out after the Shoshoni chief Bear Hunter (d. 1863). Connor's command reached Bear Hunter's village on the Bear River, near present-day Preston, Idaho, on January 27. There they confronted about 300 warriors, who hand-

ily repulsed an initial frontal attack that was led by one of Connor's subordinates. After this defeat Connor took command of a flanking attack, by which he managed to trap Bear Hunter and his warriors, catching them in a murderous crossfire. A total of 224 Shoshonis, including Bear Hunter, lay dead the next morning, 160 women and children were taken prisoner, and substantial stores were destroyed. A total of 14 of Connor's men had been killed and 49 wounded. The battle was the principal encounter and climax of the Bear River Campaign and prompted most of the Shoshonis and Bannocks to seek peace.

It did not necessarily do much to stop the Indian raiding, however. Connor also dealt harshly with the Utes and Gosiutes, who harassed travelers between Salt Lake City and Fort Ruby. During the summer and fall of 1863, Connor and superintendent of Indian Affairs James D. Doty (1799–1865) concluded a number of treaties with the Indians of Utah. During this period, too, Major Charles McDermit (d. 1880) had his hands full patrolling Paiute country in Nevada. Farther north, in Washington and Oregon, the Nez Percé signed a treaty in June 1863 and withdrew to their reservation, while the Western Shoshoni continued to harass immigrants plying the Oregon Trail through southern Idaho. Colonel Reuben F. Maury led elements of the 1st Oregon Cavalry in patrols aimed at keeping the trail open. Maury's patrols, together with operations by the 1st Washington Territorial Infantry, mainly succeeded in policing the Western Shoshonis. The Northern Paiutes, better known as the Snakes, were less easy to deal with. They rarely offered full-scale, formal resistance, and their raiding parties were so small and so perfectly on the alert that pursuit was often useless. The 1st Oregon Cavalry and elements of Colonel McDermit's command pursued the Snakes nonetheless, but to little avail. It would not be until the end of the Civil War, when the United States again turned its eyes toward westward expansion and the U.S. Army became once more mainly a frontier force, that a more concentrated period of warfare against the Indians would commence (*see* SNAKE WAR). Nevertheless, the temporary advantage enjoyed by the Indian guerrillas frustrated the authorities.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall Reference, 1993); Hank Corless, *The Weiser Indians: Shoshoni Peacemakers* (Moscow: University of Idaho Press, 1990); Robert M. Utley, *Frontiersmen in Blue: The U.S. Army and the Indian, 1848–65* (New York: Macmillan, 1967); Paul J. Wellman, *The Indian Wars of the West* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1934).

Béarnese Revolt, First (1621–1622)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The French Crown vs. the Huguenots
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southwestern France
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: For the Huguenots, freedom of religion and their military and political autonomy; for the French Crown, the reestablishment of Catholicism as the state religion and the reclamation of property and land previously lost to the Huguenots
OUTCOME: The Huguenots lost most of the strongholds granted them under the Edict of Nantes but retained control of the port city of La Rochelle, while France itself witnessed the rise to power of Cardinal Richelieu.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: The Peace of Montpelier, October 1622

With the enactment of the Edict of Nantes in 1598, which granted limited religious freedom to French Protestants (known as Huguenots) following the Ninth War of Religion (*see* RELIGION, NINTH WAR OF), Henry IV (1553–1610)—himself a former Protestant—had hoped to put an end to the destructiveness of religious unrest in France. However, his son and heir, Louis XIII (1601–43), proved not so tolerant. Attempting to reestablish Catholic dominance over the Huguenots and to reclaim property and land his father had lost to them, Louis promulgated the Union of Béarn and Navarre in 1620, which essentially revoked any privileges the Huguenots enjoyed under the Edict of Nantes.

Mostly concentrated in the southwestern region of France, the Huguenots were led by Henri, duc de Rohan (1579–1638), from the province of Béarn. Under Henri, they rose against Louis, resisting by force of arms his schemes to seize their land and property.

In response to the rebellion, Louis dispatched his most trusted adviser, Charles de Luynes (1578–1621), to lay siege to the Huguenot city of Montauban. De Luynes died of purple fever before he could subjugate the city, but Louis was successful in having the town of Saint-Jean-d'Angely razed in June 1621. There the French king took a perverse pleasure in making the Huguenots beg for mercy after he had refused to discuss terms with them. With de Luynes dead the post of chief adviser fell to Armand du Plessis, duc de Richelieu (1585–1642), named a cardinal in 1622 and destined to dominate French affairs for the next two decades.

Mostly due to Richelieu's influence with Louis, the Peace of Montpelier was signed in October 1622, which essentially codified Louis's harsh terms for the Huguenots without specifically revoking the Edict of Nantes. At length Louis's troops managed to recapture most of the strongholds accorded to the Huguenots at Nantes, but they remained in control of the province of Béarn, Montauban, and, perhaps most important, the port city of La Rochelle.

See also BÉARNESE REVOLT, SECOND; BÉARNESE REVOLT, THIRD.

Further reading: Mack P. Holt, *French Wars of Religion, 1562–1629* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996); Raymond A. Mentzer and Andrew Spicer, eds. *Society and Culture in the Huguenot World, 1559–1685* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002).

Béarnese Revolt, Second (1625–1626)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The French Crown vs. the Huguenots
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bay of Biscay off La Rochelle in southwestern France
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: For the Huguenots, freedom of religion and military and political autonomy; for the French Crown, the reestablishment of Catholicism as the state religion and the suppression of a Protestant revolt
OUTCOME: After a naval defeat at La Rochelle and the French imposition of a partial naval blockade, the revolt ended status quo ante bellum.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1625 the French Protestant Huguenots—still seeking the toleration granted them under the Edict of Nantes in 1598 by former Protestant turned Catholic Henry IV (1553–1610); still chafing under the attempt by his son Louis XIII (1601–43) to reestablish Catholicism as the one true religion; and still angered by the loss of most of their strongholds under the Peace of Montpelier imposed by Cardinal Richelieu (1585–1642) after their defeat in the First BÉARNESE REVOLT—rose in open revolt for the second time in four years against the French Crown. Led once again by Henri, duc de Rohan (1579–1638), and this time also by his brother, Benjamin, duc de Soubise (1583–1642), the Huguenots launched an offensive against Louis from their port city stronghold at La Rochelle in 1625.

Although the Protestants scored several early naval victories from their La Rochelle base, the Crown's forces, led by Henri, duc de Montmorency (1595–1632), high admiral of France, defeated the Huguenot fleet under Soubise off La Rochelle in September 1625. Montmorency then began a partial naval blockade of the city that essentially shut down any further Protestant operations for the moment, ending the Second Béarnese Revolt status quo ante bellum in February 1626.

See also BÉARNESE REVOLT, THIRD.

Further reading: Mack P. Holt, *French Wars of Religion, 1562–1629* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996); Raymond A. Mentzer and Andrew Spicer, eds. *Society and Culture in the Huguenot World, 1559–1685* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002).

Béarnese Revolt, Third (1627–1629)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The French Crown vs. the Huguenots
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bay of Biscay off La Rochelle, the Isle of Re, and southwestern France
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: For the Huguenots, freedom of religion and military and political autonomy; for the French Crown, the reestablishment of Catholicism as the state religion and the destruction of the Huguenot substate; the British encouraged Huguenot rebellion to aid in the Anglo-French War of 1627–28.
OUTCOME: Britain's invasionary force was crushed; La Rochelle was besieged and captured; and the Huguenots were destroyed as an autonomous military and political force in France.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Royal troops, 25,000; Huguenots, unknown
CASUALTIES: Royal troops, unknown; Huguenots, 75,000 died in fighting, 15,000 from starvation and disease
TREATIES: Peace of Alais, June 1629

Under the 1598 Edict of Nantes the French Protestant Huguenots were granted limited religious freedom, precious to them however tenuous it may have been. When Louis XIII (1601–43) ascended the throne in 1610, it became immediately clear he had no intention of following the policies of his father, Henry IV (1553–1610), a former Protestant rebel turned Catholic monarch. Fearing correctly that Louis would seek to reimpose the dominance of Catholicism, the Huguenots quickly established themselves in ways not anticipated by the Edict of Nantes—they set up a general assembly, organized a military, and even introduced a civil bureaucracy, all of which, while carrying no weight with the official government, created a Protestant substate within France. Twice before in the past half decade, the Huguenots had rebelled against the French Crown to protect their lands, their semi-independence, and their modicum of religious freedom; twice before they had been defeated. French victories in the First BÉARNESE REVOLT and the partial naval blockade imposed on La Rochelle at the close of the Second BÉARNESE REVOLT had debilitated the Huguenots' military without destroying their political or civil organizations. Louis XIII was not the man to accept a dual government within France any more than he could accept an alternative religion. It was only a matter of time before the French king and his chief adviser, Cardinal Richelieu (1585–1642), would move decisively against the Huguenots.

Centered at the port city of La Rochelle, the Huguenot resistance seemed destined to tear France apart, as had the religious wars of the previous century. From La Rochelle the Huguenots could maintain contact with the English and the Dutch. Britain, hoping to gain an advantage in the ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1627–1628), incited the Huguenots to rise up again and in early 1627 launched a fleet under Georges Villiers, duke of Buckingham (1592–1628), to the Isle of Re, near La Rochelle, in support of the revolt. Underfunded and divided in purpose, the expedition would prove a fiasco, but it was more than enough provocation for Louis and Richelieu, who moved swiftly to crush the Protestant revolt. In September they attacked the English at Re, and in November they defeated them in what became for Buckingham a disastrous campaign. Afterward the French settled into a 14-month siege of La Rochelle under the personal supervision of Richelieu. Richelieu ordered a ground offensive, led vigorously by Henri, duc de Montmorency (1595–1632), at the same time that Henri II de Lorraine, duc de Guise (1614–64), enacted a stiff naval blockade of La Rochelle. The French built stone dikes near the port, and by spring the dikes and the hulks of sunken ships blocked the channel. The city virtually choked.

In May and September 1628 the English made two separate attempts to relieve La Rochelle but were beaten back by the royal fleet under Henri II both times. After a heroic resistance the garrison finally capitulated on October 29, and La Rochelle lost all its former privileges. Then came the defeat of the lone Protestant army in the field under Henri, duc de Rohan (1579–1638), by Montmorency in Languedoc the following year. Rohan made a last ditch effort to conclude an alliance with Philip IV (1605–65), the king of Spain, in May 1629, but it was too late. The Huguenots had been crushed as a major autonomous political and military force in France.

With the Peace of Alais in June, the revolt ended. Although Richelieu, canny enough not to jeopardize the Protestant economic contribution to the throne, actually reaffirmed the Edict of Nantes formally, he made sure that the Protestant strongholds and fortresses were razed and that the entire Huguenot organization was disbanded. France's Protestant substate ceased to exist.

Further reading: Mack P. Holt, *French Wars of Religion, 1562–1629* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996); Raymond A. Mentzer and Andrew Spicer, eds. *Society and Culture in the Huguenot World, 1559–1685* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002).

Beaver Wars (Iroquoian Beaver Wars) (1638–1684)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Iroquois League vs. Huron and other Indian tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Great Lakes country
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Iroquois territorial and trade expansion
OUTCOME: The Iroquois failed to dominate trade in the long term.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Varied; many conflicts involved small warring parties; 1638 encounter between Iroquois and Hurons involved 100 Iroquois, 300 Huron.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Mohawk-Huron peace treaty, 1653

The Beaver Wars were fought by member tribes of the Iroquois League—the so-called Five Nations—against the Huron, Tobacco (also called the Petun or Tionontati), Neutral, Erie (or Cat People), Ottawa, Mahican, Illinois, Miamio, Susquehannock, Nipissing, Potawatomi, Delaware, and Sokoki Indians during the period from 1638 to 1684.

The Iroquois League (or Confederacy or Confederation) consisted of the Mohawk, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga, and Seneca tribes, whose territory extended from the Hudson Valley in the east to the shores of Lake Ontario in the west. (In the early 18th century the Tuscaroras left North Carolina, migrated north, and were adopted by the Oneidas, becoming part of the Iroquois League in 1722, thereby making the Five Nations the Six Nations.)

The Iroquois League was aimed at establishing what the Iroquois called the "Great Peace," a covenant among tribes that pledged mutual support and harmonious relations, which had been the basis of the original peace among the five Iroquois tribes that allowed them to form their mutual defense league in the first place. The confederation sought to impose the covenant on tribes outside the Five Nations, if necessary by conquest.

This policy of conquest was born in part from competition for trade with European colonists. In the early 17th century the Iroquois tribes aligned themselves with the Dutch as trading partners. When the English displaced the Dutch in New Amsterdam in 1664, they inherited the alliance. To the west the Hurons (and several other western tribes) associated themselves with the French. As the century wore on the western hunting grounds remained rich in beaver, the Indians' chief article of trade, and Huron-French commerce flourished. However, in the east beaver was being hunted to extinction, and the Iroquois trade with the Dutch and later the English suffered. The solution, as the Iroquois saw it, was conquest of the western tribes.

The first known battle in the so-called Beaver Wars took place in 1638, when a war party of 100 Iroquois met some 300 Hurons and Algonquins. All but four or five of the Iroquois warriors were killed or captured, including the war chief Ononkwaya, who was roasted alive, scalped, mutilated, and finally decapitated.

Throughout the 1640s Huron and Iroquois met in guerrilla-style engagements and full-scale raids. In the

summer of 1645, the Iroquois attacked the fortified Huron trading town of St. Joseph (north of Lake Ontario). Less than a month later the Hurons retaliated against the Seneca's principal town near modern-day Buffalo, New York.

By the spring of 1647, the Hurons sought aid from the Susquehannocks, who lived along the Susquehanna River in New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. The Susquehannocks attempted to negotiate a diplomatic, trade-based resolution to the war, which, however, ultimately proved unsuccessful.

By the end of the 1640s, the Five Nations were strongly unified in the conduct of the war, although the Mohawks, the easternmost of the tribes, were always the most aggressive, and the Senecas, the westernmost people, were the least inclined to fight. On April 7, 1648, the Dutch West India Company decided to supply the Mohawks some 400 rifles, effectively arming them against the Hurons, who were backed by the French.

The Iroquois, especially the Mohawks, launched a series of devastating raids against the Jesuit Huron mission villages and on the smaller neighboring settlements surrounding them. By the close of the 1640s, the Hurons were fleeing farther west, seeking refuge among the Tobacco Indians west of Lake Ontario and among the Neutrals, who lived on the northern shores of Lake Erie. Still others voluntarily sought adoption into the Iroquois tribes. In essence, the Iroquois had destroyed the Huron nation.

In November and December of 1649, the Mohawks and Senecas moved against the Tobaccos, devastating the mission town of St. Jean on December 17. The Tobacco who survived the raid moved westward and eventually mingled with surviving Hurons to become the Wyandots of Detroit and Sandusky, Ohio, country.

Late in the fall of 1650, the Iroquois launched a furious campaign against the Neutral nation, who, as their French-bestowed name implies, attempted to remain neutral in the combat between Iroquois and Huron. In the initial attack a great town of some 3,000 or 4,000 persons was destroyed, and an assault on another town in the spring of 1651 prompted the Neutrals to abandon all of their settlements and disperse. Many—perhaps most—were adopted by the Senecas. The magnitude of this conquest can be appreciated by noting that the Neutrals had numbered about 10,000 at the beginning of the 17th century; by 1653 no more than 800 could be found.

Between 1651 and 1653 the Iroquois harried the French and their Indian allies until all of the Iroquois nations except for the Mohawks concluded a peace treaty at Montreal late in 1653. The peace was short-lived. In the spring of 1654, an Erie who was a member of a treaty delegation visiting a Seneca town quarreled with a Seneca and killed him. In retaliation the Senecas killed all 30 members of the delegation, touching off a series of reprisals and counterreprisals that escalated into war between the Eries and all the Iroquois. Though brief, the war spelled the end of the Erie nation by 1656.

At this point the Five Nations held sway from the Ottawa River in the north, the Cumberland in the south, into Maine in the east, and as far as Lake Erie in the west, but warfare nevertheless continued. During 1651–52 the Mohawks had attacked a people known as the Atrakwaeronons, which may have been another name for the Susquehannocks or may have denoted a tribe closely allied with the Susquehannocks. In either case the result was a quarter century of sporadic warfare between the Susquehannocks and the Iroquois.

In the spring of 1663, 800 Senecas, Cayugas, and Onondagas moved against the Susquehannocks' principal fort (in present-day Pennsylvania), discovering, to their dismay, that the defenders had been well armed by the colonists of New Sweden and were aided by Delaware Indian allies. The Iroquois were forced to withdraw. The Five Nations also were unable to evict the Mahicans from the upper Hudson Valley or the Sokokis from the upper Connecticut.

In what was the Far West of the 17th century, the Beaver Wars also failed to give the Iroquois the absolute trade monopoly they sought. Campaigns against the French-allied Indians living along the Illinois and Mississippi Rivers ultimately resulted in Iroquois losses after some initial victories. By the 1680s Iroquois forces had also failed in confrontations with the Miamis, in the present-day states of Wisconsin and Michigan.

For a brief period, roughly 1649 to 1655, the Iroquoian Beaver Wars secured the dominance of the Five Nations throughout a vast territory, but absolute domination of trade over the long term eluded them. In the long run, the Beaver Wars drained the resources of all the Native American peoples involved in them and, if anything, aided the powers of Europe in their conquest and colonization of North America.

See also ALGONQUIAN-DUTCH WAR; IROQUOIS-FRENCH WARS; IROQUOIS-HURON WAR; MARYLAND'S WAR WITH THE SUSQUEHANNOCKS.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Francis Jennings, *The Ambiguous Iroquois Empire: The Covenant Chain Confederation of Indian Tribes with the English Colonies* (New York: Norton, 1984); Daniel K. Richter and James H. Merrell, eds., *Beyond the Covenant Chain: The Iroquois and Their Neighbors in Indian North America, 1600–1800* (Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1987).

"Beer Hall Putsch" (1923)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nazi Party S.A. storm troopers vs. Bavarian political leaders and the German army
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Munich, Bavaria
DECLARATION: Call to renounce the Weimar government, November 8, 1923

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Adolf Hitler sought revolution and control of the German government.
OUTCOME: The putsch failed, but it garnered national attention for Hitler.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: S.A. storm troopers, 15,000, a small fraction of whom participated in the putsch
CASUALTIES: Minimal injuries
TREATIES: None

The "Beer Hall Putsch" was the first, bold if hasty and ill-conceived attempt at social revolution in Germany by the Nazi Party, and its timing, execution, and failure could all be laid at the feet of its new leader, a decorated WORLD WAR I veteran named Adolf Hitler (1889–1945). Before the Great War Hitler was a young social misfit who had avoided military service in his native Austria, even moving from prewar Vienna—where his virulent anti-Semitism had taken root—to Munich to avoid being drafted into the Austro-Hungarian army. But with the outbreak of the war, he rushed to enlist—in the German army—and seemed to thrive on the combat, during which he served on the front lines as a runner. Although he achieved nothing higher than the rank of corporal, he was decorated four times for bravery and was seriously wounded twice, a record that would serve him well in the postwar Weimar Republic. After the war Hitler remained with his regiment until April 1920, serving as one of the army's secret political agents and dutifully joining the German Workers' Party in Munich in September 1919.

When he left the army in April 1920, it was to work full time for the party on which he had been spying. In an era of ferment and crisis in Germany, Hitler was inspired by a hatred of the Treaty of Versailles, which had ended the war but left Germany internally adrift to struggle against economic disaster and the threat of both communist and right-wing revolution. Blaming the treaty rather than military defeat as the source of Germany's general postwar humiliation and demoralization, Hitler became instrumental in transforming the German Workers' Party by August 1920 into the Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei, commonly shortened to NSDAP, or the Nazi Party. After associating with Ernst Rohm (1887–1934), an army staff officer, Hitler rose to president of the party in July 1921 and became an increasingly effective and popular street-corner orator, lashing his audiences into frenzies of nationalistic fervor laced with vitriolic anticommunism and anti-Semitism.

Conditions in the troubled Weimar Republic favored the burgeoning party. The economy collapsed under the burden of reparation payments demanded by the Allied victors in the war, and in January 1923 France occupied the Ruhr, Germany's great industrial heartland. Weimar responded by backing a general strike and freely printing ever more money, which kicked off a massive inflation that wiped out the savings of the middle class and made the pay of the proletariat worthless.

As the much-reviled republic seemed to be imploding, many in right-wing Bavaria were ready to back an armed uprising, including the illustrious World War I commander General Erich Ludendorff (1865–1937), who had retired to Munich and was in contact with Hitler. Despite warnings from other sympathetic military leaders that the time was not yet ripe for revolution, the Nazi Führer—backed, he thought, at least tacitly by Ludendorff—was determined to seize the day, take control of the local army, the police, and the government, and use Bavaria as a staging ground to take power nationwide.

As it happened, on November 8, 1923, a group of provincial officials, military leaders, and civil servants were gathering at the Bürgerbräukeller, a big beer hall in Munich, to listen to a lecture from the Bavarian state commissioner on the moral beauty of dictatorship, when two dozen armed Nazi stormtroopers broke down the doors to the place. A much-excited Hitler, who had been inconspicuously if anxiously awaiting their arrival hidden behind one of the beer hall's posts, fired a shot into the ceiling and shouted that the national revolution had begun.

The Nazis rounded up the senior officials and trundled them off into a backroom, after which Hitler returned to address his truly captive audience. He announced to the befuddled crowd that he was forming a national government with the help of Field Marshal Ludendorff. The marshal himself, when someone was sent to fetch him, proved to have no inkling of such grand plans but upon hearing them went amiably along to back his Nazi comrades. He arrived at the beer hall in time to hear Hitler give one of his inflamed speeches, which roused both the by-now quite drunk crowd and the hostage officials to cheers. Basking in the applause, Hitler let his hostages go free.

It was a mistake. Come morning, when he and Ludendorff led more than 2,000 fervid followers through the streets toward the Bavarian War Ministry, the police were waiting. Instead of having the city fall to him as expected, Hitler was barred by an armed force. Probably the Nazis fired first, but in any case shots rang out, 16 Nazis fell dead, Hitler hit the ground to avoid being killed, and Ludendorff never flinched. Eventually, those who survived the fiasco were arrested, though Ludendorff was released. Hitler, Röhm, and several others were tried for treason.

Hitler made the most of the trial, using it as an opportunity to broadcast his message and broaden his base. Appearing before a not unsympathetic judiciary, he was given a light sentence, which he served in the relative comfort of Landsberg fortress. Of his five-year term, Hitler served only nine months before being given his freedom by a regime that had no desire to make a martyr of him. During his incarceration, Hitler wrote his autobiographical political manifesto, *Mein Kampf (My Struggle),* which became the bible of the Nazi movement.

In immediate terms, the putsch was a complete failure, but instead of causing Hitler humiliation, it elevated him to national prominence. In a Germany brought to its knees by the harshly punitive Treaty of Versailles that had ended World War I, Hitler appeared as a strongman and, ultimately, was seen by many as the savior of the "Fatherland."

See also WORLD WAR II.

Further reading: Harold J. Gordon, Jr., *Hitler and the Beer Hall Putsch* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1973); Ian Kershaw, *Hitler: 1889–1936: Hubris* (New York: Norton, 2000).

Bengalese-British War (1686)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bengal (under Mogul rule) vs. British East India Company
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bengal region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bengalese forces responded to British raids, which were aimed at ending Bengalese taxation of British trade.
OUTCOME: The British temporarily left the trading town of Hooghly and moved trading operations to Calcutta.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Dutch traders arrived in India as early as 1601, bringing to an end the Portuguese monopoly on Indian trade. In 1608 the English embarked on the trade as well, and soon the Dutch East India Company and the British East India Company became rivals. Later they cooperated against their mutual rival, the Portuguese. The French entered the trading picture late, in 1667. The following year the British established what would become a major trading post on the island of Bombay.

To secure its interests against those of its European competitors as well as against indigenous enemies, the British East India Company set about fortifying the Hooghly (Hugli) in the Bengal region of northeastern India. From Hooghly British soldiers had been raiding Bengalese forts in an effort to compel local customs officials to cease attempts to collect exorbitant tolls from traders. In response to the raids, the Mogul emperor, Aurangzeb (1618–1707), sent troops to sack Hooghly in October 1686. The British left the town and traveled down the Hooghly River where, at the site of modern-day Calcutta, they erected Fort William.

The British raids and the Mogul destruction of Hooghly notwithstanding, the Bengalese-British conflict of 1686 was more a desultory spasm of violence than a genuine war. However, low-level hostilities remained chronic until 1690, when the British finally agreed to pay customs duties for the privilege of trading in Bengal.

See also AURANGZEB, WARS OF.

Further reading: Samuel M. Burke and Salim A. Din Quraishi, *British Raj in India: An Historical Review* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995); Atul Chandra Roy, *History of Bengal: Mughal Period, 1526–1765* A.D. (Calcutta: Naabaabharat Publishers, 1968).

Bengalese-British War (1756–1757)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain (primarily British East India Company forces) vs. Bengalese forces (with French allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Calcutta and the Bengal region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Calcutta, East India Company's primary trading headquarters
OUTCOME: Bengal came under British control, a key step in the creation of the Anglo-Indian Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Bengal, 50,000; Britain, 3,100
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Alinagar, February 9, 1757

Robert Clive (1725–74), a young clerk in the employ of the British East India Company, became a soldier in the service of that company in 1751 when he led 500 men in the spectacular capture of Arcot, capital of the powerful Chanda Sahib (d. 1752). Clive's successful resistance to the attempt to retake Arcot later that year, an assault of 10,000 men under Chanda's son Raja Sahib (1748–82), was even more spectacular and established Clive as the foremost British captain in India.

On June 20, 1756, Suraja Dowla (1732–57), the nawab of Bengal, laid siege to Calcutta, the nexus of British trade in Bengal. After four days the town surrendered, and those Europeans who had been unable to flee were cast into an underground dungeon that would become infamous as the Black Hole of Calcutta. Although no documentation exists, contemporary sources claim that 123 of the 146 crowded into the Black Hole died of heat and suffocation overnight.

Calcutta remained under Suraja Dowla's control until January 2, 1757, when Clive and Admiral Charles Watson (1714–57), leading a joint expedition from Madras, retook the trading town. The Treaty of Alinagar, concluded on February 9, 1757, formally restored Calcutta to the British East India Company. By permitting British fortification of the town and the right to coin money, the treaty paved the way to the British conquest of all Bengal. From Calcutta Clive went on to capture Chandernagore, a French outpost. With France and England embroiled in the SEVEN YEARS' WAR, French colonial forces were as big a threat to

the British in India as were hostile indigenous leaders. With Chandernagore now in British hands, Clive could continue to advance inland in pursuit of Suraja Dowla without fear of losing his line of communication back to Calcutta.

On June 23, 1757, Clive located Suraja Dowla and his forces dug in near the village of Plassey along the banks of the Bhagirathi River. Suraja commanded an army of 50,000 with 53 guns, whereas Clive had only 1,100 European troops, 2,000 Indian troops, and 10 artillery pieces. Outnumbered as he was, Clive crossed the Bhagirathi and concentrated his troops in a mango grove. As Clive had hoped, Suraja moved his army out of their entrenchments and into the open to surround Clive's army. Suraja's artillery, massed on his right flank, was under French command. As the battle commenced, however, a heavy rainstorm soaked Suraja's gunpowder, silencing his guns. At this point he unleashed a cavalry charge, apparently assuming that Clive's powder had likewise been soaked. Clive's men, however, had taken the precaution of covering their powder, and his artillery now fired into the cavalry, repulsing the charge and inflicting heavy losses. Clive next trained his guns on Suraja's entrenchments, fought off another cavalry sortie, then attacked the French gunners. Whereas the Indian troops quickly lost their stomach for the fight, the French gunners fought virtually to the last man, but the struggle was hopeless.

The overwhelming defeat of Suraja Dowla at the Battle of Plassey ended the war and determined the fate of Bengal, putting it firmly under British control. Shortly after the battle Suraja Dowla was assassinated, and Clive installed Mir Jafar (1691–1765), his personal ally and an ally to the British interests in India, as the new nawab of Bengal.

See also BENGALESE-BRITISH WAR (1763–1765); BENGALESE-MARATHAN WAR.

Further reading: Samuel M. Burke and Salim A. Din Quraishi, *British Raj in India: An Historical Review* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995); Michael Edwardes, *The Battle of Plassey and the Conquest of Bengal* (New York: Macmillan, 1963); Robert Harvey, *Clive: The Life and Death of a British Emperor* (New York: Thomas Dunne Books, 2000); Atul Chandra Roy, *History of Bengal: Mughal Period, 1526–1765* A.D. (Calcutta: Naabaabharat Publishers, 1968).

Bengalese-British War (1763–1765)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bengalese forces vs. Britain (primarily forces of the British East India Company)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Patna and Buxar, a Bengal region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: British East India Company's opposition to taxes and duties imposed by Mir Qasim, nawab of Bengal
OUTCOME: British victory deposed Mir Qasim and installed a puppet nawab; the British East India Company effectively gained control of much of Bengal.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Patna, Bengal, 30,200; Britain, 300 plus 2,500 loyal sepoys. At Buxar, Bengal, 50,000; Britain, 857 plus 5,317 sepoys and 900 Indian cavalrymen
CASUALTIES: At Patna, Bengal, 2,000 killed or wounded; Britain, 382 killed or wounded. At Buxar, Bengal, 4,000 killed or wounded; Britain, 1,170 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Allahabad, February 20, 1765

Robert Clive's (1725–74) remarkable victories in the BENGALESE-BRITISH WAR (1756–1757) put the British East India Company in a position to install a Bengalese nawab friendly to British commercial interests in the region named Mir Jafar (1691–1765). East India Company merchants, long on the job and far from home, focused on getting rich quick. Finding themselves suddenly in effective if ill-defined control over an entire ancient and very wealthy domain, they so brutally exploited the opportunity that the governor, Henry Vansittart (served 1760–64), completely lost control of the situation. As a first step in reasserting British authority and quelling the destructive greed of the East India Company men, the colonial government deposed Mir Jafir on the grounds of incompetence and old age and replaced him with the more assertive Mir Qasim (d. 1777), who immediately reimposed on British Indian trade the kinds of duties and tolls that had sparked the 1756–57 war. Qasim incited a mutiny of the East India Company's native-manned Bengal army near Patna, the location of a company factory, and a number of British personnel were massacred. This uprising was soon squelched, however, and Qasim was pushed into retreat to Avadh. British forces laid siege to this village after fighting and winning the Battle of Buxar on October 23, 1764. Major Hector Munro rounded up 24 Bengalese identified as ringleaders of the Patna uprising, loaded them, live, into cannons, and fired them. Despite this brutal example, Qasim managed to rally aid from various factions in western India, but, ultimately, he was unable to hold Avadh. Defeated, Qasim was deposed, and Clive replaced him with a pair of puppet nawabs directly under the control of the British resident of Bengal and entirely dependent on the East India Company for finance.

See also BENGALESE-MARATHAN WAR.

Further reading: Samuel M. Burke and Salim A. Din Quraishi, *British Raj in India: An Historical Review* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995); P. J. Marshall, *Bengal—The British Bridgehead: Eastern India, 1740–1828* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1987); Atul Chandra Roy, *History of Bengal: Mughal Period, 1526–1765* A.D. (Calcutta: Naabaabharat Publishers, 1968); Patrick Tuck, ed., *The East India Company* (New York: Routledge, 1998).

Bengalese-Marathan War (1742)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Moguls, Marathas, Bengals (with British trading interests)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Deccan region of India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Marathas and the Bengals (with British participation) fought with each other to wrest control of the Deccan from the declining Mogul Empire.
OUTCOME: The Maratha threat to Bengal was temporarily neutralized; most important, the British presence in Calcutta and its alliance with the Bengal ruler were strengthened.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The great Mogul Empire of India fell into rapid decline beginning early in the 18th century as the Marathas, a Hindu people centered in the Deccan, became more powerful and expanded into northern India. When the Persian ruler Nadir Shah (1688–1747) invaded India in 1739 (*see* PERSIAN INVASION OF MOGUL INDIA) and sacked the Mogul capital of Delhi, the Mogul Empire, already pressured by the Marathas, all but collapsed. Ali Vardi Khan (1676–1756), hitherto a subordinate official in charge of the administration of Bihar, seized opportunity in the chaos of the collapsing empire to lead the successful overthrow of Sarfaraz Khan, viceroy of the three provinces of Bihar as well as Bengal and Orissa. Ali Vardi Khan effectively made the entire region independent of the Mogul Empire. He established personally lucrative trade relations with Portuguese interests along the Hooghly (Hugli) River and with the British East India Company in and around its Calcutta headquarters.

Fearing nothing from the weakened Moguls, Ali Vardi Khan understood that the only real threat to his hegemony came from the Marathas, who were rapidly moving eastward and had already taken Bundelkhand in central India and were menacing Orissa. Balaji Rao (fl. 1740–61), the Maratha peshwa—effectively, prime minister—had only the loosest control over his military forces. One of his generals, Raghunath Bhonsle (fl. 1740s), made an unauthorized invasion of Orissa in 1741, then attacked the British at Calcutta. British authorities secured permission from Ali Vardi Khan to dig a great defensive entrenchment in the northern and eastern part of Calcutta, creating a broad and deep moat on the land side, the famed Maratha Ditch, which exists to this day. This defensive fortification arrested Raghunath Bhonsle's progress against Calcutta, but he continued to pillage Orissa. Balaji Rao now demanded that his general deliver a part of the Orissa spoils to him. Raghunath Bhonsle defiantly refused, whereupon the Maratha peshwa concluded a hasty alliance with Ali Vardi Khan. Together they opposed Raghunath Bhonsle with a large army, which pushed the renegade general all the way back to Nagpur, almost halfway across the subcontinent, ending the 1742 war.

The war did not bring an end to all Bengalese-Maratha conflict, however. Despite the alliance with Balaji Rao, other Maratha factions continued to harry Bengal, but the powerful Ali Vardi Khan maintained his control of the region. After his death in 1756, Suraja Dowla (1732–57) became nawab of Bengal and seized Calcutta. Robert Clive's (1725–74) spectacular victory over Suraja Dowla at the Battle of Plassey (June 23, 1757) ensured that Bengal would never again be under Mogul control (*see* BENGALESE-BRITISH WAR [1756–1757]).

Further reading: Valerie Berinstain, *India and the Mughal Dynasty* (New York: Abrams, 1998); Stewart Gordon, *The Marathas, 1600–1818* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

Berenice, War of *See* SYRIAN-EGYPTIAN WAR, THIRD.

Bhutan War (1865)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British colonial (Anglo-Indian) forces vs. Bhutan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bhutan's border with India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bhutan objected to British annexation of Bhutan's Indian frontier region.
OUTCOME: Britain agreed to pay an annual subsidy in return for its occupation of Bhutan's southern frontier.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anglo-Indian forces, 7,000; Bhutanese numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Bhutan lost hundreds killed; Anglo-Indian losses were negligible
TREATIES: Treaty of Sinchula, November 11, 1865

In 1826 British colonial forces occupied Assam, on India's frontier with Bhutan, a country settled by Tibetans in the ninth century and ruled by Buddhist monks. Now, Great Britain incorporated the area into British India. The Bhutanese protested, and a simmering border dispute developed. At last, during the early 1860s, the Bhutanese captured and occupied *duars,* mountain passes, in Assam. British authorities were willing to allow Bhutanese occupation of these passes provided that tribute money was paid. When the Bhutanese ignored these British demands, a small force of 2,000 Anglo-Indian troops was sent into Bhutan in January 1865. A garrison was established at Dewangiri, as the Dewangiri stockade, which a Bhutanese force readily overwhelmed and forced out of the country. In response Sir Henry Tombs (1824–74) led a larger puni-

tive expedition, the Bhutan Field Force, into Bhutan. Consisting of two sepoy regiments and five artillery batteries, the Bhutan Field Force intimidated the Bhutanese defenders. An advance detachment of 1,000 stormed the Dewangiri Stockade, retaking it, then slaughtering the Bhutanese garrison of 120 men. Thoroughly demoralized, on November 11, 1865, Bhutanese officials signed the Treaty of Sinchula, by which Britain agreed to pay an annual subsidy in return for its occupation of Kalimpong and Doors in the country's southern frontier.

Further reading: Peter Collister, *Bhutan and the British* (London: Serindia Publications with Belitha Press, 1987); C. T. Dorji, *A Political and Religious History of Bhutan, 1651–1906* (Zhimphu: Sangay Xam in collaboration with Prominent Publishers, Delhi, India, 1995).

Biafran-Nigerian War

See NIGERIAN-BIAFRAN WAR.

Bishops' War, First (1639)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scotland (the Covenanters) vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Edinburgh and Berwick, Scotland
DECLARATION: No official declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King Charles I of England attempted to impose Anglican liturgy throughout Scotland; it was resisted.
OUTCOME: Charles I accepted the Pacification of Dunse, a compromise that yielded certain religious authority in Scotland to the Scots Presbyterian Church.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: England, 21,000; Scotland, 20,000
CASUALTIES: No more than 200 on both sides
TREATIES: Pacification of Dunse, June 18, 1639

In the 10 years after England's king Charles I (1600–49) dissolved a troublesome Parliament in 1629, British civil society grew relatively tranquil, given that the king ruled over three kingdoms (the other two being Ireland and Scotland) with different customs, laws, and religions. But meanwhile Charles had been drawn to the teachings of Dutch theologian Jacobus Arminius (1560–1609), which emphasized the doctrines of free will and the importance of good works as well as faith for the salvation of the soul. In 1633 he made one of the better known Arminians, William Laud (1573–1645), archbishop of Canterbury. When Laud began decorating his churches and separating the Communion table from the congregation, making official Anglicanism even more reminiscent of Roman Catholicism, Charles's mostly Calvinist subjects grew yet again deeply suspicious and hostile toward the Stuart monarchy.

The covert discontent flared into open rebellion in always restive Scotland when the king and the archbishop of Canterbury attempted to impose an Anglican liturgy, the *Book of Common Prayer,* on the Scots Presbyterian Church. In February 1638 the Scots church drew up and adopted a "National Covenant," a defiant declaration of the Scots' intention to maintain their traditional Presbyterian religion and resist all attempts at Anglican invasion and modification. In November 1638 the general assembly of the Scots church abolished the episcopate, the chief governing body of the Anglican Church, and refused to yield to Charles's demand that the general assembly dissolve itself. Rioting erupted, and insurgents seized Edinburgh Castle. At this, in 1639 Charles led an army to Berwick, where he found the forces of the so-called Covenanters not only numerous but well armed and highly skilled, many having fought in the service of the militaristic Swedish king Gustavus II Adolphus (1594–1632). In contrast, Charles's army was weak, inexperienced, and poorly funded by an increasingly hostile Parliament. Accordingly, on June 18, 1639, without offering battle, Charles accepted the Pacification of Dunse, a compromise that permitted the Scots church to form a new general assembly.

See also BISHOP'S WAR, SECOND; ENGLISH CIVIL WAR, FIRST; IRISH REBELLION, GREAT.

Further reading: Allan I. Macinnes, *Charles I and the Making of the Covenanting Movement, 1625–1641* (Edinburgh: J. Donald Publishers, 1991); David Stevenson, *Union, Revolution and Religion in 17th-Century Scotland* (Aldershot, U.K. and Brookfield, Vt.: Variorum, 1997).

Bishops' War, Second (1640)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scotland (the Covenanters) vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland and northern England
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: As in the First Bishops' War (1639) King Charles I of England attempted to impose Anglican liturgy throughout Scotland; it was resisted.
OUTCOME: Charles I, defeated, was compelled to pay tribute money to avoid Scottish occupation of England; as a result, Parliament acquired increasing power, which hastened the coming of the First English Civil War (1642–46).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Scotland, 22,500; England, 4,500
CASUALTIES: A few hundred on both sides
TREATIES: Treaty of Ripon, November 1640

The peace brought by the Pacification of Dunse (*see* BISHOPS' WAR, FIRST) was fleeting, as England's Charles I (1600–49) persevered in his attempts to impose the Anglican liturgy on Scots Presbyterian worship. Charles

convened the Short Parliament of April–May 1640 in an attempt to secure funding for an army to enforce his religious authority in recalcitrant Scotland. The Parliament refused, whereupon Charles angrily dissolved the body. Without an adequate army, Charles was quickly and badly defeated at the Battle of Newburn on August 28. Worse, the Scots now brought the war into England, penetrating Northumberland and taking the town of Durham. Humiliated militarily and politically, Charles, at York, signed the Treaty of Ripon, by which he agreed to pay the Covenanter Army (as the Scots forces were called) £850 per day to keep the Scots from invading England while the Parliament drafted final, acceptable peace terms.

The demands of the Treaty of Ripon forced Charles to reconvene Parliament not only to hammer out a permanent treaty with the Scots but also to fund his own army as well as the Covenanters' £850 per day. This resulted in the Long Parliament of 1640–60, the greatly enhanced authority of the House of Commons, and the power struggle that culminated in the First ENGLISH CIVIL WAR.

See also IRISH REBELLION, GREAT.

Further reading: Mark Charles Fissel, *The Bishops' Wars: Charles I's Campaigns against Scotland, 1638–1640* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994); Allan I. Macinnes, *Charles I and the Making of the Covenanting Movement, 1625–1641* (Edinburgh: J. Donald Publishers, 1991); David Stevenson, *Union, Revolution and Religion in 17th Century Scotland* (Aldershot, U.K. and Brookfield, Vt.: Variorum, 1997).

"Black and Tans" War

See ANGLO-IRISH CIVIL WAR.

Black Hawk's War (1832)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sac and Fox Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chief Black Hawk was angered by American miners and settlers who had invaded his village, destroyed its crops, and beaten and raped its occupants; the United States, assuming Black Hawk had agreed to remove himself west of the Mississippi, aimed to punish Black Hawk and remove the Fox from Illinois.
OUTCOME: Black Hawk conceded about 6 million acres of land along the Mississippi River, and his followers, known as the British Band, agreed to remove to lands west of the Mississippi River forever.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 3,000-plus militia, 1,200 regulars, 6 companies of rangers; Black Hawk's British Band, 2,000 men, women, and children with Winnebago allies
CASUALTIES: At Stillman's Run, 52 U.S. troops killed; many settlers on the Illinois frontier. At junction of Bad Axe and Mississippi Rivers, 23 British Band killed, 200 captured or killed by Sioux Indians allied with the United States, others killed by guns of the steamboat *Warrior.*
TREATIES: Treaty of Fort Armstrong, September 19, 1832

In the early 19th century the U.S. government began to "remove" American Indians living east of the Mississippi to the trans-Mississippi West. Black Hawk's War in 1832 was an important resistance to this official policy, one of the last and better known of these major Indian resistance movements.

Black Hawk (1767–1838) was a war chief of the Sacs (Sauks) and Foxes (Mesquakies), two closely related tribes chased by the fur-trading French and their Indian allies in centuries past into the Mississippi Valley, where they occupied parts of western Illinois and eastern Wisconsin and Iowa, becoming implacable foes of the Americans and quite friendly with the British. Black Hawk's band fought alongside the British-backed Tecumseh (1768–1813) during his 1811 uprising that in part led to the WAR OF 1812. In 1831, after Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) had begun forcing the Indians of the Old Northwest as well as those of the Southeast to resettle in the West, Black Hawk returned with his warriors from the winter hunt west of the Mississippi to discover Saukenuk, the tribe's main village at the mouth of the Rock River near Rock Island, Illinois, overrun by American squatters; he threatened war.

A spurious treaty signed a quarter century before and either never understood or never recognized by Black Hawk had ceded all the Sac and Fox lands in Illinois to the United States. As a matter of expediency, territorial governor William Henry Harrison (1773–1841) had allowed the tribe to remain on those lands until the area was needed for settlement. Around 1830 a rush of miners to the Galena lead fields had brought "illegal" farmers—squatters—in its wake, and they destroyed or appropriated the Indians' homes, harvested for themselves the Indian corn, ripped down fences, trampled unused crops, and beat those Sac and Fox in the village who protested. Quick action in 1831 by government officials helped avert violence that summer and fall, and Black Hawk reluctantly returned to Iowa for the winter hunt, which went badly. In April 1832 he led his starving, homeless "British Band"—some 400 warriors and their families, 2,000 in all—back across the Mississippi looking for food. Territorial authorities panicked, marching troops off to engage the Indians and calling to arms an excessive number of militia.

Black Hawk won the first encounter, the result more or less of the Americans blundering into conflict, but his victory only incensed the settlers along the frontier. In the long run he was betrayed by his allies, the British and the

Winnebago Indians, both of whom had promised aid and shelter but failed to deliver. And he was also betrayed by a member of his own tribe, an ambitious young chief named Keokuk (c. 1790–c. 1848), who urged a substantial number of Sacs and Foxes to do nothing, thus establishing himself with the Americans as a "peaceful" tribal leader. The band was relentlessly hunted down as they fled north along the Rock River into Wisconsin; many were massacred even as they tried to re-cross the Mississippi into Iowa. Black Hawk survived to face arrest, trial, and conviction. After his execution was stayed, the U.S. government put him on display, packing him off on a tour of the United States. Greeted in some towns and cities with hatred, treated in others as a celebrity, Black Hawk also served as an example to those Indians still fighting removal to the trans-Mississippi west of the hopelessness of armed resistance. Black Hawk died of natural causes in 1838.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Black Hawk, *Black Hawk's Autobiography,* ed. by Roger L. Nichols (Ames: Iowa State University Press, 1999); William T. Hagan, *The Sac and Fox Indians* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1958); R. Douglas Hunt, *The Indian Frontier, 1763–1846* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 2002); Roger R. Nichols, *Black Hawk and the Warrior's Path* (Arlington Heights, Ill.: H. Davidson, 1992).

Black Hundreds, Raids of the (1906–1911)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Right-wing anti-Semitic militia vs. left-wing organizations and Jews
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Widespread throughout Russia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Primarily anti-Semitism and suppression of left-wing activity and reform following the Russian Revolution of 1905.
OUTCOME: Reforms promised after the Russian Revolution of 1905 were delayed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: During October–November 1905, 4,000 Jews were killed and 10,000 maimed; total casualties for the period are unknown.
TREATIES: None

The Chernosotentsy—Black Hundreds—were a set of reactionary, violently anti-Semitic organizations formed during and immediately after the RUSSIAN REVOLUTION (1905). The Black Hundreds organizations included the League of the Russian People, League of the Archangel Michael, and the Council of United Nobility. These organized mobs of landowners, well-to-do peasants, bureaucrats, merchants, police officials, and Russian Orthodox clergy raided revolutionary cells and groups and conducted pogroms against Jews. The latter activity was particularly intense, vicious, and widespread. With unofficial czarist approval, Black Hundreds forces carried out pogroms in at least 100 Russian cities during 1906–11. The Russian Revolution of 1905 had forced the czarist government to consider and even adopt a broad program of liberal reform, including a new constitution. The depredations of the Black Hundreds delayed enactment of that constitution.

See also BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION.

Further reading: John Doyle Klier and Shlomo Lambroza, eds., *Pogroms: Anti-Jewish Violence in Modern Russian History* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992); Robert Service, *The Russian Revolution, 1900–1927* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1999).

Black Prince's Navarette Campaign (1367)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France and Castilian Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Edward sought the restoration of Peter the Cruel to the throne of Castile.
OUTCOME: Edward prevailed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French and Castilian forces, 37,500 men; Edward the Black Prince, 20,000 men
CASUALTIES: French and Castilian losses were catastrophic, 13,000 killed and almost as many wounded; Edward's losses were minor, perhaps 100 killed and a few hundred wounded.
TREATIES: None

Edward the Black Prince (1330–76) had already won his fame during the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR—at the Battle of Crécy in 1346 and especially the Battle of Poitiers in 1356—when he left England in 1362 to take up his duties as the new ruler of Aquitaine. However, the local French populace, suffering under his tax policies, treated his extravagant court at Bordeaux as that of a foreign conqueror, and he remained on unfriendly terms with most of France's bishops and many among its greater nobility. Perhaps not surprisingly, then, in February 1367 he undertook the adventure of restoring Peter the Cruel (1334–69) to the throne of Castile. Peter had been overthrown in 1365 by French mercenaries in the pay of the French king Charles V (1338–80), Pope Urban V (1310–70), and the Aragonese king, Pedro IV (1319–87), whose kingdom Peter had usurped.

Edward masterfully outgeneraled the leaders of the French and Castilian forces arrayed against him, which

sought to block his movement through the Roncesvalle Pass into the Ebro Valley. Edward led a forced march around the Castilians, then crossed the Ebro River, thereby forcing Henry of Trastámara (d. 1379) (leader of the Castilian contingent) and Bertrand du Guesclin (c. 1320–80) (commanding the French) to retreat south of the river.

The forces opposing Edward consisted of some 2,000 French heavy cavalry, 5,500 Castilian heavy cavalry, 4,000 light cavalry, 6,000 crossbowmen, and 20,000 poorly trained infantrymen. Edward the Black Prince commanded 10,000 heavy and light cavalry combined and another 10,000 infantry mercenaries (which included archers, crossbowmen, and javelin men).

The opposing forces met on April 3 at Navarette (modern Nájera), just south of the Ebro. Adhering to the tactical conventions of the day, the armies formed themselves in three lines and advanced toward one another. Du Guesclin personally led dismounted French cavalry in advance of the Castilian main body. Edward's English archers took a severe toll on the Castilian cavalry but barely harmed the French heavy cavalry. However, as their Castilian allies crumbled away, the French, no matter how gallantly they fought, could not prevail alone.

After a titanic battle that killed some 13,000 Castilians and Frenchmen and wounded almost as many, du Guesclin surrendered to a triumphant Edward, who had lost at most 100 killed and a few hundred wounded.

Further reading: Richard Barber, ed., *The Life and Campaigns of the Black Prince* (Rochester, N.Y.: Boydell and Brewer, 1997); David Green, *The Black Prince* (London: Tempus, 2002).

Black War (1804–1830)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British settlers of Van Diemen's Land vs. the aborigines
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), Australia
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In exploiting the natural resources of the island, white settlers of Tasmania at first encroached on the aborigines' lands and later engaged in a plan of exterminating and relocating the native peoples.
OUTCOME: Through violence and disease, the aborigines were eliminated within seven decades of contact.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown; most action was a series of violent raids and counterraids undertaken by European bushrangers acting individually and by small groups of aborigines; the Black Line operation required all white males and four army regiments against 147 aborigines.
CASUALTIES: White settlers, unknown; native peoples were all but eliminated by the end of the conflict.
TREATIES: No formal treaty

With the founding of the British penal colony of Australia in 1788, the government was faced with the problem of dealing with the local inhabitants, or aborigines. In 1804 the colonists first landed on the small island off the southeastern coast of Australia called Van Diemen's Land, or Tasmania. Clashes between the two cultures began almost immediately when colonial troops massacred and then mutilated several hundred unarmed and peaceful aborigines in early May 1804 at Risdon Cove. So began a series of conflicts in which hundreds of aborigines were sold into slavery, mutilated, or killed.

Sheep caused the conflict to escalate quickly. Within 10 years the sheep population doubled to nearly 1 million, and with the rise in numbers came an increased need for grazing land. The aborigines, however, fought back. What followed was a pattern of violence that decimated the aboriginal population and sent the white settlers into a panic. The violence reduced the aboriginal population to less than half its 1804 total. Worse yet, the violence convinced whites that their safety required the extermination of the native peoples. Packs of lawless bushrangers scoured the lands hunting aborigines. The colonial governor, Colonel George Arthur (1784–1854), hoped to push the aborigines to the Tasman Peninsula, where there were no settlers and sufficient resources on which the aborigines could live.

The operation to relocate the aborigines was called the "Black Line." In 1830 Arthur gathered every white male in Van Diemen's Land, and they along with four army regiments formed a line that stretched for miles to flush out the aborigines and drive them to the peninsula. When the Black Line converged at the other end of the island, it netted exactly one boy and his mother. Although it appeared to be a colossal failure, the Black Line did succeed in subduing the bushrangers.

Even though the Black Line operation ended the large-scale brutalities and killings, intermittent violence continued. In 1835 the remaining 147 aborigines were relocated to Flinders Island under the supervision of a missionary. In 1847 they were allowed to return to Van Diemen's Land. In 1877 the last of the Tasmanian aborigines died.

See also Australian Irish Convict Revolt; Australian Rum Rebellion.

Further reading: James Bonwick, *The Last of the Tasmanians; or, The Black War of Van Diemen's Land,* reprint ed. (New York: Johnson Reprint Corporation, 1970); Clive Turnbull, *Black War: The Extermination of the Tasmanian Aborigines* (Melbourne, Australia: Cheshire-Lansdowne, 1965).

Blake's Spanish Blockade

See Anglo-Spanish War (1655–1659).

"Bleeding Kansas"

See Kansas-Missouri Border Wars.

Boer Uprising (1914–1915)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Former Boer War commandos vs. Union of South Africa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Boer support of Germany in World War I led many of them to oppose the invasion of German South-West Africa (present-day Namibia) planned by South Africa, an ally of Great Britain.
OUTCOME: South Africa suppressed the revolt, then freed the rebels.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Boer rebels, 13,000; South Africa, 30,000
CASUALTIES: Boer rebels, 540 killed or wounded; South Africa, 374 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

After the SECOND BOER WAR of 1899–1902, the defeated Boers—descendants of the original Dutch colonizers of the African Cape who spoke a variant of Dutch known as Afrikaans (*boer* is a Dutch-Afrikaans word for "farmer")—under the lenient terms of the Treaty of Vereeniging kept their language, their land, and their culture; within a few short years they would come to dominate British South Africa politically as well. In 1909 Great Britain passed the South Africa Act, unifying the British colonies of the Cape, Natal, Transvaal, and Orange River, establishing the nation of South Africa, and enfranchising only a small white minority. South Africa's constitution, based on the Australian constitution of 1900, was mostly the work of Jan Smuts (1870–1950). The union was inaugurated on May 31, 1910, with Louis Botha (1862–1919), an Afrikaaner, as the first prime minister.

The Union of South Africa entered WORLD WAR I on the side of the Allies in 1914, and Prime Minister Botha made preparations to invade neighboring German South West Africa (present-day Namibia). But many of his fellow Boers balked, owing to their historical dislike of the British and feelings of cultural kinship with the Germans.

Former Boer War army commandos—chief among them Christiaan De Wet (1854–1922)—led a Boer uprising, and by the end of 1914 some 13,000 rebels were once again up in arms in the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. Although the rebel Boers were former supporters and comrades-in-arms of Botha's during the Boer War, he did not hesitate to oppose them. Aided by another Boer War veteran, Jan Smuts, Botha took command of the South African Army in its two major campaigns, defeating the rebels in October 1914 in the Transvaal and in December 1914 in the Orange Free State. In a third encounter the Union of South Africa crushed the uprising completely when it defeated the last rebel force in 1915. Botha's close ethnic and personal ties to the rebellious Boers was evident nowhere more clearly than in his treatment of them after their defeat. Showing unusual clemency for a head of state toward subversives during wartime, Botha had by 1917 set all of them free.

Further reading: Melvin E. Page, ed., *Africa and the First World War* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1987); Leonard Monteach Thompson, *A History of South Africa* (New York: Yale University Press, 2001).

Boer War, First (Transvaal Revolt) (1880–1881)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Boers of the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State vs. British imperial forces in southern Africa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The frontiers of the Boer settlements lying between the Orange and Limpopo Rivers in South Africa
DECLARATION: On December 30, 1880, the Boers declared their settlements to be a new Republic of South Africa, tantamount to a declaration of war since the English claimed they were part of the British Empire.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Britain fought to maintain its sovereignty over the Boer lands in southern Africa, which the empire had annexed in 1877; the Boers fought for independence of the states they had originally colonized.
OUTCOME: Handing British troops a surprising and humiliating defeat, the Boers won not full independence but autonomy within the British Empire, which meant that the Boers controlled internal affairs in their settlements, while foreign policy was subject to Britain's approval.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Boers, 3,000; Britain, 2,000.
CASUALTIES: Boers, 101; Britain, 800 killed or wounded.
TREATIES: Treaty of Pretoria, April 5, 1881

During the Great Trek of 1836–43, 12,000 Boers, unhappy with British rule over the Cape Colony in South Africa, which the empire had acquired during the NAPOLEONIC WARS, and especially with Britain's empirewide ban on slavery, packed up belongings and left. These descendants of the cape's original Dutch colonizers, mostly cattlemen ("boer," in the dialect of Dutch they spoke called Afrikaans, means "farmer"), rumbled across the veldt for 1,000 miles, stopping only when they reached a stretch of rolling hills between the Vaal and the Orange Rivers. There the Boers set up two small independent states.

First came the Transvaal in 1838, with Andries W. J. Pretorius (1798–1853) as president. There followed considerable frontier friction: The Boers fought the Zulus (*see* BOER-ZULU WAR) and won from them sovereignty over southern Natal, then lost it when they took on the British at Durban. Britain occupied Natal and annexed it to the empire in 1843. The unrest and some fighting continued for nearly a decade, especially near the Great Kei River and in the lands between the Orange and Vaal Rivers. Finally, in

1852, in part owing to domestic politics, London renounced its claim to some of the region and recognized the Transvaal as independent. Two years later Britain also recognized the independence of the settlements in the Vaal-Orange Rivers range, which became the Orange Free State.

Acquisitive and disputatious, the Boers continued to fight border wars with the Zulus and wars of expansion with the Basuto (*see* BASUTO WAR; BASUTO GUN WAR), then in 1862 fell to killing each other. With the help of S. J. Paul Kruger (1825–1904), who had been all of 10 years old when he came to the Transvaal during the Great Trek, Pretorius after two years finally suppressed the insurgency, which by 1864 had grown into a civil war.

Such men, who for centuries had considered themselves natives of South Africa, did not take it kindly when British prime minister Benjamin Disraeli (1804–81) in 1877 reversed the course of imperial policy and annexed the Boer states Britain had formerly recognized as independent. Announcing the decision as part of his effort to bring about the federation of all of South Africa, Disraeli ordered troops to Pretoria to hoist the Union Jack. Immediately the Boers began to hatch subversive plots, and three years later they revolted.

Joined by Petrus Jacobus Joubert (1831–1900), Pretorius and Kruger led the Boers to take up arms and on December 30, 1880, declared the independent Republic of South Africa, with Kruger as president. They quickly cut up and dispersed the small bodies of British troops occupying the area. A month later, on January 28, 1882, Joubert took 2,000 Boers and invaded Natal. From Capetown British general Sir George Colley (1835–81) rushed inland to meet the upstarts, who he completely underestimated, with only 1,400 British regulars under his command. Twice, at Laing's Nek and at Ingogo in the Drakensberg Mountains, he was summarily repulsed. He then ensconced himself and a portion of his troops, 550 men, at Majuba Hill overlooking the principal pass through the mountains. On February 27, 1881, Boer riflemen overwhelmed the British troops occupying the hill, killing Colley and 91 others, wounding 134, and capturing 59 while suffering few, if any, casualties of their own.

A weary William Gladstone (1809–98), who had replaced Disraeli as the head of an embarrassed British government, had had enough. He offered the Boers autonomy within the British Empire, a South African republic independent as far as its internal affairs were concerned but subject to an ambiguous British suzerainty that gave Her Majesty's government final say in foreign affairs. Following the Treaty of Pretoria (April 5, 1881), the Boers signed Gladstone's proposed constitution with much ill temper, and on April 16, 1883, the grim Paul Kruger became the first president of the semi-independent republic. Such an arrangement would no doubt sooner or later have created problems, but the discovery of vast new riches—diamonds and gold—in the Transvaal all but insured its collapse.

See also BOER WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Frederick A. Johnstone, *Class, Race, and Gold* (Lanham, Md.: University Presses of America, 1976); Thomas Pakenham, *The Boer War* (New York: Random House, 1994); Peter Warwick, ed., *The South African War: The Anglo-Boer War, 1899–1902* (Harlow, U.K.: Longman, 1980).

Boer War, Second (Great) (South African War) (1899–1902)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Boer republics vs. British imperial forces in Southern Africa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): In and around modern South Africa—Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State
DECLARATION: The Boers declared war on Great Britain in October 1899.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Boers' distrust of Britain's imperial designs led them to declare war. Ultimately, their objective was to be independent of the British Empire. Britain, on the other hand, considered the Boer states, rich in gold and diamonds, a priceless possession and had long wished to integrate all of South Africa into one British union. In fighting the Second Boer War, Britain was putting down a rebellion, one it could no more allow the upstart Boers to win than it could anti-British subjects in any other of its colonies. The object was to defeat the Boers, destroy their autonomy, and annex their states.
OUTCOME: What at first had seemed a quick victory turned out to be a long and costly war that disturbed Britain's domestic tranquility, called into question the efficacy of its military doctrine concerning empire, and reduced it to using inhuman and barbaric means in order to win the war. Though Britain succeeded in annexing the Boer republics as new colonies, the Second Boer War undermined the confidence of Edwardian England in the kind of grandiose imperial schemes common among the high Victorians.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Boers, 87,365, all nominally under arms, though no more than 40,000 were in the field at any one time during the war; Britain, 448,435 regulars and militia.
CASUALTIES: Boer republics, 6,650 killed, 10,000 wounded, and 2,150 died of disease and other causes, and approximately 40,000 captured (in addition, there were 117,000 civilian and rebel internees in British concentration camps, of which number perhaps as many as 28,000 died); Britain, 7,582 killed, 22,829 wounded, and 13,139 died of disease
TREATIES: Treaty of Vereeniging (May 31, 1902).

Ever since Great Britain had conquered South Africa during the NAPOLEONIC WARS, there had been tension between British officialdom and the descendants of the

original Dutch and Huguenot colonizers. Speaking a version of Dutch called Afrikaans and considering themselves natives, the Boers (Afrikaans for "farmers") had abandoned the Cape Colony in the 1830s to escape Britain's empirewide ban on slavery and trekked into the interior, establishing two colonies of their own first beyond the Vaal and then beyond the Orange Rivers, the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State.

Twice in the late 19th century the hard-bitten, even grim frontiersmen of the Boer settlements had handed the mighty British Empire embarrassing defeats. In the First BOER WAR of 1880–81, Boers resentful of Britain's high-handed annexation of the Transvaal took up arms and won for themselves partial autonomy within the empire, running their own Republic of South Africa internally, but answering to the Crown concerning foreign affairs. Then the discovery of immense gold fields in an area of southern Transvaal called the Witwatersrand sparked the imperial lusts of the nearby Cape Colony's prime minister, Cecil John Rhodes (1853–1902). Rhodes, who planned an uprising that was to begin with a raid by his private army, headed by his friend Leander Starr Jameson (1853–1917). The JAMESON RAID of 1895–96 proved a fiasco, and the uprising never materialized, but when the Boers turned Jameson over to the British government for trial, he was given a sentence that amounted to nothing more than a slap on the wrist. The outraged Boers never trusted the British again.

For three years tensions ran high before the Boers issued an ultimatum demanding that imperial troops protecting British mining interests in the Transvaal be withdrawn. When the English ignored the demand and, instead, increased the strength of their troops in the Cape Colony, the Boers declared war on Great Britain in October 1899 and attacked.

Boer military organization was sketchy at best. The Boer force was based on local militia, organized in groups the Boers used a new word to describe—"commandos."

Individual Boer soldiers lacked discipline, and Boer leaders had only the vaguest, if any, conception of tactics or strategy. On the other hand, every commando was a sharpshooter, a hunter almost from birth, quite accustomed to taking advantage of natural cover and terrain. All of them were mounted and excellent riders. All of them were armed with modern repeating rifles. In addition, the Boers had a few pieces of modern French and German field artillery, which they learned to use well. Attacking in lightning-quick mounted raids or laying down irregular fire from concealed positions, they could devastate the ranks of close-order formations, then disappear into thin air when threatened.

THE COURSE OF THE WAR

At first the fast moving, well-armed Boers, advancing in columns both east and west, scored a string of successes. Led by the Transvaal Revolt veteran General Piet Jouberg (1831–1900), the 15,000-strong Boer main force pushed through General Sir George White's (1835–1912) Natal Defense Force (of comparable strength) at Laing's Nek on October 12 and, after a series of brushes, bottled up White's troops in Ladysmith on November 2. Meanwhile, Transvaal general Piet Conje (c. 1840–1910) had taken Mafeking on October 13, despite Colonel Robert Baden-Powell's (1857–1941) valiant defense, and Free State forces besieged Kimberly two days later. Back in the Cape Colony General Sir Redvres Buller (1857–1915), deciding to check the Boers everywhere at once, made the mistake of dividing the British relief effort, sending Lord (Paul S.) Methuen (1845–1932) with 10,000 men and 16 guns to relieve Kimberly and rushing off with 21,000 men of his own to save White at Ladysmith.

Conje and Jacobus H. De La Rey (1847–1914), with a force of 7,000 Boers, contested Lord Methuen's November advance every inch of the way in a series of delaying actions. When he finally managed to break through to the Modder River, he had lost 72 men killed and 396 wounded, and his troops were so exhausted that he was forced to pause, awaiting reinforcements. The Boers, suffering negligible losses, were reinforced as they went along, and Conje, now 8,000 strong, entrenched himself at Magersfontein on a hill overlooking the river. At dawn on a rainy December 10, 1899, Methuen attacked the hill frontally en masse and was cut to pieces. After 210 of his men had been killed, 675 had been wounded, and 63 had gone missing, he accepted defeat on December 11. Again, few, if any, Boers suffered casualties. There would be no relief for Kimberly.

Buller was to fare no better. By mid-December he had reached the Tugela River, where he ran into 6,000 Boers entrenched at Colenso under Free State general Louis Botha (1862–1919). Crossing the river on December 15, Buller attempted to turn Botha's left flank only to find his troops entangled in the tough terrain and at the mercy of the Boer small-arms fire. British batteries, unlimbering to support the frontal assault, suddenly found themselves being cut to ribbons by Boers hiding in the bush. The Boers drove back the British relentlessly, killing 143 of Buller's men, wounding 756 others, taking 220 more prisoner, and seizing 11 guns. Perhaps 50 Boers died during what, back in London, the press would call Britain's "Black Week." Buller was so beaten he advocated outright surrender of Ladysmith.

London had had enough. Buller was immediately relieved of supreme command and replaced by Field Marshal Lord Frederick Roberts (1832–1914), who steamed into Cape Town in January 1900 with reinforcements and his chief of staff, General Lord Horatio Kitchener (1850–1916). The fate of the Boers was sealed. Roberts realized instantly that mobility was the keystone of Boer success. Against the conventional wisdom of Britain's conservative militarists, Roberts decided that the only way to match the Boers' rapid fire and quick maneuvering was to build up a mounted infantry around the existing militia units.

By January 10 he had reorganized British forces, and he launched two small brigades of cavalry under General John D. P. French (1852–1925) directly at Kimberly while he took 30,000 men on a march around Conje's entrenched forces above the Modder River. French kept up a spirited campaign against De La Rey, reaching Kimberly on February 15 and bringing the Boer siege to an end. That same day Roberts bypassed Magersfontein on Conje's left flank, threatening the Boer leader's communications.

Conje began a slow retreat across the Modder only to find the way blocked on February 18 by French, rushing back from Kimberly. Conje was trapped. As the main British army approached, he fortified his troops by circling their laager (wagon train) and prepared for the worst. Then Roberts fell ill, and Kitchener took command, launching an ill-conceived and hasty frontal piecemeal attack. Hidden behind their wagons, the Boer marksmen shot down more than 1,200 Englishmen, killing 320 and wounding 942. Roberts quickly resumed command on February 19 and slowly, carefully, systematically encircled and bombarded the Boer laager. For eight days the Siege of Paardeberg continued until Conje—who could well have broken free with his 4,000 horsemen, but who (ever the Boer) mulishly refused to abandon his wounded and his wagons—was starved into surrender.

The next day, February 28, Buller finally reached Ladysmith. Twice since "Black Week" he had tried and failed to break through Botha's defensive line on the Tugela: at Spion Kop on January 23 and at Vaal Kranz on February 5. Both times a small force of Boer marksmen had repulsed his attacks. Buller's losses were substantial: 408 killed, 1,390 wounded, 311 missing. The Boers had lost 40 men killed and 50 wounded. His third attack, which was successful, had come during February 17–18. Now, as he was advancing on Ladysmith, the besiegers fled, and Buller's relief forces joined arms with the garrison forces.

The tide of the war had turned. Heavily reinforced, the British advanced on all fronts. Roberts marched into the Orange Free State and seized its capital, Bloemfontein, on March 13, 1900, soon occupying the rest of the country. During May 17–18 Major General Bryan T. Mahon, at the head of a flying column of cavalry and mounted infantry, relieved the garrison at Mafeking, which had been under siege for seven months. In May, too, the British invaded the Transvaal, capturing Johannesburg on May 31 and then Pretoria on June 5, effectively crushing all Boer resistance on the battlefield. Britain annexed the Orange Free State on May 24, 1900, and the Transvaal Republic of South Africa on September 3. S. J. Paul Kruger (1825–1904), the republic's president, had long since fled for protection to Africa's Portuguese and Dutch settlements. As far as Lord Roberts was concerned, the war was over. He put Kitchener in charge and sailed for home in December 1900.

THE GUERRILLA WAR

Britain's ruling Union Party, while admitting there were still a few marauders left to be rounded up, claimed victory along with Lord Roberts. The claim soon proved to be a hollow one, even something of a home-front delusion. The Union Jack may have waved in Johannesburg and Pretoria, but there were Boers still fighting. No longer organized into anything like regiments 10,000 to 15,000 strong, they assembled in secret as guerrilla commandos and planned their constant and quick raids. Small bands of horsemen would suddenly strike the slow moving British infantry and its supply columns, then vanish into the veldt. By the time a force of British or imperial cavalry arrived to take up the chase, there were no guerrillas to be found—only peaceful, god-fearing Afrikaaner farmers, happily plowing away in the same baggy work clothes they had been wearing a few days before when they slaughtered themselves an Englishman or two. Their weapons were hidden away and their swift mounts turned into work ponies grazing in their fields.

Horatio Kitchener addressed the guerrilla problem with a brutal and bloodless logic. If he was unable to run to ground 20,000 Boer horsemen with the 250,000 British troops he had on hand, he could at least use those troops to reduce the Boers' ability to maneuver, then perhaps eliminate the commando units one at a time. He built some 8,000 corrugated iron and stone blockhouses, stretching them first along the railway lines, and then across the veldt itself. In time the entire Boer countryside was littered with blockhouse forts, linked by barbed wire and within rifle shot of one another. But the elusive Boer raiders seemed to plunge at will though Kitchener's cordon of defense.

Taking a leaf from the Spanish, Kitchener copied tactics they had used in Cuba, sweeping through the now compartmentalized Boer nations with flying columns of mounted infantry. As the army moved, it also "sanitized" its rear, burning all crops and every farm the enemy might use for food or shelter. Kitchener considered every Boer an enemy; there were no civilians in his war. Every rural inhabitant he caught in his net—mostly women and children—he uprooted and carted off to one of his newly constructed concentration camps, 24 of them built and administered by the army. Some 117,000 were marched off to the camps. Perhaps as many as 28,000 died.

Britain learned about these horrors from the testimony of an impassioned middle-aged woman named Emily Hobhouse (1860–1926). Hobhouse toured the camps and returned to England to tell her tale, looking for somebody, anybody, who would listen. Liberal Party leader Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman (1836–1908) sat quietly as she described the wholesale burning of farms, the deportations, the scorched earth, the convoys of prisoners deprived of clothes, the semistarvation in the camps, the fever-ridden children lying on the bare earth, and the appalling numbers

of dead. When he spoke out a week later about the nature of the war, calling Kitchener's tactics the "methods of barbarism," he found himself in the midst of a hurricane of abuse. He was denounced in the popular press, excoriated in private clubs, and excluded from polite society for defaming the British army. Soon anyone taking up the cause of the Boers was being accused of treason. But the average British citizen heard the tales and was appalled.

Meanwhile, the Boer commandos—led by Botha, De La Rey, Christiaan De Wet (1854–1922), and Jan Smuts (1870–1950)—continued their raids, many of them deep into the Crown's Cape Colony. Smuts got within 50 miles of Cape Town, but that was as far as he got: Slowly, Kitchener's drastic and brutal "methods of barbarism" paid off, wearing down Boer morale and systematically destroying commando units.

The Boers first sued for peace in March 1901, but Kitchener ignored them. In May of 1902, heartsick and with much ill will, they capitulated. By the Treaty of Vereeniging, the Boers on May 31, 1902, at last accepted British sovereignty. But in return the British agreed to very lenient terms. No Boer lost his property. No Boer had to pay special taxes to compensate for war losses. Indeed, Britain agreed to pay the Boers £3 million to compensate them for their destroyed farms. Boers could teach both English and Afrikaans in their schools. Bowing to the Boers' special sensitivities concerning the social order, Britain postponed settling the issue of nonwhite suffrage. In short, the Boers kept their land, their language, and their culture.

As for Great Britain itself, it had taken the mighty empire almost three years to subdue the tiny Boer nations. Britain had started the war with 25,000 troops, but before it was over some half a million men were serving in South Africa—drained from British armies stationed around the world. The Boers probably had 87,000 males of fighting age but never fielded more than 40,000. A total of 7,582 Britons had died fighting the Boer War, and another 22,829 were wounded. Approximately 10,000 Boers were wounded, and an estimated 6,650 were killed. Clearly, the Boers lost, and Britain won, but for the first time since the WAR OF 1812, the British army had fought hostile mounted riflemen and faced murderous small-arms fire, and what it had discovered was that the 85 years' worth of experience it had gained since then fighting formal little wars in Europe and throughout the world was useless. To fight another such war as this, the empire needed new thinking about tactics and battlefield techniques. Otherwise, it was left with Kitchener's "methods of barbarism." For the British military as well as the British public, the horrors of the Boer War had taken some of the Victorian bloom off imperial adventures.

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Boer-Zulu War (1838–1840)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Zulu nation vs. Boer colonizers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day South Africa—Natal province
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Zulus objected to Boer colonization of Zulu territory; they sought to stop the Boer migration and exterminate those already settled. The Boers reacted to what they considered Zulu treachery and sought revenge as well as the right to settle in Natal and the Transvaal.
OUTCOME: The Zulus lost control of southern Natal; the Boers were able to continue the Great Trek without resistance from the Zulus.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Durban, Boers, 67 commandos plus 30 servants; Zulus, 3,000. At Blood River, Boers, 464; Zulus, 12,000
CASUALTIES: At Durban, Boers, 97 killed. At Weenen, Boers, 282 men, women, and children killed. At Blood River, Boers, 4 wounded; Zulus, 3,000 killed
TREATIES: None

During the NAPOLEONIC WARS the British navy gobbled up the Dutch colony located on the southern tip of the huge African continent. Dutch-descended settlers remained the majority among whites, however, and many of them chafed under the rule of the British imperialists. After all, their families—along with those of a few Huguenots—had been in South Africa since 1650, when the Dutch East India Company first established a colony at the Cape of Good Hope. Over the course of two and a half centuries, about half the Dutch settlers took up a pastoral life, calling themselves *trekboeren* (Dutch for "wandering farmers") or *boers* ("husbandmen" or "farmers") for short. They came to consider themselves natives of Africa, spoke a variation of the Dutch language called Afrikaans, and developed a hostility not merely toward the aboriginal inhabitants, with whom in their wanderings they fought frequent range wars, but also toward the government of the Cape, which tried to restrain their treks and limit their trade. From the beginning the Dutch were deeply involved in the African slave trade, and their contentious progeny had become as ideologically dedicated to black slavery as had the scions of

Britain born in the American South. The Boers in particular much resented the English Parliament's ending of slavery throughout the British Empire in 1834. Boer slave owners, mostly cattle ranchers, gathered up their belongings, including African slaves, and set out from the Cape heading north to escape the reach of British law.

Some, under A. H. Potgeiter (1792–1852), headed north, toward the Vaal River; others followed Piet Retief (1780–1838) northeastward toward Natal and Zululand. It was merely the first stage of what South Africans would come to call the Great Trek, a mass migration that would continue until around 1843 and result in the founding of two independent Boer republics, the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State. From the beginning the Great Trek brought the Boers into conflict with Africans already living in the region. Potgeiter and his people came up against the Matabele Bantu tribe. After a fierce struggle they defeated the Bantu in 1837 and Potgeiter settled down. The Boers under Retief ultimately fell afoul of the great Zulu nation.

When the Boers first arrived in Zulu territory, Retief asked for a grant of land from the Zulu king, Dingaan (d. 1840). Dingaan replied that he would fill the request if the Boers would retrieve for him some cattle stolen by a rival. Retief led a band and reclaimed Dingaan's cattle, but when he brought them back, the Zulu leader turned on the Boers. Instead of giving them land, he slaughtered Retief and his entire party on February 6, 1838, near Durban and then led his warriors on an attack against a Boer settlement in Natal. At Weenen—"the place of weeping"—the Zulus massacred 282 men, women, and children. Swearing that Dingaan's treachery would not go unpunished, the Boers, now led by Andries W. J. Pretorius (1798–1853), organized an army and in April 1838 headed out on a retaliatory campaign against the Zulus.

The Zulus set up an ambush, lured the Boers into the trap, and decimated the force, though a few shot their way clear and escaped. The Boers were not the only Europeans Dingaan was fighting at the time. While the Boer-Zulu conflict had been heating up, British imperial troops were approaching Natal from the east. The Zulus led them, too, into ambush. The British, finding themselves surround by some 7,000 Zulus, three times managed to repel Zulu charges, but Dingaan's fourth attack split the British force in two. Half the British fled along the Tugela River, but only a handful managed to escape. The other half remained completely encircled by the Zulus, who launched one charge after another. Dingaan's warriors did not break off the attacks until they had slain each and every invader.

The Boers, meanwhile, had organized another army, but in the wake of the Zulu slaughter of the British, they sued Dingaan for peace. When, instead of taking up negotiations as they had requested, he dispatched an army of 12,000 warriors, the Boers had no choice but to continue fighting. At the Battle of Blood River on December 16, 1838, Andries Pretorius decisively defeated Dingaan as Boer sharpshooters mowed down wave after wave of Zulu warriors. Dingaan now found his leadership being questioned, and the Zulus, beset by internal discord, offered no further resistance to the mass migration of the Boers. In fact, the following year Dingaan's brother, Mpande (d. 1872), turned to the Boers for aid when he and his supporters conspired to seize the Zulu throne. The Boers were happy to help, and as the internecine struggle developed throughout 1839, Pretorius boldly declared a Boer Republic of Natal.

At the Battle of Magango in January 1840, a combined Boer-Zulu rebel force confronted and defeated Dingaan's army. As the Zulu leader fled north to Swaziland (where he was later murdered), Mpande assumed the throne and grandly bestowed all of southern Natal on the Boers, giving substance to the Boer state Pretorius had proclaimed into existence. It would, however, prove to be a short-lived republic. Britain occupied the republic in 1843 and annexed it to the empire (*see* BOER WAR, FIRST).

See also KAFFIR WAR, SIXTH; ZULU WAR.

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Bogomils' Revolt (1086–1091)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bogomils (Bulgarian rebels) and their nomadic allies vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bulgaria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A Bulgarian nationalist religious sect, the Bogomils, took advantage of nomadic raids on the Byzantine Empire to launch a revolt in search of independence.
OUTCOME: Byzantium bribed the Bogomils into switching sides and crushed the tribal raiders.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1081, Alexius I Comnenus (1048–1118), one of the sharper diplomats and more resourceful rulers in history, became emperor of Byzantium. Faced with an empire falling apart from internal dissension and external threats, Alexius mustered his meager resources and weathered many defeats and setbacks to return the Byzantine Empire

to something approaching its former glory. He was especially adept at turning his enemies—both inside and outside the empire—against one another, a skill that proved particularly useful as the Turks hammered on the Asiatic gates of Constantinople, the Pechenegs (Patzinaks) and the Cumans (Kumans) raided south of the Danube, and the Bulgarians broke out in open revolt.

The Bogomils, named after their founding priest, were members of a dualistic religious sect that arose in Bulgaria beginning in the 10th century. The Bogomils fused the neo-Manichean doctrines that they imported mostly from the Paulicans (*see* PAULICAN WAR) of Armenia and Asia Minor with the local evangelical teachings of those intent on reforming the Bulgarian Orthodox Church. By the 11th century they were spreading over many of the European and Asian provinces of Byzantium, allying themselves with the Pecheneg and Cuman nomads. After this mixed group of invaders breached the empire's borders, Alexius sent a Byzantine force against them at what is now Silistra, Bulgaria, in 1086.

Although the barbarians quickly and soundly defeated Alexius's army, intertribal discord, mostly over the division of spoils, gave the Byzantines the wedge they needed to promote the collapse of the alliance between the nomads and the Bogomils. In typical Byzantine fashion, Alexius bought off the Bogomils when the Cumans moved north, hiring the former as mercenaries to fight alongside Byzantium against the Pechenegs, who had besieged the Byzantine capital, Constantinople. With the help of the Bogomils, the Byzantines weathered the siege and forced the Pechenegs to turn and flee. The Byzantines pursued the retreating Pechenegs, caught them, and virtually destroyed them as a fighting force at the battle of Leburion in 1091, then drove the stragglers north across the Danube River.

The Bogomils remained behind in Constantinople, where they so flourished that around 1100 the Byzantines felt the need to suppress them. The emperor threw the city's more prominent Bogomils into prison and held a public burning of the Bogomilian leader, Basil, all of which did little to stop the spread of the sect westward throughout the empire in the 12th century.

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Bohemian Civil War (1390–1419)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Holy Roman Emperor Wenceslaus (also king of Germany and Bohemia) vs. rebellious Bohemian nobles
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bohemia, especially Moravia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Bohemia
OUTCOME: Wenceslaus lost and then regained the Bohemian throne, but his power was weakened, leading to the elevation of his half brother Sigismund.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As the Holy Roman Empire declined toward the end of the 14th century, Wenceslaus (1361–1419), king of Germany and Bohemia and the Holy Roman Emperor, was confronted with myriad wars among disparate powers in Germany, including towns and cities as well as individual nobles and church interests (*see* "TOWN WAR"). In 1389 Wenceslaus brokered an uneasy peace, which favored the nobles. Having pacified the situation in Germany, Wenceslaus found himself embroiled in a civil war with Bohemian nobles led by his own cousin Jobst (1351–1411), margrave of Moravia. Jobst's faction imprisoned Wenceslaus during 1393–94, long enough for the faction to set up a council that usurped much of the king's authority in Bohemia. Seeking to bolster his crumbling power, Wenceslaus threw his support behind the popular religious leader John Huss (1369–1415). But his support of the Hussites served only to turn the established clergy, led by the archbishop of Prague, against Wenceslaus. In 1400 the electors of the various German states deposed Wenceslaus as their king, and from 1402 to 1403 the Bohemian nobles again imprisoned him, this time at the instigation of Wenceslaus's half brother Sigismund (1368–1437).

Upon his imprisonment the tide of civil disturbance now turned in favor of Wenceslaus, who thereby regained the Bohemian throne, at least nominally, but he continued to wrangle with the nobles, who fought him over each appointment he made to civil and church offices. Amid religious upheaval, which would culminate in the HUSSITE WARS (1419–1436), the embattled Wenceslaus died. Sigismund, having already become king of Germany in 1411, assumed the Bohemian throne.

See also GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1400–1411).

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Bohemian Civil War (1448–1451)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hussite partisans of George of Podebrad (or Podebrady) vs. Hapsburg rulers of Bohemia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bohemia

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: George of Podebrad's Utraquist party opposed the Hapsburg party's candidate for the Bohemian throne, Ladislas V ("Posthumous").
OUTCOME: Although Ladislas V became nominal king of Bohemia, George of Podebrad governed as the true power behind the throne; upon the untimely death of Ladislas in 1457, George was elevated to the throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No formal treaty

Before he ascended the Bohemian throne on the death of Wenceslaus (1361–1419), Sigismund (1368–1437) was elected king of Germany in 1411. Seeing an opportunity to become famous as the savior of church unity, he forced the convocation of the Council of Constance, which tried the Protestant religious reformer John Huss (1369–1415). Found guilty of heresy, Huss was burned at the stake, thereby triggering the HUSSITE WARS (1419–1436). The Hussites remained a powerful force in Bohemia during the 15th century and played a key role in establishing the succession when Sigismund failed to produce an heir. The Bohemian nobility split over the issue, with the conservatives accepting Sigismund's son-in-law, Albert II of Austria (1397–1439), while the Hussites demanded a Polish candidate. Albert's death ushered in an interregnum during which an assembly established provincial administration for Bohemia as its leaders debated the best course to follow.

The problem of succession grew more urgent when Albert's widow gave birth to a boy called Ladislas, and several foreign princes suddenly showed interest in the throne. In 1443 the Hussite majority opted to recognize the child's claims, even though he resided at the Hapsburg court of German king Frederick III (1415–93). He was to become Ladislas V (called "Ladislas Posthumous") (1440–57) and rule under a Hapsburg regency.

Meanwhile, George Podebrad (or Podebrady) (1420–71) emerged as one of the most important Hussite leaders. Born to a baronial family in central Bohemia, George became head of the Utraquist party, a moderate Hussite faction, which opposed Ladislav for the Bohemian throne.

George rallied his followers against the introduction of German rule in Bohemia and in the cause of Bohemian nationalism. In 1448 he captured Prague, capital of Bohemia, without bloodshed and successfully held it against immense political pressure from the Hapsburgs and their Bohemian champions. By 1451 the Hapsburgs effectively gave up their claims by allowing George of Podebrad to govern. The Bohemian diet in 1451 elected George regent governor, and although Ladislas V became nominal king of Bohemia in 1453, George of Podebrad was the true power behind the throne. When the youthful Ladislas suddenly died in 1457, George was elevated to the Bohemian throne.

See also BOHEMIAN CIVIL WAR (1390–1419); BOHEMIAN CIVIL WAR (1465–1471); HAPSBURG DYNASTIC WARS.

Further reading: Thomas A. Fudge, *The Crusade against Heretics in Bohemia, 1418–1437: Sources and Documents for the Hussite Crusades* (Burlington, Vt.: Ashgate Press, 2002); E. H. Gillett, *The Life and Times of John Huss: The Bohemian Reformation of the 15th Century* (New York: AMS Press, 1978); Frederick Gotthold Heymann, *George of Bohemia* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1965); Mikulas Teich, ed., *Bohemia in History* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998).

Bohemian Civil War (1465–1471)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bohemian king George of Podebrad vs. the Catholic nobles
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bohemia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King George of Podebrad wished to make Utraquist Hussite the official religion of Bohemia.
OUTCOME: The national party grew to a position of dominance in Bohemia, and King Ladislas II, the son of King Casimir of Poland, became king of Bohemia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Olomouc, December 7, 1478

Before the HUSSITE WARS (1419–1436) followers of Protestant renegade John Huss (1369–1415) had been much persecuted in Bohemia. But after George of Podebrad (1420–71), leader of the Utraquist faction of the Hussites, seized power and declared himself regent in the BOHEMIAN CIVIL WAR (1448–1551), he rose to become king in 1459. An ardent nationalist, George sought to make the sect's beliefs, as outlined in the 1420 Four Articles of Prague (i.e., the word of God should be preached freely; communion should be administered in both kinds to clerics and to laymen; the worldly possessions of the clerics should be abolished; and public sins should be exposed and punished), the bedrock of his country's official religion. At the Council of Basel in 1431, Catholic and Utraquist emissaries had reached a compromise under which the Roman church agreed to accept watered-down versions of the Four Articles. It was these "compacts" that George was now hoping would hold Rome at bay while he basically imposed Hussite Protestantism on Bohemia.

To give him his due, George was subtle and also truly wished to rule as a king of "two peoples." Anxious to be

crowned according to the Catholic rites first prescribed by Charles IV (originally called Wenceslaus) (1361–1419), he took extraordinary measures to accommodate the adherents of Rome in Bohemia. He welcomed an envoy of two bishops from his son-in-law, King Matthias Corvinus of Hungary (1440–90), and took a secret oath in their presence to defend the true faith and lead his people from error. He felt free to do so because the compacts were not specifically mentioned. George's coronation was held in Protestant Prague, but he asked papal envoys to help him acquire recognition from Catholic Breslau in Silesia.

Nevertheless, George knew that eventually he could achieve lasting peace only by actually resolving once and for all his country's religious issues, and toward that end, after having so carefully enhanced his prestige at home and abroad, he attempted to have Pope Pius II (1405–64) sanction the compacts in 1462. Instead, the pope declared them null and void. George responded by calling an assembly in Prague and affirming his devotion to the Four Articles. Neither man seemed ready to back down, despite the best efforts of several princes, including Holy Roman Emperor Frederick III (1415–93). Matters only grew worse when the new pope, Paul II (1417–71), elected in 1464, adopted an even more aggressive stance, openly encouraging George's foes, especially in Breslau.

Bohemia's Roman Catholic nobles then rose against George at Zelena Hora in 1465. Paul II excommunicated George and other Hussites in 1466 and released George's Catholic subjects from their oath of allegiance to the king. In spring 1467 George launched an attack on rebel castles throughout Bohemia and on their strongholds at Breslau and other Catholic centers. Although desultory, his campaign was showing signs of success before the rebels rallied aid from Hungary's King Matthias (*see* BOHEMIAN HUNGARIAN WAR [1468–1478]). At first the Hungarian king was unsuccessful during his invasions of Bohemia, but on May 3, 1469, the Bohemian nobles elected Matthias king of Bohemia. To save his throne, George made a deal with King Casimir IV (1429–92) of Poland and relinquished his sons' rights of succession. In 1471, after George's death, Casimir's son, Prince Uladislas II (or Ladislas) (1456–1516) was selected king of Bohemia. The war waged by King Matthias ended with the Treaty of Olomouc, which recognized Uladislas as king of Bohemia and secured Moravia, Silesia, and Licesia (Lusatia) for Matthias.

See also BOHEMIAN CIVIL WAR (1448–1451).

Further reading: Frederick Gotthold Heymann, *George of Bohemia* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1965); John M. Klassen, *Warring Maidens, Captive Wives, and Hussite Queens: Women and Men at War and at Peace in Fifteenth Century Bohemia* (Boulder, Colo.: East European Monographs; New York: Columbia University Press, 1999); Mikulas Teich, ed., *Bohemia in History* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998).

Bohemian-Hungarian War (1260–1270)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bohemia vs. Hungary
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Europe, especially Austria
DECLARATION: The nobles of Styria, formerly an Austrian duchy, rebelled against Hungarian rule.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When the Badenberg rulers of the Austrian duchy of Styria died off, both Bohemia and Hungary rushed to fill the void and add the province to their domains.
OUTCOME: Bohemia defeated Hungary and seized Styria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the 13th century, under Ottokar II the Great (c. 1230–78), Bohemia briefly became the most powerful nation of central Europe. In 1255 Ottokar joined the Teutonic Knights in a successful campaign against the Prussians, which only encouraged the expansion-minded autocrat. Already he had turned his attentions toward Austria and a duchy called Styria that had once been the possession of the powerful Austrian Badenbergs. When the House of Badenberg's male line became extinct in 1246, a number of local princes cast covetous eyes on the duchy, including (in addition to Ottokar) Hungary's king Bela IV (1206–70). After several clashes between Hungary and Bohemia, the two concluded the Treaty of Ofen in 1254, which gave Styria to Bela and Austria to Ottokar. Six years later the rebellious Styrian nobility turned to Ottokar for aid, and he was only too happy to become their lord. At the Battle of Kressenbrunn in 1260, Ottokar defeated the Hungarians who opposed his assuming the throne of Styria.

Ottokar continued his energetic expansion by force and by diplomacy, having both the money and the bravery he needed to meet mostly with success, though he never managed to establish dominion over Poland and Lithuania. Taking advantage of the interregnum in Germany, during which the Holy Roman Empire virtually collapsed into anarchy, Ottokar annexed Carinthia, Carniola, and Istria before his opponents could combine to stop him. His expansion roused the ire of Hungarian kings and the resentment of many Austrian nobles. To King Bela's dying day, he fought vainly to check the advancing Bohemian empire, which by 1270 stretched from Silesia to the Adriatic. Not until Ottokar came up against Rudolph I of Hapsburg (1218–91) in 1274 would he at last meet his match.

See also HAPSBURG-BOHEMIAN WAR.

Further reading: Z. J. Kosztolnuik, *Hungary in the Thirteenth Century* (Boulder, Colo.: East European Monographs; New York: Columbia University Press, 1996); Mikulas Teich, ed., *Bohemia in History* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998).

Bohemian-Hungarian War (1468–1478)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bohemia vs. Hungary
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bohemia
DECLARATION: Hungary declared war on Bohemia at the urging of Pope Paul II in 1468.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After the nationalistically minded Hussites came to power in Bohemia, the pope excommunicated all of them in a call for a pro-Catholic uprising within Bohemia and a pro-Hapsburg invasion to return Bohemia to the Holy Roman Empire, a call that both Bohemia's Catholic nobles and Hungary's Catholic king quickly heeded.
OUTCOME: The nationalists retained control in Bohemia, but at the cost of three provinces that went to Hungary, a much weakened monarchy, and an increasingly powerful nobility.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Olomouc, December 7, 1478

Throughout the 14th century, Bohemia was racked by turmoil and civil war, most of the troubles stemming from the persecution of the religious followers of John Huss (1369–1415), who the majority of Bohemia's Catholic population considered heretics. The BOHEMIAN CIVIL WAR (1390–1419) was hardly over before the long HUSSITE WARS began, and not until 1436, when all factions were united under King Sigismund (1368–1437), after most of the Hussites accepted a Catholic compromise on doctrine, did Bohemia know peace. Civil war broke out once again in 1448, when George of Podebrad (1420–71), representing the Utraquist faction of the Hussite religion, seized power and declared himself regent over the minor Ladislas V "Posthumous" (1440–57), the Hapsburg candidate for the Bohemian throne (*see* BOHEMIAN CIVIL WAR [1448–1451]). George's ascendancy made the Hussite heresy the official religion of Bohemia, and when he became king upon the death of Ladislas, he was naturally the leader of Bohemia's growing nationalism. All of which, just as naturally, earned him the enmity of the pro-Hapsburg Romanists, especially the Roman Catholic nobles, who allied against him.

In 1465 Pope Paul II (1417–71) excommunicated George and all Hussites as heretics and officially freed the Bohemian Catholics from their duty of allegiance to the king. When George seemed to be successfully quelling the Catholic rebels (*see* BOHEMIAN CIVIL WAR [1465–1471]), the ambitious King Matthias Corvinus (1443–90) of Hungary attacked Bohemia with the pope's blessings in 1468. In their first encounters George defeated the invading Hungarians, but by tying down a major portion of the royal army, Matthias fed rebel success in other parts of Bohemia. Thus, on May 3, 1459, when Hungarian troops seized the Moravian capital of Brno, the disloyal opposition was quick to proclaim Matthias king of Bohemia. Buoyed by the advance into Hungary of Bohemian troops led by George's son, supporters rallied to their beleaguered king in 1470, but George was unable to consolidate his successes because of his rapidly deteriorating health. On March 22, 1471, he died and was much mourned by Protestant Utraquists and loyal Catholics alike.

Prince Uladislas II (1456–1516), a strong supporter of Bohemia's Hussite nationalists, succeeded George on May 27, 1471. Now the Utraquist Hussites grew even stronger, absolutely dominating the country's political life. Uladislas carried on the war against the Hungarians and their Romanist supporters without much success. When Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia fell to the Hungarian troops, Bohemia sued for peace. The treaty signed at Olomouc on December 7, 1478, awarded the rule of Bohemia to Uladislas and that of Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia to Matthias, though under the terms of the treaty the three provinces would revert to Bohemia on the death of the Hungarian. During the remainder of Uladislas's reign, the mostly Catholic Bohemian nobility grew ever more powerful at the expense of the weak king's authority.

Further reading: E. H. Gillett, *The Life and Times of John Huss: The Bohemian Reformation of the 15th Century* (New York: AMS Press, 1978); Tibor Klaniczay and Jozsef Jankovics, eds., *Matthias Corvinus and the Humanism in Central Europe* (Budapest: Balassi Kradó, 1994); Mikulas Teich, ed., *Bohemia in History* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998).

Bohemian-Palatine War (1618–1623)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bohemian Protestants vs. forces of the Catholic League and the Holy Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bohemia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bohemians revolted against the Hapsburg emperor Ferdinand II, principally over issues of religion.
OUTCOME: The Hapsburgs were established in Bohemia and the duke of Bavaria became elector of the Palatinate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Catholic League, 30,000; Bohemian Protestants, 14,000 (at Wimpfen)
CASUALTIES: At White Mountain, Catholic League, 250 killed; Bohemian Protestants, 5,000 killed or captured. At Wimpfen, Protestants, 2,000 killed or wounded.
TREATIES: None

The Bohemian-Palatine War may be seen as a conflict in and of itself or as the opening phase of the THIRTY YEARS' WAR. In 1617 Roman Catholic authorities in Bohemia closed Protestant churches under construction by citizens

of Broumov and Hrob. This violated guarantees of religious liberty that had been promulgated in the Majestätsbrief of Emperor Rudolf II (1552–1612) in 1609. That document had created a body of "defensors," who were responsible for safeguarding Protestant rights. The defensors now convened a Protestant assembly in Prague to try the imperial regents, William Slavata and Jaroslav Martinic, for violation of the Majestätsbrief. Found guilty, the regents, with their secretary, Fabricius, were seized and thrown from the windows of the council room of Hradcany (Prague Castle) on May 23, 1618. This so-called Defenestration of Prague was symbolic: It did not injure the men, but it signaled the commencement of a Bohemian revolt against the Hapsburg emperor Ferdinand II (1578–1637), which was the beginning of the Bohemian-Palatine War and an early phase of the Thirty Years' War.

In 1618 the Bohemians elevated to the Bohemian throne the Protestant elector Frederick V (1596–1632) of Palatine instead of the Catholic Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand II. Now Ferdinand's only hope of recovering his Bohemian lands lay in concerted military action. En route to Frankfurt on the day of the imperial election, he had consulted with Duke Maximilian of Bavaria (1573–1651) on preparations for an invasion of Bohemia. After the election Ferdinand consulted the German electors at Frankfurt. It was agreed that the Catholic League would raise a large army. On October 8, 1619, Ferdinand and the powerful Maximilian of Bavaria agreed to support the league. Maximilian's Bavaria supplied 7,000 men to the confederate army, which by July 1620 totaled some 30,000 men. The Bohemian forces numbered only about 10,000.

Under the brilliant general Johan Tserclaes (1559–1632), count of Tilly, the forces of the Catholic League and Holy Roman Empire invaded Bohemia. On November 8, 1620, at the Battle of White Mountain, Tilly led his forces to a decisive victory against a Bohemian army led by Prince Christian of Anhalt-Bernberg (1568–1630). This put the imperial forces into position to seize Prague, which resulted in the reimposition of Catholicism and the rendering of the Bohemian monarchy a Hapsburg right of inheritance. Frederick V, the Protestant elector, was stripped of his Palatine title, and Maximilian of Bavaria was elevated to head of the Catholic League and elector of the Palatinate. Frederick responded militarily in a bid to regain what he had lost, but Tilly led Catholic League forces plus a Spanish contingent against Frederick at the Battle of Wimpfen on May 6, 1622. In September Tilly took Heidelberg, and, with that, Frederick was formally deposed.

See also DANISH WAR.

Further reading: Peter Limm, *The Thirty Years' War* (London and New York: Longman, 1984); Brennan C. Pursell, *The Winter King: Frederick V of the Palatinate and the Coming of the Thirty Years' War* (Burlington, Vt.: Ashgate, 2002); Theodore K. Rabb, ed., *The Thirty Years' War* (Lexington, Mass.: Heath, 1972).

Bolivar's Campaigns

See COLOMBIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; PERUVIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; VENEZUELAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Bolivian Guerrilla War (1966–1967)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bolivian Communists vs. Bolivian government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bolivia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Communist insurgents, led by Cuba's Ernesto "Che" Guevara, attempted to topple the government.
OUTCOME: With aid from the United States, Bolivian government forces neutralized the guerrillas and killed Guevara.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Guerrillas, variable strength, but far smaller than the government forces, which numbered about 20,000.
CASUALTIES: No figures available
TREATIES: None

On November 3–4, 1964, Bolivian army general Alfredo Ovando Candía (1918–82) and air force general René Barrientos Ortuño (1919–69) led a military coup against the government of President Víctor Paz Estenssoro (1907–2001). Ovando soon stepped down, leaving Barrientos in control of the military junta that led the country. Barrientos curried favor among the peasants, even as he treated labor interests harshly, authorizing a brutal repression against striking tin miners. The unstable situation in Bolivia attracted the interest of Ernesto "Che" Guevara (1928–67), a leading figure in the communist government of Fidel Castro's (b. 1926/27) Cuba and an exponent of Castro's policy of exporting communism throughout Latin America. Guevara resolved to go to Bolivia to foment and lead a Cuban-style communist revolution there.

Ernesto Guevara had been born in Rosario, Argentina, in 1928 to a middle-class family. As a young man Guevara was profoundly influenced by the works of the French philosopher Jean-Paul Sartre (1905–80), the Argentine poet Pablo Neruda (1904–73), and Karl Marx (1818–83). Guevara graduated from the University of Buenos Aires in 1953 with a medical degree and an intense interest in radical politics. He became increasingly critical of the expanding economic influence of the United States in Latin America. In 1954 he witnessed for himself the effects of American intervention in Guatemala and became convinced that violent revolution was the only viable means of change in Latin America. Guevara joined Fidel Castro's movement to overthrow the government of the pro-American Fulgencio Batista (1901–73) in Cuba. Guevara was with Castro when he led a band of insurgents

in the landing near Cabo Cruz, Cuba, that started the CUBAN REVOLUTION on December 2, 1956. With Castro, Guevara operated from a rugged base in the mountains of Sierra Maestra, attacking garrisons and recruiting peasants into the revolutionary army. In the areas that fell under insurgent control, Guevara started the land reform and socializing process. A charismatic figure, courageous and violent though frail in health (he suffered from severe asthma), Guevara earned the respect and admiration of peasants and guerrillas alike, who nicknamed him Che—Argentine slang for "friend," a word Guevara used liberally. While fighting the guerrilla war Guevara wrote revolutionary articles and attracted worldwide media attention. Rising to the rank of major in Castro's army, he led one of the forces that invaded central Cuba in late 1958. Then, firmly established in the new communist regime, he made speeches arguing for moral versus material work incentives, for centralized planning, and for the necessity of creating a "new socialist man."

From 1961 to 1965 Guevara served as minister for industries and director of the national bank. He traveled widely in Russia, India, and Africa making high-profile contact with the likes of Indian prime minister Jawaharlal Nehru (1889–1904) and Soviet premier Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971) and urging Castro to form close ties with the Soviet Union. Then, suddenly, Guevara resigned from the government, published two manuals of guerrilla warfare (*Guerrilla Warfare,* 1961, and *Guerrilla Warfare: A Method,* 1963), and formulated a provocative theory of revolution. He declared that revolution required no particular precondition; guerrilla warfare in and of itself was sufficient to foment a revolution. Deciding to test his method and theory in the field, Guevara spent time in Africa organizing the Lumumba Battalion, which took part in the CONGOLESE CIVIL WAR. Then in 1966, sometime between the second week of September and the first of November, he entered Bolivia with a forged Uruguayan passport to organize and lead a communist guerrilla movement.

Che chose Bolivia in part because he believed that of all Latin American nations, it was of comparatively little interest to the United States, which would, therefore, be less likely to intervene to stop a guerrilla insurgency. Moreover, Bolivia's social conditions and poverty made it susceptible to revolutionary ideology, and the fact that the nation shared borders with five other countries put it in an ideal position to be the nucleus of Latin American revolution.

Starting with a cadre of 15 followers, Guevara established a guerrilla base at remote Nancahuazu. From March to August of 1967, he and his guerrillas struck frequently at Bolivian armed forces. The guerrillas did suffer serious setbacks. Their controller-treasurer absconded with much of their funding, and their food and other supplies dwindled. When factional disputes within the Bolivian Communist Party developed, organized support for the guerrillas faltered. As the government became increasingly aware of the guerrillas, more troops were committed to the area. It was, however, to little avail. Although the strength of Guevara's band was extremely variable—it was certainly far inferior to the 20,000-man government force sent against it—over a six-month period the guerrillas inflicted 30 government casualties for every man they lost.

On April 28, 1967, General Ovando, commanding the Bolivian armed forces, signed a "Memorandum of Understanding" defining terms of United States-Bolivian cooperation in the "activation, organization, and training" of anti-insurgent forces. During this period U.S. Special Forces—the Green Berets—also became actively involved in field operations. Of particular interest to the United States was Che Guevara himself. He had been reported dead, but U.S. Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) sources now confirmed that Guevara was not only alive but leading the guerrilla movement. Cuban-American CIA agent Félix Rodríguez (using the cover name Félix Ramos Medina) and an operative known as Eduardo González were assigned to assist the Bolivians in tracking down and capturing Che Guevara and his band. They arrived in La Paz on August 2, 1967, where they were joined by another anti-Castro Cuban-American operative, Gustavo Villoldo.

In the meantime, on April 26, 1967, the Bolivian army captured two French and Argentine couriers whose mission was to announce to the world the activities of Guevara in order to generate widespread support for the guerrilla movement. The government officials now used these captives to stir support among Bolivians to resist what the government called a "foreign invasion." From this point on Guevara's popular power base began to crumble, and on August 31, 1967, the Bolivian army scored its first major victory in the guerrilla war, killing almost one-third of Guevara's men and capturing Guevara's chief lieutenant, José Castillo Chávez, called Paco. The guerrillas withdrew, and Guevara's always precarious health deteriorated. In the meantime, the CIA operatives began to interrogate Paco, and the government (September 15) air-dropped leaflets offering a $4,200 reward for the capture of Che Guevara.

Now relentlessly hunted, Guevara and his men holed up at Loma Larga, a ranch close to Alto Seco. On September 26 they moved to the village of La Higuera, which was deserted. Instead of supporting Guevara and his guerrillas, the Bolivian peasants now fled from him. By afternoon government forces fired on the guerrillas, killing three important leaders. Guevara and others managed to evade capture. At the urging of CIA operative Rodríguez, a U.S.-trained Bolivian Ranger Battalion under the command of Juan José Torres (1929–76) was deployed along the San Antonio River to apprehend escaping guerrillas. They captured another of Guevara's lieutenants, and the Ranger Battalion, reinforced by an additional 650 U.S.-trained

Bolivian troops, ran to ground Guevara and his band on September 30, trapping them in a jungle canyon in Valle Serrano, south of the Grande River. In an exchange of gunfire on October 8, Guevara was wounded in the lower calf, and the next day government forces closed in on a village called Quebrada del Yuro. In a sharp battle Guevara was wounded several times. Shot in the leg and arm, he was taken prisoner.

The army issued false reports that Guevara had been killed. CIA operative Félix Rodríguez was brought in to interrogate Guevara on October 9. However, Bolivian officials, concluding that the prosecution and trial of Guevara would only generate sympathetic propaganda for the cause of revolution and for communist Cuba, decided to execute him immediately—despite CIA instructions that he be kept alive. With Guevara's summary execution (the world was told that he died of his wounds), the Bolivian Guerrilla War came to an end.

See also BOLIVIAN NATIONAL REVOLUTION; BOLIVIAN REVOLT (1946); BOLIVIAN REVOLT (1971).

Further reading: Ernesto Che Guevara, *Bolivian Diary,* tr. by Michael Taber, ed. by Mary-Alice Waters (New York: Pathfinder Press, 1994); Gary Prado Salmón, *The Defeat of Che Guevara: Military Response to Guerrilla Challenge in Bolivia,* tr. by John Deredita (New York: Praeger, 1990).

Bolivian National Revolution (1952)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Movimiento Nacionalista Revolucionario (MNR), or National Revolutionary Movement, vs. the forces of a government-sanctioned military junta
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bolivia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The MNR sought to overthrow a government-supported military junta and assume leadership of the nation.
OUTCOME: The MNR came to power.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: No figures available
TREATIES: None

For six years after the fascist military- and peasant-backed Movimiento Nacionalista Revolucionario (MNR) fell from power in postwar Bolivia (*see* BOLIVIAN REVOLT [1946]), the Marxist Partido de la Izquierda Revolucionaria (PIR) tried to rule the country by establishing coalition governments with older parties. Not only did the PIR ultimately fail, it cleared the way for the rise in 1950 of the more radical Bolivian Communist Party, which dissolved and replaced the PIR and alarmed the country's right-wingers.

Meanwhile, the still-outlawed MNR remained a powerful force in Bolivian politics, advocating land reform and the nationalization of the tin mining industry.

When the MNR's presidential candidate, Victor Paz Estenssoro (1907–2001), founder and leader of the party, now in Argentine exile, won a plurality victory in the 1951 Bolivian elections, the military intervened directly and formed a 10-man military junta led by General Hugo Ballivían. The denial of Estenssoro's victory and the installation of the junta triggered a popular revolt during April 8–11, 1952.

Disassociating itself from its fascist wing, the MNR sought an alliance with a small Trotskyite party with important miners' union support. Now supported by armed workers, peasants, and the national police, all led by Hernán Siles Zuazo (1914–96), the MNR overthrew the junta and recalled Estenssoro from exile. He was proclaimed president on April 16. With this, the brief Bolivian National Revolution—one of Latin America's more important social revolutions—was installed. Estenssoro set about his radical reforms: The tin industry was summarily nationalized, and miners' wages were raised; the great landowners were dispossessed and their holdings distributed to the Indians; and voting was reformed, with universal suffrage guaranteed. Not only were Bolivia's Indian peasants enfranchised, they had become a major, if mostly mute, political force that all subsequent governments had to court.

On the negative side, Estenssoro made no attempt to reconcile with those in the opposition but, rather, moved ruthlessly and even brutally against the "enemies of the revolution." The result was a decade of instability and abortive revolts among civilian as well as military groups, culminating in the BOLIVIAN GUERRILLA WAR.

See also BOLIVIAN REVOLT (1971).

Further reading: Alberto Ostkia Gutierrez, *Tragedy of Bolivia: A People Crucified* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1981); Herbert S. Klein, *Concise History of Bolivia* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002).

Bolivian Revolt (1946)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Liberal partisans vs. the forces of military dictator Gualberto Villaroel
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): La Paz, Bolivia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In a climate of economic depression, rebellious soldiers, students, and workers sought the overthrow of the nation's military dictatorship and the installation of a liberal, reformist government.
OUTCOME: In a brief spasm of civil insurrection, Villaroel was deposed and killed and a provisional liberal government installed.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Since 1936, when young army officers seized power, Bolivia had been ruled by socialist-minded military men who had confiscated the holdings of Standard Oil, created an important labor code, and in 1938 written a liberal, socially aware constitution. By the early 1940s, however, dissidents on both the left and right had formed strong nationwide opposition parties. The most important party for the right-wing-leaning middle class was the avowedly fascist Movimiento Nacionalista Revolucionario (Nationalist Revolutionary Party) (MNR), while the working class and the revolutionary left flocked to the Marxist Partido de la Izquierda Revolucionaria (PIR), which was pro-Soviet and thus soon pro-Allied during WORLD WAR II.

Both groups sent large numbers of representatives to the national congress of 1940–44. In 1943 a secret military group called Radepa (for Razón de Patria, or "Reason of the Fatherland"), which was closely allied with the MNR, staged a coup against civilian president Enrique Peñaranda (1892–1970), bringing to power Colonel Gualberto Villaroel (1907–46). The United States refused to recognize the new fascist-style government until it pledged to cooperate in the Allied cause. Vehemently opposed by all those on the left and most of those on the right, the Villaroel government nevertheless survived for the rest of the war, principally because the country's economy boomed due to World War II's seemingly insatiable call for tin, a big industry in Bolivia.

The end of the war saw the demand for ore collapse, and postwar Bolivia was plagued by unemployment and inflation, which rapidly destabilized the Villaroel regime. During July 17–21, 1946, a popular uprising swept the capital city of La Paz. Workers and students as well as many troops rebelled. The army withheld its support from Villaroel, who was seized by a mob and summarily hanged from a lamppost in front of the presidential palace. With that, the revolt ended and the PIR tried to rule for the next six years in a series of unstable alliances with many of Bolivia's older and smaller parties. As more radical governments came to the fore, the MNR enjoyed a resurgence, once again seizing power in 1952 (*see* BOLIVIAN NATIONAL REVOLUTION).

See also BOLIVIAN GUERRILLA WAR; BOLIVIAN REVOLT (1971).

Further reading: Alberto Ostkia Gutierrez, *Tragedy of Bolivia: A People Crucified* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1981); Herbert S. Klein, *Concise History of Bolivia* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002).

Bolivian Revolt (1971)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Leftist partisans of President Juan José Torres vs. elements of the army and conservative upper classes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Principally Santa Cruz and Cochabamba, Bolivia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rightist rebels staged a revolt to "keep the country from falling into the hands of communism."
OUTCOME: Torres was ousted, and a military-civilian coalition government was installed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Highly variable
CASUALTIES: No figures available
TREATIES: None

On April 27, 1969, Bolivian president René Barrientos Ortuño (1919–69) was killed in a helicopter crash and was succeeded by Vice President Adolfo Siles Salinas (b. 1925). Salinas, however, could not long maintain control of the chronically unstable Bolivian government, and he was ousted in a bloodless military coup led on September 26, 1969, by General Alfredo Ovando Candía (1918–82), leader of a military revolt in 1964. Ovando named himself president but was soon forced out of office by right-wing officers during a coup on October 6–7, 1970. Remarkably, however, in the political confusion of this coup, General Juan José Torres (1929–76), the anticommunist but strongly socialist officer who had tracked down Che Guevara (1928–67) (*see* BOLIVIAN GUERRILLA WAR), seized power, and proclaimed himself president. This triggered a series of right-wing protests, including a demonstration organized in the summer of 1971 in the town of Santa Cruz. Torres responded to the demonstration by arresting 30 of its leaders, an action that set off a general revolt from August 19 to 22. The struggle pitted the supporters of liberal Torres—mainly tin miners, students, peasants, and air force personnel—against those of Colonel Hugo Banzer Suárez (1924–2002), including most of the army and the conservative middle and right-wing upper classes. Torres defended the arrest of the demonstration leaders as a move to curtail a "fascist conspiracy." The rightists, on the other hand, raised the banner of anticommunism. Nevertheless, of the numerous military regimes that governed Bolivia in the 1960s and 1970s, Torres's was clearly the most radical. At one point he replaced Bolivia's congress with a workers' soviet. So it was hardly surprising that when Banzer's partisans wrested control of Santa Cruz and Cochabamba on August 20–21, the air force switched allegiance from Torres and quickly took the Bolivian capital, La Paz, on August 22. At this, Torres fled for his life to Peru and subsequently to Chile, which granted him political asylum. Banzer then

presided over the creation of a military-civilian coalition government, with himself as president.

See also BOLIVIAN NATIONAL REVOLUTION; BOLIVIAN REVOLT (1946).

Further reading: Robert Jackson Alexander, *Bolivia: The Past, Present, and Future of Its Politics* (New York: Praeger, 1982); Alberto Ostkia Gutierrez, *Tragedy of Bolivia: A People Crucified* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1981); Herbert S. Klein, *Concise History of Bolivia* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002).

Bolshevik Revolution (1917)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Bolshevik Party and its sympathizers vs. the provisional government of Aleksander Kerensky
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia's urban areas, especially Petrograd (St. Petersburg) and Moscow
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The radically communist Bolshevik Party sought to take control of the revolutionary upheaval created by the collapse of the czarist regime in the face of the immense destruction visited on Russia's armed services and civil society by World War I.
OUTCOME: The first Bolshevik government was officially formed on November 7, 1917, after the overthrow of the provisional government that had replaced the government of the czars. Vladimir Illich Lenin was proclaimed its leader. Russia withdrew from World War I and fell victim to a brutal civil war, which the Bolsheviks won.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 174 killed; 1,300 injured—civilians and military personnel
TREATIES: None for the revolution, but the Bolshevik government signed a separate peace with Germany under the draconian Treaty of Brest-Litovsk.

BIRTH OF BOLSHEVISM (MARXIST-LENINISM)

The Bolshevik Revolution's leader, Lenin (1870–1924), was born Vladimir Ilich Ulyanov on April 22, in Simbirsk (later renamed Ulyanovsk after him) to prosperous middle-class parents (both were teachers by profession), from whom he learned to care about the plight of the impoverished Russian masses. Lenin's older brother Aleksandr became an active revolutionary first and in 1887 was hanged for plotting against the czar. A profoundly shaken Vladimir Illich immersed himself in the works of Karl Marx (1818–83) and other radical political philosophers, but he did not turn immediately to revolutionary activity. After graduating from secondary school, he enrolled at the University of Kazan, from which he was expelled because of his growing radicalism. Despite his expulsion Ulyanov earned a law degree from the University of St. Petersburg in 1891 and started a law practice in Samara (present-day Kuibyshev).

By 1893 Lenin abandoned the law for the full-time pursuit of revolutionary activity. Intensely intellectual, he methodically reshaped Marxist theory to fit the conditions he perceived in czarist Russia. Marx had theorized that the seeds of the radical transformation of government lay in emerging industrial capitalism, that industrial workers—unlike agricultural peasants—would spontaneously and inevitably develop a radical group consciousness that would energize a popular political movement. Lenin agreed with Marx that the key to revolution was the radical consciousness of the industrial proletariat, but he observed that the requisite radical consciousness was failing to develop in Russian workers, who acted still, in his view, as ignorant peasants. The essence of what came to be called Leninism, Lenin's reformulation of Marxist theory, was the creation of political programs through which radical consciousness might be deliberately cultivated among workers. This required the creation of a thoroughly organized revolutionary party, which would inform, persuade, generally agitate, and then direct the proletariat.

The revolutionary thinker adopted the pseudonym (or underground nom de guerre) "Lenin" (meaning "man of iron"), but the name did not save him from arrest and Siberian exile in 1895. Five years later he left the country and joined a group of Russian emigrés who, led by Georgy Valentinovich Plekhanov (1856–1918), had in 1898 founded the Union of Russian Socialist Democrats Abroad. With Plekhanov Lenin published an underground newspaper called *Iskra* ("The Spark"). In its pages he argued for an extreme radicalism that spurned common cause with moderates, liberals, or other members of what he identified as the bourgeoisie, who (Lenin argued) would ultimately attempt to assert dominance over workers and peasants. He also developed and promulgated the conviction that the basis for individual liberty would be found not in mere political democracy, but in a social democracy that rendered society entirely classless. In 1902 he expressed these ideas in their final form in his seminal pamphlet *What Is To Be Done?*. In 1903, when Lenin's followers earned a temporary majority on the party's central committee and the editorial board of *Iskra,* he created within the renamed Russian Social Democratic Labor Party its radical Bolshevik wing.

From the Bolsheviks Lenin sought to create a revolutionary vanguard, which he forged over the long period from 1903 to the revolutionary year of 1917. He returned to Russia during 1905, in the social upheaval following the RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR, and stayed until 1907, but his most intense revolutionary activity was conducted in exile in London, Paris, Geneva, and other European cities as he ruthlessly condemned the Social Democratic revolutionaries

who did not share his radicalism. He called them the minority ("Mensheviks") in contrast to his own majority ("Bolshevik") faction, even though the Mensheviks actually outnumbered the Bolsheviks. The two factions participated together in the 1905 revolution (*see* RUSSIAN REVOLUTION [1905]) and went through periods of reconciliation (in 1906 and 1910), but the Bolsheviks continued to insist on a highly centralized, disciplined, and professional party. While many Mensheviks held radical ideas akin to Lenin's, they feared that his Bolshevism would result not in equality for the masses but in a dictatorship of the revolutionary elite, and their differences increased. The Bolsheviks boycotted the elections to the First State Duma, or parliament, which reformers had foisted on the war-weakened czar in 1906, and the Bolsheviks refused to cooperate with the government and other political parties in subsequent Dumas. They had a reputation for lawlessness, and Mensheviks and other non-Russian Social Democrats disapproved of their methods for raising funds, which included bank robbery and extortion. The postwar revolution sputtered, and Lenin again went into exile.

In 1912 Lenin forced the factional issue by leading a very small minority out of the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party to form a distinct Bolshevik organization. He had decisively, if not formally, split the party and in the process had alienated even his Bolshevik colleagues, some of whom wished to undertake nonrevolutionary activities, disagreed with Lenin on political tactics, or questioned the infallibility of orthodox Marxism. None of the better-known or highly respected Russian Social Democrats joined Lenin's splinter group, which in May 1912 published the first issue of *Pravda* ("Truth"). Meanwhile, Lenin bided his time in exile and awaited the right moment to act.

BACKGROUND OF THE 1917 SOCIAL UPHEAVAL

In July 1914 the working class of St. Petersburg went on strike. Russia was soon to lead the rest of Europe headlong into war by feverishly—and probably unnecessarily—mobilizing along the Austro-Hungarian border in the wake of the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand (1863–1914), heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, in Sarajevo. In fact, Raymond Poincaré (1860–1934) and René Viviani (1863–1925), president and prime minister, respectively, of France, were paying Czar Nicholas II (1868–1918) a state visit in St. Petersburg just as the city's workers began throwing up their barricades. President Poincaré assured Nicholas behind the scenes that France would stand by its alliance commitments. Massive demonstrations, clashes between strikers and police, large-scale arrests of socialist agitators all formed the backdrop as the czar and his ministers discussed what to do about this latest Balkan crisis.

Perhaps it was understandable, then, that when news of Vienna's ultimatum to Belgrade reached Russia just after the French leaders left for home on July 23, the czar's foreign minister, Sergey Dmitriyevich Sazonov (1860–1927), erupted in anger at the anti-Serbian terms of the ultimatum—a shutting down of the Serb's secret societies, an end to anti-Austrian agitation, direct Austrian participation in the Serbian investigation of the Sarajevo crime, and an immediate response from Serbia within 48 hours. Since Russia backed the Serbs, its prestige was at stake, too. Indeed, the Balkans was the only place left in the world where St. Petersburg felt it could effectively throw its weight around. Encouraged by the French ambassador, Sazonov announced that Russia would immediately begin mobilizing.

A few days after the strike had begun, everything in Russia itself was quiet again. On July 28 the Austro-Hungarian Empire declared war on Serbia, and on August 1 Germany declared war on Russia and its ally, France. When Nicholas and his family appeared that day on the steps of the Winter Palace, 10,000 people serenaded the czar with the national anthem, dropping to their patriotic knees. Overnight the city was rechristened Petrograd because St. Petersburg sounded too German. But the war euphoria would not last. WORLD WAR I opened with a spectacular August 1914 German push to the west, toward Paris. But when the German armies failed to reach the French capital, the war settled into a long, grinding stasis as trench-bound forces killed one another without achieving any major strategic objectives. With the approach of 1917, all of the belligerents were nearing exhaustion. Britain, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey, however, would survive their 1917 crises; Romanov Russia would not. Just as the disastrous Russo-Japanese War of 1905 had precipitated an abortive revolution at home, so the even greater disasters of World War I were to spark the revolutions of 1917.

From the beginning the war had gone badly for Russia. Its army was enormous—Russia had mobilized roughly 10 percent of its population, putting in excess of 15 million citizens under arms. But they were poorly equipped and even more poorly led. By 1917 the Russian army had been "turned over" three times, its losses estimated at nearly 8 million men, half of those mobilized. Morale was so bad that officers refused to lead their troops into battle for fear of being shot in the back. Desertions assumed overwhelming proportions, and whole regiments, often on orders from their officers, surrendered en masse to the Germans.

The man in charge of the disaster, Nicholas II, announced he was leaving his government in the hands of his wife, the emotionally distraught Empress Alexandra (1872–1918), to go to the front and direct the fighting himself. Alexandra turned the reins of power over to the "debauched monk" Rasputin (c. 1872–1916), who wrecked what little chance the czarist regime had of surviving, much less winning, the war before he was assassinated by Grand Duke Dmitry Pavlovich, Nicholas's cousin, and Prince

Feliks Yusupov (1887–1967), the husband of the czar's niece. Meanwhile, industrial mobilization had thrown the economy into disarray: Farmers could not export their produce and refused to sell food on the open market; the ruble was nearly worthless, and there was precious little room for barter; the railway system had collapsed, and what few supplies existed could get through neither to the front nor to the towns; and Russia's industrial cities, including Petrograd, were threatened by famine.

It was no accident, as the Marxists would say, that 1917 became the year the great Russian Empire heaved one final huge sigh and vanished. But during the February Revolution, when workers poured spontaneously onto the boulevards from every factory in Petrograd and Moscow, no one seemed to understand what was going on, not the czar at the front, not the liberal and aristocratic cadets who had been agitating for reform, and not the revolutionary leaders exiled in Siberia. Only Lenin, the acerbic leader of the Bolshevik splinter party from Russia's Marxist revolutionaries, seemed to notice that power lay in the frozen streets of Petrograd that winter, just waiting for somebody to pick it up. And he said so, doing everything in his power to book passage for the Finland station. On February 22, 1917, there were mass demonstrations in Petrograd. Two days later the leaderless workers of the city went out on general strike, fighting bloody battles in the streets with the czar's police. By February 27 the army had gone over to the proletariat, and the powerful Petrograd Soviet of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies was formed. A day later Moscow created its own soviet. Even Nicholas II realized the matter was hopeless. He had personally led his armies to defeat, humiliation, and massive loss; at home he had allowed the government to drift; and he abdicated—officially—on March 3.

Nicholas attempted to hand the crown to his brother Michael, who, exercising the better part of valor, refused it. Meanwhile, leaders of the Duma (the parliament established after the 1905 revolution) had been demanding that Nicholas transfer power to a parliamentary government. On March 15 the Duma formed a provisional government. Prince Georgy Yevgenyevich Lvov (1861–1925) was appointed prime minister, but the two leading figures in the new ruling coalition were Aleksandr Kerensky (1881–1970) and Pavel Milyukov (1859–1943).

They immediately instituted welcome reforms, including broad civil liberties, new wage agreements, and an eight-hour workday. But Russia was torn by two centers of power: the provisional government and the Petrograd Soviet. For the bourgeoisie, the gentry, and the professional classes, the March Revolution (*see* FEBRUARY [MARCH] REVOLUTION) meant a fresh start toward achieving victory over Germany and for transforming backward Russia into a leading European liberal democracy. They regarded the provisional government as the sole legitimate authority. Lenin, however, realized that this was not the agenda of the proletariat and peasants. He published *Imperialism, The Highest Stage of Capitalism,* analyzing World War I as a fight among the imperialist powers for control of the markets, raw materials, and cheap labor of the underdeveloped world. He wrote that none of the combatant nations offered any benefit to the working classes, and he therefore enjoined all socialists to withhold support from the war effort. Following publication of Lenin's book, the Russian Bolsheviks withdrew support for the war, and workers and peasants looked to the Petrograd Soviet and other soviets springing up around the country to represent their interests. They supported the provisional government only provisionally.

As political liberals, Kerensky and Milyukov valued Russia's ties to Britain and France, and—Russia having been promised Constantinople by the Allies as an enticement to continue fighting—they looked forward to capturing the Turkish capital and thus to legitimizing their regime. Kerensky reassured the Entente powers in mid-March that his government would fight "unswervingly and indefatigably" until victory was achieved. The words bitterly disappointed German foreign service officers, who had long dabbled in various revolutionary intrigues, hoping to shatter Russia from within and force it out of the conflict. Now, so it appeared, although the czar's regime had indeed shattered, Russia was to remain a belligerent.

Germany did not give up. Since 1914 the foreign office had both collaborated with nationalist agitators among Russia's Baltic, Finnish, Georgian, Polish, and Ukrainian peoples and supported the conspiracies of Russian social revolutionaries. One of these was Lenin. Living in Krakow when the war erupted, he was immediately arrested. But then an Austrian Social Democrat named Victor Adler (1852–1918) persuaded Austria's minister of the interior that Lenin, as leader of the most militant of the Russian Marxists, could be an asset in the fight against the Romanov Empire. The minister saw to Lenin's release and deportation to Switzerland, where he continued his insurrectionary correspondence with the Bolshevik underground back home. Meanwhile, in Constantinople, another Russian émigré Socialist, Alexander Helphand (1867–1924), had caught the eye of Germany's ambassador to Turkey. Impressed with Helphand's revolutionary credentials and connections, the ambassador had him shipped off to Berlin to brief the foreign office.

In March 1915 the foreign office set aside 2 million marks to spend on subversion in Russia. By 1917 the amount had swelled to 41 million marks, much of it going to Helphand's seditious organization, which sowed revolutionary and pacifist ideas among Russian soldiers, workers, and peasants. Then came the fall of the czar's government and Kerensky's declaration of support for the Allied war effort, and the German foreign office figured it needed more radical help than Helphand could offer. Germany decided to facilitate Lenin's return to Russia. On

April 9, 1917, the Germans placed Lenin and his comrades, Leon Trotsky (1879–1940) among them, on a sealed train in Zurich and cleared the tracks for a night run across Germany. A boat waited in Sweden to whisk the group to the Finland Station in Petrograd.

THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION

Once landed, Lenin lost no time. He began pushing the Bolsheviks steadily toward a takeover from his very first speech, which called for all power to be given to the soviets and for social revolution. He was enthusiastically greeted in Petrograd on April 16, 1917, and published the so-called April Theses in *Pravda,* the Bolshevik newspaper, denouncing the liberal provisional government and calling again for all power to go to the soviets and for a full-scale socialist revolution. The Germans loathed Lenin's ultimate goal—he wanted to transform the European war of nations into an international class war—but they loved his current program for a revolutionary Russia—an immediate armistice, an end to secret diplomacy, and the negotiation of a peace involving, so his slogan said, "no annexations, no indemnities." Such brilliant sloganeering—"Peace, Bread, and Land" was another Bolshevik cry—caught the imagination of the masses, the common soldiers, urban workers, and poor peasants to whom the Bolsheviks pitched their message. Scarcely a month after Lenin's arrival, Prince Lvov was forced to accept as official Russian foreign policy the revolutionary no-annexation, no-indemnities formula. On May 15 Milyukov, in disgust, resigned as foreign minister; in short order, Prince Lvov's government collapsed.

The Petrograd Soviet called for the abolition of the officer corps, and the new Provisional Government abolished courts-martial and issued a Declaration of Soldier's Rights. Nevertheless, this government, too, failed. Indeed, throughout the spring and summer and on into autumn, no fewer than four more governments, all with Kerensky's backing, would form and fall, at the rate of nearly one a month. The hungry and toiling masses moved further and further left, further left than Lenin, who warned them against anarchy. They demanded food and freedom from want, a living wage, and an eight-hour workday, but most often and most loudly they called for an end to the senseless slaughter of World War I. And because it was the one demand Kerensky would not accept, everything seemed up for grabs that summer. As Bolshevik propaganda penetrated deep into the ranks of the ordinary soldiers, the Russian high command came to consider its own army a huge, weary, shabby, and ill-fed mob of angry men.

Suddenly, Russian politics swung to the right after the Bolsheviks failed to take charge of the country during violent antigovernment demonstrations on July 3 and 4. In reaction a coalition government was formed that banned the party, sent Lenin into hiding under threat of arrest, threw Trotsky in jail, and appointed right-wing general Lavr Kornilov (1870–1918) commander in chief of the Russian army. Kornilov had been urging a number of reforms to restore the army to fighting trim. Kerensky was sympathetic, but the old general was surrounded by conspirators who wanted to make him military dictator. Reactionary skullduggery abounded, and Kerensky, aware of the danger of a coup, outlawed troop movements in the capital. When Kornilov attempted to lead an army into town to institute his reforms, the troops simply walked off the job behind his ramrod back (*see* KORNILOV'S REVOLT). Kerensky had Kornilov arrested, and the counterrevolution, if that's what it was, fizzled. Yet another government had collapsed, and the Duma seemed bereft of both will and authority. On September 24 Kerensky formed one last coalition. Figuring he could beat the Bolsheviks at the ballot box, he hoped to hold out until the elections for a constituent assembly scheduled in December. But that September Lenin sent a widely publicized letter to the Bolshevik central committee calling for armed insurrection against the provisional government. By October the Bolsheviks had majorities in the Petrograd and Moscow Soviets, and a month after Kerensky formed his last provisional government the Bolsheviks took control of Russia in a bloodless coup masterminded by Trotsky.

In late October 1917 soviets all over Russia voted to form a revolutionary government to end the war and establish worker-run industries and farms. (According to the "New Style"—Gregorian—calendar used by most of the world, this was during the first week of November; by Russia's "Old Style"—Julian—calendar, the revolution took place at the end of October.) Trotsky took control of the Petrograd Soviet's military revolutionary committee, and throughout the city troops voted to obey only the committee's orders. A blustering Kerensky demanded a recision of the vote and sent his own troops to shut down the Bolshevik's Petrograd press on October 24 (N.S., November 6, 1917). In response Bolshevik leaders, the working class's Red Guard, and sympathetic government soldiers marched through the city taking over government buildings and public utilities. Then they stormed the Winter Palace.

Kerensky was still trying to gather his forces to oust the Bolsheviks when his ministers at the palace surrendered to the mob's onslaught. Kerensky quickly sent his troops to Gatchina, a suburb of Petrograd, where the pro-Kerensky Committee of Public Safety ordered Russian military school cadets to arrest the members of Trotsky's military revolutionary committee and to attack the city's Bolshevik-held buildings. The Bolsheviks withstood their assault and took charge of the military schools. Then Trotsky moved on Gatchina, defeated the government forces in two days of fighting, and forced Kerensky to flee abroad.

Lenin ventured back into Russia as the second Congress of Soviets, purged of its peasant deputies, approved the action in the streets and formally took control of the

government. When this first Bolshevik government was officially formed on November 7, Lenin became president of the Council of Commissars, as the party called the new government. The Bolsheviks soon took Moscow after bloody street fighting, and within the month they controlled the country. Not only Russia, but the entire world was transformed.

The Bolsheviks themselves doubted they would last long. On October 25 prominent party member Grigori Evseyevich Zinoviev (1883–1936)—admittedly a notorious pessimist—gave the new regime two weeks because of the Bolsheviks' incompetence and the strength of their enemies. The Bolsheviks refused to share power with other revolutionary groups except for the Left Socialist Revolutionaries (eventually, they would suppress all rival political organizations). On October 28 Lenin declared a state of siege in Petrograd. Antirevolutionary (or at least anti-Bolshevik) "Whites" had taken the Kremlin, and the RUSSIAN CIVIL WAR (1917–1922) was under way. Come November, nothing much was settled—power and peace still lay in the balance; the Bolshevik Party was deeply divided; civil servants engaged in systematic sabotage; bankers kept their doors locked to the new government; municipal services ground to a halt; and the White Army was on its way from the countryside. Clearly, Lenin needed to be free of the world war in order to consolidate Bolshevik power.

On December 15 the regime signed an armistice with the Central Powers. That same month Lenin created the All-Russian Extraordinary Commission for the Struggle Against Sabotage and Counterrevolution. Arrests began immediately, even as Trotsky headed off to the peace conference convening on December 22 at Brest-Litovsk. But it took several months for the terror to get into full swing and for the commission's acronym, CHEKA, to send chills down the spine of anyone with a bank account, not coincidentally about the same amount of time it took Trotsky to give away half of European Russia to the Germans.

Immediately at the peace conference, the German imperialists and the Russian totalitarians began to bicker about the definition of "national self-determination," an understandably touchy point since Lenin, Trotsky, and Karl Radek (1885–1939), another prominent revolutionary, had in the first days of Bolshevik power organized the apparatus to spread revolution abroad. Although the expected uprisings had nowhere occurred when Trotsky sat down across the table from the Germans, Lenin continued to fear that the Bolshevik Revolution would not survive without them, and Trotsky believed in the necessity of international revolution until his dying day. Recognizing how far apart the two sides were, Trotsky promptly asked for an adjournment in hopes that the tide of revolution might yet sweep throughout central Europe. A mutiny did flare up in the Austrian fleet, and a general strike erupted in Berlin. But both outbreaks were quickly suppressed, and the Russians returned to the talks on January 7, 1918, the month Lenin dissolved the freely elected, socialist-dominated national assembly, ending Russia's first attempt at Western-style parliamentary democracy.

As Trotsky saw it, the Bolsheviks faced three choices, all bad. They could continue to defy the Germans, risking the almost certain conquest of Russian lands and the overthrow of their government; they could relent and cede to the Germans virtually all of Russia's western territories; or they could pursue what Trotsky called "neither war nor peace" while awaiting the revolution in Germany. The Germans suspected Trotsky of using the peace talks themselves to do just that, although he was more likely dragging out the proceedings to avoid any question that he was working in collusion with the German military. Such caution was wise given the means by which he and Lenin had arrived back in Russia from their foreign exile. The Bolsheviks were always a suspicious lot, shrewd and ruthless, none more so than the head of the CHEKA, Feliks Dzerzhinsky (1877–1926), perhaps at the time the most ruthless of them all. It was folly to give such a man, searching for subversives and seeing sedition everywhere, the slightest cause for doubt.

Meanwhile, as Trotsky bided his time, the Germans and Austrians concluded the Brotfrieden, or "bread peace," with representatives of the Ukraine, a hot-bed of White Army activity. When the Red Army fought its way into the region, the German high command, weary in any case of Trotsky's long-winded rhetoric, broke off the conference and resumed hostilities against Russia on February 18, 1918. The French ambassador immediately offered the Bolsheviks all the aid they could use if they would fight the Germans. But Lenin—his country's economy in tatters, his party menaced by factionalism, and his people engaged in civil war—ordered an immediate capitulation. The Germans now pressed even harsher terms on the Bolsheviks, and Lenin's government yielded to the new demands. On March 3 the Bolsheviks signed. That same month the Bolsheviks changed their name to the Russian Communist Party.

CONSOLIDATION OF THE REVOLUTION

With Russia out of the war, the Central Powers were no longer fighting on two fronts, and Germany was free to concentrate all its forces in the west. Both the economic gains in the east realized by the treaty and the new maneuverability it afforded cheered the Germans to believe they might achieve victory before the Americans arrived on the continent in force. But in the end the Germans did not take full advantage of Brest-Litovsk. They left roughly 1 million men, some 60 divisions, in the east in order to intimidate the Ukrainians into relinquishing foodstuffs, to pursue the German political agenda in the Baltic, and to make sure the Bolsheviks complied with the agreement. Still, Brest-Litovsk almost certainly would have changed

the outcome of the war had the United States not become an "associated" power of the Allies and spent so freely of its money, material, and men. And as it was, the treaty enabled Germany to unleash a massive offensive during 1918, which put American forces in the thick of some of the most savage fighting of the war.

If the Germans did not trust the Bolsheviks, neither did Russia's former allies. Not a few on the left in London, Paris, and Washington sympathized with the Bolshevik cause or believed, at least compared to the czar, Lenin would bring some efficiency to his troubled country. There was talk among the French and the British of supporting various of the factions forming within the party. Then the German advance into Russia in February (after it had called off the conference with Trotsky) caused the Allied diplomatic missions to panic and flee Petrograd for remote Vologda. There they awaited to see which direction Lenin and Trotsky would take, and Brest-Litovsk gave them their answer. News of Brest-Litovsk was received as an unparalleled disaster by the beleaguered Allies, who felt they now had to consider intervention in Russia. If they could hook up with the White nationalists, they reasoned, they might be able to reopen the Eastern Front and thus save their own disgruntled troops the full wrath of the German army in the west. In addition, there was all the Allied materiel stacked up in Russian ports—nearly 20 tons of supplies in Archangel alone—just waiting for seizure by the Germans or the Bolsheviks. The Allied plans were to take those supplies and distribute them to any Russians they could find still willing to fight Germans.

In short, when Bolshevik Russia signed a separate peace with Germany at Brest-Litovsk, the Allies sent troops to invade Russia from the east in support of the Whites. In March, the month the treaty was signed, an Anglo-French expedition docked at Murmansk. In April the Japanese, seeking an imperial foothold on the Asian mainland, used the treaty as an excuse to seize and occupy Vladivostok. In June an American cruiser and 150 marines joined the English and French forces at Murmansk. In August another Anglo-French expeditionary force occupied Archangel, this one also to be joined by the Americans, 5,000 of them under British command arriving in September. Hitherto, Comrade Lenin had gone out of his way to check—and even punish—Dzerzhinsky-inspired excesses. That did not mean there was no CHEKA brutality, and no summary executions, but as of Brest-Litovsk the Bolshevik tribunals had yet to deliver a death sentence. That changed with the Allied invasions.

On June 18, 1918, the Bolsheviks handed down their first death sentence. A month later to the day, the local soviet in Ekaterinburg took the czar, his empress, and his heirs down into a dingy basement and shot them dead. That same month, July, the CHEKA arrested 200 British and French residents of Moscow, stormed their consulates, and murdered the British naval attaché. In Paris and in London the Bolsheviks were now considered thugs, or bandits, or German agents, but in the Balkans their revolution had become an inspiration.

Meanwhile, Lenin had to cope with splinter groups and the spreading civil war, which raged from the Black Sea to the Caspian. The bitter and destructive war lasted until 1922, when the Whites were finally defeated, leaving the Russian economy in shambles and prompting Lenin to retreat from Marxist absolutism by granting economic concessions to foreign capitalists and reinstituting some private enterprise. Lenin's invitation would have been welcomed by the capitalist countries had Lenin not remained committed to extending the communist revolution to the rest of the world. Pushed especially by U.S. president Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924) at the Versailles Peace Conference, much of the world turned against Soviet Russia, which helped to establish the battle lines of one of the basic ideological struggles that would dominate the 20th century at least through the 1980s (*see* COLD WAR).

By the end of the Russian Civil War, Lenin was installed as absolute dictator of the Soviet Union, but his control of the Communist Party was torn by rivalries and disputes. Lenin's health deteriorated after he was wounded by an assassin's bullet in 1918, and he suffered a severe stroke on May 25, 1922. Weakened and partially paralyzed, he never fully recovered, and he died on January 21, 1924, at which time control of the party passed to Joseph Stalin (1879–1953), who brutally crushed dissent of any kind, even within the Bolshevik Party.

See also BLACK HUNDREDS, RAIDS OF THE.

Further reading: Edward Hallett Carr, *The Bolshevik Revolution, 1917–1923* (New York: Norton, 1985); W. Bruce Lincoln, *Red Victory: A History of the Russian Civil War* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1989).

Bosnia, War in (1992–1995)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bosnian Catholic Croats and Muslim Slavs vs. Bosnian Orthodox Serbs; after 1994 Croats and Slavs vs. Serbs
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bosnia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After Croatia quit the Yugoslav federation in 1991, Bosnian Catholic Croats and Muslim Slavs approved referenda (February 29, 1992) calling for the creation of an independent, multinational republic; the Bosnian Orthodox Serbs, however, refused to secede from Yugoslavia, which was now dominated by Serbia. This initiated a long, bitter civil war.
OUTCOME: The war was ended by the U.S.-brokered Dayton Accords, which created a federalized Bosnia and Herzegovina, divided between a Bosnian-Muslim–Bosnian-Croat federation and a Bosnian-Serb republic; the accords also guaranteed human rights and minority rights.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: About 150,000 Serb regulars vs. 50,000 Croat militia; other forces, variable
CASUALTIES: Military and civilian dead: 140,000 Bosnians, 97,300 Serbs, 28,400 Croats; 1.37 million displaced
TREATIES: Dayton Peace Accords, November 21, 1995

The modern nation of Yugoslavia came into being following the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire at the end of WORLD WAR I. But until WORLD WAR II, Yugoslavia was not so much a single nation as it was a collection of strongly nationalistic, ethnically diverse, and ethnically irreconcilable factions. They were briefly united in opposition to the German-Italian invasion of World War II, the resistance led by Josip Broz (known as Tito) (1892–1980), a communist who, after expelling the invaders, instituted a Marxist regime by the end of the war. Tito's government was unique in Eastern Europe in that it was maintained independently of Soviet military and economic support and even provoked Joseph Stalin (1879–1955) to expel Yugoslavia from the Communist bloc in 1948.

Remaining true to his vision of communism, Tito opened up reasonably cordial relations with the West and forged Yugoslavia into a genuinely unified nation. That ended with Tito's death in 1980, as if to prove that Yugoslavia had been held together by the force of its leader's personality. The Croats and Slovenes, the largest nationalist groups in the country, developed separatist movements. During 1989–90, with the end of the COLD WAR and the general collapse of communism throughout eastern Europe, Bosnia-Herzegovina, formerly a part of Yugoslavia, was caught up in a tide of nationalism that swept the region. In January 1990 the Communist Party voted to relinquish its constitutional monopoly on power in Yugoslavia, but this did not satisfy the Slovenes, who walked out of the conference. In 1991 both Slovenia and Croatia unilaterally declared their independence from Yugoslavia and proposed a new, decentralized union. After Croatia quit the Yugoslav federation, Bosnian Catholic Croats and Muslim Slavs approved referenda (February 29, 1992) calling for just such an independent, multinational republic. But Bosnia's Orthodox Serbs refused to secede from Yugoslavia, which was now dominated by Serbia. In January the United Nations had imposed a truce between the increasingly hostile groups in anticipation of the vote, but it proved short-lived as Bosnia went ahead with its plans and seceded from Yugoslavia in March 1992 and its Serb population took to the streets. The three ethnic and religious groups who had formerly lived peaceably side by side in communist Yugoslavia were now engaged in a bitter civil war.

The flames of the conflict were fanned by the Serbian president, Slobodan Milošević (b. 1941), who, claiming that he had a duty to protect the Serb minority in Bosnia, sent arms and other support to the Bosnian Serbs. The civil war soon lost all sense as a political struggle and emerged instead as outright ethnic warfare among the Orthodox Serbs, the Catholic Croats, and the Muslim Slavs. Bosnia was reduced to anarchy, and the capital city of Sarajevo was under continual siege and bombardment. Although the United States and the European Union made some attempts, usually through the United Nations, to negotiate a settlement, they were unwilling in the end to commit troops to stopping the struggle. Thus, as the fighting grew worse, they stood by for the most part, deliberating what action was truly proper in what seemed so hopelessly murky an eruption of human passion.

The Bosnian federal army, dominated by Serbs, shelled Croat and Muslim quarters in the Bosnian capital city of Sarajevo. Under the command of Radovan Karadžić (b. 1945), atrocities and the deliberate targeting of civilian populations were carried out on a scale not seen in central Europe since Germany's invasion of the region during World War II. Karadžić had been born on June 19, 1945, in a mountain village in the Yugoslav republic of Montenegro. His father had been a member of the Chetniks, the Serbs who fought both the Nazis (along with their Croatian collaborators) and the Partisans, the communist guerrillas led by Tito. At age 15 Karadžić moved to Sarajevo, where he studied medicine, became a physician and psychiatrist, and wrote poetry and childrens' books. Imprisoned for nearly a year in the mid-1980s for embezzling state funds, he was one of the founders of the Serbian Democratic Party, of which he became president in 1990. Two years later, when the Bosnian Serbs declared their independence, he became president of the self-proclaimed Republika Srpska and allied himself with Yugoslavia.

Backed by Slobodan Milošević and with the support of General Ratko Mladić (b. 1944), another Bosnian Serb military leader who, like Karadžić, would be indicted for war crimes, Karadžić took control of parts of Bosnia and began his series of purges in the name of "ethnic cleansing," the Serbs' euphemism for the systematic expulsion of Muslims and Croats from Serb-controlled areas, and included the mass murder of many of them. It was an agenda worthy of Adolf Hitler (1889–1945), and by late 1993 ethnic cleansing had created some 700,000 refugees, who clogged western Europe. (Although most of the human rights abuses were perpetrated by the Bosnian Serbs with the support of Milošević's Serbia, the Croats and the Muslims also carried out brutal retaliatory raids and even engaged in ethnic cleansing in the areas they controlled.) The international community responded to the atrocities—and the televised pictures of starving Muslim and Croat prisoners, looking for all the world like concentration camp victims—by imposing a variety of economic sanctions against Serbia in an effort to curtail its ability to supply Bosnian Serbs with weapons and other materiel. The sanctions, however, did not prevent Bosnian Serb

guerrillas from carrying out their brutal campaigns of "ethnic cleansing," and attempts by the international community to send relief workers into the region were often met by gunfire. By July 1992 millions of Bosnians had become refugees.

From 1992 to 1995 Milošević swung back and forth, depending on the pressure asserted by the United States and western Europe, between ruthless military action and public expressions of an interest in peace initiatives being advanced by Western leaders. An arms embargo imposed by the United States and the western European powers did little to stop the war. Indeed, it may have served only to deprive the Muslims and Croats of badly needed arms, putting them at even more disadvantage against the Serbs. Early in 1994 the Muslims and Croats of Bosnia made a truce with each other and formed a confederation to oppose the Serbs. In August the confederation agreed to a plan formulated by the United States, Russia, Britain, France, and Germany by which Bosnia would be divided 51 versus 49 percent, with the Serbs getting the smaller percentage. But although the Muslims and Croats agreed on the plan, the Serbs kept fighting.

Beginning in April 1994 NATO at last launched air strikes against the Serb positions, and still the Bosnian Serbs fought on, blocking all attempts at humanitarian aid and even holding a 24,000-man UN peacekeeping mission under detainment. In 1994 and 1995 Bosnian Serb forces conducted mass killings in Sarajevo, Srebenica, and other, smaller towns that the United Nations had declared safe havens for Muslim civilians. Yet the Muslim-Croat alliance had been making military progress against the Bosnian Serbs. By September 1995 the alliance had reduced Serb-held territory in Bosnia to less than half of the country, precisely the percentage specified in the peace plan endorsed by the Muslims and Croats. With the reduction of their territory an accomplished fact, the Bosnian Serbs finally came to the peace table in a series of conferences brokered largely by the United States and held at Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, outside of Dayton, Ohio. Late in 1995 Milošević—under intense international pressure as progress was made in the Dayton talks—closed the borders with Bosnia and appeared to be abandoning the Bosnian Serbs. Worried by the desertion of his ethnic ally and fearful of repercussions, Karadžić gave in to Western demands and agreed to abide by the Dayton Peace Accords reached on December 14, 1995, among Muslim, Croatian, and other Bosnian Serb leaders.

The major provision of the Dayton Accords was the creation of a federalized Bosnia and Herzegovina, divided between a Bosnian-Muslim–Bosnian-Croat federation, and a Bosnian-Serb republic. In addition, the accords guaranteed that refugees would be allowed to return to their homes, that people would be permitted to move freely throughout Bosnia, and that the human rights "of every Bosnian citizen" would be monitored by an independent commission and an internationally trained civilian police force. The accords also provided for the prosecution of individuals found guilty of war crimes. A "strong international force" was provided to supervise the separation of military groups within Bosnia and to ensure that each side would live up to the agreements made.

On July 25 and again on November 16, 1995, the United Nations International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia, held in The Hague, indicted Karadžić for war crimes including genocide, murder, and rape of civilians. Because the Dayton Accords disallowed anyone indicted for war crimes, from participating in the elections set for September 14, 1996, Karadžić had to relinquish both his government and his place in his party. On July 19, 1996, he announced he would step down as president of Republika Srpska and as head of the Serbian Democratic Party of Bosnia and Herzegovina. But men who shared his political views replaced him, and no one could be quite sure—even though he was forbidden from appearing in public or in the media—if he was truly deposed. The NATO troops who arrived in Bosnia to enforce the Dayton Accords had orders to arrest him, but they did not do so, either because they could not find him or they were fearful of reprisals: the story varied. In any case, Karadžić continued to live openly enough in Pale, the Bosnian Serb headquarters.

The war in Bosnia and Herzegovina formally ended with the signing of the Dayton Accords, and approximately 250,000 people—most of them from Germany—had resettled in their former homeland by mid-1997. The return of these ethnic minorities, however, created problems. The United Nations attempted to meet the challenge presented by the repopulation by displaced persons and refugees of the so-called minority areas by launching an "Open Cities" program under which towns could declare their readiness to accept former Yugoslavians, regardless of whether they were from Bosnia or Herzegovina, or whether they were Serb, Croat, or Muslim. But significant progress was slow. Few returned to Croatia despite commitments of support from Croatia and the United Nations. Given the trouble Milošević was yet to wreak on the region, their hesitation proved prescient.

Further reading: Steven L. Burg and Paul S. Shoup, *The War in Bosnia-Herzegovina: Ethnic Conflict and International Intervention* (Armonk, N.Y.: M. E. Sharpe, 2000); Noel Malcolm, *Bosnia: A Short History* (New York: New York University Press, 1996).

Bosnian-Turkish War (1459–1463)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ottoman Turks and Hungarians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bosnia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In the 1400s the Ottomans resumed their conquest of southern Europe but met strong opposition from the Hungarians.

OUTCOME: Bosnia was annexed in 1463 but not fully subjugated for another 20 years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

In the 15th century the Ottomans resumed the Turkish conquest of southern Europe that had been interrupted by the Tartar invasion, but their advance was brought to an abrupt halt by a stubborn and vigorous Hungarian resistance. During the middle of the century the Turks and the Hungarians battled intensely over Serbia, but in 1459 Sultan Muhammad II (c. 1429–81) at last managed to annex the region and turn longing eyes westward toward Bosnia. Bosnian king Stojpan Tomaš (1441–61) called on the people to resist and took the opportunity to impose religious unity in the country, under Catholicism, to ensure a unified spiritual front against Islam. Bloody battles ensued between the Turks and the Hungarians before this region too came under Ottoman control in 1463. The Bosnians remained rebellious, however, refusing to yield to the invaders. In spots throughout the region, revolts were endemic. Not until the HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1483) would Bosnia (as well as Serbia and Herzegovina) be fully subjugated.

See also AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1529–1533).

Further reading: Andre Gerolymatos, *The Balkan Wars: Conquest, Revolution and Retribution from the Ottoman Era to the Twentieth Century and Beyond* (New York: Basic Books, 2002); Noel Malcolm, *Bosnia: A Short History* (New York: New York University Press, 1996).

Boudicca's Revolt (60–61)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Iceni tribe (with the Trinovantes) vs. Romans (with Briton allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Iceni rebellion against Roman domination
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: According to Tacitus, the Romans and their Briton allies lost 70,000 men; no estimate exists of Iceni losses.
TREATIES: None

Suetonius Paulinus (d. after 69) was appointed Roman governor of Britain in 59. The following year he annexed the lands of the Iceni tribe, Druids living in what is today Norfolk and Suffolk, after the death of their king, Prasutagus (d. 60). Because Prasutagus had died without a male heir, his wife, Boudicca (also known as Boadicea, d. 61) assumed the throne. When the forces of Paulinus marched northward to capture the island of Mona (Anglesey, Wales) in 60, she led a rebellion against them, which turned the Roman army back to its southeastern strongholds.

During the remainder of 60 and into 61, Boudicca's act of resistance triggered a widespread anti-Roman rebellion. Boudicca's Iceni forces were joined by those of the Trinovantes tribe, who lived in the region of modern Essex. The conflict quickly spread throughout East Anglia. Rebel forces overran and sacked the Roman strongholds of Camulodunum (Colchester), Verulamium (St. Albans), and Londinium (London). After much effort, however, Paulinus mustered a sufficient force to crush the rebellion in a single decisive battle at Towcester in 61. The Roman historian Tacitus (c. 56–c. 120) estimated the cost to the Roman legions and its Briton allies at 70,000 dead. Rebel casualties are unknown, but it is certain that Boudicca was among them. Most authorities believe that she committed suicide, although some contemporary sources report that she was killed by Romans or simply died of shock and heartbreak.

See also ROMAN CONQUEST OF BRITAIN.

Further reading: Ian Andrews, *Boudicca's Revolt* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1973); Richard Hunt, *Queen Boudicca's Battle of Britain* (Staplehurst, U.K.: Spellmount, 2003).

Boxer Rebellion (1899–1901)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebellious Chinese "Boxers" and anti-foreign supporters vs. representatives of foreign powers and Christian missionaries
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Resentment over foreign interests in China and its virtually complete economic subjugation to the West allowed a radical group to gain favor in Beijing (Peking) and launch a rebellion aimed at expelling the foreigners.
OUTCOME: The Boxers were crushed, and the ruling Qing (Ch'ing) dynasty was brought even more firmly under the thumb of the West.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Boxers and Imperial troops, unknown; combined Western powers and Christian auxiliaries, around 22,000
CASUALTIES: Western troops, 700–1,000 killed, Western civilians and Chinese Christians, 650 known plus untold numbers of others; Boxer rebels and imperial troops, unknown
TREATIES: The Boxer Protocol of September 7, 1901

At the turn of the 20th century China was convulsed by an antiforeign uprising known as the Boxer Rebellion. After

quelling the revolt the European great powers—including a fledging newcomer to the colonial game, the United States—imposed an indemnity on China, effectively forcing it to yield to European imperialism, the beginning of the end for the last of China's great dynasties. Having come late into the game of imperialism that European nations had long played, the United States, by the end of the 19th century, advocated an "Open Door Policy" with regard to China. The policy was actually first proposed by a British customs official, Alfred E. Hippisley (1849–1939), but U.S. secretary of state John Hay (1838–1905) took it up enthusiastically as a policy under which all nations would have equal trading and development rights in China. In 1899 Secretary Hay communicated his endorsement of the policy to France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, and Russia. The Japanese challenged the policy, but the European powers replied that they would comply—if the others did. This was enough for Hay, who announced in March 1900 that the Open Door Policy had been agreed to and approved.

Actually, none of the nations involved ever intended to adhere unconditionally to the policy, and the interests of China itself were largely neglected in arriving at it. All the foreign meddling had so far resulted in an uprising spearheaded by militia units in the north called Yihetuom (I-ho Ch'uan)—the "Righteous Harmony Fists"—a name that yielded the label *Boxers* in the foreign press. Ending in the virtual partitioning of China, the Boxer Rebellion highlighted the intense distrust of the West in China. As far back as the early 1700s, a fringe religious group preached that through shadowboxing and other forms of calisthenic rituals, its followers would achieve supernatural powers, most notably imperviousness to gunfire. A mixture of Confucianism, Zen Buddhism, and Tao, the Righteous and Harmonious Fists were a descendant of the Eight Trigrams Society that had sought to bring down the Qing dynasty (1644–1911) throughout the 18th and early 19th centuries by raising several rebellions. The Boxers added to that the further goal of expelling the numerous foreign interests in China.

China at the end of the 19th century was fractured and weak, suffering from economic, diplomatic, and military pressures both external and internal. With its defeat in the First Opium War in 1842, China was forced to enter into the Treaty of Nanjing (Nanking), which provided for the virtual economic rape of the country. Ports were forced open to Western trade, others were seized outright, the British were given Hong Kong, the import-export rate was set and not to be changed except by mutual consent, and the Chinese were forced to pay heavy reparations. The Treaty of Nanjing ended China's economic dominance in the region. Following Nanjing, China was forced into several humiliating agreements with Western powers, some of which impaired its sovereignty: a most-favored-nation clause in a supplement to Nanjing; another one deprived Chinese courts of the right to try foreign citizens, but rather turned suspected criminals over to their own justice systems for trial; and yet another allowed the French to force Catholic, and later Protestant, recognition by the Buddhist state. Such "agreements" created a nearly universal and vehement dislike for foreigners in China, particularly those from the West who had been involved in the Opium War. Along with economic intervention in China, the West also engaged in a more humiliating form of meddling, that of the Christian missions. Following the Opium War thousands of Christian missionaries flocked to China and began converting as many Chinese as they could. Christianity was exceptionally offensive to Chinese traditionalists because it seemed contrary to the teaching of Confucius, Buddha, and the Tao. The military, too, suffered under Western meddling, and the Chinese army would become a shadow of its former self. Still suffering from its total defeat in the Opium War, the imperial Manchu army was completely smashed by Japan in the Sino-Japanese War (1894–1895). The Japanese forced China to recognize Korean independence and took Taiwan and other territories.

Domestically, China verged on chaos. The increasing number of Christian converts caused a fissure within the common Chinese society, which had remained virtually unchanged for centuries. Also, local officials grew exceedingly vocal in their opposition to the government in Beijing and its continued bungling of affairs with the West and during the Sino-Japanese War. Such rifts further divided the country into regional camps either in favor of or in opposition to Beijing. Adding to the turmoil, the rainy seasons in 1898 and 1899 brought horrendous flooding, wiping out crops and causing subsequent famine.

Thus, the ground was fertile for the Boxers' insurgency, especially in the northern provinces of Shandong (Shantung), Chihli, and Shanxi (Shansi). Chinese xenophobes were well established at the court of the dowager empress Cixi (T'zu Hsi) (1834–1908), and they suggested to the Boxers that they could gain the favor of Cixi if the insurgents would change their tactics toward the Qing dynasty (which was sometimes called the Manchu dynasty because its elite originated in Manchuria, leading most Chinese—like the Boxers—to consider the Qing itself an occupying "foreign" power). Nevertheless, the Boxers' slogan now changed from "Sweep away the Qing, destroy the foreigners!" to "Support the Qing, destroy the foreigners!" A union of the Manchu conservatives and the radical Boxers took place, quickly yielding the governorship of Shaanxi (Shensi) for the Boxer Yu Xian (Yu Hsien; d. 1901). Cixi now secretly approved of the Boxer harangues against the foreigners, and when armed bands began terrorizing foreigners and Christian converts, she covertly supported them while outwardly claiming there was nothing that could be done about the rogues.

By the end of 1899, it was unsafe for any foreigners to leave the immediate area of their settlements. Any known

Chinese Christian was at risk. By May 1900 Boxer bands roamed throughout northern China, essentially controlling Beijing. After repeated diplomatic attempts to relieve the pressure on its citizens, foreign powers, including Russia, Japan, France, Great Britain, and the United States, sent a small expeditionary force of 2,100 troops under British admiral E. H. Seymour (1840–1929). Landing on June 10, the expeditionary force attempted to make its way to Tianjin (Tientsin) and Beijing to evacuate the various legations. The expedition sailed to Tianjin and offered an ultimatum to the harbor forts to surrender or be destroyed; the forts responded by opening fire on the ships. The ships returned fire and after landing troops took the forts on June 17. The foreigners then marched troops toward Beijing, but Cixi sent Manchu forces to oppose them; the foreigners were harshly repulsed at Tang Ts'u on June 26, suffering heavy casualties of some 300.

In response to the taking of the forts, Cixi ordered that all foreigners be killed on sight. Boxers roamed Beijing, massacring more than 250 foreigners and countless Chinese Christians. On June 14 they laid siege to the foreign legations in Tianjin and on June 20 began their famous siege of Legation Street in Beijing. The German minister, Baron Klemens von Kettler (d. 1900), was brutally murdered as were many other members of the diplomatic legations in Beijing. The expeditionary force, now realizing that they were dealing with the full imperial Manchu army, doubled their force to 5,000 and made a concerted effort to take the city of Tianjin. On July 23 the allies stormed the city, led by the U.S. Ninth Infantry Regiment, which sustained heavy losses, including its regimental colonel, E. H. Liscum (d. 1900). The city was taken, however, and the legations were freed.

Noting the ferocity of the fighting at Tianjin, the allies again beefed up their forces, which eventually totaled 18,700 troops, including Russians, British, U.S., and French contingents. The situation in Beijing was grim for the residents of Legation Street as the allies began their assault on August 4. Meeting heavy Manchu resistance at Yang Cun (Yang T'sun), the allies forced back 10,000 imperial troops, reaching Beijing's outer walls on August 13. The Russians hastily launched an uncoordinated offensive against the Dong Bien (Tung Pien) Gate but were bloodily repulsed. After a Japanese attack was turned away at the Qi Hua (Ch'i Hua) Gate the following day, the Americans joined the Russians at Dong Bien and took the city. By the end of the siege, more than 80 civilian and legation guards were dead and an estimated 400 Chinese Christians had been killed. The foreign troops now moved through Beijing and northern China, suppressing any residual Boxer activity while looting and raping the population in the process.

The dowager empress fled Beijing for Xi'an (Sian), leaving the government in the hands of Li Hongzhang (Li Hung-chang; 1823–1901) and other advisers, who by December had reorganized the government and come to a settlement with the allies. The agreement was formally signed on September 7, 1901, and the Boxer Protocol made for the virtual partitioning of China. The harsh terms called for the execution of 10 high Chinese officials, including the Boxer Yu Xian, a permanent garrison in the legation quarter, the destruction of 25 Chinese forts and outposts, and an indemnity totaling $739 million after interest. Only the intervention of the United States kept the allies from actually carving up China. John Hay, wary of the dynastic politics of Europe, worried that any perceived slight to some duke or earl would touch off frosty relations among the Western powers and raise tariffs or close ports in response, leaving the "uninvolved and uninterested" United States locked out. More immediately, he understood that the foreign powers wanted to use the Boxer uprising as a pretext to abrogate the Open Door policy and carve up China; instead, Hay used the Boxer Protocol to reaffirm the policy. Hay issued a circular letter on July 3 stating it was the policy of the United States "to seek a solution which may bring about permanent safety and peace to China, preserve Chinese territorial and administrative entity, protect all rights guaranteed to friendly powers by treaty and international law, and safeguard for the world the principle of equal and impartial trade with all parts of the Chinese Empire." Essentially, he was guaranteeing the continued pseudosovereignty of China for trade purposes rather than face a partition that would leave the various powers to pursue whatever trade and tariff policies they desired in their spheres of influence. The dowager empress agreed to the protocol, with its harsh punitive indemnity, of which $24,500,000 was to go to the United States. China also was compelled to allow the stationing of troops in Beijing at the legations and along the route to the sea.

The door opened onto China at the beginning of the century took little account of the good or sovereignty of the Chinese people. That imperialism sat uneasily on the shoulders of the United States was clear, both from Hay's circular letter and from the fact that the United States reduced its indemnity to $12 million and in 1924 forgave the unpaid balance on the reduced amount. Yet the United States repeatedly acquiesced to violations of the Open Door policy that invited further incursion into China's sovereignty. The Taft-Katsura memorandum of 1905, between the United States and Japan, laid the foundation for a Japanese protectorate in Korea. The United States also acknowledged Japan's "special interests" in China by means of the Lansing-Ishii agreement of 1917, setting the stage for the 1932 Japanese invasion of Manchuria, which was one of the opening notes in the long overture to World War II.

More important, the entire Boxer affair signaled the last gasp of imperial China, the end of the Qing, or Manchu, dynasty, founded in 1644 when warriors had swept down from Manchuria and conquered China. The

stage was set for a revolution that would establish a short-lived republic (*see* CHINESE REVOLUTION) fraught with internal chaos and aggrieved by outside imperialism.

Further reading: Max Boot, *The Savage Wars of Peace: Small Wars and the Rise of American Power* (New York: Basic Books, 2002); Diana Preston, *Boxer Rebellion* (New York: Berkeley, 2001).

Boyars' Revolt (1564)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Boyars vs. the forces of Czar Ivan IV
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Muscovy, Russia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Boyars wanted to restore their traditional power; Ivan IV wanted to consolidate his rule as the first "czar of all the Russias."
OUTCOME: The Boyars' Revolt was crushed and Ivan's absolute power established.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Ivan IV (1530–84), known as "The Terrible," was the first Russian ruler to be crowned czar (emperor) of all the Russias. At the time of his birth Russia was not a single kingdom, but a collection of disparate principalities and fiefdoms loosely governed by a class of noblemen called the boyars, of which Ivan's father, the Muscovite Vasili III (1505–33), was one. When Vasili died in 1533, the three-year-old Ivan nominally ascended the Muscovite throne. The real power was wielded by Ivan's mother, Helen (d. 1538), and a junta of boyars, who continually waged brutal war on one another. After Helen's death (possibly by poisoning) in 1538, Ivan was subjected to sadistic abuse by his boyar mentors and advisers. This made him all the more determined to free himself from boyar domination. In January 1547 he was crowned czar of all the Russias. The word is a Russian derivation of the Latin *caesar* (emperor), and, indeed, under the tutelage of Macarius (c. 1482–1563), metropolitan of the Orthodox Church, Ivan developed the doctrine of "Moscow—the Third Rome." He intended to become the absolute ruler of a unified and greatly expanded Russian empire, with Moscow at its center, much as the city of Rome had served as the nucleus of the vast Roman Empire.

From 1547 to 1564 Ivan set about subjugating the boyars. Shortly after he became czar, a fire of mysterious origin destroyed much of Moscow. Rivals of the Glinskys—the family of which Ivan's mother had been a member—blamed the fire on them and incited a mob against the family. Their elimination was a mortal wound to the boyar aristocracy, and Ivan systematically appointed in place of the boyars a selected council of nonaristocrats whose advice he followed. Ivan initiated a program of reforms that centralized Russian government in Moscow even as the territories of Muscovy expanded. Suddenly, in 1560, fearing treason, Ivan dissolved the selected council. It was from this point that Ivan embarked upon a regime of political terror that would become the subject of legend, literature, art, opera, and film. Thousands were tortured and killed at his behest. The czar kept a list of his victims—the documents that survive include 4,000 names—and piously donated money to churches and monasteries to pray for their souls.

In 1564 Prince Andrei Kurbsky (1528–83), Ivan's closest military adviser—and a boyar—defected to Lithuania. This incited other boyars to open rebellion, and it further exacerbated Ivan's ruthlessness. However, Ivan was keenly aware that his persecution of the boyars had earned him the loyalty of the Russian people. He now manipulated that loyalty by leaving Moscow to settle in nearby Aleksandrovskaia Sloboda. Here he announced his intention to abdicate. The people of Muscovy, vastly preferring the rule of a "mad" czar to that of the boyars, begged Ivan to remain on the throne. He agreed in exchange for the payment to him of a large indemnity and, more important, for the metropolitan's explicit permission to eliminate the principal boyars within an *oprichnina,* a royal domain that would be under his direct and exclusive control. The permission secured, Ivan appointed a band of *oprichniki,* a secret police force charged with clearing his realm of all the landed aristocracy. The boyars' revolt was utterly and permanently crushed. By the time Ivan abolished the *oprichnina* and the *oprichniki,* the influence and power of the boyars had been vastly diminished.

See also RUSSIAN CIVIL WAR (1425–1453); RUSSIAN-TARTAR WAR.

Further reading: Geoffrey A. Hosking, *Russia and the Russians: A History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2001); Henry Troyat, *Ivan the Terrible* (New York: Sterling, 2001).

Bozeman Trail, War for the (Red Cloud's War) (1866–1868)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Oglala Sioux vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vicinity of the Bozeman Trail in Montana and Wyoming
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Oglala chief Red Cloud resisted encroachment by white emigrants.
OUTCOME: Red Cloud's forces prevailed; whites receded from the trail.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Fetterman Massacre: Indians, 1,500; U.S. Army, 80; other

conflicts involved varying numbers of Indians and army troops.
CASUALTIES: 80 U.S. Army troops killed in the Fetterman Massacre (December 21, 1866); other conflicts, totals unknown; Indian casualties, about 300 killed or wounded.
TREATIES: Medicine Lodge Creek (1867) and Fort Laramie (1868)

By the end of 1866, the Teton Sioux had agreed to withdraw from the vital Bozeman Trail—a route from northeast Colorado through central Wyoming, then north to the southwestern Montana gold fields near Virginia City—and allowed westering whites free passage on it. However, the Oglala chief Red Cloud (c. 1822–1909) feared that the Bozeman Trail was an avenue of invasion, and he refused not only to sell the trail and withdraw from it, but warned army officials that he would not allow whites even to use it.

Faced with this threat, Colonel Henry B. Carrington (1824–1912) was dispatched from Fort Laramie on June 17, 1866, to garrison three forts along the Bozeman Trail. Fort Reno was at the forks of the Powder River, and Fort Phil Kearny (his headquarters) was sited at the forks of Piney Creek. Leaving Wyoming and crossing into Montana, two companies under Captain Nathaniel C. Kinney (1814–81) established Fort C. F. Smith near the Bighorn River. Carrington, a plodding and methodical officer, lavished much time and attention on construction, in the meantime ignoring the proximity of hostile Indians. Red Cloud did not wait for the forts to be completed before he began harassing them. Urged by his subordinates to take the offensive, Carrington continued to work on the forts and insisted on maintaining a defensive posture only.

At length, one of his officers, Captain William J. Fetterman (c. 1833–66), began boasting that with a mere 80 men he could ride through the entire Sioux nation. As a bitter winter closed in on Fort Phil Kearny, fuel wood became a matter of high priority, and wood-gathering parties were regularly dispatched. On December 6, 1866, Red Cloud's warriors attacked a wagon train hauling wood to the fort. Carrington chose his boastful captain and another officer, Lieutenant Horatio S. Bingham (1838–67), to lead 30 cavalrymen in an effort to drive the Sioux west while he himself, with 25 mounted infantrymen, would cut them off from behind. Poor coordination and inexperienced personnel caused the operation to fail.

Emboldened, the Indians, more than 1,500 warriors strong, attacked another wood train on December 21. Again, Carrington sent Fetterman to relieve the besieged train, warning him to maintain a defensive posture. Fetterman hand picked a force of 49 experienced infantrymen. Lieutenant George W. Grummond (c. 1835–67) followed him out of the stockade with another 27 cavalrymen. Fetterman disobeyed his orders and launched an offensive against the raiding party, an action that resulted in his death and the loss of his entire command, including the men under Grummond.

The FETTERMAN MASSACRE, brilliantly accomplished by a daring young Oglala Sioux warrior named Crazy Horse (c. 1842–77), was a stunning defeat and a bitter humiliation for the army. However, the Oglalas failed to repeat their triumph on August 1, when they attacked a group of hay cutters near another post of Carrington's command, Fort C. F. Smith, in the so-called Hayfield Fight. The next day, August 2, they again attacked woodcutters near Fort Phil Kearny in what became celebrated as the Wagon Box Fight (called this because the soldiers took refuge behind a makeshift breastwork of wagon bodies, or "boxes"). The soldiers who fought these engagements were equipped with modern breach-loading rifles, not the cumbersome muzzle-loaded weapons Fetterman's men had carried. As a result, the attackers were stunned by the rapidity of the soldiers' fire and suffered heavy casualties. Red Cloud did not, however, sue for peace.

For its part, the army did not want peace, either. Outraged by the Fetterman Massacre, General William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91), commander of all forces in the West, ordered a campaign of Sioux extermination. Constrained by congressional misgivings over the military treatment of the Indians, Sherman in the end restricted action to a punitive campaign against the tribes of the central and southern Plains, the Southern Cheyenne, the Southern Arapaho, Kiowa, and Oglala and Southern Brule Sioux. He dispatched General Winfield Scott Hancock (1824–86) to carry out the assignment.

The costly campaign that would be called Hancock's War (*see* HANCOCK'S CAMPAIGN) failed and prompted a congressionally mandated "peace offensive" on the southern and central Plains to complement the peace activities in the north. Two sets of treaties were negotiated, at Medicine Lodge Creek, Kansas, in 1867, and at Fort Laramie the next year. The Fort Laramie treaties gave to Red Cloud most of what he had fought for, including the designation of the Powder River country as "unceded Indian territory," the establishment of a Great Sioux Reservation in all of present-day South Dakota west of the Missouri, hunting privileges outside the reservation, and a pledge that the whites would abandon the Bozeman Trail. This, of course, seemed an admission of defeat in the War for the Bozeman Trail, but by 1868 the transcontinental railroad was rapidly pushing west, and it was clear that the Bozeman Trail, on the verge of obsolescence, was no longer worth fighting for.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Robert M. Utley, *Frontiersmen in Blue: The U.S. Army and the Indian, 1848–65* (New York: Macmillan, 1967); Richard S. Wheeler, *Dodging Red Cloud* (New York: M. Evans, 1987).

Brabant Revolution (1789–1790)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Brabant (Flemish duchy) vs. Austria (with Prussian aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Brabant (portion of present-day Belgium and Netherlands)
DECLARATION: Declaration of independence, 1789
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spurred by religious issues, Brabant declared independence from the Austrian Netherlands.
OUTCOME: Internal dissension weakened the independence movement, and Austria reasserted control of the duchy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Brabant troops, 7,000; Austro-Prussian forces, 24,000
CASUALTIES: Brabant, 3,599 killed or wounded; Austria and Prussia, 603 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

The Flemish duchy of Brabant, today part of Belgium and the Netherlands, was part of the Austrian Netherlands and under the control of the Austrian Hapsburg emperor Joseph II (1741–90), who was also Holy Roman Emperor. In 1789 he introduced broad changes in local administration and in the church. These reforms infringed on civil rights in the region, including those guaranteed by medieval charters. The most famous right trampled was the "Joyeuse Entrée" (Joyous Entry), a veritable model for the charter of all low country provinces. Moreover, the reforms trespassed on the teaching and policy of the region's conservative Catholic church. Backed by local church leaders, the Patriot Party declared Brabant independent and Henry van der Noot (1731–1827) led a popular revolt in the duchy, beating back invading Austrian troops at the Battle of Turnhout. This victory spurred the creation of a constitution early in 1790, but internal disputes soon rocked the independence movement. The two principal leaders, Henri van der Noot and Jean-François Vonck (1743–92), represented opposite agendas. Noot's followers were conservatives opposed to representative government, whereas Vonck's constituents, the Vonckists, favored democracy. In the meantime, Joseph II, who was more liberal than most other Hapsburg monarchs, agreed to restore the former privileges of the Austrian Netherlands. However, Joseph was dead before the end of 1790, and the new Holy Roman Emperor, Leopold II (1747–92), repealed Joseph's concessions and forcibly reasserted full Hapsburg authority in Brabant and the rest of the Austrian Netherlands. Hapsburg hegemony did not last long. Swept by the tide of the FRENCH REVOLUTION (1789–1799) and its aftermath, resistance to Hapsburg rule continued, and Belgium declared independence from the Netherlands in 1830.

See also DUTCH INVASION OF BELGIUM.

Further reading: Bernard A. Cook, *Belgium: A History* (New York: Peter Lang, 2002).

Brasidas's Invasion (424–423 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chalcidice, other cities formerly allied with Athens, and Sparta vs. Athens
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Overtaxed client cities of Athens sought relief through rebellion and alliance with Sparta.
OUTCOME: Nondecisive, ending in a truce between Athens and Sparta, but not governing all of their allies
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Brasidas's army, 2,000; size of opposing forces unknown, but certainly much greater
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Nicias concluded in 423 B.C.E.

Brasidas's (d. 422 B.C.E.) invasion of Thrace may be considered part of the Second (Great) PELOPONNESE WAR (431–404 B.C.E.) or may be treated as a separate conflict related to the larger war. It was the crippling debt Athens incurred in prosecuting the Second Peloponnesian War that prompted Cleon (d. 422) of Athens to triple the levy of taxes on Athens's allies in 424. Thus burdened, Chalcidice and other Athenian-allied cities rebelled. In this action they sought the help of Sparta. The *ephors* (Spartan ruling magistrates) commissioned Brasidas to lead fewer than 2,000 soldiers, including helot hoplites as well as mercenary troops, to invade Thrace.

Brasidas, a great general, swiftly advanced northward through Thessaly, twice engaging and twice defeating Athenian armies along the way. These victories enabled him to recruit the aid of the rebellious cities, which stood Brasidas in good stead when he attacked Amphipolis, the chief Athenian colony on the Chalcidice Peninsula in eastern Macedonia. Because the Athenian fleet under Thucydides (c. 460–c. 400) failed to act, Brasidas and his small army took the city. Cleon responded first by exiling Thucydides (who would subsequently gain enduring fame as the great chronicler of the war) then in 423 by personally leading an attack against the captured city. Brasidas sortied out of from behind the city's walls to meet the Athenians in battle. He hit the Athenian left flank hard, causing its collapse. Although the center and right counterattacked, the troops, disheartened, soon became disorganized, then broke and fled.

In the course of the battle, both Cleon and Brasidas were killed, a fact that induced Sparta and Athens to conclude the Peace of Nicias (after the leader of the Athenian council). The terms of this long truce were 50 years of

peace, and while this ended direct conflict between Sparta and Athens, its terms did not govern the allies of both sides, who continued to fight.

Further reading: Stanley Casson, *Macedonia, Thrace and Illyria: Their Relations to Greece from the Earliest Times Down to the Time of Philip, Son of Amyntas* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1971); Thucydides, *The Peloponnesian War,* ed. by Richard W. Livingstone (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1960).

Brazil, Dutch War in *See* SUGAR WAR.

Brazilian Revolt (1893–1895)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Insurgents vs. dictatorial government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Principally southern Brazil
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Overthrow of a harsh military dictatorship
OUTCOME: Despite numerous rebel successes, factionalism within the rebel forces undermined the revolutionary movement; the government remained in power.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Insurgents under Mello, 6,000+; government forces, 32,110
CASUALTIES: Insurgents, 700 killed or wounded (including 300 executed); government forces, 540 killed or wounded (including 300 executed)
TREATIES: None

On November 15, 1889, General Manuel Deodoro da Fonséca (1827–92) led a military junta in a bloodless coup that removed Emperor Dom Pedro II (1825–91) from the Brazilian throne and brought to an end the Empire of Brazil. The deposed monarch was exiled to Portugal, and Fonséca oversaw the creation of a provisional government. Shortly after this, the provisional government proclaimed the United States of Brazil, a republic. The institution of the new regime did not end the unrest throughout the country, however. In 1891 Floriano Peixoto (1839–95), Brazil's first vice president, replaced Fonséca, who had been elected the nation's first president. The popular hope was that Peixoto would be an improvement on Fonséca, who had ruled as a brutal dictator. In fact, Peixoto, like Fonséca a general, proved just as dictatorial, defending his harsh regime with a claim that the nation needed a military dictator to sweep out the vestiges of a corrupt empire. Fearful that Brazil would be unable to escape from the iron grip of Peixoto, on September 7, 1893, Admiral Custodio de Mello (1845?–1962), commanding most of the Brazilian navy—several vessels riding in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro—called for Peixoto's resignation. When Peixoto refused, Mello bombarded Rio, an action that prompted foreign ministers in the city to mediate the conflict and thereby avert extensive destruction.

Despite the bombardment, only one of the forts defending Rio went over to the rebels. Much of the navy and all of the marines and army remained loyal to the Peixoto government. After six months of inconclusive skirmishing, Mello put the rebel naval forces under the command of Admiral Luis Saldanha da Gama (d. 1895) and joined the rebel forces known as Maragatos, who were led by Gumercindo Saraiva (1852–94). With these forces Mello participated in the capture of 1,000 government troops at Rio Negro on November 24, 1893. Of these, 300 were summarily executed, provoking the government to retaliate by executing 300 rebels at Boi Preto during April 1894.

In the meantime, Saldanha da Gama attacked the government arsenal at Niteroi on February 9, 1894, and was badly beaten. He surrendered most of the rebel fleet on March 13, 1894, but continued to fight.

The biggest land battle of the revolt came on June 29, 1894, at Paso Fundo, in which the rebels were defeated, with the loss of some 400 killed and wounded. Government losses were little more than half that number. Then, on June 24, 1895, Saldanha da Gama was killed at the (land) Battle of Pedro Osorio. This destroyed the final vestige of the revolt. By this time Peixoto was no longer president of Brazil. Having been defeated in the elections of 1894, he peacefully resigned his office.

See also BRAZILIAN REVOLUTION; BRAZILIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Robert M. Levine, *The History of Brazil* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1999); Robert M. Levine and John J. Crocitti, eds., *The Brazil Reader: History, Culture, Politics* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1999).

Brazilian Revolt (1964)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Elements of the Brazilian military vs. backers of the civilian government under President João Goulart
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Primarily Rio de Janeiro
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conflict of militarists and rightists vs. liberal civilian government
OUTCOME: Military coup, with suppression of the civilian government and the left wing generally
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable; most of the military sided with the right-wing insurgents.
CASUALTIES: Minimal
TREATIES: None

The liberal, leftist president of Brazil, João Goulart (1918–76), alienated most of the military with his response to a March 25, 1964, action by dissident sailors and marines. About 1,400 dissidents protesting the arrest of the president of the Sailors and Marines Association seized a trades union building. The minister of the navy demanded their surrender; the protesters refused. When army troops confronted them two days later, they surrendered and were immediately pardoned. Military leaders were outraged both by Goulart's initial failure to take action to arrest the protesters and by his subsequent support of the amnesty. Goulart agreed to revisit the issue of amnesty, but, unpersuaded of Goulart's loyalty to the military, the Fourth Military Region mounted a revolt on March 31, 1964. Other branches of the military joined what amounted to a full-scale military revolution.

Goulart had a small cadre of troops loyal to him. They attacked the garrison occupying Rio de Janeiro but were defeated. With that, the military had control of the city. In a last-ditch effort to defeat the coup, the General Confederation of Workers called a strike that effectively brought normal business to a halt. Despite this, the military carried out the coup, and Goulart fled to Uruguay. With Goulart out of the way, the new regime carried out mass arrests of leftists and suspected communists. This was followed by a general purge of members of congress and other government officials who had been affiliated with Goulart's Labor Party. Despite the oppressive acts of the coup leaders, many remained hopeful that the military takeover was no more than a glitch in Brazil's postwar democracy. In fact, the new military dictatorship lasted more than two decades and created much bitterness throughout their very large country.

See also BRAZILIAN REVOLUTION.

Further reading: Robert M. Levine, *The History of Brazil* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1999); Robert M. Levine and John J. Crocitti, eds., *The Brazil Reader: History, Culture, Politics* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1999).

Brazilian Revolution (Gaucho Revolution) (1930)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conservative elements (mostly from São Paulo) vs. Liberal elements (mostly from Minas Gerais)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Brazil
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A disputed election and economic crisis triggered a revolution culminating in a coup.
OUTCOME: A coup in which the liberal candidate replaced the conservative president
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Fewer than 100, mostly in the northeast
TREATIES: None

Because of the involvement of partisans of Getúlio Dornelles Vargas (1883–1954), governor of the state of Rio Grande do Sol, whose citizens are popularly known as *gauchos,* this bloodless conflict is often called the Gaucho Revolution. Brazil, like most of the world's countries, was hit hard by the Great Depression. The collapse of the nation's agricultural markets, especially coffee, created much voter discontent as the elections of 1930 drew near. Barred by law from another term, the incumbent Washington Luiz Pereira Souza (1869–1957) designated Julio Prestes (1898–1946) as the conservative candidate to stand for election. Like Luiz, Prestes was a native of São Paulo, and annointing him violated the informal tradition of allowing candidates from the two Brazilian states of São Paulo and Minas Gerais to alternate in selecting presidential candidates. Accordingly, in the election leaders in Minas Gerais threw their support behind Vargas. Prestes was declared the winner of the March 1930 election, a result that touched off the revolution.

The first step was a survey of army units carried out by one of Vargas's aides. It was determined that widespread support for Vargas existed among the military, a support force that was reinforced by the hard-pressed civilian working class. Armed with this intelligence, Vargas in October 1930 called for a rebellion. Assembling a body of troops, he boarded a train for Rio. Disembarking, he and his followers, mostly young military officers, encountered no opposition throughout most of the country. In the northeast, however, street fighting was sharp, although casualties were fewer than 100. Vargas not only forced Luiz to step down, he sent Prestes into flight. (Prestes found refuge with the British legation). Pledging a program of liberal economic and political reforms, Vargas assumed the presidency and would dominate Brazilian politics for the next 25 years.

See also BRAZILIAN REVOLT (1964).

Further reading: Robert M. Levine, *The History of Brazil* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1999); Robert M. Levine and John J. Crocitti, eds., *The Brazil Reader: History, Culture, Politics* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1999).

Brazilian War of Independence (1822–1825)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Brazil (under Dom Pedro) vs. Portugal (under John VI)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Brazil and its coastal waters
DECLARATION: The Grito y Ypiranga (Declaration of Independence), 1822
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dom Pedro, son of Portugal's King John VI, wished to rule Brazil as a kingdom in its own right, independent of Portugal.

OUTCOME: Brazil won independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Fewer than 10,000 men on each side.
CASUALTIES: Very light; at most a few hundred killed or wounded.
TREATIES: None

In 1807 the Portuguese royal family fled Portugal as Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) invaded the country. They settled in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, which became the seat of Portuguese government in exile. During his residence in Brazil, John VI (1769–1826) of Portugal instituted a series of progressive reforms, including the removal of trade restrictions and other measures that essentially put Brazil on an equal footing with the mother country, Portugal. Despite John's positive steps, the wave of revolution that was sweeping South America touched Brazil and created unrest. In 1821 John VI returned to Portugal, leaving his son Dom Pedro (1798–1834) to rule as prince regent. Once he was back in Portugal, John VI began rolling back his reforms, reducing Brazil to its former inferior colonial status. In response, Dom Pedro issued the Grito y Ypiranga of 1822, a proclamation of Brazilian independence. He followed this by crowning himself Pedro I, emperor of Brazil, on December 1, 1822.

Resistance to Emperor Pedro I was surprisingly light. Indeed, although Brazil was the biggest of the South American nations, its war of independence would prove minimally violent. Only the Portuguese garrisons stationed at the seaports of the north offered a serious challenge. On February 19, 1822, Portuguese forces secured Bahia (then called Salvador). Each side suffered about 100 casualties. In August the independence army, with about 8,000 men, repeatedly attempted to retake Bahia, but without success.

On November 8 Portuguese forces attempted to lift a siege of Piraja but were repulsed with the loss of 80 men. In a second attack, on November 19, 50 runaway slaves serving with the Portuguese were captured and summarily executed.

Recognizing that the land war was not prevailing against the Portuguese, Pedro commissioned British admiral Thomas Cochrane (1775–1860) to take command of the Brazilian fleet. Cochrane had a half-dozen ships to oppose the Portuguese fleet of 13. Despite this disparity, Cochrane sailed for Bahia on April 3, 1823. He fought an indecisive battle on May 4 but then blockaded the port of Bahia. Cochrane did prevent the Bahia garrison from leaving, but he was unable to defeat the Portuguese fleet in a head-on fight. In a stroke of great brilliance, he outran the Portuguese fleet and sailed to Maranhão, defended by a small Portuguese garrison. Mainly through sheer bluff, Cochrane persuaded the Portuguese to surrender the town on July 26. This was followed by the surrender of Pará without a fight. The Portuguese fleet reached Maranhão to find itself facing Brazilian guns. With this, the fleet set sail for Portugal, leaving Brazil independent. The Brazilian frigate *Niteroi,* under British command, pursued the fleeing fleet all the way to Portugal and inflicted considerable damage.

As for Brazil, some anarchists revolted against the new regime, but this rebellion was quickly extinguished. Cochrane was pressed into service in September 1824 to crush a secessionist movement in Pernambuco, and 16 secessionist ringleaders were executed.

See also BRAZILIAN REVOLT (1964); BRAZILIAN REVOLUTION.

Further reading: Robert M. Levine, *The History of Brazil* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1999); Robert M. Levine and John J. Crocitti, eds., *The Brazil Reader: History, Culture, Politics* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1999).

Breton Succession, War of the (1341–1365)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Primarily Brittany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conflict over the succession to the Breton throne
OUTCOME: France was compelled to recognize the claim to the Breton throne of John de Montfort, England's candidate for succession.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce of Malestroit, 1342; agreement between Charles V and John de Montfort, recognizing Montfort's claim to the Breton throne, 1365.

This conflict over the succession to the Breton throne may be viewed as a phase of the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR or as a separate war. It followed on the death in 1341 of John III (1312–41), duke of Brittany, who left no heir. The duke's half brother, John de Montfort (d. 1345), and nephew-in-law, Charles de Blois (c. 1319–64), pressed rival claims, John de Montfort seeking the support of England's Edward III (1312–77) and Charles de Blois the backing of Philip IV (1293–1350) of France.

England and France both invaded Brittany, fighting inconclusive engagements at Rennes, Nantes, and Vannes in 1342. Pope Clement VI (1291–1352) intervened to broker the Truce of Malestroit, a shaky peace that was broken in 1345 when the English attacked and besieged French outposts along the border of Brittany. English forces attacked elsewhere in southern France as well. Fighting continued sporadically and without definitive result until 1347, when the English captured Charles de Blois near

Roche-Darien. Although Charles was imprisoned in the Tower of London for the next nine years, the fighting in Brittany continued under the direction of Charles's wife, Jeanne de Penthièvre (1319–84). Hostilities were punctuated by frequent, brief truces.

One of these truces was broken by the celebrated Battle of the Thirty, known in French as the Combat des Trentes, on March 27, 1351. An English commander, John Bramborough (d. 1351), persisted in ravaging the district of Josselin in Brittany, whereupon the French commander, Jean de Beaumanoir (d. 1366), challenged Bramborough to special combat. Each side chose 30 champions, knights, and squires, who fought with lances, swords, daggers, and maces. The French champions prevailed, although all the combatants were either dead (among these was Bramborough) or seriously wounded. This battle halted the English depredations in Josselin, but the French suffered a serious defeat at Mauron the following year, which nearly stopped the war.

In 1364 John de Montfort sent a force commanded by John Chandos (d. 1370) to lay siege to Auray. Charles de Blois was released from the Tower in 1356, and, with his best general, Bertrand du Guesclin (1320–80), led an army to relieve Auray. They attacked the siege lines on September 29, 1364, only to suffer a stiff counterattack that sent their army into retreat. Chandos pursued and hit the French flank, routing the army and prompting Auray to surrender to the English. Charles was killed in the battle and Guesclin captured (though subsequently ransomed). The Battle of Auray proved decisive concerning the Breton succession. In 1365 Charles V (1338–80) of France recognized John de Montfort's claim to the throne. If the French king had expected to purchase a new ally by his recognition, he was mistaken. John carefully maintained the neutrality of Brittany with regard to the conflicts of England and France.

Further reading: Patrick Galliou, *The Bretons* (London: Blackwell, 1996); Julia M. H. Smith, *Province and Empire: Brittany and the Carolingians* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

British-Abyssinian War

See Ethiopia, British Expedition in.

British Expedition in Ethiopia

See Ethiopia, British Expedition in.

British Expedition to Tibet

See Tibet, British Expedition to.

British Reconquest of the Sudan

See Sudanese War (1896–1899).

British Revolt

See Boudicca's Revolt.

Bruce's Revolt (1306–1314)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of England's Edward I vs. forces of Scotland's Robert Bruce
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland and northern England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bruce led a Scottish rebellion against English rule.
OUTCOME: Partial eviction of the English from Scotland
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable, but Bruce was consistently outnumbered; he may have had 10,000 men at most.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Robert Bruce (1274–1329) was the grandson of an earlier claimant to the throne of Scotland. He had fought on the side of the Scots rebel William Wallace (1272?–1305) (*see* Wallace's Revolt) but shifted allegiance to England's Edward I (1239–1307) by 1302. Wallace was executed in 1305, and the following year, although still nominally in the service of Edward I, Bruce defiantly crowned himself king of Scotland at Scone. At this, an enraged Edward invaded Scotland and engaged Bruce's forces at the Battle of Methven, northwest of Perth, on June 19, 1306. Edward easily routed Bruce's outnumbered rebels, and Bruce, after a second defeat at Dalry (August 11), fled to remote Rathlin Island off the coast of Ireland. It is said that during his exile Bruce observed a spider weave its web with infinite patience. Somehow inspired by this example, he returned to Scotland in 1307 and quickly found an eager band of followers. He led them against English cavalry at the Battle of Loudoun Hill at Ayr, southwestern Scotland, in May 1307. With arrogant recklessness, English knights charged Bruce's pikemen and were duly decimated. The defeat at Loudon Hill outraged the aged and infirm Edward I, who, sick as he was with a wasting disease, personally led a campaign into Scotland. However, on July 7, 1307, he died at Burgh-by-Sands, near the Solway Firth. Edward I's son, Edward II (1284–1327), made a half-hearted foray into Scotland in 1310 but soon withdrew. Bruce used the interlude of peace to mend fences with enemies and to consolidate his forces for operations to clear the remaining English out of Scotland. Often he ventured into northern England on hit-and-run raids.

In 1311 Bruce attacked Durham and Hartlepool, evicting the English from these places, and by 1314 only Stirling, Dunbar, and Berwick remained under English control. By this time Bruce had secured recognition from France and had the backing of the Scots clergy. At this point most historians mark the conclusion of Bruce's

Revolt and the commencement of the SCOTTISH WAR (1314–1328).

See also ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1214–1216).

Further reading: Christopher Rothero, *Scottish and Welsh Wars 1250–1400* (London: Osprey, 2000); Ronald McNair Scott, *Robert the Bruce: King of Scots* (New York: Carroll and Graf, 1996).

Buckingham's Revolt (1483)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The House of York vs. the House of Lancaster
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: An episode in the continuing struggle, called the War of the Roses, between the House of York and the House of Lancaster, two families of English royalty battling for the throne
OUTCOME: The throne passed to Henry VII.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Totals unknown; contemporary correspondence mentions 20,000 led by Richard converging on London.
CASUALTIES: Totals unknown. Little fighting occurred.
TREATIES: No formal treaties

The WARS OF THE ROSES (1455–1485) that gripped England for three decades were a sanguinary affair between the Yorkists and the Lancastrians that saw the crown pass back and forth between the two houses. The final phase of the war began in 1483 with the death of Edward IV (1442–83) and preparations for the ascension of his 12-year-old son, Edward V (1470–83) in April. Two months later a rebellion of nobles, led by Richard of Gloucester (1452–85), the brother of Edward IV and uncle of Edward V, and Henry Stafford (c. 1452–83), duke of Buckingham, placed Richard of Gloucester on the throne as Richard III.

For his support Buckingham was handsomely rewarded, but for some unknown reason he suddenly switched his loyalty. The earl of Richmond, Henry Tudor (r. 1485–1509), a Lancastrian supporter, conspired with Buckingham to rise against Richard in a coordinated rebellion in several regions of England. In October Buckingham led Lancastrian forces in Brecknock and Kent, but autumn rains kept him from uniting with supporters in the south. The rebellion quickly fell apart, and Buckingham went into hiding. He was betrayed and on November 2 arrested and executed in Salisbury for treason a short time later. Nevertheless, Henry was able to maintain Lancastrian support and two years later defeated Richard at the Battle of Bosworth, ending the Wars of the Roses and placing Henry on the throne as Henry VII.

Further reading: Antonia Fraser, ed., *The Wars of the Roses* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2000); A. J. Pollard, ed., *Wars of the Roses* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995); Alison Weir, *Wars of the Roses* (New York: Random House, 1996).

Buckshot War (1838)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Democratic Party members vs. Whig and anti-Masonic party members
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Harrisburg, Pennsylvania
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The disputed state election of 1838; factions vied for subsequent control of the state legislature.
OUTCOME: Democrats took control of the legislature by peaceful means.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: None

In the Pennsylvania state election of 1838, both the Democrats and their Whig and anti-Masonic opposition claimed victory and control of the Pennsylvania House of Representatives. Both factions gathered at the state house and elected speakers, and chaos threatened to interrupt the legislative session. The Whigs and anti-Masonics were led by future Radical Republican Thaddeus Stevens (1792–1868), who attempted to purge the Democrats by refusing to seat them. Supporters of the Democrats gathered from Philadelphia and encircled the state house, threatening violence. Stevens, along with other members of the Whigs and anti-Masonics, were forced to flee out a senate chamber window.

Pennsylvania governor Joseph Ritner (1780–1869), wary of bloodshed in his own backyard, requested President Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) to send federal troops. When Jackson refused, Ritner called out the state militia and supplied them with buckshot cartridges for riot control. The display of force, along with three Whigs voting with the Democrats, gave the Democrats the majority they needed to gain control of the house. The rest of the house members were seated, and order was restored without any bloodshed.

Further reading: Robert W. Coakley, *Role of Federal Military Forces in Domestic Disorders, 1789–1878* (Collingdale, Pa.: DIANE Publishing, 1996).

Bukhara, Fall of (1220)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols under Genghis Khan vs. Khwarizm Empire under Shah Mohammad
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bukhara and environs

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pursuit of Shah Mohammad after his defeat at the Battle of Khojend
OUTCOME: Bukhara was destroyed, but Shah Mohammad escaped Genghis Khan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mongols, 100,000; Bukhara defenders, about 50,000
CASUALTIES: Described as "staggering," mostly the civilian inhabitants of Bukhara
TREATIES: None

Genghis Khan's destruction of Bukhara may be considered a phase of the First MONGOL-PERSIAN WAR, but, by virtue of its vast scale, many historians treat it as an independent conflict. Mohammad (fl. 1220), shah of the Khwarizm Empire (embracing modern-day Iran, Afghanistan, Turkmenistan, and portions of northern India), suffered defeat at the Battle of Khojend in the First Mongol-Persian War (1218–21) and was pursued by Genghis Khan to a position near Bukhara in central Uzbekistan. Here Mohammad set up a strong defensive line along the Jaxartes River. In February 1220 Genghis Khan attacked with massive forces deployed with the skill of a great military genius. He divided 10 cavalry divisions into four columns, sending three in a converging movement against Mohammad's right flank (near Samarkand) and personally leading the fourth—40,000 troops—against Bukhara from the west, the rear of Mohammad's army. Confronted by the precisely coordinated movement of more than 100,000 attackers, Mohammad focused all his attention on the three units attacking his right and pulled most of his men out of Bukhara. Thus, Genghis Khan was able to take the city after a brief siege. His troops sacked Bukhara, which was then accidentally burned. The loss of life was staggering: reports hold that every one of the city's inhabitants perished.

After destroying Bukhara, Genghis Khan and the other three columns continued on to Samarkand, which fell after a five-day siege. The city was heavily damaged but escaped complete destruction. As for Mohammad, he escaped and was hotly pursued by the armies of the khan.

Further reading: Paul Ratchnevsky, *Genghis Khan: His Life and Legacy* (London: Blackwell, 1993); Stephen Turnbull, *Genghis Khan and the Mongol Conquests 1190–1400* (London: Osprey, 2003).

Bulgar and Slav Raids (530–600)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgars and Slavs vs. the Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Balkan Peninsula, south to Greece and east to Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The trans-Danubian southward migration of the Bulgars and Slavs in the sixth century disturbed the frontiers of the Roman Empire.
OUTCOME: The raids, resulting from the migration, led to the permanent settlement of the Bulgars and Slavs, brought a mixture of the nomadic East and the sedentary Indo-Europeans into the trans-Danubian south, and established homelands that still exist today.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the early part of the sixth century, the Avars began to migrate south into the regions north of the Danube River, pushing the Bulgars—nomadic Asian descendants of the Huns and Avars who had resided north of the Caspian Sea—across the Danube and into southeastern Europe. The Slavs, an Indo-European people ethnically similar to the Germans, likewise were pushed south of the Danube. In fleeing the Avar hordes, the Bulgars and the Slavs were trying to make the best of their situation. Rather than push back to the north against a superior and more fierce enemy, especially after 534, they chose instead to brave the Carpathian Mountains and take to the traditional invasion routes into the Roman Empire along and across the Danube River valley.

Their raids were initially more social reconnaissance than military expeditions, but they soon became fueled by the allures of the Roman Empire in the east. The "barbarians" saw the wealth and stability of the empire and sought to incorporate themselves into such a world, while at the same time maintaining their autonomy. As the barbarian incursions grew ever more militant, the empire began garrisoning larger numbers of troops on the frontier in an effort to halt the migrations, but to no avail. The Bulgar-Huns invaded and secured Scythia and Moesia in 538 and Thrace, Illyricum, and Greece as far south as Corinth by 540. In 547 the Slavs, unopposed by the empire, overran Illyricum, which had only recently been retaken by the empire, and devastated the region. These incursions, however, were but a precursor of what was to come.

In 550 only the brilliance of the Roman general Germanius (fl. sixth century) saved the imperial legions against the Slavs at the Battle of Sardica. In 551 a force of more than 3,000 Slavs marched through Thrace and Illyricum and advanced as far south as the Aegean Sea. The following year they moved on Thessalonica and actually began to develop settlements there.

The Bulgars, for their part, were equally active in the trans-Danube. Beginning in 558 they pushed through Thrace and Illyricum, although they turned east, one army taking Thermopylae, the other moving toward Constantinople, threatening the very capital of the eastern

empire. By 559 the Bulgars, under the leadership of Zabergan (fl. 550s–560s), had reached the outer defenses of the city, which lay vulnerable because all its regular forces were in the field against the Persians on the one hand or against other barbarian raiders on the other.

The emperor Justinian (483–565), in a panic, called for his famed general Belisarius (505–565) to come out of retirement to defeat the barbarians. With a force of little more than 300 veteran cavalry troops and a few thousand recently inducted conscripts, Belisarius met the Bulgars outside the city walls at the Battle of Melanthius. After repulsing the Bulgar advance, Belisarius counterattacked and drove the barbarians away, saving Constantinople.

But they kept coming back. By 580 the barbarians had made permanent inroads into Thrace, Illyricum, and other parts of the Balkan peninsula. One final brutal invasion awaited, however, to cement their control of the region. In 582, while the Roman legions were desperately trying to stave off the siege of Sirmium by the Avars, the Slavs rushed into Thrace and Thessaly, ravaging the region and causing many to call it the darkest hour for the Eastern Empire.

The Bulgars, under the leadership of Isperich (fl. sixth century), then gained supremacy in the region over the Slavs and carved out an independent kingdom between the Balkan Mountains and the lower Danube, extending north into Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia. (Ironically, through intermingling over the centuries, Bulgaria would be essentially Slavonic by the dawn of the second millennium). After 582 incursions continued, but by that point the trans-Danubian south was firmly in the hands of the Bulgars and Slavs, both of whom established permanent kingdoms of their own, albeit now outside the empire itself.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (755–772).

Further reading: R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Bulgarian-Byzantine War (755–772)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgarians vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace (southeastern Balkans)
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bulgarian belligerency in the border regions of the Byzantine Empire
OUTCOME: Bulgarian forces were defeated but essentially gave up no territory.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Total Unknown, but Telets, leader of the Bulgars, was killed by his own men after they suffered heavy losses.
TREATIES: Bulgars signed a peace treaty with Constantine in 767, although war erupted five years later.

As the first of several ferocious conflicts between the nascent first Bulgarian kingdom and the Byzantines, the war established Thrace as the near-perpetual battleground between these two adversaries. Most often the Byzantine Empire dominated the conflicts.

Following the southward migrations of the Slavs and the Bulgars—a Turkish-speaking people of skilled warriors on horseback from north of the Black Sea—in the late sixth and early seventh centuries, the Bulgars were able to dominate the trans-Danubian region of the Balkans and establish the first Bulgarian kingdom in the eighth century. Almost all the migratory invasions of the barbarians in the previous centuries had passed through Thrace, a region of the southeastern Balkans dominated by the Bulgars, so much so that the Byzantine Empire had all but lost control of the territory. But none of the invading tribes could gain solid control, leaving Thrace a hotly contested area. The Byzantines, however, struggled to maintain as much a military presence in the overrun areas as possible.

Some years after the establishment of the Bulgarian kingdom around 681, the Bulgarian general Telets (731–764), who would become khan in 761, demanded tribute from Constantinople for the presence of a Byzantine garrison in Thrace. When Emperor Constantine V (718–775) refused, Telets led a Bulgarian invasion of Byzantium in 755 but was repulsed by Constantine that same year. In successive victories at the Battles of Marcellae in 759 and Anchialus in 763, the Byzantines handed the Bulgarian forces heavy losses, and Telets was subsequently executed by his own troops. Leaderless and beaten, the Bulgarians came to the bargaining table, where they signed a peace agreement with Constantine in 767.

Relative peace prevailed in the border regions that had remained status quo. When the Byzantines learned of an impending Bulgarian invasion in 772, however, Constantine launched a preemptive offensive and scored a decisive victory against the Bulgarians. It is not known, however, where the battle actually took place. The new Bulgarian khan, Telerig (r. 772–777), continued the war for three more years but quit the field in 775 shortly before Constantine's death.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (780–783); BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (808–817); BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (889–897).

Further reading: Robert Browning, *Byzantium and Bulgaria: A Comparative Study across the Early Medieval Frontier* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1974); R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Bulgarian-Byzantine War (780–783)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgaria vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Frequent Bulgarian invasions of Thrace in an attempt to wrestle the province back from the Byzantine empire
OUTCOME: Bulgars did not regain Thrace but did extract an annual payment from the empire in exchange for agreeing not to invade.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Nonaggression pact, 783

The second Bulgarian-Byzantine War was part of the continued efforts of the Byzantine Empire to subdue the nascent Bulgarian kingdom and to reconquer lost territory. Since the establishment of Bulgarian autonomy in 681, the two states had been at near-constant war. Throughout the conflicts the Byzantines gained dominance. After losing Thrace and a substantial amount of border territory along the eastern Balkan Peninsula following the first war (*see* BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR [755–772]), the Bulgarian's very existence seemed threatened.

Beginning in 780 Kardam (r. 773–803)—a general, or khan—staged a series of offensives into Thrace in an attempt to wrest that region from the Byzantines. Although the incursions were not a complete military success, they did have the effect of placing a heavy strain on Byzantine military resources as well as on the government. Following the death of Leo IV (r. 775–780) in 780, he was succeeded by his 10-year-old son, Constantine VI (770–c. 797). Leo's wife, Irene (752–803), became regent for Constantine, and her hold on the government was tenuous. The Bulgarian invasions exacerbated the situation and forced Irene to grant annual monetary concessions to Kardam and the Bulgarians in exchange for a nonaggression pact, which was concluded in 783.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (775–772); BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (808–817); BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (889–897).

Further reading: Robert Browning, *Byzantium and Bulgaria: A Comparative Study across the Early Medieval Frontier* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1974); R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Bulgarian-Byzantine War (808–817)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgaria vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bulgarian-Byzantine border provinces
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The ongoing struggle between the two states for dominance in the region
OUTCOME: Though the war was destructive to both sides, at its end Bulgaria and the Byzantine Empire lived harmoniously for several decades.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Total unknown; a 6,000-man Byzantine garrison was killed at Serdica in 809; the Byzantine army was annihilated at Verbitza Pass in 817; civilian casualities were also high at Pliska in 809, and in 817 after the Battle of Mesembria all 10,000 inhabitants at Adrianople were enslaved or slaughtered by Krum in 813.
TREATIES: None

Although ending in eventual defeat for the Bulgarians, their third war with the Byzantine Empire produced a formidable Bulgar leader. His name was Krum (d. 814), and little is known of him other than that he had an ability to make others put aside their own squabbles and unite under him. In 807 or 808 Krum seized the khanate of Bulgaria and united the Bulgarians of the Danube River valley with those living across the Carpathian Mountains in Pannonia and Transylvania—the only time such a union occurred in Bulgarian history. With his forces Krum completely annihilated the Avars. In the fall of 808 Krum marched his troops across the Balkan Mountains to the mouth of the Strymon River, where a large Byzantine army was encamped. Krum took to the field when the snows melted and attacked Serdica (Sofia) in spring of 809, slaughtering the entire 6,000-man Byzantine garrison.

Emperor Nicephorus I (d. 811) personally led his troops against Krum to avenge Serdica. Reaching the Bulgarian capital of Pliska by Easter morning of 809, Nicephorus found the city virtually undefended. The Byzantines fell upon it without mercy. Nicephorus then marched on Serdica to rebuild the garrison there, but his troops mutinied and he was forced to abandon the project. Krum's forces, however, were not inhibited.

Nicephorus next joined his Asian allies to the cause. An immense force marched to destroy the Bulgarians, again devastating Pliska. Krum's suit for peace was rejected, and the conflict continued.

On July 24, 811, the Byzantine army entered the Verbitza Pass in the Balkan Mountains, not realizing they were being observed by the Bulgarian forces. When darkness came the Bulgarians blockaded both ends of the gorge with heavy wooden palisades, trapping the Byzantines. At dawn Nicephorus expected an onslaught, but the Bulgarians held off during the day. When night fell the Bulgarians engaged the Byzantines through the night and into the next day. The majority of the Byzantine forces were slaughtered in the fighting. Survivors were burnt to death when the Bulgarians fired the palisades, or they were crushed under Bulgarian-induced landslides.

Only a few cavalry troops survived, and they were quickly tracked down and forced to flee over a great defile, plunging to their deaths in the gorge below. Nicephorus's body was recovered, and Krum lined his skull with silver and used it as a drinking vessel. The Verbitza Pass battle was one of the most thorough defeats in military history.

Nicephorus's son-in-law, Michael I Rhangabe (d. c. 843), became emperor and continued to battle the Bulgarians. Rhangabe was no match for Krum. The Bulgar leader drew the numerically superior Byzantine forces northeast of Adrianople and crushed them on June 21, 813, at the Battle of Versinikia. The defeat, however, must be laid at the feet of Leo the Armenian (d. 820), who withdrew his Anatolian forces from the field to protest Rhangabe's handling of the army. The Byzantine defeat cleared the route to Constantinople, and by June 17 the Bulgars were at the walls of the city. Leo was crowned emperor as Leo V, and he hoped to defeat Krum once and for all.

Leo called a meeting to discuss peace, but when Krum appeared Leo attempted to capture him. An indignant Krum exacted his revenge the following day. Unable to pierce the city walls, the Bulgarians waged a bloody campaign against the areas beyond the walls. Although vast amounts of territory and power lay at stake in the war, the struggle had devolved into a personal vendetta between the two leaders. Krum had brought the empire to its knees except for capturing Constantinople, but Leo still refused to accept terms.

Krum died suddenly, apparently of a stroke, in 814; three years later, in fall of 817 Leo took the Bulgar army by surprise at Messembria. Most Bulgarians were massacred before they awoke. Not satisfied, Leo ravaged the Bulgarian countryside, leaving the adults untouched but killing the children. Although the Bulgarians had not been completely defeated, Leo forced a 30-year peace upon them.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (775–772); BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (889–897).

Further reading: Robert Browning, *Byzantium and Bulgaria: A Comparative Study across the Early Medieval Frontier* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1974); R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Bulgarian-Byzantine War (889–897)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgaria vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Beginning as a trade war, the fourth Bulgarian-Byzantine clash quickly developed into a continuation of the long rivalry for control of the region.
OUTCOME: Status quo ante bellum
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: 897

After the conversion of Bulgaria's king Boris (d. 902) around 866, the Byzantines had hoped to live in peace with their new Christian neighbors. And so they did for the most part over the next three decades.

In 889, Boris abdicated and retired to a monastery near Preslav, leaving his kingdom to his eldest son and recent co-ruler, Vladimir (r. 883–893). But Vladimir, in a violent reaction to his father's policies, allied himself with the formerly powerful boyar aristocracy, who to a man detested Christianity. As the boyars assumed their old privileges and Bulgaria returned to its pagan ways, Boris burst forth in a rage from his monastery, took control of the country once more without much trouble, and deposed—and blinded—Vladimir. Summoning a great conference, he called on those assembled from throughout Bulgaria to declare his younger son, Symeon (858–927), their new king. They promptly did so, and he returned to the Preslav monastery for good.

Probably in his late twenties when he became king, Symeon had been educated in Constantinople. Though he had become a monk on his return to Bulgaria, he was both aggressive and ambitious, and he responded with enthusiasm and speed to his father's call. The misguided Byzantines, thinking him one of their own, were relieved by his ascension.

All went well for a year, before the Byzantine trade monopoly for Bulgaria was awarded to two protégés of the finance minister in Constantinople in 889. They immediately raised dramatically the import rates for Bulgarian goods and moved the entry point from Constantinople to Thessalonica, a destination all but unreachable for Bulgarian merchants. These changes crippled Bulgarian trade, and Symeon sent an embassy to Byzantium in protest, but it was ignored.

Incensed by both the Byzantine trade policies and lack of response, Symeon invaded Thrace in early 894 unopposed by the empire, which was engaged in war with Italy. The Byzantines' best general, Nicephorus Phocas (912–969) was able to steal away and hold the Bulgarians at bay while Emperor Leo VI (r. 775–780) attempted to garner assistance from the Magyars, who resided north of the Danube. The Magyars agreed to make war on the Bulgarians, but to answer this threat, the Bulgarians solicited the aid of the Pechenegs of the Russian steppes. After dealing with the Magyars (*see* BULGAR-MAGYAR WAR), Symeon turned his attention to Byzantium and crushed the imperial forces at the Battle of Bulgarophygon in 896. Symeon's victory essentially ended the war and resulted in the Byzantines paying an annual tribute to Symeon and a return to the

status quo ante bellum trade conditions, including the return of trading to Constantinople.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (775–772); BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (913–927); BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (981–1018).

Further reading: Robert Browning, *Byzantium and Bulgaria: A Comparative Study across the Early Medieval Frontier* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1974); R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Bulgarian-Byzantine War (913–927)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgaria vs. Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The majority of the Byzantine Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bulgarian czar Symeon's efforts to seize the Byzantine throne for himself after diplomatic efforts failed
OUTCOME: Repeated attacks on the Byzantine Empire failed to earn Symeon the imperial throne
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Marking the most significant territorial advances by the Bulgarian kingdom, the fifth Bulgarian-Byzantine war ended with Bulgaria still unable to breach the walls of Constantinople.

Emperor Constantine VII (905–959) ascended the Byzantine throne at the age of seven in 912, sparking a fierce struggle for power between his regent, Romanus Lecapenus (d. 948), and other members of the royal family interested in seizing power for themselves. Bulgarian king Symeon (864/865–927) quickly took advantage of the situation and invaded the empire, laying siege to Constantinople in 913. After negotiations with Romanus, Symeon agreed to withdraw his forces in exchange for an indemnity and Romanus's pledge that the young emperor would marry one of Symeon's daughters.

Symeon's plans were thrown aside the following year, however, when Constantine's mother, Zoë (fl. 906–920), seized the regency from Romanus and intimated that she had no interest in marrying her son to Symeon's offspring. Furious at having withdrawn his earlier attack on the Byzantine capital, Symeon launched another offensive against Constantinople in 914. In the process the Bulgarians captured Macedonia, Albania, and Adrianople that same year before again reaching the walls of Constantinople. Turned away, he made three more invasions, seizing the majority of the Balkan Peninsula in 916 and Thessaly, northern Greece, and Anchialus, winning a stirring battle there in 917. All told, Symeon would advance on the Byzantine capital four times by 927, each time gaining some concession but never breaching the city walls or gaining the throne for himself as he wished. That year the campaign came to an end with the 69-year-old Symeon's death.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (775–772); BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (981–1018).

Further reading: Robert Browning, *Byzantium and Bulgaria: A Comparative Study across the Early Medieval Frontier* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1974); R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Bulgarian-Byzantine War (981–1018)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgaria vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bulgaria and the western Byzantine Empire
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Primarily, the war was caused by the Bulgarian invasion of Thessaly five years earlier; however, it was also due to continuing belligerency between these two centuries-old rivals.
OUTCOME: Bulgarians submitted to Byzantine domination on the Balkan Peninsula.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Total unknown; at the Battle of Balathista 15,000 Bulgar prisoners were blinded
TREATIES: None

Marking the arrival of Basil II (c. 958–1025), known as "Basil the Bulgar-Slayer," the sixth Bulgarian-Byzantine conflict began with a moderate Bulgarian victory, but Basil established himself as a military master and routed the enemy. From obscure origins, the new Bulgarian czar, Samuel (d. 1014), was not secure enough on the throne before 980 to make his presence felt beyond his own borders. But the following year, he took advantage of Constantinople's preoccupation with numerous revolts (*see* BYZANTINE REVOLTS [976–989]) and war with the Greeks and barbarians north of the Black Sea to raid the empire unopposed. Hardly a summer went by without a Bulgarian invasion of Byzantine Thessaly in eastern Greece, and never a response from Constantinople. Then, in 986 Samuel laid serious siege to the Thessalonian city of Larissa, selling off its entire population save for one quisling family into slavery, an outrage that at last stirred the new Byzantine emperor to action.

In hopes of dominating the Bulgarians and establishing his authority in the region, Basil II personally assumed supreme command of the Byzantine army, and he launched an invasion of Bulgaria in order to lay siege to Serdica. For

some reason, Basil—after making his way through the mountains surrounding Serdicia at Trajan's Gate—stopped just short of the town, allowing Samuel and his forces to hurry up from Thessaly and occupy the high ground. When the Byzantines finally launched their siege in July, they were almost as short of food as the besieged, and imperial foraging parties were constantly harassed by Samuel's forces. Morale was low among Basil's hot and hungry troops, and he called off the attack after three weeks and headed for home. On the way back through Trajan's Pass, the Byzantines were ambushed in the mountains and cut to shreds by the Bulgarians.

Basil, however, remained supremely confident in his abilities, and eventually he was able to change the momentum of the war. Beginning in the summer of 998, Basil embarked on a brilliant campaign, establishing a fortified base of operations at Philippopolis (Plovdiv) and progressing from his headquarters, fortifying garrisons along the way and always remaining within the reach of his interior lines of communication and supply. In hard fighting, he took the Bulgarian capital, Ochrida, in 996 and won a tough campaign at Spercheios later that year. In 999 the Byzantines recaptured Serdica, and in spring 1001 recaptured Berea and Serbia in one offensive and Thessaly and Macedonia in another. Basil crushed a Bulgarian attempt to retake Serbia the same year and sacked Adrianople in 1003. By 1004 the Bulgarians had lost the entire eastern half of the Balkan Peninsula, ranging from Thessalonica north to the Danube River.

Basil's successes continued. In 1014 the Bulgars, aware of their limited offensive capabilities, attempted to block the path of the Byzantine forces at the narrow defile of Cimbalongus by laying heavy wooden palisades down rather than attempt an ambush. One of Basil's generals suggested leading a small force around the defile and flanking the Bulgars. The strategy worked; the Bulgars were trapped at the Battle of Balathista. Basil captured almost 15,000 Bulgarian troops and rather than slaughter them all, he blinded them, leaving every 100th man with one eye to lead the others back. When these 15,000 made it back to the Bulgarian capital, Samuel was overcome by the pathetic spectacle and died of shock, or so the story goes. Although the war would rage on for another four years, it was essentially over. The Bulgarians, leaderless after Samuel's death, were totally consumed, acceding to complete Byzantine authority over the entire Balkan Peninsula.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (775–772); BULGARIAN REVOLT (1040–1041).

Further reading: Robert Browning, *Byzantium and Bulgaria: A Comparative Study across the Early Medieval Frontier* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1974); R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997); Paul Stephenson, *The Legend of Basil the Bulgar-Slayer* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2003).

Bulgarian-Byzantine War (1261–1265)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgaria vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace
DECLARATION: No formal declaration known
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Byzantine attempts to regain Bulgaria as part of the empire.
OUTCOME: Byzantine Empire took portions of Macedonia and the Bulgarian port towns of Anchialus and Mesembria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

With the rise of the second Bulgarian empire in 1185, a Constantinople weakened by Muslim expansion and Byzantium's debilitating involvement in three Christian Crusades had been forced to grant autonomy to the Bulgars after more than 160 years of suzerainty. But the Byzantines never relinquished hope of regaining their hold over the Balkans, and, in the middle of the 13th century, a new emperor came to the throne determined to recapture some of the old Byzantine glory. Under Michael VIII (1224–82), Byzantium launched an attack on the chief Bulgarian ports in 1261, taking Anchialus and Messembria. Michael then ordered an offensive west of the Balkan Mountains in 1265. Macedonia was retaken, and the campaign was successful.

Before the campaign could be completed, Michael was recalled to Constantinople. On his way, however, his detail was ambushed and captured by Bulgarian forces. The Bulgarians ransomed the emperor for the promise of the return of the ports at Anchialus and Messembria. Michael agreed and recalled his troops from west of the Balkans, thus ending the war. Michael reneged on his agreement, however, and the ports were not returned as promised. The Bulgarians invaded the empire in 1272 to force their return but were defeated. Bulgaria never regained the ports.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (981–1018).

Further reading: Robert Browning, *Byzantium and Bulgaria: A Comparative Study across the Early Medieval Frontier* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1974); R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Bulgarian Revolt (1040–1041)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgars vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Balkan Peninsula
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Byzantine Empire's excessive taxation and other grievances precipitated a movement toward reasserting Bulgarian independence.
OUTCOME: The revolt was crushed following dissension among its leaders.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Under Symeon I (864/865–927), the Bulgarian Empire flourished, only to disintegrate under his successors. It soon fell to Byzantine domination, and was formally annexed in 1018. A revolt arose in an attempt to regain autonomy, but it was quickly crushed.

After the loss of independence in 1018, the Bulgarians were subject to harsh taxation, most notably taxes due in cash, and second-class treatment within the empire of their Byzantine conquerors. By 1040 the situation had reached the boiling point, and the grandson of Czar Samuel (d. 1014), Peter Deljan (r. 1040–41), rose in revolt, mostly in opposition to Byzantine policies toward Bulgaria but with an eye toward possibly reasserting Bulgarian autonomy. Gaining a significant following, Deljan was proclaimed czar in Belgrade that same year, and he shared the job of ruling the Bulgars with Prince Alusianus (fl. 1040), a holdover member of Bulgaria's former ruling family.

The Bulgar army was led by both Deljan and Alusianus, and they drove the Byzantine garrisons from western Bulgaria and then swept into northern Greece. In 1041 the rebel forces laid siege to Thessalonica, but their lack of discipline did them in. At the same time, a rift between Deljan and Alusianus occurred, and the latter set upon Deljan with a knife, carving up his face and removing his eyes and nose. The Byzantine forces at Thessalonica quickly defeated the fractious rebels, and the rising was crushed. Bulgaria would remain under the Byzantine yoke for more than a century and a half.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (981–1018).

Further reading: R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Bulgarian Revolt (1875)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgar nationalists vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bulgaria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bulgarians quest for independence from the Ottoman Empire
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; although the revolt was crushed, Bulgarian nationalists attacked the empire again a few months later.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Bulgarians suffered under the "Turkish yoke," the rule of the Ottoman Empire from the late 14th century. During Ottoman dominance, the Bulgarian nobility was destroyed, as was church and national independence. Bulgarian peasants were enslaved to Turkish masters, and the "blood tax" forced the young male children of Greek Orthodox Bulgarians to convert to Islam and to serve in the Ottoman army. The Bulgarian Revolt of 1875 failed but lit the fire for a later, more successful revolt (*see* BULGARIAN REVOLT [1876]). As the Ottoman Empire began to slip further into decline in the 19th century, earning its nickname of "The Sick Man of Europe," it became less effective in administering its holdings, particularly those opposed to imperial hegemony. Nowhere was this more evident than in Bulgaria, a region that had once won its independence from the Byzantine Empire only to be harshly reconquered (*see* BULGARIAN REVOLT [1040–1041]).

Following the successful GREEK WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE in 1832, the Ottomans questioned the loyalty of many Greeks remaining within the empire and warily viewed Greeks holding positions of importance. Under the direction of the sultan's chief adviser, Midhat Pasa (1822–83), Greek officeholders were replaced with Bulgarians as a concession to greater Bulgarian autonomy. This, along with the Ottoman policy of selling lands to peasants in Bulgaria, considerably raised the prestige and standard of living in Bulgaria. Also, in 1870 under mounting resistance to the Greek Orthodox Church, Constantinople created the Bulgarian Exarchate, giving Bulgaria theological autonomy.

The gains only served to incite the Bulgarians rather than appease them. As Slavic nationalism grew to a fever pitch in the Balkan region, the empire was faced with near-total revolt in Serbia, Bosnia, Montenegro, and Bulgaria. In September 1875 Bulgarian nationalists organized an uprising in an attempt to gain total independence. However, Midhat Pasa still wielded considerable control in the region, and the revolt was quickly and brutally put down the same month. The harshness of the Ottoman suppression helped bring about another revolt only seven months later.

Further reading: R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Bulgarian Revolt (1876)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgarian nationalists vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bulgaria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bulgarian independence
OUTCOME: The revolt, brutally suppressed, led to European intervention, a Russo-Turkish war, and ultimately independence.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: More than 15,000 Bulgarian men, women, and children died.
TREATIES: None

Despite the dismal failure of the BULGARIAN REVOLT (1875) only seven months earlier, the revolt of 1876 marked the beginning of the end for Ottoman control of Bulgaria. Both the 1875 and 1876 uprisings grew from the rising nationalist expectations with no meaningful concessions from the Turks. Although the Bulgarians had managed to create already a separate Bulgarian state church within the framework of the Greek Orthodox religion, they still faced hostility from their Muslim overlords in Constantinople. Even as the Ottoman Empire was fast slipping into oblivion, it savagely lashed out at any threat to its tottering hegemony. Not only in Bulgaria, but in Greece and throughout the Balkans, the Ottomans harshly suppressed uprisings that would all eventually lead to independence and the collapse of their empire.

Their wounds were, literally, still fresh from the previous revolt, when the Bulgarian nationalists began fomenting revolt in the villages in April 1876. Given the bitterness of the earlier suppression, the new uprising spread quickly through the countryside and into Sofia. When the sultan's chief adviser in the region, Midhat Pasha (1822–83), was unable to bring the revolt under control, he solicited the aid of Turkish irregulars. Essentially native soldiers of fortune who relished the idea of brutalizing the Christian infidels, these irregulars became known as "the Bulgarian Horrors." Midhat Pasha turned them loose at the end of July 1876.

The revolt was not so much suppressed as exterminated. The Bulgarian Horrors did not seek to find and destroy active members of the revolutionary movement but instead slaughtered anyone and everyone they felt were a threat to the empire. By the time the Horrors were recalled in September, the insurrection was over, and thousands of Bulgarians had been murdered. The brutality of the Ottomans led directly to European intervention and the RUSSO-TURKISH WAR OF 1877–78. That war ended with the Treaty of San Stefano in 1878, which recognized Bulgarian independence.

Further reading: R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Bulgar-Magyar War (895)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgars and Pechenegs vs. Magyars
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Balkan Peninsula
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When Bulgarian czar Symeon I attacked the Byzantine Empire, Emperor Leo VI called on the nomadic Magyars to help him repel the invasion; the Bulgars, allied with the Pechenegs, retaliated.
OUTCOME: Symeon and his allies forced Magyars to move from their Volga River base to the plains of the Danube.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Symeon accepted an armistice after the Magyars overran his northern provinces, 895.

Altering the map of central Europe, the Bulgar-Magyar War drove a permanent wedge between northern and southern Slavs. In hostilities between the Bulgars and the Byzantine Empire, the two combatants made alliances necessary to defeat the other. After a major Bulgarian assault in 894 under the leadership of Czar Symeon I (c. 864/865–927), the Byzantines launched a retaliatory offensive. Symeon held the Byzantines to a draw, and the offensive stalled. Byzantine emperor Leo VI (862–912) ("Leo the Wise") engaged the support of the Magyars, a nomadic Hungarian people nestled between the Danube and the Dnieper Rivers and the Bulgar's neighbors to the north, to help defeat them.

The Magyars marched across the Danube into Bulgaria in 895, led by their chief, Arpad (c. 840–907). At the same time Byzantine troops moved into southern Bulgaria and ordered a naval blockade of the mouth of the Danube. Symeon, realizing he had been out-maneuvered, quickly concluded an armistice and plotted revenge on both the Byzantines and the Magyars.

To the north of the Magyars were their bitter enemies the Pechenegs of the Russian steppes. Symeon brought the Pechenegs into the fray. At Symeon's behest the Pechenegs swept out of the steppes and into the Danube and Dnieper valleys while the Magyar forces were still in Bulgaria. When the Magyars attempted to return, they found the Pechenegs blocking their way. To the south Symeon and the Bulgars began a new offensive against the Magyars, forcing them to abandon their homeland and cross the Danube. There the Magyars battled with the Slavs for the south side of the Danube and settled, establishing what is now Hungary.

See also BULGAR-BYZANTINE WAR (889–897).

Further reading: R. J. Crampton, *Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997); Pál Engel, *Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526* (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001).

Burgundian-Frankish War (500)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rivals for the throne of Burgundy, Gundobar vs. Godegsil (allied with the Franks)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Struggle for the throne of Burgundy
OUTCOME: Gundobar defeated Godegsil after Clovis, king of the Franks, struck a bargain with Gundobar and deserted Godegsil.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown; Godegsil fell in battle.
TREATIES: None

King Gundobar (also known as Gundobad, d. 516) fell into dispute with his brother Godegesil (d. 500) over the throne of Burgundy. Clovis I (c. 466–511), king of the Franks, intervened on the side of Godegesil. An extraordinary monarch who would become the first great architect of the Frankish empire, Clovis I led Frankish troops against Gundobar's forces at the River Ouche defeating them. Not satisfied with a mere rout, Clovis advanced down the valleys of the Saône and Rhone to Avignon in pursuit of Gundobar's retreating forces. In retreat, Gundobar put up stiff resistance, much to the astonishment of Clovis. Gundobar finally took a stand at Avignon. Unable to take that city by siege, Clovis decided against further military action and offered to make peace without conquest, provided that Gundobar agree to a relationship of nominal vassalage to the Franks. This agreement concluded, Gundobar attacked Godegesil's forces in the Burgundian stronghold capital of Vienne. Not wanting to reignite Burgundian loyalties, Clovis abstained from this battle and allowed Gundobar to defeat his brother's army. Godegesil fell in battle.

See also BURGUNDIAN-FRANKISH WAR (523–534).

Further reading: Edward James, *The Franks* (Oxford: B. Blackwell, 1988).

Burgundian-Frankish War (523–534)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burgundy vs. the Franks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burgundy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Frankish conquest of Burgundy
OUTCOME: Burgundy was conquered and annexed to the Frankish kingdom.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Between 511, the year in which King Clovis I (c. 466–511) of the Franks died, and 600 the Franks expanded rapidly and broadly through Gaul and Germany. Clovis I had forged the Franks into a great empire, but this realm was divided on his death among his four sons, Theodoric I (d. 534), Clodomer (d. 524), Childebert (d. 558), and Clotaire (d. 561). Each of the brothers sought to expand the empire so that he might rule a larger portion. Thus, they set aside their covetousness of each other's territory and, at least in the military aspects of a campaign of expansion, the brothers cooperated. In 523 they advanced into Burgundy, where they captured King Sigismund (d. 524), whom they killed in 524. That same year Clodomer died, prompting Clotaire and Childebert to divide his domain between themselves. To forestall counterclaims, they conspired in the murder of their late brother's children. Also in 524, however, Sigismund's brother Gundimar (d. 532) defeated the Franks at the Battle of Vérerance. This forced the Frankish army to withdraw and allowed Burgundy to maintain its independence until a renewed Frankish invasion in 532. Gundimar was killed in battle in 532, and Clotaire and Childebert campaigned vigorously throughout Burgundy. By 534, the leaderless realm fell to them. The death of Theodoric I, also in 534, meant that the Franks' Burgundian acquisition would now be split only two ways. The conquest spelled the end of the royal dynasty of Burgundy, and the consolidation of Frankish rule over a vast territory under only two monarchs.

See also BURGUNDIAN-FRANKISH WAR (500).

Further reading: Edward James, *The Franks* (Oxford: B. Blackwell, 1988).

Burgundian-French Wars *See* FRANCO-BURGUNDIAN WARS (1464–1465); (1467–1477).

Burgundian-Swiss War (1339)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burgundy vs. the Free City of Bern and the "Everlasting League" of the Swiss Forest cantons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Laupen (Switzerland)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Wishing to curb Bern's expansion, Burgundy attempted to capture Laupen, an outlying possession of Bern.
OUTCOME: Acting in concert with the Everlasting League, Bern defeated the Burgundians and emerged preeminent among the Swiss towns and cantons.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Burgundy, 15,000; Swiss defenders of Laupen, 5,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The war consisted of the siege and relief of the Swiss town of Laupen. When Bern, a free city within the Holy Roman

Empire, began expanding by seizing neighboring territory, a Burgundian army of 15,000 infantry and cavalry troops, commanded by Count Gerard of Vallangin (fl. 1300s), laid siege to Laupen, which was a possession of Bern—the city was 10 miles away—and which was also allied with the so-called Everlasting League of the Swiss Forest cantons, Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden. The Burgundian object was to take the town as a means of curbing Swiss expansion.

The Burgundians outnumbered the Swiss defenders three-to-one. Part of this defender force consisted of a relief column under Rudolph von Erlach (fl. 1300s), who took up a position on a commanding slope and, from here, attacked Vallangin. In concert with the relief column, the Laupen garrison, Swiss pikemen and archers, sallied out of their fortified positions and, in a pincers action, routed the Burgundians, even as Vallangin concentrated on dislodging the Swiss relief column.

Despite defeat, the Burgundians rallied and made a strong counterattack on June 21 with their heavy cavalry, once again focusing on the forces deployed along the slope. Taking full advantage of their high-ground position, however, the Swiss withstood the counterattack, wheeling about and then seizing the initiative by attacking the Burgundian flank. This at last drove the Burgundians from the field and forced them to lift the siege.

Far from curbing Swiss ambition, the Battle of Laupen conferred instantly legendary status on Swiss prowess in combat. Bern, more powerful and influential than ever, was now recognized as predominant among the Swiss towns and cantons. In strictly military terms, the battle demonstrated the effectiveness of well-trained and well-led infantry against mounted knights. The era of the knight was coming to a close.

See also BURGUNDIAN-SWISS WAR (1474–1477).

Further reading: David Birmingham, *Switzerland: A Village History* (Athens, Ohio: Swallow, 2004); Frederick William Dame, *History of Switzerland: Historical Switzerland* (New York: Edwin Mellen Press, 2001).

Burgundian-Swiss War (1474–1477)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burgundy vs. the Swiss cantons and their allies (cities of south Germany and the Hapsburg Austrians)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Principally Swiss-Burgundian borderlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Burgundy's Charles the Bold, seeking territorial expansion, invaded the Swiss cantons.
OUTCOME: The invasion of Swiss lands was repelled, and Burgundy was in turn invaded.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Burgundy, 25,000; Swiss cantons and allies, 26,000
CASUALTIES: Burgundian losses, 7,000–10,000 (including Charles the Bold) in war's culminating battle; Swiss losses were comparatively light
TREATIES: None

Burgundy's Charles the Bold (1433–77) earned his sobriquet by carrying out a program of aggressive expansion, which included penetration across the Swiss borderlands. Fortunately for the Swiss, Charles's ambition had also earned him enemies, who joined an alliance with Switzerland. The cities of south Germany and the Hapsburg Austrians aided the Swiss in repulsing Charles at the Battle of Héricourt on November 12, 1474. The Swiss and their allies not only pushed Charles out of Swiss territory but were able to occupy Burgundian land along the Swiss borders and in Alsace.

In February 1476 Charles retaliated by retaking the town of Granson (Grandson) and summarily hanging the Swiss garrison there. This provoked a swift Swiss response. On March 2, 1476, an 18,000-man Swiss army attacked Charles's 15,000-man force at Granson. The Swiss had eschewed artillery to gain speed and mobility. The attack, when it came, was without preliminaries or preparation. Rather, the soldiers, advancing in three columns, moved instantly into combat, hitting the Burgundians so hard and so fast that they had little time to employ their artillery. Desperately, Charles rushed to attempt a double envelopment of the first of the Swiss columns, hoping to defeat it before the others arrived. But just as Charles's troops were maneuvering into position for the attack, they saw the rapid approach of the other two Swiss columns and panicked. The Burgundians broke and ran. The Swiss retook Granson with the loss of about 200 men. Burgundian losses were in excess of 1,000.

Charles moved vigorously to regroup his army with the object of driving the Swiss out of Burgundian territory. He deployed some 20,000 men to lay siege to the town of Morat, near Bern and Fribourg. Although Charles took great care to dig defensive trenches and erect high palisades to provide cover for the besiegers, he blundered in failing to establish outposts or at least deploy advance patrols. Worse, the rainy weather kept most of the Burgundians out of the trenches and in camps to the rear. Seeing this situation, the Swiss moved with their customary speed to exploit the Burgundian weakness. On June 22 25,000 Swiss infantrymen and an additional 1,000 Hapsburg and German cavalry advanced on the entrenchments. As at Granson, they marched directly into combat without pausing to deploy. The entrenched Burgundians, perhaps no more than 3,000 troops, were completely overwhelmed and fled from their defensive positions in complete panic and disarray. Roused from their encampment, the balance of the Burgundian forces rushed to the defense of the trenches, only to collide with their fleeing compatriots.

The Swiss continued to advance on the confused mass of Charles's troops and slaughtered them. Estimates of Charles's losses vary from 7,000 to as many as 10,000. The Swiss lost very few men.

From Morat the Swiss and their allies penetrated more deeply into Burgundy. Yet again Charles was able to reorganize his army, and he met the invaders at Nancy on January 5, 1477. With customary vigor and violence, the Swiss rapidly enveloped the Burgundian left flank while the mass of the infantry pounded against the Burgundian center. The result was yet another defeat for Charles, who fell in battle as he desperately led a rearguard action in an attempt to cover the retreat of his army.

See also BURGUNDIAN-SWISS WAR (1339).

Further reading: David Birmingham, *Switzerland: A Village History* (Athens, Ohio: Swallow, 2004); Frederick William Dame, *History of Switzerland: Historical Switzerland* (New York: Edwin Mellen Press, 2001).

Burma Campaign *See* CHINDIT WAR.

Burmese-Anglo Wars *See* ANGLO-BURMESE WAR, FIRST; ANGLO-BURMESE WAR, SECOND; ANGLO-BURMESE WAR, THIRD.

Burmese-Chinese War (1438–1446)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Burma
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: First, Chinese incursions into Upper Burma for control of the Irrawaddy River as a trade route to the west; second, the Maw Shan chieftain, Thonganbwa, was attempting to restore the old Nanchao Empire in opposition to the Ming dynasty
OUTCOME: Chinese asserted control over the Shans and Avanese.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the 15th century Burma witnessed constant warfare among the several Burmese states and between the Burmese states and China. In Burma the kingdoms of Ava and Pegu were continual rivals, and they frequently warred with the Shan tribes of northeast Burma. It was the Shans who controlled the Irrawaddy River as it entered Upper Burma and ran south to the Green Sea. Border skirmishes between the Chinese and the Shans began in 1438, but neither side launched a major offensive. However, in 1441 the Chinese appointed Wang Ji (Wang Chi; d. 1445) to lead an invasion force into northeast Burma and subdue the Shans under the leadership of Thonganbwa (d. 1446).

Initial engagements went well for the Chinese. At the Battle of Luchuan, Wang Ji defeated the Shan and split their force, driving a small portion to Hsenwi while the rest, under Thonganbwa, crossed the Irrawaddy. There, Thonganbwa was captured by the Burmese force of Narapati (r. 1443–69), emperor of Ava. When news of Thonganbwa's capture reached Wang Ji, he immediately marched on Ava but was mauled by the Burmese in 1445 at Tagaung, where Wang Ji was killed. The Chinese regrouped and invaded again the following year, laying siege to Ava and demanding the surrender of Thonganbwa. Narapati was forced to concede, but before the Chan chieftain could be turned over, Thonganbwa committed suicide, leaving the Burmese nothing to surrender but themselves and a dead body. Ava was taken by the Chinese relatively calmly, and Narapati was forced to accept Ming suzerainty; the Shan stronghold of Pagan was stormed and leveled. However, the Chinese imposed mild terms on Narapati and, in fact, helped to restore order to Upper Burma, leaving Ava as the strongest Burmese kingdom.

See also BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1658–1661); BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1765–1769).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese-Chinese War (1658–1661)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma and the Ming dynasty vs. the Ch'ing dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Burma
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When the Qing (Ch'ing) forces defeated the Mings in 1658, the Ming prince fled to Burma for asylum, where he was pursued by Qing forces.
OUTCOME: The Ming people of Burma were crushed and their Burmese allies were forced to make concessions to the Qing.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Qing forces included 20,000 Manchu warriors; totals unknown.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

In the mid-17th century the balance of power in China shifted with the demise of the Ming dynasty and the rise of the Qing dynasty in its place. The Ming decline came about in spite of fierce opposition to Qing aggression. The last Ming emperor, Yongli (Yung Li; d. 1662), fled Yunnan province with 700 loyal followers and sought refuge in the Upper Burmese kingdom of Ava. The Burmese king, Pin-

dale (d. 1661), freely granted protection, disarmed the group, and settled them across the Irrawaddy River at Sagaing. The Manchu forces of the Ch'ing, fearing a revival of the Ming and a powerful alliance with Burma, invaded Upper Burma in 1658 to exterminate the remaining vestiges of the Ming forces. For his part, Pindale had no intention of allowing a revival of the powerful Ming, and after disarming Yongli and his followers intended to keep them at Sagaing indefinitely.

The few remaining Ming followers left in Yunnan invaded southward as well, hoping to free Yongli and to defeat the Manchus in the process. Qing forces led by the Manchu warriors quickly laid siege to Ava, but before the city could be breached, Pindale was murdered and was succeeded by his brother, Pye Min (d. 1672). The Burmese situation looked bleak, and the Manchu governor of Yunnan offered Ava a choice: release Yongli or face the complete liquidation of the city by more than 20,000 Manchu warriors. Pye Min, faced with incursions by the Mons and the Shans from the south and north, respectively, had no choice but to surrender Yongli. The young prince was then publicly executed in Ava's market square.

See also BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1438–1446); BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1765–1769).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese-Chinese War (1765–1769)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Burmese made numerous military incursions into Chinese border regions.
OUTCOME: A resounding victory for the numerically inferior Burmese forces
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: China, 60,000; Burma totals unknown, but larger
CASUALTIES: Totals for Burmese forces unknown; Chinese forces lost 20,000 killed.
TREATIES: The Chinese sued for peace in 1769.

In an attempt to win concessions from the Chinese or perhaps in a bid for territorial acquisition, Burma's king Hsinbyushin (d. 1776) ordered a series of military forays into China's southwestern border regions. Alarmed by the brazenness with which Burmese troops raided the regions, Emperor Qianlong (Ch'ien Lung; 1711–99) launched a massive invasion of Burma in 1765, the first of four. The emperor further justified the war with claims that Chinese nationals were being mistreated in Burma. The Chinese quickly swept through eastern Burma and rolled up the Burmese army, seizing almost everything from Bhamo south to Lashio and west to the Irrawaddy and Singaung. The Burmese, however, refused to concede, and the early fighting marked the end of conventional warfare. Guerrilla warfare followed, the Burmese brilliantly using the precepts of the Chinese tactician Sun Tzu (Sun Tsu; fl. fourth century B.C.E.). The Burmese conducted a brutal and dogged campaign that made extensive use of jungle fortifications, refusing to engage the Chinese regulars in open combat. They savaged the Chinese lines of communication and went about dividing the enemy and isolating them in remote sections in north-central Burma. The Chinese, meanwhile, were unable to find any concentrated Burmese force to attack and were essentially cut off from any resupply or reinforcements. The jungle also took its toll, causing heavy losses from disease.

A campaign that had started successfully for the Chinese quickly degenerated into an outright military defeat. China was forced to ask for peace terms in 1769. The Burmese general Maha Thihathura (fl. 18th century), realizing that China, although beaten, could continue to send men and supplies south seemingly forever, quickly granted terms. When the Chinese retreated northward, they left behind more than 20,000 dead, thousands of tons of wrecked munitions, and the remnants of their navy in the Burmese river regions. It was considered the greatest moment in Burmese military history and the nadir of Chinese arms in the 18th century. The defeat, however, was less the result of Burmese prowess than it was due to the failure of Chinese logistics in a difficult jungle environment.

See also BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1438–1446); BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1658–1661).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese Civil War (1368–1408)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ava vs. Pegu vs. Toungoo vs. the Maw Shans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper and Lower Burma
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Traditionally intense rivalries that erupted in violence among the several states of Burma
OUTCOME: Avanese forces were subdued and lost southern lands
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown; residents of the three forts protecting Nawin were massacred by Avanese forces.
TREATIES: Avanese king Minhkaung was forced to make peace in 1408.

Between the time of the decline of the Mongols and before the rise of the Ming dynasty in China, Burma was relatively free from intervention from Beijing. This not only allowed the Burmese states to concentrate solely on competing against each other, but to do so savagely and at length. Burmese political geography late in the 14th century had the kingdom of Ava in control of most of Upper Burma and its chief rival, the Mon kingdom of Pegu, ruling Lower Burma; the Toungoo kingdom existed on the undemarcated frontier between them, while the Maw Shan tribes ranged in the northeast of Upper Burma. These four, along with the Arakans on the west coast, waged nearly constant warfare with each other for centuries; indeed, several conflicts overlapped, and little was needed for provocation.

Unrest in Ava ended in 1368 when a military coup was crushed and Minkiswasawki (1331–1401) was installed as king. The new leader began an aggressive campaign of retaliation against the Shans, who had been raiding northern Ava for years. He also wanted to begin an immediate offensive against the Mons to the south, traditional vassals of Ava who of late had become more independent. However, Minkiswasawki refrained from action because Pegu and Toungoo had become allies, and he did not wish to be engaged on three nearly encircling fronts. He deftly arranged a conference with Pegu's king, Binnya U, in 1371, and the two delimited the frontier and agreed on the previously questioned borders of Toungoo.

Meanwhile, the Shans continued their belligerent activity by raiding the northern frontier. By the end of the century, the last Mongol resistance was stamped out in Yunnan, and the Ming dynasty was firmly in place. Minkiswasawki appealed to the Chinese for help in dealing with the Shans and then, with their new Chinese allies, the Avanese forces, under the leadership of the king's brother-in-law, Thilawa (fl. 1393), inflicted a brutal defeat on the Shan in 1393. With the defeat of the Shans and the temporary alliance between Ava and the Chinese, Minkiswasawki now controlled the upper Irrawaddy River. His only obstacle to controlling it all the way to the sea was Pegu.

In 1385 Razadarit (d. 1423) succeeded Binnya U (1353–85) as king of Pegu, freeing Minkiswasawki of any previous concessions made to the former king. Even better for Minkiswasawki, Razadarit's uncle sent an emissary to Ava offering Razadarit's murder and the subsequent vassalage of Pegu in return for personal assurances. This intrigue failed, but widescale warfare broke out between the two kingdoms. The Avanese made repeated offensives into Lower Burma, capturing Prome and savagely beating the Mons, but they were unable to take Pegu. The Shans again raided from the north, and Minkiswasawki was engaged on two fronts. The two-front war began to wear down the Avanese, and in 1391 the Mons captured the Avanese fort of Myaungmya but were unable to bring Ava to the peace table.

The four-way struggle continued, indecisively, for several years until Minkiswasawki's death in 1401, which touched off a harsh struggle for succession. Razadarit seized upon the confusion and launched a series of new offensives into Upper Burma, sailing up the Irrawaddy in a waterborne attack in 1406. The river offensive, after initial defeats enroute, finally reached the walls of Sagaing, where the Pegu laid siege to the city just across the river from Ava. Concessions were made to the Mons and Razadarit withdrew, but Avanese forces to the south captured his daughter in Prome. When Razadarit laid siege to that town, Minkiswasawki's successor, Minhkaung (d. 1422) quickly launched a new attack to relieve the city. At Nawin the Avanese forces seized the three forts that protected that city and massacred all its residents. In response the Mons launched another offensive up the Irrawaddy, sending some 300 war canoes to attack any towns along the river. Minhkaung, faced with the decimation of his kingdom and his army, was forced to come to the peace table, forfeiting Prome by reestablishing the border between the two kingdoms in 1408.

See also BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1408–1417).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese Civil War (1408–1417)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ava and Toungoo vs. Pegu, Arakan, and the Maw Shans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Continuing rivalries that had existed for centuries in Burma erupted again in 1408, largely due to lingering animosity from the civil war of 1368–1408
OUTCOME: Indecisive; when the fighting ended, nothing had changed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

In the course of centuries of chronic warfare in Burma, the civil war of 1408–17 was distinguishable only as an intensification of ongoing hostilities that flared up in the BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1368–1407). Neither war accomplished much in terms of definitively establishing any hegemony in the land and even less toward creating any lasting peace. Burma for years had been divided among rival kingdoms, the strongest being Pegu in the south and Ava in Upper Burma. Prior to the cessation of hostilities in the previous civil war, Pegu's King Razadarit (d. 1423) placed a puppet on the throne of Arakan, a small kingdom on Burma's western

coast secluded by coastal mountain ranges. In an effort to establish Mon dominance in the region over its bitter historical rival, Ava, Razadarit persuaded the Maw Shan states of the north to join him in an offensive against the Avanese Burmese. At the same time, Ava's king Minhkaung (d. 1422) was planning a joint invasion of Pegu and Arakan in an attempt to remove the latter from Mon influence.

Razadarit was able to mobilize the Shan sooner, however, and Upper Burma was embroiled in war again. While the Shan battled Minhkaung's troops to the north, Razadarit attacked Prome, an Avanese vassal located to the south, on the Irrawaddy River. Minhkaung quickly retreated from the Shan and fled south to defend Prome, repulsing the siege by the Mon.

Launching an offensive in 1410, Minhkaung directed his son, Crown Prince Minrekyawswa (d. 1416), to invade Arakan and dethrone Razadarit's puppet king. However, Minrekyawswa was badly defeated in the Irrawaddy delta and forced to retreat. With the Avanese repulsed, Razadarit again launched an attack on Prome in 1412 and was on the verge of success until the Avanese launched a two-pronged attack, sending one army up the Irrawaddy and another overland, meeting the Mon in a classic pincer movement and nearly annihilating them. However, Shan reinforcements from Hsenwi arrived—their purpose had been to ravage Ava in revenge for the brutal defeat of Mohnyin in 1406. However, now they acted to stave off certain Mon defeat. Not only was the Mon force saved, it continued to hold the field.

After aiding their Mon allies, the Shan continued with their original mission and succeeded in driving the Avanese to Wetwin by 1413. The Avanese then turned, however, and gave battle, defeating the Shans and driving them from the south.

Before Razadarit was able to rally the demoralized Shan to renewed attacks, Minrekyawswa launched a major Avanese offensive in the late fall of 1414, driving the Mon as far south as Martaban. This left only Pegu and Martaban in Mon hands, so that the Mon kingdom was on the verge of collapse at the beginning of 1415. Razadarit, desperate to create a diversion, persuaded the Hsenwi to invade the south again, this time in concert with other Shan tribes, the Mawke and the Mawdon. While the latter two attacked the Avanese town of Myedu, the Hsenwi moved against Ava itself. Although they were all driven out of Avanese territory, it was enough to relieve the pressure on Razadarit at Martaban, and Minrekyawswa's chance to obliterate the Mon slipped from his grasp. He would launch another campaign the following year but was killed in the process, nearly ending the war.

With the death of Ava's most capable general, Razadarit attempted to gain something out of the conflict by in 1416 attacking the kingdom of Toungoo, which lay between Ava and Pegu. Ava quickly came to Toungoo's aid and repulsed the Mon, in turn launching a final offensive of its own against Pegu but the Mon received aid from Arakan and defeated Ava, ending the war status quo ante bellum. Given the amount of effort and treasure expended, as well as the extent of the diplomacy practiced, it is remarkable that no substantive changes were effected by this futile war.

See also BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1368–1408); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1426–1440).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese Civil War (1426–1440)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Maw Shans vs. Ava (in Upper Burma)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The ancient belligerency between the two powers of Upper Burma
OUTCOME: The Shans took control of both Upper and Lower Burma.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

As the BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1368–1408) and the BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1408–1417) demonstrated, the competing powers within this jungle realm were quite willing to prosecute futile warfare at great length. Similarly, instigated by little and settling even less, the Burmese Civil War of 1426–40 was yet another costly and indecisive conflict in centuries of continual warfare in this region of Southeast Asia. However, the bitter conflict would result in change, establishing, tentatively, Shan dominance of Upper and Lower Burma.

In Ava, the dominant kingdom of Upper Burma, Hsinbyushin Thihathu (d. 1426) succeeded his powerful father, Minhkaung (d.1422), as king in 1422, vowing to continue Minhkaung's attacks on the neighboring Maw Shans to the north. In an offensive against the Shans in 1426, however, Hsinbyushin was betrayed by his wife, a Shan by birth, and treacherously murdered. This touched off widescale unrest in Upper Burma. Always on the lookout for instability to exploit, the Shans were able to take advantage of the situation and siphon away some of Ava's power.

The new Avanese king, Moynyinthado (d. 1440), managed to slow the Shan attacks on Ava itself but was unable to stop the Shan efforts to aid Ava's vassal states to the south. Under the Shan warrior Saolu (d. 1437), the kingdom of Toungoo became semiautonomous, and other vassal kingdoms benefited as well from the Shan campaign. Around 1430 Toungoo, in an effort to solidify its

autonomous position, allied itself with Pegu in Lower Burma for an assault against Pye, another Avanese vassal. Before the alliance succeeded in its purpose, however, Saolu died, and Pegu's king placed his son, Narameikhla (fl. early 15th century) on the Toungoo throne. This left the Shans in control of both Upper and Lower Burma.

See also BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1368–1408); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1408–1417).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese Civil War (1507–1527)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ava vs. Mohnyin
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Burma
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A conflict of dominance over the Ava Kingdom
OUTCOME: The Shan of Mohnyin conquered Ava and maintained domination over the kingdom for nearly 30 years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown; Ava's king was killed in the capital city.
TREATIES: Unknown

Like the conflicts of the past centuries among kingdoms within Burma, the Burmese Civil War of 1507–27 was provoked by little other than ancient rivalries. However, as with the BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1426–40), this new conflict produced substantial change, extending Shan control into the Burmese kingdom of Ava.

After a nearly unprecedented century of relative peace in Burma, the Maw Shan border state of Mohnyin grew tired of its vassal status under China and the Qing (Ch'ing) dynasty to the north and its virtual subjugation at the hands of the kingdom of Ava, its traditional rival, to the south. At the turn of the 16th century, Mohnyin began making border raids into upper Ava and was regularly defeating the armies sent to oppose them. When the Avanese attempted to sue for peace in 1507, the Shans simply ignored them and stepped up the incursions.

Ava desperately solicited support from Toungoo, a kingdom to the south, but was rebuffed and left to stand alone against the Shans. Toungoo saw little to be gained from opposing the audacious and powerful Shans. By 1524, then, the Shans had completely overrun Ava's border outposts and had seized control of the Irrawaddy River basin where the river entered Upper Burma. The path to the capital city of Ava now lay totally exposed. In 1527 the Shan launched their final offensive against Ava, soundly defeating the Avanese forces and overrunning the city. The Avanese king was executed, and the city was completely sacked. The citizens who were not killed fled south to Toungoo seeking refuge, while the Shan installed Thonanbwa (d. 1543) as king. Although reluctant to anger the Shans by sheltering Avanese refugees, simple humanity seems to have prevailed, and Toungoo became a haven for exiles.

The Shan then embarked on a savage campaign of dominance in northern and central Burma, looting Buddhist temples, immolating Buddhist monks, and destroying all vestiges of the Avanese civilization. Although the Shan would only hold the city until 1555, the kingdom of Ava ceased to exist, at least for a time. This was the first truly profound alteration in Burma's political climate in centuries.

See also BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1368–1408); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1408–1417); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1426–1440); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1535–1546); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1551–1559); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1599).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese Civil War (1535–1546)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Toungoo vs. Pegu and the Shan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Toungoo's efforts to unify Burma
OUTCOME: Toungoo united with Pegu but failed to conquer Arakan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown; Burmese forces were augmented by Portuguese mercenaries.
CASUALTIES: Totals unknown; the attack on the city of Martaban was particularly vicious.
TREATIES: None

In some respects more civil than past internecine conflicts and in other respects more brutal, the Burmese Civil War of 1535–46 was successful in uniting the majority of Burma for the first time in more than a century. The predominant Burmese kingdom in the early half of the 16th century switched from Ava—which had been savagely overrun and sacked by the Mohnyin Shan—to Toungoo, led by King Tabinshwehti (1512–50). Tabinshwehti attempted to unify the Burmese and Mon kingdoms and at the same time expel the Shan from Ava, if not all of Upper Burma, beginning in 1535.

Tabinshwehti did not expect to unify Burma and expel the Shan at one stroke; rather, he planned a series of military campaigns designed to make steady progress based on alliances.

Beginning his first campaign after the wet season of 1535, Tabinshwehti moved north from his base at Toungoo

into the Kyaukse granary area south of the just-captured Ava. There, retreating Avanese fleeing from the Shan joined his forces and helped keep the Shan from destroying the expedition before it accomplished anything. After securing the Irrawaddy River delta and its key towns of Bassein and Myaungmya in the fall, Tabinshwehti set his sights on the Mon kingdom of Pegu. However, once the Burmese advanced on Pegu, they found it heavily defended and were forced to retreat. In successive campaigns over the next four years, Tabinshwehti pounded Pegu until it finally succumbed in 1539. The Mon king, Takayutpi (fl. early 15th century), fled north to Prome and fended off the Burmese advances there with the aid of Shan reinforcements.

Before Tabinshwehti could lay siege to Prome, Takayutpi died and left the Mon without a ruler. Realizing that Tabinshwehti was the only leader on the scene capable of giving order to the region and expelling the Shan, the Mon nobles considered giving their allegiance to him. Rather than sack Pegu and humiliate the Mon nobles, Tabinshwehti left Pegu untouched and respected all local traditions and customs. In doing so he was able to win the allegiance and vassalage of the Mon princes.

In 1541 Tabinshwehti began his next campaign toward the south and west, one that would give him control of Lower Burma. With a combined Burmese-Mon force supplemented by Portuguese mercenaries, Tabinshwehti advanced on the port town of Martaban. Martaban resisted fiercely, and after a brutal campaign that finally ended in the storming of the city, Tabinshwehti was not as conciliatory as he was with Pegu. He ordered Martaban sacked without mercy, civilians were indiscriminately raped and murdered, and the Burmese king made no offers to their pagodas. Farther up the Irrawaddy, however, lay Tabinshwehti's next objective, the town of Moulmein, whose denizens were sufficiently humbled by the treatment of Martaban to surrender immediately. This now left all of Lower Burma, to the Siamese town of Tavoy, unified and in the hands of Tabinshwehti.

Returning his attention to Prome, the Burmese leader simply starved the town into submission, and it fell in five months. Tabinshwehti showed it the same treatment he showed Martaban, and now central Burma lay open. The Shan, realizing somewhat tardily their fate, began a concerted attempt to defeat Tabinshwehti before he became unstoppable. In 1544 six Shan tribes raised an offensive against Prome but were defeated by the joint Mon-Burmese forces and the help of the Portuguese mercenaries and their guns. Tabinshwehti next moved up the Irrawaddy and captured Pagan, where he was crowned "King of all Burma." However, he made a crucial error in not attacking Ava when he had the Shan on the run. Instead, he returned his attention to the southwest, where he attempted to take the coastal kingdom of Arakan. Its coastal defenses were excellent, however, and it proved impregnable from both the river and overland. When news of Siamese raids on Tavoy reached the king, he gladly used it as an excuse to forsake the Arakan campaign and deal with Siam. This essentially ended Tabinshwehti's plan to unify all of Burma; before he was able to deal with the Shan, he was assassinated in 1550.

See also BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1368–1408); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1408–1417); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1426–1440); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1507–1527); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1551–1559); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1599).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese Civil War (1551–1559)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Toungoo vs. Pegu, the Shan, Siam, and Laos
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Burma and Siam
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The decline of Burmese unification after the death of Tabinshwehti
OUTCOME: Tabinshwehti's brother-in-law, Bayinnaung, held Burma together for 30 years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

The BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1535–1546) established Toungoo hegemony throughout the kingdom and did so with great brutality against the once-triumphant Mon people. Despite the apparent finality of the conflict, war erupted again in 1551 and quickly undermined the gains achieved under the Toungoo king Tabinshwehti (1512–50). A near-unification of Burma had occurred under the Toungoo leader in the 1540s, but after his assassination in 1550, Burma was again a land of separate belligerent kingdoms. Mon nationalists had begun to take issue with Tabinshwehti's rule and helped bring about his murder. At the announcement of his death, the Mon kingdoms of Pegu, Martaban, and Prome rejoiced and put forth Mon kings to succeed him. His brother-in-law, Bayinnaung (1515–81), proclaimed himself king in Tabinshwehti's place and sought to reunify Burma.

Bayinnaung attacked his home of Toungoo with the help of Portuguese mercenaries to wrest it from the Mon in 1551. Moving to stabilize central Burma and give himself a buffer against the Shan states to the north, Bayinnaung reconquered Pagan and thought of launching an offensive against the Shans before deciding to deal with the Mons first.

Marching south to Pegu, he was met outside the city walls by the Mon leader Smim Htaw (d. 1551). A joint force of Burmese and Mon holdovers from Tabinshwehti as well as the Portuguese defeated Smim Htaw, and Bayinnaung took Pegu. Smim Htaw fled to the delta region and

managed to escape to Martaban but was hunted down in the hills and brutally executed. After being crowned in Pegu, Bayinnaung looked again to the north.

In 1553 Bayinnaung sent a reconnaissance mission up the Irrawaddy River to scout the Mon position. The spies' movements only served to tip off the Mon chieftains, and they put aside their centuries-old rivalries to deal with the coming fury. In late 1554 Bayinnaung gathered his forces and launched a two-pronged offensive against Ava, one army from Toungoo and the other from Pagan. The fighting at Ava was horrific, but Bayinnaung was victorious in March 1555, taking Ava and extending his dominions even farther north than the Shans had claimed. He continued his campaign against the Shan in the north, capturing Hsipaw and Mone in 1556 on his way to Chiengmai, a Siamese kingdom ruled by the Shans after the Laotians were expelled. Chiengmai surrendered without a fight and caused the remaining Shans to pay homage to the conqueror.

However, as soon as the Burmese army withdrew from Chiengmai, the Laotians, led by Setthathirat (1534–71), moved in and retook the province. Bayinnaung returned and deposed Setthathirat, who, in an attempt to regain what he felt was rightfully his, organized a coalition of Shan states to defeat Bayinnaung. The coalition, however, soon fell apart, and Bayinnaung crushed the Laotians in the BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1558). Bayinnaung held sway over what was to appearances a unified Burma; however, great bitterness seethed below the surface and would erupt in the BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1599).

See also BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1368–1408); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1408–1417); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1426–1440); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1507–1527); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1535–1546); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1599).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese Civil War (1599)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pegu vs. Ava, Toungoo, Prome, Arakan, and Siam
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: An attempt by the governors of Ava, Pye, and Toungoo to overthrow the central government at Pegu, in the control of their brother, Kanda Bayin
OUTCOME: Kanda Bayin was assassinated and the unity of the Toungoo dynasty disintegrated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown; the city of Pegu was burned to the ground, and its citizens were dispersed.
TREATIES: None

Bringing about the total disunion of Burma, the Burmese Civil War of 1599 also brought about the temporary overthrow of the Toungoo dynasty. The ongoing SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1593–1600) had resulted in the invasion of Pegu by the Siamese in 1595. Opposition to Nanda Bayin's (d. 1599) rule of the Toungoo dynasty—in particular his incessant warring with Siam, Laos, China, Arakan, and the Shans, as well as his harsh cruelty—had been swelling for some time. However, with the invasion of Pegu a power struggle occurred within the family to depose Nanda Bayin. The king's brothers governed the provinces of Ava, Toungoo, and Prome, and all were interested in ruling the kingdom themselves.

When the Toungoo governor attempted to aid Nanda Bayin in repulsing the Siamese at Pegu, the Prome governor—his brother—took advantage of his absence and attacked Toungoo. A civil war broke out, which the king was helpless to stop because he still had the Siamese on his doorstep. The Toungoo governor solicited the aid of the Arakanese of Burma's western coast, and their fleet captured the port of Syriam, just south of Pegu in 1599, leaving the capital city vulnerable. Arakan also sent an army overland to join the Toungoo forces already laying siege to Pegu. The city fell soon after, and Nanda Bayin was taken prisoner. The invaders dispersed the residents of Pegu and burned the city to the ground.

The Siamese king, Naresuen (1555–1605), attempted to join in on the destruction of Pegu but was too late, arriving only to find the ashes of the city. Naresuen, however, wanted Nanda Bayin, marched north to Toungoo, and attacked the city. He was repulsed, and was forced back to Siam. Nanda Bayin was executed shortly thereafter. The Arakanese retained Syriam, which they gave to the Portuguese mercenary Philip de Brito y Nicote (d. 1614) in 1602, eventually leading to the BURMESE-PORTUGUESE WAR of 1611–13. With the overthrow of Nanda Bayin, all semblance of centralized order in Burma disappeared, and the region was thrown into chaos.

See also BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1368–1408); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1408–1417), BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1426–1440); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1507–1527); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1535–1546); BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1551–1559).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese Civil War (1740–1752)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mon (with French aid) vs. the Toungoo dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Mon attempt to replace the Toungoo dynasty
OUTCOME: The Toungoo dynasty was destroyed.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Signalling the end of the Toungoo dynasty, the Mon uprising that became the Burmese Civil War of 1740–52 racked the country with violence and utterly destroyed Toungoo authority. The BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1714–49) had nearly consumed the Toungoo ruler and all his resources. In protest of the constant warring, the Mon of Pegu rose against their Burmese governor and killed him. In his place the Mon elevated Smim Htaw Buddhaketi (r. 1740–47), a Shan Buddhist monk. The Mon then proceeded to seize the Lower Burmese port cities of Syriam and Martaban in a bloody rebellion.

Launching a northern offensive in the spring of 1743, the Mon marched on Prome and Toungoo, capturing both that same year. The Burmese retaliated by recapturing Syriam, but the Mon quickly expelled them and retook the town. Buddhaketi was deposed, and Binnya Dala (d. 1774) was named king. Under Binnya Dala the Mon began a systematic conquest of Upper Burma in 1751, laying siege to the royal capital of Ava. In 1752, aided by French artillery, the Mon stormed Ava and seized the city. With this, the last Toungoo ruler was deposed, and Toungoo hegemony in Burma came to an end. The rise of a village chieftain name Alaungpaya (1714–60) beginning in 1753 would, however, ensure that Mon rule would be short-lived.

See also BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1753–1757).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese Civil War (1753–1757)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burmese underground movement vs. the Mon (with French aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Leftover hostilities from the previous civil war, which saw the Burmese Toungoo dynasty destroyed and supplanted by the Mons
OUTCOME: The Mons' dynasty was destroyed, to be replaced by the Alaungpaya or Konbaung dynasty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Continuing the violent rivalry between the Burmese and the Mon, the Burmese Civil War of 1753–57 gave rise to perhaps Burma's most able military commander. After the Mons had captured Ava in 1752, they eradicated the Toungoo dynasty and established Binnya Dala (d. 1774) as king of the new Mon dynasty.

However, the Burmese still in residence in Ava and other Burmese settlements in Upper Burma continued to resent the Mon, as they had for centuries. An underground nationalist movement began, led by a village chieftain named Alaungpaya (1714–60). As soon as Ava fell to Binnya Dala and the Mon, Alaungpaya fortified his village of Moksobomyo (Shwebo) and used it as a base for guerrilla operations against the Mons, organizing the surrounding villages into his underground resistance movement.

Under pressure from Alaungpaya's forces, the Mon abandoned the city of Ava in 1753. The village chieftain established strong defenses for the city and repelled a Mon attempt to recapture the city in 1754. Pursuing the Mon in their southern retreat, Alaungpaya stormed through Lower Burma, capturing in succession Prome and Rangoon in 1755.

The following year Alaungpaya's forces destroyed the port of Syriam, captured two French warships, and executed French officers allied with the Mons. To defend against French retribution, Alaungpaya sought an alliance with Britain, concluding an agreement that granted the British generous trade concessions without creating a formal military alliance. The rebel leader continued his assault on the Mons, and in 1757 captured and destroyed the Mon capital city of Pegu. His imprisonment of Binnya Dala signaled the beginning of the Konbaung dynasty, which would rule Burma for 100 years.

See also BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1740–1752).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese Guerrilla War (1948–ongoing)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burmese government forces vs. communist rebels and regional tribes seeking autonomy.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Myanmar (Burma)
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the newly independent state
OUTCOME: At the time of its independence, Myanmar was proclaimed a parliamentary democracy. Since then, it has become by turns a socialist regime, a military dictatorship, and a parliamentary system again. Each incarnation was wracked by nearly continuous armed opposition.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Burma had succumbed to British imperial rule in 1885 and remained a colony of Great Britain until it was occupied by the Japanese during WORLD WAR II. With Japan's defeat, Burma returned briefly to British rule but sought its independence in the war's aftermath. Gaining such independence in 1948, the newly established nation was immediately threatened by an ongoing guerrilla war that seemed likely to break up the country into warring ethnic camps similar to those in the series of civil wars that plagued Burma 300 years earlier (see BURMESE CIVIL WAR entries).

During World II, Burmese forces under General Aung San (1915–47) were ordered by Japan to assist its troops in defending Burma against a 1945 British invasion. General San, disillusioned with the Japanese and doubting they could win the war, secretly negotiated with the British. When ordered to leave Burma's capital city, Rangoon, on March 28, 1945, San's National Army revolted against the Japanese. Though their engagements with the imperial army were not decisive, the Burmese troops did hamper Japan's defense of its colonial conquests.

Armed, battle-tested, and united by the revolt, the Burmese began pressing the British government for independence when the Japanese occupation came to an end. But Britain held out against such pressure, hoping to restore its Pacific empire. It soon became apparent, however, that the other Allies, under the influence of the United States, espoused the notion that imperialism—at least as it had been understood throughout the 19th century—was an antiquated European policy. (It was not lost on the British, of course, that the United States, more so than any European ally, maintained an important postwar presence in the Pacific, which, if not technically imperial, was nevertheless politically formidable.) After a brief guerrilla war between uncoordinated bandits and British forces, Britain announced plans for Burmese independence. On January 4, 1948, the Union of Burma was proclaimed.

As soon as the governing Constituent Assembly met to discuss autonomy for the various indigenous tribes in Burma, demonstrations broke out in opposition to assembly proposals. Not only were the traditional clans of Karens, Shans, and Mons clamoring for greater autonomy than the assembly imagined, but also the Communists attracted a firm underground following and the radical Muslim mujahadin attempted to create an Islamic state in the northern Arakanese region bordering what is now Bangladesh. Charging that the constitutional agreement between Great Britain and Burma had excluded the majority of the Burmese and created a "sham independence," the Communist underground, led by Thakin Tan Tun (1911–68), organized a campaign of civil disobedience in March 1948. When the government withheld recognition from the Communists, the Thakin Tan Tun faction left Rangoon for central Burma to spread the incipient revolt, which soon engulfed the entire Irrawaddy River delta region. The Burmese government called out the First and Third Burma Rifles Division, under General U Ne Win (1911–2002), in an effort to suppress what was now clearly a communist uprising.

Meanwhile, the ethnic Karens protested the establishment of autonomous states for the Shan, Kachin, and Karenni tribes, while their clan was essentially left out of the new nation altogether. Taking advantage of the Communist insurgency, the Karens, too, revolted in August 1948, demanding autonomous statehood. By January 1949, after reluctantly cooperating with the Communists, the Karens had taken control of the cities of Bassein, Prome, and Toungoo. A Karen offensive cut the Rangoon-Mandalay rail line, and Karen forces were within artillery range of Rangoon by February. By the end of April, parts of Rangoon had been conceded to the rebels. The Karens proclaimed independence on June 14, 1949, with Toungoo as their capital. The Communists were given Prome by the Karens for their aid during the revolt, and the city became the base for Thakin Tan Tun's operations. In 1950, U Ne Win launched a spring counteroffensive and began to push the Karens back. On March 19, Burmese forces retook Toungoo, and, on May 19, Prome (although Communist forces continued to operate from that area). The Karen revolt ended in 1951 when the Constituent Assembly voted to establish a Karen state at Kawthule.

Long before then, however, a new threat to Rangoon had appeared when the CHINESE CIVIL WAR (1945–49) spilled over into Burma. In 1949, when China's southern Yunnan province fell to the Communists, China's Nationalist (Guomindang or Kuomintang) army began to use the Shan State as its base of operation against the forces of Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung; 1893–1976). Once entrenched in the Shan State, Guomindang leaders discovered the lucrative opium trade and extended warlord-like control over most of the region. Repeated Burmese attempts to dislodge the Chinese Nationalists were wholly unsuccessful, and the traffic in opium remained a major problem for Rangoon. After the defeat of the Guomindang later in 1949, thousands of Chinese Nationalist refugees retreated to northeastern Burma in flight from the Chinese Communists. The Burmese government ordered them to withdraw, but the Nationalists, many by now not much more than bandits, refused. Burma then requested relief from the United Nations. After heavy pressure was applied by the United States, the United Nations evacuated some 6,500 Chinese Nationalists to Formosa (Taiwan). But the Burmese complained that some 6,000 still remained in the jungle, deeply entrenched in the opium trade.

It appeared as if Burma's hour of crisis had passed by the mid-1950s. U Ne Win had secured most of the country, and the Communists were but a small rebel force without a permanent region of support. The military, however, was stronger than the civil government. In the elections of 1956, Burma's dominant political party began to fracture

and lost several key seats in the Assembly. In an attempt to unify the party, several leaders stepped forth to claim control, which only further divided its members. Eventually, the party split into factions, and armed struggles broke out in nearly every village over which faction would control the government-sponsored village defense forces—defense forces organized initially to guard against rebel insurgents. The Communists and other rebel groups, losing ground since 1950, benefited immensely from the disorder, and soon they were threatening to launch new offensives.

Fearful of renewed Communist aggression, Prime Minister U Nu (1907–95) proposed to the Assembly's Chamber of Deputies in October 1958 that General U Ne Win be offered control of a caretaker government long enough to reestablish order in the rural regions. The deputies accepted the proposal, and U Ne Win began his work. He launched a swift campaign to root out disloyal elements within the government itself, arresting hundreds of politicians and executing thousands of rebels in the countryside. His government reorganized the villages and, by autocratic decree, put the economy in order. Within 16 months, U Ne Win declared he had accomplished what had been asked of him and, in February 1960, publicly returned control of the government to civilian leadership.

The parliamentary honeymoon was short-lived. Tribal agitation against the government began anew, and the economy collapsed when Burma announced it would nationalize all foreign trade. This time, General U Ne Win seized power without being invited and established a true dictatorship in March 1962. The 1947 constitution was suspended; the Chamber of Deputies was dissolved; and a socialist economy was proclaimed. Reaction to the coup was mostly negative at home and abroad, and demonstrations broke out, many of them staged by students. In July 1962, 15 students were killed by government troops at Rangoon University. Opposition to the government continued at all levels. Renewed guerrilla activities, particularly Communist-led insurrections, increased. In general, the country was in much the state it had been immediately after World War II.

U Ne Win's followers pressed ahead, however, and in 1969 Burma was proclaimed a socialist republic. A worker's constitution was drafted in 1973, and U Ne Win was officially elected president in 1974 and again in 1978. The Karen, the Mon, and the Shan were all given autonomous states under the new constitution. Still, the Burmese government was unable to quell the disorder. In December 1975, severe riots broke out over the perceived lack of respect shown by the government to the funeral rights of U.N. Secretary General U Thant (1904–74). U Ne Win declared martial law, and nine students were killed in putting down the riots. In the north, the Communists, aided by China, continued to be the biggest threat to the government, constantly launching ever more brutal guerrilla attacks.

In July 1988, in the wake of another violent student riot, President U Ne Win agreed to resign and, once again, relinquish control to a democratic civilian government. But in September 1988, pro–U Ne Win forces staged another coup to return military dictatorship to Rangoon; thousands were killed in the fighting. In May 1990, pro-democracy forces won an election held under pressure from outside Myanmar, as U Ne Win's movement had redubbed the country, but two months later, in July, a ruthless crackdown by the autocratic government dashed any hope of reinstalling a parliamentary system as the ruling military junta refused to convene the Assembly. At the end of the 20th century, Myanmar remained under the thumb of the military, insurrection seethed in the countryside, and opium war lords operated brazenly out of the "Golden Triangle," which included northern Burma.

Further reading: Mary P. Callahan, *Making Enemies: War and State Building in Burma* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 2003); Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese-Laotian War (1558)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. Laos
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siam (Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Laotian-instigated uprisings in Upper Burma
OUTCOME: Control of the contested Chiengmai Province see-sawed between Loas and Burma; at war's end the province was regained by Laos.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Beginning 35 years of Burma's near-continual dominance of Laos, the first Burmese-Laotian War did little more than prove Laos incapable of protecting its holdings in Siam. In the middle of the 16th century, Burma had conquered the strategic northwestern Siamese (Thai) province of Chiengmai, although after the army withdrew the neighboring Laotians quickly moved in and retook it. In hopes of keeping the Burmese at bay and consolidating their own position in Chiengmai, Laotian agents in Chiengmai sent people across the border in early 1556 into Upper Burma to incite the Maw Shan states against the Toungoo dynasty then ruling Burma. Burma's king Bayinnaung (1515–81), wary of the fierce Shan tribesmen and furious that Chiengmai had been retaken so quickly, ordered a full-scale invasion of Chiengmai in April, quickly seizing the province.

Laos, under the leadership of its king, Setthathirat (1534–71), launched a counterattack against the Burmese

in Chiengmai. At the head of a combined Laotian and Shan force, Setthathirat advanced to Chiengsen, where Bayinnaung's forces were waiting. The battle was brief but decisive, the Laotians and Shan were quickly defeated, and the way to the Chiengmai capital lay open. The Burmese were careful not to destroy the capital city. Instead, they installed a puppet ruler in an effort to hold the province for Burma. As before, however, when the Burmese forces retreated, the Laotians again administered Chiengmai.

See also BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1564–1565); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1571–1575); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1581–1592).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002); Martin Stuart-Fox, *A History of Laos* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Burmese-Laotian War (1564–1565)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. Laos
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Laos
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A Burmese invasion into Laotian territory in an attempt to regain Chiengmai and punish Laos for its insolence
OUTCOME: Essentially a stalemate; although Burmese forces were victorious over the Laotian regular army, harassment by Laotian guerrillas forced the Burmese to abandon Chiengmai Province.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Exposing the dangers of organized armies in the field against concerted guerrilla warfare, the second Burmese-Laotian War ended in a stalemate, essentially a Laotian victory. Following the withdrawal of Burmese forces from Chiengmai at the end of the first BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1558), Laos again took over the administration of the northwestern Siamese province. Meanwhile, the great Burmese king Bayinnaung (1515–81) was attempting to expand Burma as far as natural boundaries would allow and subdue any power that might oppose such expansion. Temporarily neglecting Chiengmai, Bayinnaung instead invaded Ayutthaya, or Siam, in 1563.

The Ayutthayan king, Mahachakrabarti (d. 1569), called on neighboring Laos for assistance, and King Setthathirat (1534–71) quickly replied, seeing an opportunity to defeat the Burmese and consolidate Laos's position in Chiengmai. After defeating the Ayutthayans in February 1564, Bayinnaung quickly ordered his forces east into Chiengmai and retook the province before the year was out. He did not stop there, however, as he had six years ago. Instead, he ordered a full invasion of Laos, laying siege to the newly designated capital city of Vientiane and leaving his son in charge of operations while he returned to Toungoo to deal with a Mon uprising. Although the regular Laotian army had been overrun at Chiengmai and was unable to stop the Burmese advance on Vientiane, Laotian guerrillas began a fierce campaign against the invaders.

Finally, with the aid of the Burmese river flotilla, Bayinnaung's eldest son, Nandanaung (r. 1581–99), captured Vientiane despite sharp resistance. The Burmese attempt to track down the fleeing Setthathirat and the crown prince only served to heighten guerrilla resistance. So intense was the harassment that the Burmese were forced to give up their pursuit and evacuate Laos, leaving Vientiane to the Laotians. Although the Burmese were victorious in their efforts against Ayutthaya and in retaking Chiengmai, their vulnerability to guerrilla operations left a black mark on the campaign.

See also BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1558); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1571–1575); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1581–1592).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002); Martin Stuart-Fox, *A History of Laos* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Burmese-Laotian War (1571–1575)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. Laos
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Laos
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Burma's continued attempts to gain total and lasting control of Laos
OUTCOME: Burma conquered the Laotian kingdom.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Signalling the highwater mark for the Toungoo dynasty, Burma's conquest of Laos came shortly before Burma was thrown into chaos. Although Burma had had relative success in its conflicts against Laos in the past 13 years, the Burmese were never able to bring Laos completely under submission, thanks in large part to the able leadership of Laos's king Setthathirat (1534–71). However, Setthathirat died in 1571, leaving Laos vulnerable to Burma again. The Burmese king, Bayinnaung (1515–81), who had made the conquest of Laos his personal goal, now saw an opportunity to take control of Laos for good. In the previous war with Laos (*see* BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR [1564–1565]), the Burmese had captured Setthathirat's brother,

Oupahat, and held him prisoner for 10 years. Upon the death of Setthathirat, Bayinnaung attempted to place his brother on the Laotian throne.

The Burmese king sent envoys to the Laotian capital of Vientiane to negotiate Oupahat's return as king. However, the Laotians, mindful of the fierce Burmese campaigns of the past, had no intention of listening to any Burmese plans. The Laotians murdered the Burmese envoys when they arrived and refused all attempts to have Oupahat return as king. Bayinnaung ordered an invasion of Laos in 1573, but it was repulsed. An enraged Bayinnaung either ordered that his commanding general be executed, or he forced the general into exile, where he shortly died. When the dry season of 1574 arrived, Bayinnaung led an army into Laos and crushed the Laotian forces. In 1575 he captured Vientiane, driving the regent, General Sene Soulinta (r. 1571–75 and 1580–82), into exile and placing Oupahat on the throne. Bayinnaung then ordered the countryside ravaged, and the Burmese forces complied. Burma would not conquer Laos in such a manner again. Bayinnaung would be dead in six years, and Burma would be rent with opposition from all the provinces that Bayinnaung had once controlled.

See also BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1558); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1564–1565); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1581–1592).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002); Martin Stuart-Fox, *A History of Laos* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Burmese-Laotian War (1581–1592)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. Laos
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Laos and Burma
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Laos attempted to regain its independence from Burma.
OUTCOME: Laos established its independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Throwing off the yoke of Burmese suzerainty and 35 years of armed conflict, Laos seized on Burma's decline and declared its independence. Remembering the harsh Burmese invasions that began in earnest in 1558, Laotians were wary of another rising against Burma. However, Laos's nemesis, King Bayinnaung (b. 1515), died in 1581, leaving his inexperienced son, Nanda Bayin (r. 1581–99), as king of Burma. At the time of his ascension, an independence movement raged throughout Siam, and Nanda Bayin's military forces were engaged in quelling the rebellion (*see* SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR [1584–1592]).

Laotian guerrillas began making raids into Burma and harassing the outposts along the Irrawaddy River in 1581 and 1582. As Burma's commitment in Siam grew deeper and deeper, the Laotian guerrillas stepped up their assaults. By 1590 Burma was completely immersed in both conflicts, and the border regions were aflame with guerrilla activity. The skeletal Burmese garrisons in Laos were inadequate to maintain order, and Nanda Bayin was forced to release the Laotian crown prince, who had been held in Burma since 1575. Nanda Bayin had hoped that conciliation and concessions might pacify Laos, but as soon as Prince Nokeo Koumane (d. 1596) returned to Vientiane, the capital of Luang, he proclaimed Laotian independence. Nanda Bayin could do nothing but watch.

See also BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1558); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1564–1565); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1571–1575).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002); Martin Stuart-Fox, *A History of Laos* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Burmese-Manipurian War (1714–1749)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. Manipur
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Burma
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Manipurian cavalry raided into Upper Burma.
OUTCOME: After years of allowing the raids to continue, the Burmese army regrouped and repulsed further Manipurian attacks
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Two-thirds of the Burmese army was destroyed.
TREATIES: No official treaty; Raja Gharib Newaz offered his daughter to the Burmese as a tribute of peace.

At the dawn of the 18th century, Burma lay weak and exposed following more than a century of bitter, destructive, continual warfare. Much of the Burmese military establishment had been destroyed, and the civil bureaucracy was inept and unprepared to deal with a country in decline. In light of these conditions, Raja Gharib Newaz (fl. 18th century) of neighboring Manipur, a small state in northeastern India, hoped to keep his powerful neighbor down a little longer while boosting the wealth and prestige of Manipur. In 1714 Newaz ordered several large-scale cavalry raids into Upper Burma. Initially claiming their intent was to convert Burmese Buddhists to Hinduism, the

Manipurians instead went on a rampage, capturing, raping, and murdering thousands of Burmese.

The Manipurian cavalry operations essentially went unchecked for more than two decades because the Burmese military was too weak to stop them. What remained to pass itself off as a military force was so woefully inadequate that it was beaten at nearly every engagement. By 1737 fully two-thirds of the Burmese Royal Army had been killed in action. The following year the Manipurians launched a major offensive that threatened the Burmese capital of Ava. The Manipurians had made several attempts to seize Ava before, but the 1738 campaign was the most devastating. Amazingly, the Burmese were able to stave off the Manipurians, and it proved to be a turning point in the war.

While the Manipurians regrouped their forces and retreated to the border regions they now controlled, the Burmese army began a reorganization that enabled them to put a competent force in the field for the first time since the war began. By 1740 the Burmese had begun to push the outnumbered Manipurians back out of the border regions. By 1749 the Manipurians were decisively defeated in Upper Burma. Newaz gave his 12-year-old daughter to the Burmese king as a peace settlement.

See also BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1755–1758); BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1764); BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1770).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002); A. K. Sharma, *Manipur: The Glorious Past* (New Delhi: Aryan Books International, 1994).

Burmese-Manipurian War (1755–1758)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. Manipur
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Manipur
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Retaliatory violence on the part of the Burmese against the Manipurians for the brutal war of 1714–49
OUTCOME: The Burmese conquered Manipur and extracted tribute.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Following the war with Manipur that ended in 1749 (*see* BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR [1714–1749]), there occurred in Burma a bureaucratic renewal in which a new dynasty was ruled by Alaungpaya (1714–60), the founder of modern Burma. Alaungpaya also reinforced the military, becoming one of the ablest generals in Burmese military history. He sought to restore not only Burmese military efficiency but its pride as well. To that end he hoped to exact retribution from the Manipurians for the harsh campaigns of 1714–49, and in particular for the Ava offensive of 1738 that left the Burmese capital in ruins.

In 1755 Alaungpaya ordered an invasion of the northeastern India state and set up garrisons there to maintain order and exact tribute. When the Manipurians revolted against the occupation, Alaungpaya swiftly led a punitive expedition into Manipur. He was able to recruit many of the skilled Manipurian cavalry troops and devastated hundreds of villages, murdering or relocating thousands. By 1758 all resistance was stamped out.

See also BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1714–1719); BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1764); BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1770).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002); A. K. Sharma, *Manipur: The Glorious Past* (New Delhi: Aryan Books International, 1994).

Burmese-Manipurian War (1764)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. Manipur
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Manipur
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Burmese territorial expansion
OUTCOME: Burmese forces overran Manipur and enslaved its people
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Under the Konbaung dynasty founded by Alaungpaya (1714–60), Burma enjoyed a significant renewal, which included the establishment of military dominance in the region. In 1763 Hsinbyushin (d. 1776), the third ruler of the dynasty, sought to expand Burma's borders at the expense of its traditional rival, the Manipurians, a neighboring province in northeastern India. Using the ancient tactic of invasion and relocation, Hsinbyushin launched an offensive westward into Manipur in 1764. This was an essay in total warfare. Its object was not the enemy's army, but the people themselves. The Burmese Royal Army captured thousands of Manipurians, mostly civilians, whom they enslaved. After destroying their villages the army sent them back in chains to Burma, where they were either sold on the open slave market or sent to work in the Konbaung civil bureaucracy in the capital of Ava. By the end of 1764, most of the Manipurian population had been carried off into slavery. This work done, Hsinbyushin moved

to annex Manipur and use it as a base of operations for a subsequent invasion of British India. In this way a prosperous kingdom was subdued and transformed into an armed camp.

See also BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1714–1749); BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1755–1758); BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1770).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002); A. K. Sharma, *Manipur: The Glorious Past* (New Delhi: Aryan Books International, 1994).

Burmese-Manipurian War (1770)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. Manipur
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Manipur
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Using a minor revolt in Manipur as justification, a Burmese general attempted to save face with an easy victory.
OUTCOME: The Manipurian revolt was squelched in three days of fighting.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Of little geopolitical significance, the Burmese-Manipurian War of 1770 served only the interests of the commanding Burmese general. Following the Burmese defeat of the Chinese in the BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1765–1769), Burma's commanding general, Maha Thihathura (fl. 1770s), feared that King Hsinbyushin (d. 1776) would be displeased that he had so quickly granted generous terms to the Chinese. Maha Thihathura believed that Hsinbyushin would order his humiliation or, worse, his death. Therefore, in an effort to distract the king and add another military victory to his credit, Thihathura pounced on the current instability in Manipur, a traditional enemy kingdom in northeastern India.

The local prince had renounced Burmese suzerainty and declared Manipur autonomous. Still suffering from the last devastating war with Burma (*see* BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR [1764]), a conflict in which the majority of Manipurians were enslaved, the Manipurian army was hardly able to offer serious battle. In three days, the Manipurian forces were soundly defeated, and the prince fled. After placing his own candidate on the Manipurian throne, Thihathura hoped to return to Burma in triumph. To the general's chagrin, the king was unimpressed by what he considered an inconsequential conquest. He disgraced Thihathura as punishment for his conduct with the Chinese, the only matter that concerned the king.

See also BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1714–1749); BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1755–1758); BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR (1764).

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002); A. K. Sharma, *Manipur: The Glorious Past* (New Delhi: Aryan Books International, 1994).

Burmese-Portuguese War (1611–1613)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. Portugal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lower Burma
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Portuguese incursions into Burmese society
OUTCOME: The Burmese forces defeated the Portuguese.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Although not a major conflict in comparison to Europe's wars, the Burmese-Portuguese War was the first against a European power for Burma, and her victory gave her international recognition. The Portuguese had been in Burma for almost a century, originally interested in the region for its trading potential; Kings Tabinshwehti (1512–55) and Bayinnaung (1515–81) used Portuguese mercenaries in their fights against the Shans, Laos, and Siam. In 1602 a Portuguese adventurer and mercenary, Philip de Brito y Nicote (d. 1614), working among the Arakanese of the western coastal region of Burma, established a base at Syriam in Lower Burma. At Syriam de Brito was in charge of the customs house for the Arakanese and of the Portuguese living in the region under Portuguese law.

Along with de Brito at Syriam were two Jesuit missionaries intent on converting the locals. When the locals steadfastly resisted accepting Christ, the missionaries began forcing conversions, and the Portuguese troops under de Brito looted and sacked the Buddhist temples. Around 1609 de Brito, with the help of a Portuguese officer, Salvador Ribeyro (fl. early 17th century), converted the customs base into a fort and proclaimed it in the name of the Portuguese king. After soliciting military support from the viceroy of Goa, de Brito began to carve out a kingdom in Lower Burma for himself in the name of Portugal.

In 1610 de Brito captured King Natshinnaung of Toungoo (d. 1614), a vassal of the king of Burma, Anaukpetlun (d. 1628), and held him captive for his trickery in making alliances both with himself and Anaukpetlun. This was an open challenge to Anaukpetlun's sovereignty in the region, and failure to meet it would likely have resulted in

Anaukpetlun's downfall. Burmese forces invaded Syriam and laid siege to the fort. Using standard siege tactics that served as a diversion, the Burmese forces tunneled into the fort and captured it in 1613. Anaukpetlun ordered de Brito and Natshinnaung executed and the Portuguese inhabitants exiled to Upper Burma as slaves.

Further reading: Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (Bangkok: White Orchid, 2002).

Burmese-Siamese Wars

See SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1548); SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1563–1569); SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1584–1592); SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1593–1600); SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1607–1618); SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1760); SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1764–1769); SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1775–1776); SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1785–1792).

Burundian Civil War (1972)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Tutsi tribe vs. the Hutu tribe
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burundi, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The socioeconomically oppressed Hutu majority rebelled against the ruling Tutsi minority in newly independent Burundi.
OUTCOME: Michael Micombero, a Tutsi, was established as president; many Hutus were killed or became refugees.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Hundreds of thousands, principally civilians
CASUALTIES: Tutsi dead, 10,000; Hutu dead, 90,000
TREATIES: None

After WORLD WAR I Burundi, a former colony of Germany, became a mandate and then trusteeship territory of Belgium. On July 1, 1962, it became an independent kingdom under Mwami (King) Mwambutsa IV (1912–77), a leader of the Tutsi (also called Watusi) tribe. Traditionally, the Watusi had been the dominant tribe in the region since their early conquest of the Hutu (also known as Bahutu) people. In socioeconomic terms this meant that the Tutsi became a quasiaristocratic ruling minority, while the Hutu lived in varying degrees of subjugation. As a result of tensions created by this social arrangement, the early years of Burundian independence were highly unstable. On July 8, 1966, Prince Charles Ndizeye (1947–72) overthrew his father, Mwami Mwambutsa IV in a coup and proclaimed himself Mwami Ntare V on September 1, 1966. On November 28 of that same year, Ndizeye was himself ousted by his prime minister, Michel Micombero (1940–83), who named himself president, making Burundi a republic. Then, in 1970 Hutu army officers aided by some Tutsi soldiers and police officers staged a coup attempt during October 19–20 with the goal of restoring Mwami Mwambutsa IV.

The 1970 coup attempt triggered a general revolt among the Hutu tribespeople, who massacred several thousand Tutsis. In response the Tutsis perpetrated mass killings of their own and thoroughly purged the government and military of Hutus. This led to a full-scale civil war, which was fought from April 29 to July 31, 1972. Hutu tribesmen, in collaboration with a small number of Tutsi monarchists, attempted to restore Mwami Ntare V, but government forces crushed the effort and killed Ntare, touching off armed Hutu revolts throughout Burundi. There were no set battles, but, rather, spasms of Hutu violence against Tutsis followed by far bloodier Tutsi reprisals. In a two-month period more than 100,000 Burundians died, all but approximately 10,000 of them Hutu, victims of government troops as well as unofficial Tutsi bands. The civil war put Burundi firmly into the hands of President Micombero, and when renewed fighting broke out briefly in 1973, Tutsi forces drove thousands of Hutu out of the country to neighboring Zaire (Democratic Republic of the Congo), Tanzania, and Rwanda.

See also BURUNDIAN CIVIL WAR (1993–ongoing).

Further reading: Edward L. Nyankanzi, *Genocide: Rwanda and Burundi* (Rochester, Vt.: Schenkman Books, 1998).

Burundian Civil War (1993–ongoing)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Hutu tribe vs. the Tutsi tribe
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burundi
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The assassination by Tutsi military officers of the nation's first Hutu president triggered civil war.
OUTCOME: Fighting continues.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Hundreds of thousands
CASUALTIES: Hundreds of thousands, including approximately 1 million refugees
TREATIES: None

The roots of the war lay in the BURUNDIAN CIVIL WAR (1972), a conflict during which some 90,000 Hutu people were killed in reprisals by the forces of the dominant Tutsi tribe and in which the government was purged of all Hutu representation. In June 1993, under intense pressure from the international community, the Tutsi-led government held presidential elections open to all Burundians. Because the Hutu, who constitute 85 percent of the Burundian population, outnumbered the Tutsi, the election was a foregone conclusion: Melchior Ndadaye (1953–93), the Hutu candidate, emerged victorious as the first democratically

elected leader of the nation since it became independent from Belgium in 1962. Tragically, perhaps inevitably, Tutsi army officers assassinated Ndadaye in October 1993, immediately touching off a civil war, which consisted of revenge and reprisal. By mid-1994 at least 50,000 Burundians had been killed, and throughout 1994–96 some 250,000 Burundian refugees—mostly Hutus—poured across the borders into Zaire (Democratic Republic of the Congo) and Tanzania, compounding the poverty in those nations. (Tanzania was already reeling from the influx of as many as 2 million refugees from the RWANDAN CIVIL WAR [1990–1994].)

During the height of fighting, in 1994, international pressure was again brought to bear, resulting in the formation of a Tutsi-Hutu coalition government; however, the new Hutu president, Cyprien Ntaryamira (1955–94), was killed in April 1994 when his plane was shot down by Hutu fanatics; the president of Rwanda, Juvénal Habyarimana (1937–94), also perished in the attack. After this the fighting became increasingly intense. In 1995 northwestern Burundi became the nation's hot spot when Hutu guerrillas infiltrated from Zairean (Congolese) refugee camps to do battle with Tutsi government forces. When the desperate coalition government appealed to the international community for military aid in providing security for political negotiations, the Tutsi-led Burundian military staged a coup on July 25, 1996. Soldiers surrounded the government compound in the capital city of Bujumbura, forcing Hutu president Sylvestre Ntibantunganya (b. 1956) to seek refuge in the residence of the U.S. ambassador. With Ntibantunganya out of the way, the military installed Pierre Buyoya (b. 1949), a Tutsi, as president. This wrecked any possibility of an enduring coalition and galvanized the resolve of Hutu rebels. Despite peace talks sponsored by the Organization of African Unity in June, July, and October 1998, the civil war ground on. By 1999 Bujumbura became the focus of rebel attacks, to which the government responded by clearing out the area around the capital and herding people from this region into concentration camps. Those who refused to accept confinement were subject to being shot on sight if they ventured into the killing zone that had been decreed around Bujumbura. Within the overcrowded and undersupplied camps, however, the death rate has been estimated at five per day. By the end of 2000 hundreds of thousands had died in the fighting and at least 1 million persons had been displaced from their homes. In December of 2001 the rebels again stepped up their attacks on Bujumbura. The Burundi government responded by a counterattack against a rebel stronghold, killing 500. Though some progress toward peace seemed to be promised by the 2001 election of a transitional national assembly, in July 2002 the fighting between Hutu rebels and the Burundi government again escalated. Finally, in December 2002 the two sides agreed to cease-fire during talks in Tanzania, which ultimately produced an agreement incorporating the Hutus into the new national army.

Though fighting again broke out again briefly in January 2003, by spring both sides were pulling back. In April Domitien Ndayizeye (b. 1953) became the new president. Summer saw sporadic fighting in 16 of Burundi's 17 provinces. Looting and armed banditry accompanied the violence, and on July 7 rebels began attacking Bujumbura. Then, at Dar es Salaam on 16 November 2003, President Ndayizeye signed a peace accord with the rebels (though at least one rebel group held out and was given three months to open talks or face the consequences). Under the agreement, the main rebel faction, the Forces for the Defense of Democracy, was to became a political party with representation in Burundi's government and rebel Hutu fighters were to be integrated into Burundi's armed forces. Other provisions granted temporary immunity to both sides from prosecution.

In his 2003 New Year's Day speech, President Ndayizeye announced that by January 7th, 40 percent of the army's officer corps would be made up of former FDD rebels. The FDD welcomed the move as a crucial step for the beginnings of a new army. Theoretically, at least, rebels who were once diehard enemies of government soldiers would now be fighting side-by-side with them. But those rebels who had remained absent from the negotiations were continuing to attack the capital as of this writing, certainly an ill omen for predicting true peace and an end to the conflict.

See also BURUNDIAN CIVIL WAR (1972).

Further reading: Rene Lemarchand, *Burundi: Ethnic Conflict and Genocide* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996); Edward L. Nyankanzi, *Genocide: Rwanda and Burundi* (Rochester, Vt.: Schenkman Books, 1998).

Bushiri's Uprising (Abushiri Revolt) (1888–1890)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Arab slave traders (led by Bushiri bin Salim) vs. German colonial forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): German East Africa (modern Tanzania)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Local Arab slave traders rebelled against the harsh rule and restrictions of German colonial administrators.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was put down, and Bushiri bin Salim was hanged.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Neither side had more than 1,000 men under arms at any time.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

German East Africa was an area of about 370,000 square miles colonized by Germany after explorer Carl Peters (1856–1918) negotiated a series of treaties over parts of the territory in 1884. The following year Germany proclaimed a protectorate over the region that is now part of Tanzania. The German government organized the German East Africa Company to administer the colony. German East Africa was expanded in 1888, when the sultan of Zanzibar relinquished coastal areas, but the local Arab slave traders in these areas bristled under the harsh rule and restrictions of the German administrators. Bushiri bin Salam (d. 1889), a prominent warlord-trader, led a revolt of the traders, who attacked German-owned plantations and other interests. In response the German East Africa Company appointed Hermann von Wissmann (1853–1905), a veteran explorer, as commissioner of German East Africa, with full authority to put down the revolt by any means necessary. Operating independently of the German government throughout 1889, Wissmann led 600 mercenary Sudanese troops against pockets of rebel resistance. Finally, in December he led an attack on the central rebel stronghold of Bagamoyo. He captured Bushiri bin Salam and summarily hanged him. In a simultaneous action German naval authorities cooperated with the British admiralty in instituting a coastal blockade to choke off the slave trade and to prevent the importation of weapons. This strategy eliminated rebel resistance by 1890. It is significant that this war was fought by a private army sanctioned not by a government, but by a business enterprise. The German kaiser connived in this, but, at least technically, kept his hands clean.

Further reading: Johani Koponen, *Development for Exploitation: German Colonial Policies in Mainland Tanzania, 1884–1914* (Philadelphia: Coronet Books, 1994); Helmuth Stoecker, ed., *German Imperialism in Africa: From the Beginnings until the Second World War* (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill Academic Publishers, 1987).

Byzantine-Avar War (595–602)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Avars
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Danube region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Byzantines wanted to push invading Avars out of the Balkans.
OUTCOME: The Byzantines drove the Avars across the Danube River.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Mongolian Avars, who lived in the Volga River region, invaded the Byzantine-held Balkan Peninsula at the opening of the seventh century. Byzantine emperor Maurice (c. 539–602), the outstanding military commander and political leader who transformed the fragmented Roman Empire into the medieval Byzantine Empire, sent an army against the invaders. In contrast to his earlier brilliant and rapid successes, Maurice found the Avar campaign very slow going. After years of slogging, he was able to maneuver the Avars into a vulnerable position, which his finest general, Priscus (fl. early seventh century), was quick to exploit. In 601 at the Battle of Viminacium, just south of the Danube River, Priscus met the Avars, sent them into retreat, then gave chase. Priscus was able to send the invaders back across the Danube, and Maurice wanted nothing more than to press the pursuit and wipe the enemy out entirely. However, the costs of campaigning were staggering, forcing Maurice to levy high taxes to replenish the drained treasury. This not only created widespread discontent among the Byzantine nobility, it stirred mutinous unrest within the army itself. Under these pressures and with the onset of winter, Priscus was ordered to call off the pursuit and to retire his army to winter quarters.

See also BYZANTINE-AVAR WAR (603–626).

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries,* vol. 1 (Knopf, 2003); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Mark Whittow, *The Making of Byzantium, 600–1021* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1996).

Byzantine-Avar War (603–626)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantines vs. Avars (with Slav, Bulgar, German, and Persian allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Macedonia, Thrace, the Balkan Peninsula, and Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Avars wanted to conquer the Byzantine Empire and take Constantinople.
OUTCOME: Constantinople was successfully defended.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In 626, 80,000 Avars and allies; 12,000 Byzantine cavalry defending the walls of Constantinople.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The general discontent fueled by the exorbitant costs of the BYZANTINE-AVAR WAR (595–602) ignited PHOCAS'S MUTINY, which tore apart the Byzantine army beginning in 603. This prompted the Mongolian Avars, defeated in the BYZANTINE-AVAR WAR of 595–602, to invade Byzantine-held Macedonia, Thrace, and the Balkan Peninsula. Phocas (d. 610), who had led a military and popular revolt to overthrow Emperor Maurice (c. 539–602), made himself Byzantine emperor.

Now he bought time by bribing the Avars with a heavy tribute in 604. Yet the tribes continued to advance, fighting a low-level war against the Byzantine civilian population until 617, when they reached the walls of Constantinople itself. During the next three years they waged a full-scale terror campaign of raids against the Byzantine capital city.

Although the Byzantines were also at this time menaced by Persians looming in the east, they managed to assemble a sufficient force to drive Avars into retreat and lift the siege of Constantinople. This proved but a respite. In 626 a massive Avar army augmented by Slavs, Bulgars, and Germans once again attacked Constantinople. A Persian fleet aided the land assault, which continued at maximum effort from July 1 through 10, 626. Remarkably, the hardened defenders outlasted their attackers, who were forced to break off the assault because of lack of food and other logistical problems. The Avars, essentially a nomadic people, were never skilled at managing a protracted siege. For their part, the Persians had not counted on the strength of the Byzantine navy and were unable to land reinforcements at Constantinople. The massed forces of the attackers withdrew from the field, and the Byzantines reveled in having achieved one of history's great defenses.

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries,* vol. 1 (Knopf, 2003); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Mark Whittow, *The Making of Byzantium, 600–1021* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1996).

Byzantine-Bulgarian Wars

See Bulgarian-Byzantine War (755–772); Bulgarian-Byzantine War (780–783); Bulgarian-Byzantine War (808–817); Bulgarian-Byzantine War (889–897); Bulgarian-Byzantine War (913–927); Bulgarian-Byzantine War (981–1018); Bulgarian-Byzantine War (1261–1265).

Byzantine Civil War (1094)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Emperor Alexius I Comnenus vs. Constantine Diogenes and the Cumans (Kumans)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Constantine Diogenes, a pretender to the Byzantine throne, sought to overthrow Emperor Alexius I Comnenus.
OUTCOME: Constantine Diogenes was defeated and the empire preserved under Alexius I Comnenus.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the Byzantine-Seljuk Turk War (1064–1081) and the Norman-Byzantine Wars, the Byzantine Empire under Emperor Alexius I Comnenus (1048–1118) had been subjected to repeated invasions, all of which were turned back. However, Emperor Alexius had been compelled to make many concessions to the landed gentry in return for their support in keeping the empire intact. This encouraged one of them, Constantine Diogenes (c. 1050–c. 94), to lay claim to the throne in 1094. He enlisted the aid of the Cumans (Kumans), nomadic Turks from Russia, to stage a revolt against Alexius. Leading a Cuman army across the Danube, he besieged Adrianople (Edirne) in Thrace, only to suffer defeat at the Battle of Taurocomon. It is presumed that Constantine Diogenes perished in the battle. Following the war, Alexius built up his forces and more vigorously asserted his imperial power over the nobility in an effort to forestall further threats to the empire's integrity.

See also Byzantine Civil War (1222–1241); Byzantine Civil War (1259–1264); Byzantine Civil War (1321–1328); Byzantine Civil War (1341–1347); Byzantine Civil War (1352–1355).

Further reading: Michael Angold, *The Byzantine Empire, 1025–1204: A Political History* (New York: Longman, 1997)

Byzantine Civil War (1222–1241)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nicaea vs. Epirus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace, Constantinople, and Epirus
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Nicaea and Epirus contended for dominance of Asia Minor.
OUTCOME: Epirus accepted domination by Nicaea.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Greek state of Nicaea was founded in 1204 by Theodore I Lascaris (c. 1175–1222) as an independent principality. It vied with Epirus as well as with the Latin Empire of Constantinople to become the focal point of an attempt to restore the Byzantine Empire during the Second Latin Empire–Byzantine Empire War. John III Vatatzes (d. 1254) defeated the two brothers of Theodore I Lascaris to become emperor of Nicaea in 1222, then defeated the Latin forces to become ruler of most of Asia Minor by 1225. That same year, however, Theodore Ducas Angelus (fl. 1220–30), despot of Epirus—also founded, as a despotate, in 1204—proclaimed himself Byzantine emperor. John III sent forces against him, but these were defeated at Adrianople (Edirne) in Thrace. However, in 1230 John III regrouped and his forces prevailed against Theodore at the Battle of

Klokotnitsa. John III's Bulgarian ally, John Asen II (d. 1241) captured Theodore, who accepted a combination of Nicaean and Bulgarian suzerainty. The death of John II Asen in 1241 put Epirus entirely under Nicaean control. Then, in concert with the Bulgarians led by Ivan II (d. 1241), John besieged Constantinople (Istanbul) in 1235. Like most other aspiring conquerors, he failed to take the city.

Turning from Constantinople and following the death of Ivan II, John annexed a vast portion of Bulgaria, then returned to attack Epirus in 1212. Theodore Ducas Angelus accepted Nicaean suzerainty.

See also Byzantine Civil War (1094); Byzantine Civil War (1259–1264); Byzantine Civil War (1321–1328); Byzantine Civil War (1341–1347); Byzantine Civil War (1352–1355).

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford Univeristy Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall,* vol. 3 (Knopf, 1996).

Byzantine Civil War (1259–1264)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nicaea vs. Epirus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thessalonica, Constantinople, and vicinity
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Nicaea and Epirus both vied for dominance of the old Byzantine Empire.
OUTCOME: The Byzantine Empire was reunified under the control of Nicaea.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the Byzantine Civil War (1222–1242), Epirus was a greatly reduced realm. However, Michael II (r. 1236–71), emperor of Epirus, soon sought to regain lost territory and invaded Thessalonica, which Nicaea had captured in 1246. In the meantime, Michael VIII Palaeologus (1225–82), regent for the rightful heir to the Nicaean throne, John IV Lascaris (1250[?]–1300[?]), seized the reins of Nicaean government by proclaiming himself emperor in 1259. His first act as emperor was to rush to the defense of Thessalonica.

As his forces fought in Thessalonica, Michael VIII Palaeologus attempted to negotiate a general settlement with Epirus in order to end the discord that was deeply dividing the Byzantine Empire. When this failed the Nicaean forces met those of Epirus at the Battle of Pelagonia (1259) in Macedonia. The Nicaeans defeated the Epireans, and Michael VIII Palaeologus went on to capture Constantinople (Istanbul). This set into motion the reunification of the Byzantine Empire. Michael II recognized the suzerainty of Michael VIII Palaeologus in 1264.

See also Byzantine Civil War (1094); Byzantine Civil War (1222–1242); Byzantine Civil War (1321–1328); Byzantine Civil War (1341–1347); Byzantine Civil War (1352–1355).

Further reading: Michael Angold, *The Byzantine Empire, 1025–1204: A Political History* (New York: Longman, 1997); Donald M. Nicol, *The Last Centuries of Byzantium, 1261–1453*, 2nd ed. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall,* vol. 3 (Knopf, 1996).

Byzantine Civil War (1321–1328)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Andronicus II Palaeologus vs. those of Andronicus III Palaeologus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Byzantine Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The younger Andronicus sought to secure his claim to the Byzantine throne.
OUTCOME: Andronicus II abdicated in favor of his grandson Andronicus III; a weakened Byzantine Empire was invaded by the Ottoman Turks.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The origin of this civil conflict lay in a family tragedy. Andronicus III Palaeologus (1296–1341), the unruly and rebellious grandson of Byzantine emperor Andronicus II Palaeologus (1260–1332), accidentally caused the death of his brother. Following this, Andronicus II disinherited his grandson and denied him the throne. An affable and popular figure, Andronicus III found many supporters, including a host of Byzantine nobles who were alienated by the heavy taxes Andronicus II had imposed. Thus bolstered, beginning in 1321 the younger Andronicus led a rebellion among these and other nobles, successfully battling the forces of the emperor in repeated small engagements. By 1325 Andronicus II backed down and conceded his grandson the post of co-emperor of the Byzantine Empire and sole ruler of the provinces of Thrace and Macedonia.

But there was to be no great familial reconciliation. Despite the concession, Andronicus III continued to oppose his grandfather. As often happened when the empire was torn internally, it became ripe for invasion. Ottoman forces struck in 1329, igniting the Byzantine-Ottoman Turk War (1329–1338). Some scholars believe that Andronicus III and the younger generations of nobles who supported him deliberately invited the invasion, believing it would weaken the reign of the old guard and

thereby strengthen their own cause. Whatever the motives, amid the threat of Ottoman invasion, Andronicus III was able to force his grandfather to abdicate, and he became sole emperor in 1328. Despite the approaching conflict with the Ottomans, this change reinvigorated the Byzantine Empire by bringing to power a cadre of young, ambitious, and energetic nobles.

See also BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1094); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1222–1242); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1259); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1341–1347); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1352–1355).

Further reading: Donald M. Nicol, *The Last Centuries of Byzantium, 1261–1453*, 2nd ed. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall,* vol. 3 (Knopf, 1996).

Byzantine Civil War (1341–1347)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Partisans of John VI Cantacuzene and Turkish and Serb allies vs. partisans of John V Palaeologus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Byzantine Empire in the region of Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: John VI Cantacuzene usurped the throne from John V Palaeologus.
OUTCOME: John VI Cantacuzene assumed the throne, ruling from 1347 to 1355.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Byzantine general John Cantacuzene (1292–1383) became regent to the nine-year-old emperor John V Paleologus (1332–91) upon the death of his father, Andronicus III Paleologus (1296–1341), the battle-tested old soldier had evidently no intention of usurping the Byzantine throne. But while Cantacuzene was off meeting the triple threat that often loomed over Byzantium—a new offensive by the Serbs on Thessalonica, the Bulgars massing on the northern borders, and the Turks plundering the coast of Thrace—a cabal grew up, led by young John's mother, Empress Anne, and aimed at displacing the absent regent. When the plot was unmasked upon his return, the army threw in its lot with its general and, in the time-tested tradition of the Roman Empire, declared him the new emperor, John VI, in October. The patriarch of the Eastern Orthodox Church lined up behind John V and immediately excommunicated John VI. The Turks, who had so recently come to terms with the general, backed his cause, while the Serbs, as was their wont, played a double game, promising support for the general in the field but sending word secretly to the Byzantine court, safe behind the walls of Constantinople, of their support for the boy.

The civil war that resulted was exacerbated by a nascent class conflict. Byzantine aristocrats, among whose number John Cantacuzene was certainly counted, backed the general. Constantinople's proletariat, whose numbers had swelled in recent years due to the number of refugees flooding into the city from conquered lands, had grown ever poorer and more desperate as rich landowners, who seldom paid their taxes, took full advantage of the corruption that had become endemic throughout Byzantium. The majority of the population, in fact, felt much resentment of the almost obscenely wealthy few; unlike in the West, no flourishing bourgeoisie of merchants and craftsmen buffered the rich from the poor. The young emperor's cabal fed the resentments and egged on revolts against John VI and his ilk throughout the empire. On the day he was declared emperor, John Cantacuzene's palace was raided, looted, and burned by a Constantinople mob. When news of his investiture reached Adrianople on the following day, it ignited a like revolt, surging through the streets in an orgy of riot and ruin. In Thessalonica, a political party known as the Zealots seized control and launched a reign of terror against all those opposed to their esoteric beliefs, running the Theme (as Byzantine provinces were called) for the next seven years as a virtually independent republic, despite the titular governor sent by John VI.

With the help of his Turkish allies, John VI succeeded in capturing Constantinople in 1347 and ruled as emperor until 1355. However, the great dissension caused by John VI's takeover fragmented an already shaky Byzantine Empire.

See also BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1094); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1222–1242); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1259–1264); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1321–1328); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1352–1355).

Further reading: Donald M. Nicol, *The Last Centuries of Byzantium, 1261–1453*, 2nd ed. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall,* vol. 3 (Knopf, 1996).

Byzantine Civil War (1352–1355)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of John VI Cantacuzene and Turkish allies vs. forces of John V Palaeologus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Byzantine Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Having been deposed by John VI Cantacuzene in his youth, John V Palaeologus sought to regain the throne.
OUTCOME: Although initially defeated in conventional battle, John V Palaeologus waged a guerrilla war that ultimately succeeded in regaining for him the Byzantine throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Emperor Andronicus III Palaeologus (1296–1341) died in 1341, the ambitious and highly capable John VI Cantacuzene (1292–1383) expected to be appointed regent to the nine-year-old John V Palaeologus (1332–91). When this failed to happen, the BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1341–1347) was ignited. John VI Cantacuzene was crowned emperor in Thrace in 1346, and although the civil war ended the following year, the empire was shattered.

Emperor John VI planned to reunify Byzantium by dispatching members of his family to rule over the disparate territories. The weakened empire was, however, prey to invasion by the Ottoman Turks, and John VI was obliged to meet the invaders at Thrace and Macedonia. With John VI thus occupied, the disinherited John V Palaeologus saw an opportunity to redeem his birthright. He attacked John VI's divided forces at Andrianople (Edirne) in Thrace in 1352. Desperate, John VI enlisted the aid of certain Ottoman elements in beating back John V's attack. This gave the Ottoman Empire a new foothold in Byzantium, but, in the short run, it succeeded in dispersing John V's forces. It did not, however, put an end to the young man's resurgence. Gathering his partisans about him, John V conducted a skillful guerrilla war against the usurper through 1354, confounding John VI as well as his Turkish allies. At last, in 1354, John V's guerrillas successfully stormed Constantinople, driving John VI from the throne. By 1355 the restored Palaeologus emperor removed John VI Cantacuzene's family members from their positions of authority throughout the Byzantine territories. This action was supported by the people of Thrace and Macedonia, who were dissatisfied with the corruption of the previous regime.

See also BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1094); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1222–1242); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1259–1264); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1321–1328); BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1341–1347).

Further reading: Donald M. Nicol, *The Last Centuries of Byzantium, 1261–1453*, 2nd ed. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall,* vol. 3 (Knopf, 1996).

Byzantine-Hamdanid-Ikhshidite War

See MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (945–948).

Byzantine Invasions of Hungary (1151–1153, 1155–1168)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Hungary
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary and the region of the former Yugoslavia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Byzantines ultimately prevailed against the Hungarians, who ceded Dalmatia and other territories to the Byzantine Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1143 Manuel Comnenus (r. 1143–80) assumed the Byzantine throne on the death of his father, John II Comenenus (r. 1118–43). Manuel took up without interruption his father's ongoing campaign against the Seljuks in Syria. Achieving success here, he went on to wage a successful war against Roger of Sicily during 1147–58, and he put down a rebellion among the Serbs during 1150–52.

In coordination with these campaigns, Manuel repeatedly invaded Hungary. He invaded several times during 1151–53, then did not return again until 1155, the beginning of a long period of repeated raids and incursions. It was not until 1168 that Manuel forced a full-scale battle, at Semlin (Zemun, in the northeastern portion of the former Yugoslavia). This finally broke Hungarian resistance and brought a negotiation, which netted Manuel Dalmatia, among other territories.

Further reading: Michael Angold, *The Byzantine Empire, 1025–1204: A Political History* (New York: Longman, 1997); Pál Engel, *Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526* (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (Knopf, 2001).

Byzantine-Muslim War (633–642)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslims vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Middle East: region of present-day Israel and Jordan; Syria, Mesopotamia, and Egypt
DECLARATION: Jihad proclaimed in 633
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: For the Muslims, this was a holy war to drive the Byzantine Christians out of the Middle East.
OUTCOME: The forces of the Byzantine Empire withdrew from all theaters.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Yarmuk River (636), 50,000 Byzantines faced 25,000 Muslims.
CASUALTIES: At Yarmuk 4,000 Muslims died, while Byzantine losses were much greater.
TREATIES: None

In 633 Khalid ibn al-Walid (d. 642) initiated a jihad (holy war) against the Byzantine Empire with the intention of forcing the Christians out of the Middle East. The war was marked by a series of brilliant Muslim victories. In 634

Khalid defeated the Byzantine armies of Emperor Heraclius (575–641) in what is now Israel, and the following year he pushed those forces out of western Jordan. Next, Khalid took Damascus in southern Syria (635). In 636 Heraclius sent two armies into Syria to throw back the Muslim Arab forces invading there. A total of 50,000 Byzantine troops faced a small Muslim army under Khalid at the Yarmuk River. Khalid withdrew—a feint—received reinforcements, and, with 25,000 men, counterattacked. Unremitting Muslim cavalry charges during August 20, 636, were at first repulsed, but took a toll. At last, the Byzantine lines caved in, and Khalid was able to flank his enemy, driving the superior Byzantine army from the field.

Khalid's victory at the Battle of the Yarmuk River forced the Byzantine Empire to cede all of Syria, and that same year Jerusalem also fell to the Muslims. By 639 Mesopotamia likewise collapsed.

Demoralized and reeling, the Byzantine Empire rejoiced in the death of Khalid in 642, but Amr ibn el-Ass (d. 664), who succeeded Khalid, pursued the retreating Byzantine armies, forcing them next to abandon Alexandria in Egypt. The empire was now vastly contracted.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries,* vol. 1 (New York: Knopf, 2003); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995).

Byzantine-Muslim War (645–656)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslims vs. Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Egypt, Cyprus, and Armenia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Byzantine Empire wanted to retake Alexandria from the Muslims. After defeating this attempt, the Muslims penetrated the Byzantine Empire proper with the intention of taking Constantinople.
OUTCOME: Byzantine forces failed to recapture Alexandria. Muslim forces advanced on Constantinople, capturing territory in Cyprus and Armenia, but called a truce before reaching their objective.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce of 656

The BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642) had been disastrous for the Byzantine Empire, which lost its Middle Eastern territories to the Muslims. In 645 Byzantine emperor Constans II (630–668) launched a campaign to recapture Alexandria in Egypt. He exploited the recent removal of Alexandria's extremely able governor, Amr ibn el-Ass (d. 664), a brilliant military commander, by Caliph Uthman ibn Affan (d. 656), a bureaucratic nonentity. Constans II laid siege to the city, and it looked as if Alexandria would, indeed, be returned to the Byzantines. Caliph Uthman ibn Affan responded to the crisis by wisely returning Amr to office. The popular governor rallied his forces, and under his leadership the Muslims of Alexandria withstood a 14-month siege. After frequent sallies against the siege army, each of which took its toll on the Byzantines. Amr mounted a full-out counterattack. Hungry and dispirited, the Byzantine ranks were badly eroded by frequent Muslim sallies, the Byzantine siege collapsed, and the army ran for its life. The Muslims pursued and advanced into the Byzantine Empire proper. In 653 Cyprus and Byzantine Armenia fell to Muslim forces.

Buoyed by the Muslim victories, Mu'awiyah (c. 602–680), the governor of Syria, conceived a plan to capture Constantinople itself. He assembled the first-ever Muslim naval fleet consisting of swift galleys called *dromons.* With these vessels Mu'awiyah met the Byzantine fleet off the coast of Lycia in 655. Stunningly, the inexperienced Muslim mariners defeated the Byzantine old salts. Constantinople was in great jeopardy. However, at this juncture, Mu'awiyah was faced with an internal dispute. He wanted to block the ascension of Ali ibn Abi Talib (c. 600–661) to the caliphate—an action that would result in the MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–666). Therefore, he halted his advance against Constantinople, secured a truce, which Constans was more than eager to grant, and returned to Syria.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries,* vol. 1 (New York: Knopf, 2003); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995).

Byzantine-Muslim War (668–679)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople, surrounding area and Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Muslims invaded the Byzantine Empire in order to take Constantinople.
OUTCOME: Despite initial victories, the Muslims failed to take Constantinople and suffered subsequent defeats, including the destruction of their naval fleet. The Muslims sued for peace, agreeing to make annual tribute payments to the Byzantine Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: War ended by a tribute pledge in 679.

Mu'awiyah (c. 602–680), then governor of Syria, had been forced to suspend his advance on Constantinople—despite a brilliant and unexpected naval victory that put him on the capital's doorstep—during the BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656) in order to block the ascension of a rival to the Muslim caliphate in the MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–666). Having succeeded in this, Caliph Mu'awiyah was free to invade the Byzantine Empire again.

He began in 668 by seizing the Byzantine city of Chalcedon on the Bosporus Strait, directly opposite Constantinople. This was transformed into a staging area for a full-scale invasion. In 669 Muslim forces stepped off and attacked the empire's capital but were driven back by the Byzantines, who made extensive use of a new and terrible weapon, "Greek fire." A solution of quick-lime, naphtha, sulfur, and sea water, Greek fire exploded when it was rapidly oxidized. An earthen or glass vessel filled with the solution served as an incendiary hand grenade. Greek fire was, in essence, the world's first "unconventional" weapon, a weapon of terror.

Seeing that the use of Greek fire had had a devastating shock effect, the Byzantines went on the offensive, vigorously attacking an Arab army at the Battle of Amorium and defeating it. Next, in 672 the Arab fleet, which had won its first naval contest with the Byzantines, was not so fortunate. It was defeated at the Battle of Cyzicus on the Sea of Marmara, the Byzantines making use of projectiles filled with Greek fire. These proved highly effective against wooden ships. Between 673 and 677 the Muslims repeatedly returned to besiege Constantinople, each time suffering from the effects of Greek fire, against which they could formulate no defense. The decisive moment came in 679, when the Byzantines annihilated the Arab fleet off Syllaeum in southern Asia Minor. Mu'awiyah sued for peace and settled by agreeing to pay an annual tribute of money, soldiers, and horses to the Byzantines.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries,* vol. 1 (New York: Knopf, 2003); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995).

Byzantine-Muslim War (698–718)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire (with Bulgar allies) vs. Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North Africa, vicinity of Constantinople, and Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Muslims attempted to capture Constantinople, capital city of the Byzantine Empire.
OUTCOME: The Muslims suffered a series of devastating defeats, culminating in the loss of many troops when the vessels evacuating them were lost in a storm.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Byzantine numbers unknown, but certainly much smaller than the 210,000 the Muslims fielded.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Internecine strife prompted the Muslims to suspend their invasion of the Byzantine Empire during the BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679), but skirmishing between the Byzantines and Arabs continued on a chronic basis. With tensions high a major war erupted in 698, when a Saracen army raided and annihilated the Byzantine-held North African city of Carthage. The following year the Byzantines were driven from Utica, northwest of Carthage, and the Arabs razed the abandoned city. With that, the Byzantines were entirely routed from North Africa, and that gave the Muslims a staging area from which to penetrate the Byzantine Empire proper.

The first region to be overrun was Cilicia, in southeastern Asia Minor, during 711, followed the next year by Pontus to the north. In the face of these raids, Byzantine civil and military leadership weakened, and the demoralized Byzantine army mutinied several times, causing the

overthrow of three emperors between 713 and 717. In 717 Leo the Isaurian (c. 680–741), general in chief of the Byzantine armies, assumed the throne as Leo III. It was a particularly critical period because a massive Muslim army was advancing against Constantinople.

A total of 80,000 Muslim troops marched from Pergamum (Bergama)—which had fallen to the Muslims by 716—crossed the Hellespont (the Dardanelles), and besieged the Byzantine capital. As had happened during the BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679), the Byzantine defenders of Constantinople kept the Muslims at bay with "Greek fire," an incendiary solution of sulfur, naphtha, quicklime, and sea water. When the initial assault failed, Caliph Süleyman (674–717) arrived with reinforcements: 2,000 warships with an additional 80,000 men. Leo III drove this force back, and the Muslims camped for the winter. With the coming of spring 718, an additional 50,000 Muslim reinforcements arrived, and the attack was renewed. Once again, however, Leo's land and sea forces prevailed.

Following the Byzantine victories, Bulgars under King Terbelis (fl. 710–720) joined in the fight against the Arabs. They advanced into Thrace, badly defeating Muslim forces near Adrianople. By August 718 the Muslim army had begun retreating through Asia Minor, with Leo's forces in pursuit. Arab troops swarmed aboard the vessels of the Muslim fleet, which was almost entirely sunk in a storm. The defeat was important. The Saracens would continue raiding Byzantine Anatolia throughout Leo's reign; however, they never afterward chanced a siege of Constantinople itself and, therefore, never again managed to put the very survival of the empire at risk.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries,* vol. 1 (New York: Knopf, 2003); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995).

Byzantine-Muslim War (739)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Muslims under Caliph Hisham ibn Abd al-Malik
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Phrygia (in Asia Minor)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The caliph's forces invaded the Byzantine Empire in order to expand the caliphate.
OUTCOME: After a single major battle Byzantine emperor Leo III forced the Muslims to withdraw.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Seeking to expand their dominion, Muslims under Caliph Hisham ibn Abd al-Malik (691–743) invaded the Byzantine Empire during the late 730s. They were met in 739 by Byzantine forces commanded by Emperor Leo III (c. 680–741) (*see* BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR [698–718]) at the Battle of Akroinon, or Acroinum, in Phrygia, the single major encounter of this brief war. In a great battle Leo managed to push the caliph's forces back toward Damascus, Syria. This major check in Asia Minor was accompanied by a general blunting of other Muslim jabs at the empire. Thus, Byzantium's realm in Asia Minor was secure from threat of Muslim conquest. Though Leo left behind a Byzantium secure for a time against its Arab enemies, he also—as one of the great Iconoclasts (Byzantine puritans who abhorred the Eastern Orthodox Church's addiction to religious icons)—left behind an empire as deeply divided as it had ever been.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035); ICONOCLASTIC WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries,* vol. 1 (New York: Knopf, 2003); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995).

Byzantine-Muslim War (741–752)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantines vs. Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cyprus and Armenia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Byzantine emperor Constantine V sought to retake lands lost to the Muslims.

OUTCOME: The Byzantines prevailed, recapturing Cyprus and Armenia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

An Iconoclast like his father, Leo III (c. 680–741), Constantine V Copronymus (718–775) assumed the Byzantine throne in 741. He had been nominal coruler since infancy, and now as sole emperor was determined to regain lands lost to the Muslims in previous conflicts. Learning in 741 that the Muslim realms were torn by internal strife, he led an army into Syria, where he quickly retook certain border areas. But Constantine V was soon forced to return home because of internal problems: the religious revolt of the Second ICONOCLASTIC WAR. Once the rebellion was put down, he invaded Syria again, this time taking even more land. Constantine's fleet met that of the Arabs near Cyprus and defeated it. Following this the Muslims fled the island in 746.

By 752 Constantine had managed to retake all of Armenia after defeating the Muslims—weakened by the MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (743–747)—in a series of engagements in that region. Constantine V was as much a general as he was an emperor, and as a Byzantine commander he amassed a record of great military successes.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries,* vol. 1 (New York: Knopf, 2003); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995).

Byzantine-Muslim War (778–783)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantines vs. Muslims (including Mesopotamians, Syrians, and Khorasanians)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia and the region of the Bosporus
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In the first phase of the war the Muslim forces sought to conquer Anatolia; in the second phase they sought revenge for the slaughter of the Battle of Germanicopolis.
OUTCOME: After a devastating defeat at the Battle of Germanicopolis, the augmented Muslim forces reinvaded the Byzantine Empire, defeated its army, and exacted tribute.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce and tribute agreement

Following the death of Constantine V Copronymous (718–775), the long rivalry between the Byzantines and the Muslims revived, and the Muslims resumed their annual raids into the Byzantine Empire. At last, in 778, the Arabs made a full-scale invasion into Anatolia (most of modern Turkey), but were defeated at the Battle of Germanicopolis in 779. During the battle and in its aftermath, Emperor Leo IV (749–780), the Byzantine commander in chief, ordered the slaughter of thousands of Muslims. His goal was nothing less than genocide.

In 780 Caliph Muhammad al-Mahdi (742–786) vowed revenge and for that purpose assembled a formidable army consisting of Mesopotamians, Syrians, and Khorasanians, diverse peoples united only by their Islamic opposition to Christian Byzantium. By this time, however, Leo IV had died, leaving as his successor Constantine VI (771–c. 797), who was a boy of nine. His mother, Irene (752–803), acting as regent, responded decisively by dispatching her armies to meet and destroy the Muslims. They failed. Under the command of the caliph's son Harun al-Rashid (766–809), the Arab forces won victory after victory, pushing the Byzantines before them as they advanced westward. By 783 the Muslim army had reached the Bosporus and there dealt the Byzantines a decisive blow at the Battle of Nicomedia. A much abashed Irene had no choice but to sue for peace. The terms granted called for a truce of three years, during which period the Byzantine Empire would pay the Muslims annual tribute.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

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Byzantine-Muslim War (797–798)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Muslims under Harun al-Rashid
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vicinity of the cities of Ephesus and Ancyra (Ankara)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Muslims invaded the Byzantine Empire to exact tribute money.
OUTCOME: Empress Irene, realizing that her forces were no match for those of the caliph, agreed to resume the tribute payments that had accompanied the truce ending the Byzantine-Muslim War of 778–83.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Resumption of the truce ending the 778–83 war.

Following the BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783), the Byzantine empress Irene (752–803) had agreed for a period to pay the Muslim victors an annual tribute. In the meantime, she also greatly reduced the strength of her armies in order to forestall the possibility of a military coup in the chronically unstable Byzantine Empire. This, of course, left the empire vulnerable to attack, and, after the tribute period expired and Irene halted payment, the stage was set for yet another Muslim invasion.

Harun al-Rashid (766–809) became Muslim caliph in 786. He set about rebuilding Tarsus, a venerable city razed by the Arabs in about 600. He fortified Tarsus as well as the city of Hadath, intending to use both as staging areas for an invasion of the Byzantine Empire. Finally, in 797 al-Rashid's armies began their advance into the empire, quickly taking the important cities of Ephesus and Ancyra (Ankara). Faced with the prospect of further invasion and with a greatly reduced army, Irene agreed to resume the tribute payments that had accompanied the end of the 778–783 war. She counted this less a military defeat than an alternative to creating a Byzantine army sufficiently powerful to overthrow her. Forced to choose between her own generals and the Ottoman Turks, Irene cast her lot with the latter.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

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Byzantine-Muslim War (803–809)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Byzantine emperor Nicephorus I repeatedly broke the truce Empress Irene had concluded with Caliph Harun al-Rashid.
OUTCOME: After disastrous early defeats followed by short-lived truces, Nicephorus mounted a successful counteroffensive that restored peace.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: An enduring truce was concluded in 809.

In order to conclude the disastrous BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798), Empress Irene (752–803) purchased a truce in exchange for annual tribute payments. It was less an act of desperation than a calculated move to limit the power of the Byzantine military, which always threatened a coup. Her successor, Emperor Nicephorus I (d. 811), having built up the Byzantine army that Irene had reduced, was confident of victory against the Muslims. Accordingly, he not only called a halt to the payment of tribute, but deliberately provoked war by writing an insulting letter to Caliph Harun al-Rashid (766–809).

The letter proved effective. The caliph led an army of invasion across the Taurus Mountains of Anatolia in 803, quickly capturing the Byzantine city of Heracles Cybistra (Eregli). When this occurred Nicephorus suddenly repented of his rashness and sued for peace. A treaty was drawn up, but almost instantly, Nicephorus broke the truce, and Al-Rashid invaded again—this time with redoubled vigor, raiding and razing the towns of Anatolia as he pushed northward. Reeling from this devastating juggernaut, Nicephorus again sued for peace—and again, he broke it. In response the Muslims took Tyana and Ancyra (Ankara) in 806 and over the course of 805–807 laid waste to Rhodes and Cyprus.

At last, during 807–09, with key imperial possessions in Ottoman lands, Nicephorus was able to mount an effective counteroffensive. This, combined with the intensifying demands of the KHORASAN REBELLION in 806–809, forced the caliph to break off the war and to relinquish captured Byzantine territory. An enduring truce was concluded in 809.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995).

Byzantine-Muslim War (830–841)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantines vs. Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In the first phase of the conflict, a desire for plunder motivated the Muslims; in the second phase revenge for Byzantine victories was the principal motivation.
OUTCOME: A truce restored the status quo ante bellum.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: A truce was concluded in 841.

The truce concluded between the Muslims and the Byzantines in 809 (*see* BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR [803–809]) was broken not by the Byzantines (who had violated many prior truces), but by Caliph al-Ma'mun (785–833), who annually raided Byzantine lands during 830, 831, and 832. Emperor Theophilus (d. 842) sued for peace, but the caliph persisted in his aggressive course. The caliph's death from disease in 833 cut short his program of aggression, even as he led an assault against the Byzantine fortress of Amorium and then Constantinople, after capturing the town of Tyana.

The caliph's death brought an uneasy de facto truce. Now it was Theophilus's turn to violate the peace. In 837 he aided the Khurramite rebel Babak al-Khorrami (d. 838) during the KHURRAMITES' REVOLT. Babak's object, which Theophilus endorsed, was nothing less than to suppress the expansion of Islam. Theophilus led his Byzantine armies as far as the Euphrates River in northeastern Syria, devastating the Muslim towns of Samosata and Zibatra. In response al-Ma'mun's successor, Abu Ishak al-Mu'tasim (r. 833–842), assembled a vast Muslim army—the greatest ever formed under a single caliph—consisting of Turkish slaves as well as Arab warriors. He marched into Anatolia (much of present-day Turkey), where he crushed Theophilus's army at the Battle of Dazimon on the Halys River in July 838. Capitalizing on this triumph, the caliph laid siege to Ancyra (Ankara) and Amorium, capturing both.

As with so many would-be conquerors, Muslim and otherwise, Al-Mu'tasim's grand design was to take Constantinople. However, nature intervened in the form of a great storm, which swamped the Arab fleet in 839. This accident gave Theophilus time to regroup his shattered forces, and he was able to push the invaders back to the frontier. The caliph and the emperor concluded a truce in 841.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995).

Byzantine-Muslim War (851–863)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantines vs. Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia and Egypt
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Byzantines sought to bring an end to Muslim raids on their territory.
OUTCOME: With the defeat of the Muslims in Anatolia and the death of the Abbasid commander Omar, Muslim expansion came to a temporary halt.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Generally unknown, although it is recorded that 10,000 Arab prisoners were taken at Amida (Diyarbakir) in 854.
TREATIES: None

In medieval government, so-called sovereigns rarely exercised absolute control or authority over their subjects. Truces and treaties were made, but the actions of groups and individuals often violated their terms. So it was in 851. Despite the truce concluded between the Muslims and Byzantines following the BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR

(830–841), Muslim raiders continued to harry the Byzantine Empire, prompting, in 851, a Byzantine response in the form of a massive offensive. The offensive swept the raiders out of Byzantine-held lands and culminated in 853 with an amphibious invasion of Egypt. Byzantine forces destroyed the city of Damietta (Dumyat), while in Muslim-held Anatolia (most of modern Turkey) Byzantine forces defeated the Muslims at Amida (Diyarbakir), where 10,000 Arab prisoners were taken.

From 853 to 860 Arab forces were on the run. Then, late in 860 the Muslims rallied and, securing military aid from the Paulicans, a heretical Christian sect persecuted by the Byzantines, defeated the forces of Byzantine emperor Michael III (836–867) in a battle on the Euphrates River in northern Syria.

The Euphrates clash was the last major battle until 863. The combat cooled into a grim succession of skirmishes, raids, and counterraids. The result of these was a general war weariness that produced a truce and an exchange of prisoners. Briefly, this reinvigorated the war's major phase. In 863 a large Muslim army led by the Abbasid commander Omar (d. 863) invaded Anatolia, sacked the Black Sea port of Amisus (Samsun), and pillaged the regions of Paphlagonia and Galatia.

The Byzantines responded by attacking Omar's army, which withdrew to the Anti-Taurus Mountains. With uncharacteristic vigor, Byzantine forces pursued the Arabs into the mountains and virtually annihilated the army. Omar himself fell in battle. With this Byzantine victory the expansion of the Muslim realm came to a temporary halt.

See also Byzantine-Muslim War (633–642); Byzantine-Muslim War (645–656); Byzantine-Muslim War (668–679); Byzantine-Muslim (698–718); Byzantine-Muslim War (739); Byzantine-Muslim War (741–752); Byzantine-Muslim War (778–783); Byzantine-Muslim War (797–798); Byzantine-Muslim War (803–809); Byzantine-Muslim War (830–841); Byzantine-Muslim War (871–885); Byzantine-Muslim War (960–976); Byzantine-Muslim War (995–999); Byzantine-Muslim War (1030–1035).

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995).

Byzantine-Muslim War (871–885)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantines vs. Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Euphrates region, Italy, and Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Byzantines sought to expand their eastern frontiers.
OUTCOME: Weakened by internal strife, the Muslims suffered a series of defeats and were driven out of parts of Italy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The hard-fought Byzantine-Muslim War (851–863) had brought an end to Muslim raiding and invasion of Byzantine territories. Byzantine emperor Basil I (c. 813–886), however, was not content with allowing this relatively peaceful state of affairs to endure. His bellicosity resulted from a combination of religious zeal, tradition, and a very real fear that unless the Arabs were totally defeated, war would resume on Muslim terms and at the peril of the empire.

Thus, when Basil saw that the Muslim caliphate was torn and weakened by the Muslim Civil War (861–870), he resolved to capitalize on the turmoil by extending the eastern frontier of his empire. He led an army to the upper Euphrates River at Samosata (Samsat) and there met and defeated the sorely depleted Muslim forces in 873. Next, Basil embarked on an expedition to push Muslim invaders out of Sicily and southern Italy. Allying himself with Holy Roman Emperor Louis II (d. 875), Basil laid siege to Muslim-held Bari, which fell in 875.

Ultimately, Basil did not succeed in driving the Muslims out of Sicily. As usual, logistics was the problem. Limited supplies prompted his withdrawal. Nevertheless, Basil was able to reclaim all Tarentum (Taranto) in 880 and Calabria in 885. Tarentum served as a permanent refuge for Christians driven out of Sicily by the Muslims. Significant though these gains were, Basil had hardly succeeded in his objective of annihilating the Muslim armies, vulnerable as they were at the time.

See also Byzantine-Muslim War (633–642); Byzantine-Muslim War (645–656); Byzantine-Muslim War (668–679); Byzantine-Muslim War (698–718); Byzantine-Muslim War (739); Byzantine-Muslim War (741–752); Byzantine-Muslim War (778–783); Byzantine-Muslim War (797–798); Byzantine-Muslim War (803–809); Byzantine-Muslim War (830–841); Byzantine-Muslim War (851–863); Byzantine-Muslim War (960–976); Byzantine-Muslim War (995–999); Byzantine-Muslim War (1030–1035).

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries,* vol. 1 (New York: Knopf, 1989); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine-Muslim War (960–976)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Hamdanid and Fatimid Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia and Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The war began as a Byzantine counteroffensive to drive the Muslims out of Anatolia but developed into an invasion of Muslim territories as far as Jerusalem.
OUTCOME: The Muslims were pushed out of Anatolia, and several key cities in Syria fell to the Byzantines, who were finally stopped at Jerusalem.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Forces of the Hamdanids, a Muslim dynasty of northern Iraq and Syria, repeatedly raided Anatolia (most of modern Turkey) during the late 950s and early 960s. In response the Byzantine emperor Nicephorus II (d. 969) launched a counteroffensive, seizing the province of Cilicia and capturing Adana and Tarsus in 965. Next, Nicephorus marched into Syria and northern Mesopotamia, occupying Antioch and in 969 Aleppo. In the wake of these losses, the Hamdanid leader Sa'd ad-Dalwah (r. 967–971), sued for peace. Nicephorus was apparently quite willing to come to terms, but in 969 he was assassinated by John Tzimisces (925–976), who then became the Byzantine co-emperor. Aggressive by nature, John spurned the Hamdanid olive branch and resumed the invasion of Syria, capturing Damascus in 974.

The Byzantine advance was finally stopped in 976 at Jerusalem by another Muslim dynasty, the Fatimids. This, combined with the death of Tzimisces later in the year, brought the war to a close.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *Islam: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 1991); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine-Muslim War (995–999)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Fatimid and Hamdanid Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ostensibly, the Byzantine objective was to aid the Hamdanids in resisting Fatimid invasion. However, the Byzantines also sought to forestall an anticipated Hamdanid invasion of the empire.
OUTCOME: The Fatimid invasion was pushed back, and Byzantine dominance over the Hamdanids was likewise reinforced.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: A 10-year truce was concluded between the Byzantine Empire and the Fatimids of Egypt.

Warfare was chronic between the Christian Byzantines and the Muslims of the Middle East during the early medieval period. Rarely was either side able to achieve decisive victory, and so each side watched the other for signs of internal weakness, which could be exploited. Byzantine emperor Basil II (c. 958–1025) was keenly interested when in 995 the Hamdanids, a Muslim dynasty living in Byzantine-occupied Syria, appealed to him for help in defending against the invading Fatimids, a rival Muslim dynasty from Egypt. Basil allied himself with the Hamdanids to push back the Fatimids but soon turned on his allies by attacking the Hamdanid city of Homs in Syria. Basil justified his treachery on two grounds: He believed the Hamdanids were planning to invade the Byzantine Empire, and he believed it his Christian mission to oppose Islam at every opportunity.

The attack completed, the Byzantine emperor led his troops through northern Syria during 999, continuing to push the Fatimids before him until, exhausted, the Fatimids negotiated a 10-year truce on terms highly favorable to the Byzantines. In this way Basil had subdued two major Islamic dynasties.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *Islam: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium*

(New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine-Muslim War (1030–1035)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire, Ragusa, and Viking mercenaries vs. Dalmatian Muslim pirates
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Adriatic Sea and Mediterranean Ocean, with some activity on the North African coast
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Byzantine Empire sought to destroy the Muslim pirates of Dalmatia.
OUTCOME: The pirates were eliminated from the Adriatic and Mediterranean.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Unlike the earlier conflicts between the Byzantine Christians and their Muslim neighbors, this was a dispute over neither religion nor territory, but rather over piracy. Although the Muslim pirates of the Dalmatian coast had been driven from their bases of operations, Curzola and Lagosta, thanks to the ruthless persistence of the 10th-century Venetian privateers, they persisted in terrorizing the Adriatic well into the 11th century. Pirate raids became so costly to the city-state of Ragusa (Dubrovnik) that it eagerly joined the Byzantine Empire in return for protection against this single menace.

Byzantine empress Zoë (980–1050) and her husband Emperor Romanus III Argyrus (c. 968–1034) launched a vigorous series of naval campaigns against the pirates. In 1032 Byzantine and Ragusan vessels systematically operated against and eliminated the pirates in the Adriatic. This accomplished, Byzantine ships manned by mercenary Viking crews patrolled the Mediterranean, acting as decoys to draw the pirates out, then attacking them. This decoy operation was accompanied by strictly punitive action against the Muslim cities and towns along the North African coast.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (633–642); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (645–656); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (668–679); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (698–718); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (739); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (778–783); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (797–798); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (803–809); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (871–885); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999).

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine Naval Wars against the Muslim Pirates

See BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (1030–1035).

Byzantine–Ottoman Turk War (1302–1326)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Ottoman Turks; the Catalan Company, in service to the Byzantines, fought the Ottomans, then rebelled against the Byzantines.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Asia Minor, Thrace, and Macedonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: To expel Ottoman invaders, the Byzantines hired the mercenary Catalan Company; subsequently, protesting insufficient payment, the Catalan Company rebelled against the Byzantines.
OUTCOME: Although the Catalan Company scored an important victory against the Ottomans, they proved a scourge to the Byzantines, whose major cities were also besieged by the Ottomans. Ultimately, Bursa was lost to the Ottomans.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 6,500 Catalan mercenaries; unknown Byzantines and Turks
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When the Mongol hordes drove them out of western Asia, the Ottoman Turks moved south into territory controlled by the Byzantine Empire. Under Osman I (1258–1326) they overcame Byzantine resistance to their invasion, defeating Byzantine forces at Nicomedia near the Bosporus Strait in 1302.

Unfortunately for the Byzantines, Emperor Andronicus II Palaeologus (1260–1332) had drastically reduced the imperial army in order to save money. To defend the empire he now hired the Catalan Company, consisting of some 6,500 Spanish mercenaries led by a former pirate named Roger de Flor (d. 1305). The Catalans met and defeated the Turks at Philadelphia in western Asia Minor in 1304. Within two years, de Flor was married into Byzantium's royal family and dreamed of his own independent

kingdom carved out of the empire. Victories in the East fed his hopes. When the emperor, chronically short of cash, proved unable to pay the mercenaries, de Flor actually besieged Constantinople during the subsequent Catalan unrest. The siege failed, but the revolt resulted in an agreement in which Andronicus granted de Flor's demand for the whole of Byzantine Anatolia in fief.

In the spring of 1305 Roger de Flor visited with members of the Byzantine court at Adrianople, hoping to smooth over misunderstandings with his wife's family. As he departed, the emperor had him assassinated, an act that triggered an orgy of revenge by the Catalan Company throughout Thrace and Macedonia. The empire would not be rid of the Catalans until 1311, when the last of the mercenaries left for Greece, where they established a duchy at Athens, which was to last another 77 years.

After the Catalans turned against them, the Byzantines were plagued by a chronic state of Ottoman siege. The Turks established a chain of forts around such major Byzantine cities as Bursa and Nicomedia. Bursa suffered the worst. It was besieged for nine years before the inhabitants, on the verge of starvation, finally surrendered to the Turks in 1326. The captured city became the capital of the Ottoman Empire, serving as such until Adrianople fell to the Ottoman Turks in 1413.

See also BYZANTINE–OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1329–1338).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *Islam: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); Michael Balivet, *Byzantines and Ottomans: Relations, Interaction, Succession* (Istanbul: Editions Isis, 1999); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: Decline and Fall,* vol. 3 (New York: Knopf, 1996); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine–Ottoman Turk War (1329–1338)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Capitalizing on the weakness of the Byzantines, who were torn by civil war, the Turks sought territory.
OUTCOME: After suffering repeated defeat, the Byzantines agreed to a truce and anti-Serb alliance with the Turks.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce and anti-Serb alliance

Orkhan (1288–1360) succeeded his father, Osman I (1258–1326), as leader of the Ottoman Turks. As only the second Ottoman ruler, Orkhan was anxious to expand the holdings of the dynasty and therefore settled his people on the Gallipoli Peninsula, between the Aegean Sea and the Dardanelles, during the later 1320s. This gave him a strategic base from which he could launch invasions into Byzantine Thrace and Macedonia at will. Orkhan exploited Byzantine weakness, brought on by the long and draining BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1321–1328) and attacked beginning in 1329. At the battle of Pelekanus came the first personal encounter between a Byzantine emperor and an Ottoman emir. Unable to repulse Turkish invaders—who captured Nicaea in 1331 and Nicomedia in 1337, finally seizing the whole of western Asia Minor by 1338—Byzantine emperor Andronicus III Palaeologus (1296–1341) accepted a truce that offered alliance with the empire against a new threat, the Serbs—under their ambitious leader Stephen Dushan (c. 1308–55).

See also BYZANTINE–OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1302–1326); BYZANTINE–OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1359–1399).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *Islam: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); Michael Balivet, *Byzantines and Ottomans: Relations, Interaction, Succession* (Istanbul: Editions Isis, 1999); David M. Nicol, *The Last Centuries of Byzantium, 1261–1453* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine–Ottoman Turk War (1359–1399)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire (with aid from Serbs, Bulgars, Bosnians, Albanians, and others in 1389) vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Most of the Byzantine Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottomans sought to conquer the Byzantine Empire.
OUTCOME: While most of the Byzantine Empire fell to the Ottomans, the last vestige, the city of Constantinople, stubbornly resisted.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

John V Palaeologus (1332–91) wrested the Byzantine throne from John VI Cantacuzene (1292–1383) in 1354, then pleaded for military aid from the principalities at the

fringes of the empire to fight against Ottoman Turk invaders. His pleas were in vain, and by 1359 the Turks, always prepared to exploit evidence of Byzantine vulnerability, surrounded Constantinople. The fact was that by this time most of the Byzantine territories had fallen to the Ottomans.

While his forces continued to defend Constantinople, John V Palaeologus traveled to Rome in 1369 to secure help. It was a desperate journey, during which the Turks fought on, defeating Serb forces, which sought to carve a portion of the ailing empire for themselves. By 1371 all of Macedonia was in Ottoman hands.

John V Palaeologus finally managed to raise a Christian army of Serbs, Bulgars, Bosnians, Albanians, and others. But it was too little too late. So thoroughly established were the Ottomans that, at the Battle of Kosovo in 1389, they quickly crushed their opposition. With the Byzantine Empire tottering, the Ottomans laid full siege to Constantinople for an entire decade. Still, the city resisted, and in 1399 an army of mercenaries forced the exhausted and frustrated Ottomans to lift the siege and withdraw.

See also BYZANTINE–OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1329–1338); BYZANTINE–OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1422); BYZANTINE–OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1453–1461).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *Islam: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); Michael Balivet, *Byzantines and Ottomans: Relations, Interaction, Succession* (Istanbul: Editions Isis, 1999); David M. Nicol, *The Last Centuries of Byzantium, 1261–1453* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine–Ottoman Turk War (1422)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Outside Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Murad II wanted to capture Constantinople.
OUTCOME: Internal strife and the strength of Constantinople's defenses compelled Murad to break off his siege.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This brief conflict was ignited when Byzantine emperor John VIII Palaeologus (1391–1448) sought to destabilize the Ottomans. This was an old and long-familiar game. Unable to triumph over the Turks, the Byzantines repeatedly looked to exploit any sign of internal Ottoman weakness. Provoking dissension at the highest levels of government, John encouraged a pretender to usurp the throne from the ascending sultan, Murad II (1403–51). The new sultan discovered the plot and easily checked it in 1421. Enraged, he broke the truce that had concluded the BYZANTINE-OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1359–1399) by attacking Constantinople in 1422. As in the past, the city's geographic situation and the strength of its walls and other defenses withstood the siege. Moreover, Murad found himself threatened by yet another pretender, also probably encouraged by the Byzantines. He broke off the siege and returned home, the war having come to nothing.

See also BYZANTINE–OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1453–1461).

Further reading: John Ash, *Byzantine Journey* (New York: Random House, 1995); Michael Balivet, *Byzantines and Ottomans: Relations, Interaction, Succession* (Istanbul: Editions Isis, 1999); David M. Nicol, *The Last Centuries of Byzantium, 1261–1453* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine–Ottoman Turk War (1453–1461)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople, Anatolia, and the Balkans
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sultan Muhammad II the Conqueror wished to conquer the tottering Byzantine Empire and to take Constantinople as a prize.
OUTCOME: The Byzantine Empire and its possessions fell to the Turks, as did Constantinople, which, however, had been largely despoiled by the conquerors.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 10,000 Byzantines vs. 80,000 Ottoman Turks
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the opening year of the war, the Ottoman Turks under Sultan Muhammad II (1429–81) invaded what remained of the Byzantine Empire and closed in on Constantinople. On April 6, 1453, the 80,000-man Ottoman army laid siege to Constantinople, which was defended by Byzantine emperor Constantine XI Palaeologus (1404–53), who had only 10,000 men at his command. The Ottomans set up a

naval blockade and successfully fought off the Venetian fleet, which had come to the city's aid. The defenders in Constantinople also included a Genoese contingent, some from the nearby trading post at Galata, others from the city of Genoa itself. There was a Spanish grandee and a small party of Catalans, most of whom were permanent residents but a few of whom were sailors. But theirs was merely a forlorn hope against the forces of the sultan, who personally watched every movement of the battle from the shore. The Turks pounded the capital's walls with cannon fire, creating a breach sufficient to admit them on May 29. Constantine was killed in the final phase of the battle.

Muhammad had wanted to preserve the city as the glorious prize that had eluded his predecessors. He had promised his soldiers the three days of looting allowed by Islamic tradition. But so violent was the subsequent attack on the Byzantine population and so grand the plundering of the city, that he brought the sack to a sudden halt on the same day it started without protest from his troops, who had by then little left to steal and few to rape and slaughter.

Following the fall of Constantinople the Byzantines desperately tried to retain the few vestiges of empire remaining to them, but the Turks readily overwhelmed the Greek, Latin, and Slavic lands in the Balkans and Anatolia (Turkey). Belgrade put up a stout resistance. It did not become an Ottoman possession until 1456. In Greece Athens and the principality of Morea (Peloponnese) also fell in 1456. Trebizond, on the Black Sea, stood as the final Greek successor state of the Byzantine Empire until 1461, when its emperor, David Comnenus (d. c. 1462), surrendered to Muhammad II.

See also Byzantine–Ottoman Turk War (1422).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *Islam: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); Michael Balivet, *Byzantines and Ottomans: Relations, Interaction, Succession* (Istanbul: Editions Isis, 1999); David M. Nicol, *The Last Centuries of Byzantium, 1261–1453* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine-Persian War (603–628)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire (with Khazar Turk allies) vs. the Persian Empire (with Slav allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Byzantine Empire and Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Persians wanted to conquer the Byzantine Empire; the Byzantines, having lost much territory, fought to regain it.
OUTCOME: In the early phases of the war, the Persians overran the Byzantines, conquering huge territories; in the later phases of the war, the Byzantines recovered the lost territory and invaded Persia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Byzantine Empire, 50,000; Persia, 40,000.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

PHOCAS MUTINY, HERACLIUS'S REVOLT AND PERSIAN CONQUESTS, 603–620

In 602 a Byzantine centurion named Phocas (d. 610) led a mutinous army to Constantinople, where he forced the Byzantine emperor, Maurice (c. 539–602), to abdicate and then murdered him. Heraclius the Elder, the exarch of Africa, had been a loyal subject of Maurice, and he refused to accept Phocas as ruler of the Byzantine (or eastern Roman) Empire. Heraclius sent a fleet from Carthage to Constantinople under the command of his son, also named Heraclius (c. 575–641). The city's citizens rose in rebellion and aided Heraclius in his overthrow of Phocas, who was killed by a mob. The young Heraclius then was given the throne by popular demand.

Persia, locked in a permanent state of enmity with Byzantium, took advantage of the turmoil to engage in full-scale war. Chosroes II (fl. 590–628), with visions of expanding his kingdom, had attacked the empire's frontiers in 603 and 605, taking the Palestine port city of Caesarea. Heraclius responded and succeeded in pushing the Persians out of Caesarea in 611, then took the offensive and laid siege to the Persian city of Antioch in 613. However, that same year saw a series of Byzantine defeats as, one by one, the Byzantine provinces of Syria, Tarsus, and Armenia were lost to the Persians. Jerusalem fell in 614, the same year Chosroes began an all-out effort to conquer Anatolia. By 616 Persian general Sharen had captured Chalcedon on the Bosporus. For the next 10 years the Persian forces remained within a mile of Constantinople, and they continued to make other gains, capturing Ancyra and Rhodes in 620. Meanwhile, in 616 Chosroes had turned toward Egypt. He defeated Byzantine garrisons in the Nile valley and marched across the Libyan desert to Cyrene, thereby cutting off trade routes between Egypt and Constantinople. In 619 all of Egypt fell.

THE ISSUS CAMPAIGN, 622–623

Having lost control of Syria, Anatolia, and Egypt and facing the Persian enemy across the Bosporus, Emperor Heraclius was in despair. He was in the midst of making plans to sail for his homeland of Africa when the patriarch of Constantinople, Sergius (d. 638), sparked a patriotic resurgence in the city. Sergius made Heraclius promise never to abandon the capital and promised all the resources

of the church to aid the emperor in defense of Constantinople. Heraclius increased the size of his army, in part by recruiting monks from monasteries, and seized church property. He also made peace with the Avar chieftain whose raiders threatened the walls of Constantinople. Heraclius was then ready to turn his army against the Persians. In April 622 he set sail from Constantinople and landed near Alexandretta and ancient Issus. Immediately he seized control of the three passes by which the coastal plain of Issus is accessible. He also successfully repulsed the probes made by Persians under General Shahr Baraz. By October 622 Heraclius was ready for his main attack. Pretending to march through the Amanic Gates leading toward Armenia, he lured the Persians into battle on the heights above Issus. Heraclius then feigned retreat, drawing the Persians toward the plain. Meanwhile, the main body of his army pushed eastward through another pass. The rear guard repulsed Persian attacks, and the main body of the army left General Shahr Baraz behind. After a few days of countermarching, Shahr Baraz sent his men into Pontus in search of Heraclius's army. By year's end the two armies faced each other in the Anti-Taurus Mountains along the upper Halys River. There Heraclius annihilated an entire Persian unit, and the main body of the Persian army fled in disorder.

HERACLIUS'S INVASION OF PERSIA, 623–625

In 623 Heraclius left his son Constantine III (612–641) in command of the city's defenses and set sail with 5,000 men. Joining his main army in Trapezus, Heraclius raised even more recruits in Pontus. At last he was ready to make his move. Heraclius and his mighty army pushed through the mountains of Armenia to northern Media (northwest Persia) and sped toward the capital, Tabriz (Tauris).

Chosroes hastened to defend Media, but with his army outnumbered by as many as 10,000 men, he withdrew from the battlefield. Heraclius was then in control of the capital city. He then moved on to Thebarma and captured the birthplace of Zoroaster. At the end of this campaign, he withdrew his army to winter quarters in the Araxes valley of Albania.

After wintering in Albania, Heraclius set his sights on Persia proper. He and his army moved along the shores of the Caspian Sea and then pushed through the Hyrcanian Mountains into Persia. Chosroes ordered his troops from Chalcedon to central Persia, where he divided his forces into three great armies. Heraclius maneuvered successfully along the interior lines of the three Persian armies before withdrawing his forces to winter in Media. The Persian armies then went into winter quarters nearby.

Heraclius, however, had certainly not finished fighting. Early in the spring of 625, he marched his army through the mountains of Corcuene (Kurdistan) and crossed the Tigris River. The Persians, surprised by the speed with which the Byzantines traveled, were unable to stop Heraclius from recapturing the towns of Amida and Martyropolis. The Persian army then withdrew across the Euphrates River, while Heraclius moved forward into Cilicia. There he faced Persian general Shahr Bazar along the Sarus River. Heraclius won the battle there, and Shahr Bazar was forced to withdraw under pursuit by the Byzantines.

HERACLIUS'S INVASION OF ASSYRIA, 627

After the success of the Byzantine army in Corduene and Mesopotamia and the victory at the Battle of the Sarus, Persia allied itself with the Avars, who had been threatening the walls of Constantinople off and on for more than two decades. Heraclius raced back to the capital to organize the city's defenses. The Persians and Avars attacked the city throughout the summer of 626 without success. The defenses held, and the allies withdrew. In spring 627 Heraclius was again ready to go on the offensive.

Having made his own alliance with Ziebel, khan of the Khazars, for an invasion of Persia, Heraclius marched through Syria, Mesopotamia, and southern Armenia. Along the way he regained control of most of the Byzantine fortresses that had fallen to the Persians 10 to 15 years before. Heraclius then marched to the upper Tigris and turned southward toward Assyria. In December 627 the armies, evenly matched in strength, squared off on the Assyrian plain.

By nightfall the Persian army was routed in this decisive battle. Though wounded in battle, Heraclius refused to withdraw, and he pursued the retreating Persians into Assyria. Rather than assault the Persian capital, he withdrew to the northeast to recuperate and rest his army and sent an offer of peace to Chosroes II. When the Persian king refused to accept the terms offered by Heraclius, his countrymen rose against him and installed his son Kavadh II as king. The Persians relinquished all their conquests and surrendered their battle trophies, including the relic of the True Cross. Heraclius then returned to Constantinople having defeated the Persians in this last war between the east Roman and Sassanid Empires.

See also JUSTINIAN'S FIRST PERSIAN WAR; JUSTINIAN'S SECOND PERSIAN WAR; ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR OF 502–506; ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR OF 572–591.

Further reading: J. M. Cook, *The Persian Empire* (New York: Schoken Books, 1983); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries,* vol. 1 (New York: Knopf, 2003); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia*, 2 vols. (New York: RoutledgeCurzon, 2003); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine Revolts (976–989)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: In the first revolt, elements loyal to Emperor Basil II vs. forces of the pretender Bardas Skleros; in the second revolt, Basil II vs. combined forces of Bardas Skleros and Bardas Phocus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Asia Minor and Byzantine Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Byzantine general Bardas Skleros wanted to seize the throne from Basil II.
OUTCOME: The first revolt resulted in the defeat of Bardas Skleros; the second resulted in the defeat of Skleros and his collaborator, Bardas Phocus.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the death of Byzantine emperor John Tzimisces (925–976), his two sons, Romanus II and Basil II (c. 958–1025), ascended jointly to the throne. Basil, aged 19, took charge of the vast empire. Bardas Skleros (915–991) was a Byzantine aristocrat and landowner, a popular and powerful general and the brother-in-law of former emperor Tzimisces. Opposed to Basil's plan for land reform within the empire, which called for the confiscation of some privately owned lands in order to return them to the peasantry, Skleros immediately launched a revolt against the teenaged ruler. During his three-year march through Asia Minor and Byzantine Syria, Skleros seized vast tracts of territory. He was proclaimed emperor by his own troops and won recognition as the legitimate sovereign of Byzantium from the Melitene Arabs.

Basil assembled his army under the at least nominally loyal general Bardas Phocus (d. 989). Bardas Phocus had, in fact, rebelled against Basil's father and failed, before joining a monastery—as disgraced or retired public figures often did in Byzantium. Now he flung off his habit, swore a soon-to-be-violated oath of loyalty to the emperor, secretly made his way back to his old power base at Caesara, raised an army and launched into battle, defeating Skleros's forces in March 979 at the Battle of Pankalia. The rebel general found refuge with the caliph of Baghdad.

Nine years after Bardas Phocus quelled the revolts, he himself turned against Basil and conspired with Skleros to seize the throne at Constantinople. For a period Constantinople appeared to be in danger of falling to the generals, but Basil received a contingent of mercenaries from his brother-in-law, Vladimir (960–1015), prince of Kiev, which successfully overran the rebels at the Battle of Chrysopolis in 988 and crushed them at the Battle of Abydos the following year. During the rebellion Phocus succumbed to a heart attack, and with his death the rebellion too died. Skleros fled but subsequently returned and submitted to Basil.

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001); Mark Whittow, *The Making of Byzantium, 600–1025* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1996).

Byzantine-Russian Invasion of Bulgaria

See Russian-Bulgarian War (969–972); Byzantine-Russian War (970–972).

Byzantine-Russian War (970–972)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Kievan Russians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bulgaria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Russians, called on by the Byzantines to suppress Bulgar rebels, attempted to seize Bulgaria for themselves.
OUTCOME: The Russians were ejected from Bulgaria, and the Bulgars were suppressed; Bulgaria became part of the Byzantine Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Kievan Russians, like many other nominal allies of the Byzantines, had a history of turning against the empire when the occasion seemed opportune. For example, Russian forces moved against Byzantine-held Bithynia in 911 and against Byzantine possessions in the Danube River valley in 943. Returning to the Byzantine alliance after this latter conquest, Russia fought the Russian-Bulgarian War at the behest of the Byzantines, who wanted to suppress the rebellious Bulgars in its client state. Victory won, however, the Kievan prince Sviatoslav (d. 972) decided simply to seize this Byzantine realm as a western frontier for his own realm.

In 971 Byzantines under Emperor John Tzimisces (925–976) attacked the turncoat Russians as well as the Bulgars, taking captive the Bulgar puppet czar Sviatoslav had set up at Preslav. After victory at the Battle of Preslav, Tzimisces besieged the Danubian city of Silistria, forcing Sviatoslav himself to surrender. After this the Russians broke off their conquest of Bulgaria, and the rebellion

there likewise ended. Bulgaria, hitherto a semi-independent client of the Byzantine Empire, became wholly a Byzantine possession, and the Kievan Russians did not attempt a new attack on their erstwhile ally.

See also BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (981–1018); RUSSIAN DYNASTIC WAR (972–980).

Further reading: Janet Maring, *Medieval Russia, 980–1584* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1995); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001); Mark Whittow, *The Making of Byzantium, 600–1025* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1996).

Byzantine–Seljuk Turk War (1048–1049)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Seljuk Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Armenia and eastern Turkey
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Seljuks invaded the eastern provinces of the Byzantine Empire; the empire forced their withdrawal.
OUTCOME: The Seljuks withdrew from Armenia and eastern Turkey.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This brief conflict began when a band of Seljuk Turks invaded the eastern provinces of the Byzantine Empire. They attacked Kars, a fortified city in Armenia, defeating the defenders. Emperor Constantine IX Monomachus (c. 1000–55) owed his elevation to the throne to the empress Zoë, who took him as her third husband. To all appearances he was quite unfit to rule, spending vast sums on luxury while neglecting the military. Astoundingly, however, he dispatched Byzantine armed forces to the area west of Lake Van (in eastern Turkey), where the Seljuks had settled. Poorly equipped and indifferently led, the Byzantines nevertheless forced the Turks to withdraw after a few minor battles.

See also BYZANTINE–SELJUK TURK WAR (1064–1081).

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine–Seljuk Turk War (1064–1081)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Seljuk Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Armenia and eastern Anatolia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Seljuks sought territorial expansion into the Byzantine Empire.
OUTCOME: Although the Byzantines ultimately checked the Seljuk advance, the peace settlement gave the Seljuks all the territory they had conquered.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Byzantine Empire, 40,000; Seljuk forces, 70,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No document survives, but a formal settlement ceded conquered territories to the Seljuks in return for peace.

The Seljuk Turks had briefly occupied Armenia and eastern Anatolia (eastern Turkey) during the BYZANTINE-SELJUK TURK WAR (1048–1049) but were expelled with surprising ease. However, over the years many other Turkish groups invaded the Byzantine Empire. Their weakness was in their disunity. While individual commanders might succeed in capturing an objective, the Seljuks were rarely able to retain much territory. In 1064, however, the strong Seljuk leader Alp Arslan (1029–72) led an army into Anatolia, taking the city of Ani and then ravaging Armenia.

Alp Arslan brought to Seljuk warfare a degree of coordination and follow-through hitherto unknown. Over the course of the next three years, Alp Arslan's Seljuk forces penetrated deep into Anatolia, and the Byzantine emperor, Romanus IV Diogenes (d. 1072), launched a vigorous counteroffensive. Successful at first, Romanus pushed the Seljuks back from their position in Heraclea to Aleppo. There, however, they regrouped and mounted a new invasion in 1070, defeating the Byzantines at Sebastia. In Armenia at the village of Manzikert during August 1071, the Seljuks won a great battle against the whole of the 40,000-man Byzantine army. Arp Arslan offered Romanus terms, but, despite being vastly outnumbered by the 70,000 Turks assembled, Romanus refused. Arp Arslan enveloped his forces and crushed them, taking Romanus himself prisoner. Romanus died in captivity the following year.

Following this victory the Seljuks overran much of Anatolia, inflicting heavy civilian casualties. With their army in tatters the Byzantines recruited European mercenaries. These forces proved troublesome, but they nevertheless

succeeded in halting the advance of the Seljuk hordes. Aware that he lacked the strength to deliver a decisive blow against the Turks, Alexius I Comnenus (1048–1118), who had become Byzantine emperor in 1080, concluded a peace with the Seljuks in 1081. They were formally ceded the territory they had captured.

See also BYZANTINE–SELJUK TURK WAR (1048–1049); CRUSADE, FIRST.

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine–Seljuk Turk War (1110–1117)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Seljuk Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia (Turkey)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Seljuks sought to conquer and hold Anatolia.
OUTCOME: Despite large early advances, internal dissension brought disunity and defeat, forcing the Seljuks to accept a truce that divided Anatolia between them and the Byzantines.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No document survives, but a formal division of Anatolian territory was made.

As they had in the previous century, the Seljuks—at the time the dominant group among the various Turk tribes—invaded the Byzantine Empire, staging raids deep into Anatolia (Turkey) and reaching as far as the Bosporus. The invasion was stopped less by action of the Byzantines than by the effects of dissent among the Turkish generals and other leaders after the death of strongman Kilij Arslan I in 1108. Lacking unity, the Seljuks suffered a series of military reversals and finally withdrew back across Anatolia. Taking advantage of the situation, the Byzantine emperor, Alexius I Comnenus (1048–1118), gave chase with his largely mercenary army, routing the Turks at the Battle of Philomelion (Akshehr) in 1116. Remarkably, the Byzantine cavalry soundly defeated the mounted Turkish archers—a stunning reversal of the trend of military history. By this period the era of the mounted knight was receding. By the following year the Turks agreed to a settlement whereby the Byzantines recovered all of coastal Anatolia, whereas the Seljuks created the sultanate of Rum in eastern Anatolia. In effect, Byzantium was west of a line running north-south through Sinope, Ankara, and Philomelion, while the Seljuk realm lay to the east.

See also BYZANTINE–SELJUK TURK WAR (1048–1049); BYZANTINE–SELJUK TURK WAR (1064–1081); BYZANTINE–SELJUK TURK WAR (1158–1176).

Further reading: Michael Angold, *Church and Society in Byzantium under Comneni, 1081–1261* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1995); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine–Seljuk Turk War (1158–1176)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Seljuk Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia (Turkey)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Seljuks sought to conquer Anatolia.
OUTCOME: Anatolia fell to the Seljuks, thereby signaling the beginning of the dissolution of the Byzantine Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No document survives, but a formal truce ceded all of Anatolia to the Seljuks.

Seeking to appease the Seljuk Turk leader Kilij Arslan II (d. 1192) in order to forestall his annexation by Byzantine-held Anatolia, the Byzantine emperor Manuel I Comnenus (c. 1120–80) consented to Kilij's request for military aid in the Seljuks' ongoing warfare with rival Turkish groups. Manuel hoped that his help would eliminate potential invaders of Anatolia, leaving a single Turkish group, weakened from intertribal war, to fight for possession of Anatolia.

The strategy backfired. Manuel had underestimated the strength and determination of the Seljuks under Kilij. Using the Byzantines' aid, he crushed his rivals, then went on to expand his territory. At last, Manuel organized a large Byzantine army to expel the Seljuks. The Byzantines and the Seljuks met on the field at Myriocephalum in September 1176. When it became apparent to Manuel that his situation was hopeless, he called for a truce. The price

was Anatolia, and its loss to the Seljuks signaled the collapse of the Byzantine Empire in Asia.

See also BYZANTINE–SELJUK TURK WAR (1048–1049); BYZANTINE–SELJUK TURK WAR (1064–1081); BYZANTINE–SELJUK TURK WAR (1110–1117).

Further reading: Michael Angold, *Church and Society in Byzantium under Comneni, 1081–1261* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1995); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine-Sicilian Wars

See SICILIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (1147–1158); SICILIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (1170–1171); SICILIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (1185).

Byzantine-Syrian War (995–996)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. the Fatimid caliphate
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Syria
OUTCOME: Basil II defeated the Fatimid caliphate to extend Byzantine control to all Syria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 17,000 Byzantines; many fewer Fatimids
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Basil II (c. 958–1025), infant co-emperor of the Byzantine Empire beginning in 963 and emperor in his own right from 985 (when he seized power from his regent, Basil Paracoemomenus [d. 985]), carried on the war against the Fatimid caliphate that had been started by John Tzimisces (925–976) in 973. John had seized all Muslim holdings west of the middle Euphrates and had extended Byzantine rule into Syria. By 976 his expansion into Syria was halted by stout Fatimid resistance. In 994 the emir of Aleppo, now a Byzantine protectorate, appealed to the emperor concerning Fatimid encroachments in those Syrian lands his father had come to control. Although a cautious, often slow-moving emperor, Basil acted with some dispatch to reinforce the empire's stronghold at Antioch. But Antioch's governor, an old warrior named Michael Bourtzes (fl. 10th century), proved no match for the Fatimids, who all but destroyed his reinforced army on the banks of the Orontes on September 15.

The emir sent a second appeal to Constantinople, this time emphasizing the danger not just to Aleppo but to Antioch as well. Basil quickly outfitted an expedition and personally marched his 40,000–strong army off to Syria as fast as he could, leaving those troops who fell behind to fend for themselves as he kept a grueling pace. In April 995, he and 17,000 of his men drew up beneath the walls of Aleppo, catching unawares the now hopelessly outnumbered Fatimids, who were engaged in a heavy siege of the city. The Fatimids fled south toward Damascus, followed by Basil. He sacked Emesa and sowed devastation down to Tripoli before he turned back to Antioch, placed Bourtzes under house arrest, and installed a new, younger governor. By the end of the campaign in 996, all of Syria was under Byzantine control.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976); BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (995–999).

Further reading: M. Bonner and Heinz Halm, *Empire of the Mahdi: The Rise of the Fatimids* (Boston: Brill Academic, 1997); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee,* vol. 2 (New York: Knopf, 2001); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Byzantine War (1207–1211)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rival Byzantine states of Nicaea, Trebizond, and Epirus, plus Crusaders and the Seljuk Turks, who were allied with exiled Byzantine emperor Alexius III Angelus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nicaea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rivals sought dominance of the Byzantine state of Nicaea after the empire divided following the Fourth Crusade.
OUTCOME: The integrity of Nicaea remained intact.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the FOURTH CRUSADE Constantinople was sacked in 1204, and the Crusaders created the so-called Latin Empire of Constantinople. The rest of the Byzantine Empire then disintegrated, fragmenting into three independent rivals: Trebizond, on the Black Sea; Epirus, in

western Greece; and Nicaea, in Asia Minor. The Byzantine emperor Alexius III Angelus (d. 1211) was exiled and secured asylum among the Seljuk Turks, traditional enemies of the empire. Alexius incited his Seljuk hosts to invade Nicaea in 1208 in order to force its ruler, Theodore I Lascaris (1175–1222)—who had usurped the title of Byzantine emperor—to abdicate. However, Theodore mounted a strong defense and repulsed the Seljuk advance, even as he fought a defensive campaign to keep the forces of Trebizond and the Crusaders out of Nicaea.

In 1211 Alexius and the Seljuks once again invaded Nicaea while Trebizond and Epirus also contested for rule there. Theodore defeated the Seljuks on this occasion and took Alexius prisoner, sending him to the isolation of a monastery in Nicaea, where he soon died. The Byzantine War was at an end, but the once expansive empire remained chronically imperiled and severely reduced.

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: Decline and Fall,* vol. 3 (New York: Knopf, 1996); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

C

Cabochien Revolt (1413)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cabochiens (Parisian tradesmen), with Burgundian backing, vs. French royal authorities
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paris
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Cabochiens sought to force social and economic reform in France.
OUTCOME: Initially successful, the Cabochiens were suppressed by Charles, duc d'Orléans.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Organized Cabochiens, 500; strength of opposing forces, highly variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Cabochien Revolt took place against the backdrop of the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR and the climate of general unrest it created in France. Early in the 15th century the new king of England, Henry IV (1387–1422), aimed to recover some of the English rights in France lost during the previous course of that intermittent but continuous conflict.

When the ARMANAC-BURGUNDIAN CIVIL WAR broke out in 1411, both sides hoped to garner English support, but John the Fearless (1371–1419), duke of Burgundy, also shored up his faction in the civil conflict by calling for reforms and seeking the support of the Paris mob. This encouraged Simon Le Coustellier (fl. early 15th century), a skinner by trade who called himself Simon Caboche, to lead an impromptu "army" of some 500 fellow Parisian tradesmen (mostly members of the butchers' and skinners' guilds) in a spasm of violent rioting that amounted to a revolt against royal corruption and extravagance. The French court and much of Paris were terrorized by Cabochien activity.

The Cabochiens stormed the Bastille in April 1413. They seized the royal fortress-prison in an act that forced Charles VI (1371–1422) to issue the Ordonnance cabochienne, which promulgated a list of liberal reforms. Despite this, however, Cabochiens persisted in rioting. This activity alienated the Parisian middle class, which supported Charles (1391–1465), duc d'Orléans, rival of John the Fearless, to lead a force against the Cabochiens. By 1414 the rebels had been suppressed and the Ordonnance cabochienne repealed.

An angry and defeated duke of Burgundy then took a very dangerous step indeed. He encouraged young Henry V to claim the French throne for himself, which Henry did, invading with an army of 9,000 in 1415. He defeated a huge 30,000-strong French force at the famous battle of Agincourt on October 15 and reclaimed all of Normandy for England.

See also MAILLOTIN UPRISING.

Further reading: Anne Curry, *The Hundred Years War*, 2nd ed.(New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Nicholas Wright, *Knights and Peasants: The Hundred Years War in the French Countryside* (London: Boydell and Brewer, 2000).

Cade's Rebellion (1450)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: John Cade and an army of petty merchants and small property owners, mostly from Kent and Sussex, vs. England's Henry VI
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): London
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Corruption, heavy taxes, and the exile of Richard, duke of York, all of which the rebels wanted brought to an end

OUTCOME: The rebellion was quelled, the rebels pardoned, Cade executed, Crown authority diminished, and Richard returned from exile.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 30,000 rebels
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None, but the king's amnesty more or less ended the fight.

By the middle of the 15th century, the glory of the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR had begun to wear thin with the English public. The stress of nearly constant conflict, the heavy burden of war taxes, the ever mounting casualties, and, in short, a century and more of brutal warfare had taken their toll, particularly on the urban middle classes, small shopkeepers, and small landowners. In 1450 Jack Cade (d. 1450), an ex-soldier, assumed the historically significant name John Mortimer, claimed to be the cousin of Richard, duke of York (1411–60), and mounted a well-organized rebellion by inciting the small property owners of Kent and Sussex to demand fairer treatment from Henry VI (1421–71). Cade called for Richard, King Henry's rival, to be returned from exile in Ireland, demanded lower taxes and prices, denounced royal corruption, and insisted on the dismissal of many high-ranking advisers to the king.

In June Cade gathered some 30,000 men and led them off to London. When the king's forces attempted to intercept the rebels, they were ambushed at the Battle of Seven Oaks on June 18, 1450. The royalists were soundly defeated, and the rebels marched on London unopposed. They generally savaged the city and captured the lord treasurer, James Fiennes, Lord Say and Sele, charged him with being responsible for England's numerous defeats at the hands of the French, and executed him for treason. Royal forces from the Tower of London in concert with local militiamen engaged the rebels and successfully drove them from the city on July 6, 1450. Henry, wary of creating martyrs, quickly pardoned the insurrectionists, deflating Cade's support. Cade continued to fight for the return of Richard, however, until he was injured and captured a few weeks later, then himself executed for treason. The rebellion damaged royal authority and helped pave the way for the duke of York's return from his Irish exile.

See also ROSES, WARS OF THE.

Further reading: I. M. W. Harvey, *Jack Cade's Rebellion of 1450* (Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 1991).

Cadiz Mutiny (1820)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Spanish army led by Colonel Riego vs. forces of King Ferdinand VII.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: Colonel Rafael del Riego y Nuñez of the Spanish army issued a *pronunciamento* on January 1, 1820.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The restoration of the liberal Constitution of 1812
OUTCOME: Although able to sustain a constitutional government for three years, the liberals were defeated when French forces helped Ferdinand VII restore the monarchy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Signalling the beginning of a liberal movement and an end to the influence of Metternich in Europe, the Cadiz Mutiny was a blow to dynastic Europe. The Spanish Bourbons had been forced off the throne by Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) in 1807, when he installed his brother Joseph Bonaparte (1768–1844) as king of Spain. Spaniards reacted with intense opposition to the French and the development of a fractious pseudolegislative movement in Spain. Underground legislatures to the French government in Madrid sprang up in several regions of Spain; however, their only unifying factor was the desire to defeat the French. Coups occurred frequently, and little was accomplished in the way of securing legitimate government for the Spanish. Napoleon's hold on Spain weakened, however, as his army suffered at the hands of the continental allies. Eventually, a consensus was reached in Spain, and a singular representative body—the Cortes—convened at Cadiz in 1810. Although many in Spain saw the Cortes as the end of the monarchy, others saw it only as a temporary solution until the monarchy could be restored.

At Cadiz the liberals outnumbered the conservatives, and they were able to promulgate a constitution in 1812 based loosely on the ideals of the FRENCH REVOLUTION (1789–1799): equality before the law, centralized government, equitable taxation, and the championing of property rights. It provided for limited constitutional monarchy and especially safeguarded against any form of concerted despotism. However, once Napoleon was defeated, other European monarchies, wary of the dangerous antidynastic precedent in Spain, focused their efforts on restoring Ferdinand VII (1784–1833) to the throne. These efforts were led by Austrian minister Klemens von Metternich (1773–1859), the leading proponent of conservativism and of the preservation of the political status quo in Europe in the early half of the 19th century. Due to his efforts Ferdinand was restored in 1814.

The king rejected the 1812 Constitution and attempted to rule as the Spanish Bourbons had before the French Revolution. Once more, Ferdinand tried to retake the Spanish colonies in Latin America that had declared inde-

pendence during Joseph's reign. Ferdinand's actions rankled the army, and in 1820 a coup was launched from Cadiz, embarkation point for the troops waiting to leave for Latin America. On January 1, 1820, Colonel Rafael del Riego y Nuñez (1785–1823) issued a *pronunciamento,* or declaration of principle, to the troops stationed at Cadiz that denounced the monarchy and called for the adoption of the 1812 Constitution. Support for Riego quickly spread from garrison to garrison, and he took his troops around the neighboring countryside to gather support for the movement, which failed to materialize. The revolt appeared to decline into a showdown between the army and the king, with the general populace playing the part of spectator. Finally, near the end of February, uprisings began in Corunna, Pamplona, Barcelona, and Saragossa, and the rebel troops seized San Fernando and prepared to march on Madrid.

Ferdinand was forced to adopt the 1812 Constitution in March, but it was too late. Liberal revolutionary forces stormed the palace in Madrid and held the king under house arrest for the next three years. Just as quickly as things appeared to fall into place for the liberals, the tenuous consensus broke down, and counter-uprisings broke out in Castile, Toledo, and Andalusia. The victorious powers in the NAPOLEONIC WARS—the so-called Big Five of Russia, Prussia, Austria, Great Britain, and France—met at the Congress of Verona in 1822, dominated by Metternich, and agreed to send in French forces to restore Ferdinand. The French invaded in 1823, captured Madrid from the liberals, and drove the revolutionaries south to Cadiz and Seville. Ironically ending where they began, the rebels were routed at Cadiz on August 31, 1823. Ferdinand ruthlessly suppressed the rebels, revoked the 1812 Constitution, and returned Spain to despotic rule.

See also ARGENTINE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; CHILEAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; COLOMBIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; SPANISH CIVIL WAR (1820–1823); VENEZUELAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Jon Cowans, ed., *Early Modern Spain: A Documentary History* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2003).

Caesar's War in Pontus (47 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bosporus Cimmerius, under King Pharnaces II, vs. the Roman Legions, under Julius Caesar
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pontus (southern coast of the Black Sea in Asia Minor)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pharnaces II attempted to re-create the kingdom of Pontus, which his father, Mithradates VI, had lost to the Romans.
OUTCOME: Caesar defeated Pharnaces II.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Romans, 31,500 (seven legions); Pharnaces's forces significantly outnumbered the legions
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

With the ROMAN CIVIL WAR of 43–31 B.C.E. raging, Pharnaces II (fl. 63–47), king of Bosporus Cimmerius (the Crimea), saw an opportunity to re-create the kingdom of Pontus, which his father, Mithradates VI (c. 132–63), had ruled along the southern coast of the Black Sea until he suffered defeat at the hands of Rome's Pompey (106–48) in 66 B.C.E. While the Romans were occupied with their internecine struggle, Pharnaces extended his holdings along the northern coast of Asia Minor. After defeating Domitius Calvinus (fl. 53–40), a lieutenant of Julius Caesar (100–44), at the Battle of Nicopolis in October 48, he pushed into Cappadocia. Caesar responded during April–May 47 by mounting an expedition that left from Alexandria and stopped in Syria to add reinforcements from the Roman garrison. From here, the reinforced army—seven legions—marched overland through Asia Minor.

Caesar paused at Zela (Zile) in north-central Turkey and began making camp on August 2. The forces of Pharnaces suddenly descended on his legions, which, though taken by surprise, quickly formed into devastatingly effective battle groups that overwhelmed the attackers. It was an instance of highly trained and thoroughly disciplined troops acting against an ill-prepared mob. Following the Battle of Zela Caesar was able to dispatch to Rome perhaps the most famous military message in history: *"Veni, vidi, vici"* (I came, I saw, I conquered). He then quickly set about the task of reorganizing the eastern dominions of Rome, giving to his ally Mithradates of Pergamum (not to be confused with Mithradates VI—Mithradates of Pontus) governance of Pharnaces's realm, subject to Roman dictation.

See also MITHRADATIC WAR, FIRST; MITHRADATIC WAR, SECOND; MITHRADATIC WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: N. J. E. Austin, *Exploration: Military and Political Intelligence in the Roman World from the Second Punic War to the Battle of Adrianople* (London and New York: Routledge, 1995); Trevor Nevitt Dupuy, *The Military Life of Julius Caesar: Imperator* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995).

Cambodian Civil War (1970–1975)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Government forces of Prince Norodom Sihanouk vs. the Khmer Rouge, in alliance with Viet Cong forces; subsequently, government forces under Prime Minister Lon Nol (with U.S. and South Vietnamese aid) vs. the Khmer Rouge and Viet Cong
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cambodia (Kampuchea)

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Norodom Sihanouk, Cambodian head of state, had allied himself with Communist forces, only to find his forces under attack by them. This destabilized his government, and he was overthrown in a coup. Civil war, complicated by communist insurgency from Vietnam, ensued.
OUTCOME: Cambodian monarchy was ended and the short-lived Khmer Republic founded, which was soon overrun by the forces of the Khmer Rouge.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Government forces, 75,000; Khmer Rouge, 60,000
CASUALTIES: Government forces, 50,000 killed, 200,000 wounded. Estimated total casualties for civilians and communist forces, 250,000
TREATIES: None

Of all the nations of 20th-century Indochina, Cambodia in many ways suffered the most during the VIETNAM WAR and its aftermath, more so even than Vietnam itself. Recognized officially as a "neutral" independent nation since the 1954 Geneva accords that had divided its fellow former French colony, Vietnam, north and south, Cambodia remained relatively free of the Southeast Asian conflict until 1969, thanks to the balancing act performed by its sovereign prince, Norodom Sihanouk (b. 1922). But on March 18, 1969, U.S. president Richard Nixon (1913–94), at what would prove to be great political cost at home, began a massive 14-month bombing campaign against North Vietnamese Army (NVA) and Viet Cong (VC: South Vietnam rebel forces) strongholds along the Vietnamese-Cambodian border. Despite the presence of some 40,000 communist troops and the 108,823 tons of American bombs dropped, Sihanouk showed every intention of preserving his country's neutrality and, thus, the relative internal peace he had maintained since 1954 (with the single exception of a quickly suppressed 1967 left-wing peasant uprising).

Then, in 1970, while Sihanouk was out of the country on a face-saving tour of Europe and China, he was deposed by his own prime minister (and the royal army's commander) General Lon Nol (1913–85). Lon Nol's new puppet government ordered the North Vietnamese Army and the Viet Cong out of their Cambodian bases and issued inflammatory anti–Viet Cong proclamations that sparked a pogrom against all the Vietnamese residing in Cambodia, hardened rebel and hapless peasant alike.

As the new government dumped hundreds of the slain Vietnamese into the Mekong River, a pro-Sihanouk opposition quickly arose, but these demonstrations were brutally suppressed. Sihanouk himself set up a government-in-exile in Beijing, and a communist guerrilla movement called the Khmer Rouge began to flourish. Having begun as a small, low-level insurgency in the hills of the northeast on January 18, 1968, the Khmer Rouge was now gathering steam, attracting many new recruits and sending them off for training in North Vietnam. Meanwhile, the U.S. Air Force stepped up its air raids along the Cambodian border, and in late April 1970 a combined U.S.–Army of the Republic of Vietnam (ARVN) force invaded Cambodia.

While the allied attacks did disrupt some VC sanctuaries inside the Cambodian borders, in the long run they only succeeded in driving the Viet Cong deeper into the country's interior. American ground forces withdrew in June, but the U.S. bombing continued unabated. With Sihanouk in exile and Cambodia subject to invasion and laid open to communist insurgency, General Lon Nol proclaimed the Khmer Republic on November 1, thus ending some 2,000 years of Cambodian monarchy (even if sovereignty had for many years ultimately rested with the French colonial office).

The military position of the Khmer Republic did not much improve in 1971. It took the intervention of some 6,000 ARVN troops to keep open such strategic roads as Route 1 across the Mekong and Route 4 connecting the capital, Phnom Penh, with the key southern port Kompong Som (formerly Sihanoukville). Throughout the year the communist guerrillas chipped away at the new government, forcing it into ever narrower confines as the rebels struck oil refineries (Kompong Som) and airports (Phnom Penh), cut off strategic roads from the capital to the north (Route 6), and besieged government garrisons (Rumlong).

By the time Lon Nol dispensed with puppet rulers and himself took open control of the government as president on March 10, 1972, the Khmer Rouge was in the process of choking off Phnom Penh from its sources of supply. The situation was made more desperate by the city's burgeoning population of refugees, fleeing both the U.S. bombing and the communist revolution that were together chewing up the Cambodian countryside. On March 21, 1972, the Khmer Rouge bombarded Phnom Penh with artillery and rockets, inflicting many civilian casualties. In December the Khmer Rouge began a regular program of artillery and rocket assaults against the capital that continued sporadically until the end of the war in 1975. During March–April 1973 the Khmer Rouge imposed a blockade of the capital, essentially laying the city under siege. On March 17 the Presidential Palace was bombed, prompting Lon Nol to declare a state of emergency. With its inhabitants in danger of starvation and its small garrison hard pressed, the siege was broken in the nick of time on April 8–9 by heavily defended Mekong River convoys. Troops also opened the port of Kampong, enabling the off-loading of supply vessels by April 11.

Despite its reprieve and a U.S. airlift, American involvement in Southeast Asia was precipitously winding down as the American public increasingly protested the Vietnam War. The U.S. Air Force made its last bombing run over Cambodia on August 14, 1973, and on January 1, 1975, the Khmer Rouge rebels began a major drive against

Phnom Penh. In concert with North Vietnamese and Viet Cong forces, the Khmer Rouge attacked the capital along three fronts, pushing to within two miles of the city and totally cutting off all land routes. The United States contracted with civilian carriers to organize a major airlift. At the same time, commencing on January 1, 1975, Neak Luong, a Mekong River town commanding the river approach to Phnom Penh, was laid under siege. The rebels successfully blocked two riverborne convoys on January 17, but another, from South Vietnam, made it through to Phnom Penh on January 23. Early the following month U.S.-sponsored airlifts were increased from 10 planes a day to more than 20. U.S. president Gerald Ford (b. 1913) requested a large amount of "supplemental aid" to Cambodia on February 25, but it was increasingly clear that Congress was eager to disengage the United States from the Cambodian cause.

On April 1, 1975, Lon Nol left Cambodia as communist insurgents captured Neak Luong. The collective Lon Nol left behind surrendered to the Khmer Rouge on April 16, 1975.

The civil war was ended, but the killing had barely begun. Proclaiming Cambodia Democratic Kampuchea, the Khmer Rouge leader Pol Pot (1925–98) spearheaded a reign of terror that resulted in the extermination of more than 1 million Cambodians.

See also KAMPUCHEAN CIVIL WAR.

Further reading: Wilfred P. Deac, *Road to the Killing Fields: The Cambodian Civil War of 1970–1975* (College Station: Texas A&M University Press, 1997); Karl D. Jackson, *Cambodia, 1975–1978: Rendezvous with Death* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1992).

Cambodian Rebellion (1811–1812)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebel Ang Snguon, allied with Siam (Thailand) vs. his brother, Emperor Ang Chan II, backed by Vietnam
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cambodia (Kampuchea)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: As Cambodia became a bone of contention between Siam and Vietnam, the two more powerful nations constantly meddled in their weak neighbor's internal affairs. Forced to pay tribute to two more powerful suzerains just to keep the peace, the rule of Ang Chan weakened, and his brother was tempted—with Siamese help—to seize the throne.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was suppressed with aid from Vietnam, which then became the predominant power in Cambodia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Throughout the first quarter of the 19th century, Siam (Thailand) continued to be—at least nominally—at war with Burma, as it had been actually at war in the last decade of the 18th century. But because Burma was more seriously occupied in the west—the fighting between the two traditional rival powers in Southeast Asia was now confined mostly to frontier raids and occasional clashes in northern Malayia or on the Kra isthmus. Though Siam kept a wary eye on its most dangerous neighbor, it turned its attention southward toward Malaya, which it coveted, or northeastward where it sought to strengthen its control over most of Laos, or to the east, where Siam struggled with Vietnam for hegemony in Cambodia, a weak nation that became a football between the two.

In 1802 Siam and Vietnam had set up a joint protectorate over Cambodia, whose king, Ang Chan II (1791–1835), sought to bring peace to his country by acknowledging both Siamese and Vietnamese suzerainty and by paying tribute to both. In 1811 Ang Chan's brother, Ang Snguon, revolted, turning to the Siamese for help in his attempt to usurp the throne. King Rama II (1768–1824) obliged, sending in an army that quickly overran the country and helped to oust Ang Chan. The latter fled to southern Vietnam in hope of finding his own foreign backing to regain the throne. Vietnam's emperor, Gia Long (1762–1820), immediately sent a large army to restore Ang Chan, and its intimidating presence in the country caused the Siamese to withdraw without engaging in a single battle. Ang Chan once again sat on the throne, and the Vietnamese had become predominant in Cambodia.

See also SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1831–1834); SIAMESE-VIETNAMESE WAR (1769–1773).

Further reading: David Chandler, *A History of Cambodia* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 2000).

Cambodian-Siamese Wars

See SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1587); SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1593–1594); SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1603); SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1622); SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1714–1717); SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1831–1834).

Cambrai, War of the League of

See LEAGUE OF CAMBRAI, WAR OF THE.

Camisards' Rebellion (1702–1710)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French Protestants known as Camisards vs. forces of Louis XIV
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Continued religious persecution in the wake of Louis XIV's revocation of the Edict of Nantes

OUTCOME: Protestants of France were effectively crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Camisards, 1,500 working in small bands; Louis XIV's forces, 25,000
CASUALTIES: 400,000 Protestants fled France; 300 Huguenot children executed in the town of Uzès; total persecutions unknown; extensive destruction of Protestant villages in southern France, 1704–1710; total Catholic casualties unknown
TREATIES: None

Typical of Europe's vitriolic religious confrontations, the Camisards' Rebellion demonstrated that political maneuvering would never vanquish religious fanaticism. In an attempt to calm France's hostile religious climate between the majority Catholics and the minority Protestants, known as Huguenots, King Henry IV (1553–1610) issued the Edict of Nantes in 1598, granting the Huguenots freedom from persecution. Although the edict drew fire from the Catholics, most notably the pope, it served to stabilize the religious fervor of both Protestants and Catholics and to bring a modicum of peace within France's borders. However, with the ascension of Henry's fiercely Catholic grandson, Louis XIV (1638–1717), the Huguenots were in danger again.

Invoking the divine right of kings and the fact that the House of Bourbon was a Catholic house (with the exception of Henry IV), Louis felt that France must be a Catholic state administered by a Catholic house chosen by God. Louis began a harshly systematic persecution of the Huguenots, specifically in the southern regions of Languedoc, Béarn, and Cévennes, where they were concentrated. The persecutions were but a precursor to Louis's revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1685. This not only touched off even more persecutions but sparked reprisals on the part of the Protestants as well. Initially, some 400,000 Huguenots fled France and the persecutions. Left behind was a militant, fanatical group that would conduct some of the most savage guerrilla warfare western Europe had ever seen.

Following the revocation, violence was employed by both the king's forces and the Camisards—Protestants from the Cévennes and Languedoc regions, so-called because they wore white shirts, *camisas,* during night raids. Protestant ministers and leaders of the faith had long been driven out or murdered, leaving—by the turn of the 18th century—only visionaries, self-proclaimed prophets, and lay people to give leadership and spiritual guidance to the Camisards. These prophets and visionaries instilled in the French Protestants the comforting belief that the Protestant powers of the War of the League of Augsburg (*see* GRAND ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE, 1688–1697), whose recent victories over Louis XIV had forced him to begin secret peace negotiations, would not leave them unprotected in the ensuing Treaty of Ryswick.

Their faith was ill-placed, as Britain and the Netherlands included no provisions in the peace settlement for the protection of the Huguenots. Completely abandoned and without any trained spiritual guidance, the Camisards were won over by theological extremists. Prophets proclaimed that the end of persecution was near and that it was time for the Huguenots to rise up and kill the Catholics. In 1701 more than 300 children walked from village to village reciting biblical prophecies. They were arrested, charged with "fanaticism," and executed in the town of Uzès by order of Lamoignon de Baville, a radical and cold-blooded Catholic who took part in the administration of the persecutions.

The bloodshed began in earnest on the night of July 24, 1702, when a group of Camisard rebels attacked the Catholic mission at Cévennes in search of Abbé du Chaybla, the ruthless head of the persecutions in the Cévennes province. All the priests were murdered, and du Chaybla was stabbed by every Camisard who took part in the raid, 52 times in all. In response to the Cévennes massacre, the government rounded up suspected Huguenots, whether they were affiliated with the Camisards or not, and executed them, mostly by publicly burning them alive. The violence was perhaps only comparable to that which would rage in the streets of Paris 87 years later (*see* FRENCH REVOLUTION [1789–1799]). The Camisards began a campaign to execute every Catholic priest they could lay their hands on. In turn, Louis embarked on a campaign of total extermination, ordering mass executions. Hundreds of villages were burned, including many that had not been evacuated beforehand. Languedoc and Cévennes were reduced to mere smoldering ruins.

The Camisards were led by Jean Cavalier (c. 1681–1740), a charismatic 18-year-old, and Roland Laporte (1675–1704), a religious fanatic. Under their direction the Camisards, never more than 1,500 men, melted into the mountains and forests of southern France, engaging and generally defeating Louis's army of more than 25,000 troops. So successful were the Camisards that Cavalier was invited to negotiate, but the government was willing to grant only amnesty, not to restore the Edict of Nantes. However, Laporte was captured and executed in 1704, and Cavalier was tricked into fruitless negotiations that same year and lost all credibility with the movement. Although the Camisards would continue to battle for the next six years, the rebellion was essentially over. In the end Louis's campaign of extermination proved quite successful, and there were hardly any Protestants left in southern France.

See also SPANISH SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE.

Further reading: Henry Martyn Baird, *The Camisard Uprising of the French Protestants* (New York and London: N. Pub., 1890); Robin Biggs, *Early Modern France, 1560–1715,* 2nd ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1998).

Canadian Rebellion

See MACKENZIE'S REBELLION; PAPINEAU'S REBELLION.

Candian War (1645–1669)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Candia (Crete) and the Dardanelles
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At issue was possession of Crete.
OUTCOME: After a long and costly war the Ottomans wrested possession of Crete from Venice.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottomans, 50,000; variable numbers of Venetian and mercenary forces, plus 7,000 French troops
CASUALTIES: Direct war casualties unknown; collateral casualties included at least 50,000 killed.
TREATIES: None

The Venetians called Crete as well as its principal city, Iráklion, Candia. Ibrahim I (1615–48) began his reign as Ottoman sultan in 1640. In 1645 Maltese corsairs operating out of Venetian ports on Candia captured Ibrahim's wives. In response Ibrahim dispatched an army of 50,000 men, who, aided by anti-Venetian Greeks on Candia, captured it in August 1645 and Retino the next year. This was followed during 1648–69 by an epic siege of Iráklion. The Venetian fleet far outclassed anything the sultan had, which meant that his supply lines were continually under attack while the besieged Venetians had relatively little difficulty keeping Candia not only supplied but reinforced as well.

In the meantime, while the Turks besieged Candia, the Venetians maintained a naval blockade of Constantinople, the Ottoman capital, which in 1648 triggered a revolt by the famine-stricken inhabitants. Ibrahim was overthrown and killed. His seven-year-old son Muhammad IV (1641–91) was put on the throne, but the real power was Kösem Sultan (c. 1585–1651), mother of Ibrahim I. In 1649 she directed the Turkish fleet in an assault on the Venetian blockade at the Dardanelles but was quickly defeated. In 1651 Turhan Sultan, Ibrahim's widow and the mother of young Muhammad IV, arranged for the assassination (by strangulation) of Kösem Sultan. Now serving as regent, Turhan Sultan appointed Muhammad Koprulu (c. 1575–1661), an Albanian pasha, grand vizier. She gave him free rein to reform the declining Ottoman Empire. Energetic where the sultans had been indolent, and wise where they had been short-sighted, Muhammad Koprulu strengthened the civil government as well as the military. When a second naval battle was fought—and lost—at the Dardanelles in 1656, Koprulu set about rebuilding the entire outmoded Turkish fleet. From this time through 1661 he reformed the government with ever more vigor and ruthlessness. When those who had been disenfranchised or deprived of spoils in the new scheme of things rebelled, Koprulu acted swiftly to end their lives. He was responsible for the execution of at least 50,000 "rebels."

In 1657 a third naval battle was fought at the Dardanelles. The Ottomans' new ships proved a decisive factor, and this time the Turks were victorious. After defeating the Venetian fleet here, Turkish forces were landed to retake Tenedos and Lemnos. By 1658 other Venetian islands in the Aegean had also fallen to the Turks, and the Aegean was now firmly under Ottoman control. This accomplished, Koprulu directed all his forces to Candia. On his death in 1661, his son Fazil Ahmed Pasa Koprulu (1635–76) continued to direct the long siege, assuming personal command of operations on Crete from 1666 to 1669.

During this period from about 1664 to 1669, French naval forces were operating against the Barbary pirates—state-sanctioned Islamic pirates who preyed on the commercial fleets of Christian nations, seizing vessels and crews and extorting ransom and/or tribute money for their return. Venice appealed to France to aid it in the defense of Candia against the Islamic Ottomans as well. In 1669 Louis XIV (1638–1717) sent a fleet and 7,000 troops to Candia, but by the autumn of 1669, believing the situation hopeless, the French withdrew. On September 6, 1669, Venetian general Francesco Morosini (1618–94), who had brilliantly defended Candia for 22 years, surrendered. Venice now ceded to the Ottoman Empire all of Crete except for three small seaports. Most of the Aegean was relinquished to the Turks as well, together with the greater part of Dalmatia.

Further reading: Pal Fodor, *In Quest of the Golden Apple: Imperial Ideology, Politics, and Military Administration in the Ottoman Empire* (Istanbul: Isis Press, 2000); Kemal H. Korpat, ed., *The Ottoman State and Its Place in World History* (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill Academic Books, 1974).

Carlist War, First (1834–1839)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Cristinos (backed by Portugal, France, and Great Britain) vs. the Carlists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spain's Ferdinand VII died, having designated as his successor his infant daughter, Isabella, under the regency of his widow, Maria Christina. This deprived his brother, Don Carlos, of his right to the throne under traditional Salic law, which prohibited women from succeeding to the throne. The resulting succession dispute pitted supporters of Isabella and Maria Christina, the Cristinos, against those who supported Don Carlos, the Carlists.

OUTCOME: The Carlist cause was defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Cristinos, 100,000; Carlists, 35,000 in 1834; 30,000 in 1838; British Legion, 9,600; French Foreign Legion, 6,432
CASUALTIES: Cristinos, 65,000 killed; Carlists, 60,000 killed
TREATIES: Treaty of Vergara, August 31, 1839

Carlism was a Spanish political movement responsible for three uprisings (*see* CARLIST WAR, SECOND; CARLIST WAR, THIRD), originating in the 1820s in the *apostolico* (Spain's fanatically traditional clerical party), mobilized in 1827 as the paramilitary Royalist Volunteers, and by the 1830s coming to center around the pretensions of the king's younger brother, Don Carlos (1788–1855). Ferdinand VII (1784–1833), before his death on September 29, 1833, ignored the hopes of the Carlists and used the 1789 Pragmatic Sanction of Charles IV (1748–1819) to justify designating his infant daughter, Isabella (1830–1904), as his successor, under the regency of his widow, Maria Christina (1806–78).

Don Carlos, soon to be count of Molina, challenged the succession and the sanction—a decree promulgated to ensure that the Hapsburg kingdoms and lands descended without division—by invoking the traditional Salic law, derived from the Salian Franks, which prohibited women from succeeding to the throne. The succession issue divided Spain, pitting those who supported Isabella and Maria Christina, the Cristinos, against the Carlists, whose Apostolic Party of political conservatives and the clergy made up the majority in northern Spain (the Basque country, Catalonia, Aragon, and Navarre), and who had declared Don Carlos King Charles V. A revolt quickly crystallized around Don Carlos. To oppose it, Maria Christina, supported by Spain's liberals, formed on April 22, 1834, the Quadruple Alliance with Portugal, France, and Britain. England's Sir George de Lacy Evans (1787–1870) led the Spanish Legion, a band of 9,600 English mercenaries, and France rented to Maria Christina its entire Foreign Legion.

The dynastic war between Isabella and Carlos, then, was also a civil war between urban liberalism and rural reaction—and it was savage. Isabella's army was underpaid and ill-equipped to fight the guerrilla-like forces of the Carlists. And though the Carlists were strong in the north, they would fail to break out of the region to capture a single major city.

The first battles, in the north, went to the Carlists, led brilliantly by General Tomás Zumalacárregui (1788–1835). His career, however, was cut short by a fatal leg wound received at the failed siege of Bilbao. From this point on the advantage was all to the Cristinos, led by General Baldomero Espartero (1792–1879). At the Battle of Terapegui (April 26, 1836) and again at the Battle of Huesca (March 24, 1837), the French Foreign Legion played an even more important role than Espartero's loyalists, acquitting itself with great gallantry in decisive and brutal combat. By the time the legionnaires left Spain on January 17, 1839, after the revolt was suppressed, their strength had been reduced through casualties by 50 percent.

After the defeats at Terapegui and Huesca, Don Carlos withdrew from Madrid. After another year and a half of guerrilla resistance, the Carlists' principal general, Maroto (1785–1847), without consulting Don Carlos, signed the Treaty of Vergara on August 31, 1839. By this document the Carlist forces agreed to join the Cristinos in return for amnesty and independence for the Basque and Navarre provinces. Don Carlos fled to Bourges, France, leaving those diehards who refused to accept the Treaty of Vergara to fight on under Father Ramón Cabrera (1806–77). Espartero finished these off in Catalonia during July 1840.

See also SPANISH REVOLUTION (1868).

Further reading: John F. Coverdale, *The Basque Phase of Spain's First Carlist War* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1984); Alexander Gallardo, *Britain and the First Carlist War* (Folcroft, Pa.: Folcroft Library Editions, 1980); Edgar Holt, *The Carlist Wars in Spain* (London: Putnam, 1967).

Carlist War, Second (1846–1849)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Carlists vs. loyalists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Carlists wished to place Don Carlos's son, Don Carlos II, on the Spanish throne.
OUTCOME: They failed, and Isabella II remained queen.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Carlists, 10,000 Basques, Aragonese, Catalans; Loyalists, 50,000
CASUALTIES: 10,000 dead, many of them civilians
TREATIES: None

In the FIRST CARLIST WAR the forces of urban liberalism triumphed over the rural traditionalism and the religious bigotry of Don Carlos (1788–1855) and his circle. But these Carlists, whose strength lay in the north (in Navarre, Catalonia, Aragon, and especially among the Basques) were hardly finished.

When they were unsuccessful in attempts to arrange a marriage between Isabella II (1830–1901) and Don Carlos's son Don Carlos II (1818–61), count of Montemolin, before Isabella was declared of an age to rule without a regent in 1843, they once again launched a dynastic challenge. This time the melange of reactionaries and religious fanatics backed Don Carlos II, who styled himself "Charles

VI" after his father, "Charles V" (i.e., Don Carlos) "abdicated" in his son's favor.

The Carlist guerrillas took the field in October 1846, but no major fighting occurred until June 1848, when Father Ramón Cabrera (1806–77) breached the Pyrenees to recruit an army 10,000-strong of Basques, Aragonese, and Catalans. The count of Montemolin attempted to join the rebellion personally, but he was detained by French police at the frontier.

Without a flesh-and-blood Carlist pretender at their head, the rebels under Cabrera could generate little public support. Moreover, the good father's gruesome terrorism only brought him and the Carlist crusade into widespread disrepute. Cabrera, the so-called Tiger of Maestrazgo, gave up the cause in April 1849 and absconded to England. There, as his compatriots buried 10,000 or so of their brothers left dead on the battlefields of northern Spain, he married a rich young heiress and settled into the comfort of an English country life.

See also CARLIST WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: R. M. Blinkhorn, *Carlism Crisis in Spain* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1975); Edgar Holt, *The Carlist Wars in Spain* (London: Putnam, 1967).

Carlist War, Third (1873–1876)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Carlists (conservative supporters of Don Carlos III) vs. the forces of the First Spanish Republic
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conservative monarchists opposed the creation of a Spanish republic.
OUTCOME: The republic fell, but the Carlists were also defeated. Alfonso XII, Isabella's son, was placed on the throne of what had now become a constitutional monarchy. The Basque provinces relinquished much autonomy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Carlists, 100,000; loyalists, 150,000
CASUALTIES: At least 50,000 Spaniards were killed.
TREATIES: None

A Third Carlist War broke out in 1873, resulting in a civil conflict of greater destructiveness and brutality than either the First or the Second CARLIST WAR.

Queen Isabella II (1830–1904) was deposed in the SPANISH REVOLUTION (1868), after which the Cortes (parliament) elected Duke Amadeus (1845–90) of Aosta to the throne in 1870. Not only did the other contenders oppose the ascension of Amadeus, the Spanish people also rose up in protest. Following attempts on his life, Amadeus abdicated in 1873 just as the Cortes, now dominated by radicals, proclaimed the First Spanish Republic. This incited the most conservative faction in Spanish politics, the Carlists, to rise in rebellion. They called not only for the restoration of monarchy, but the ascension to the throne of Don Carlos III (1848–1909). As in the earlier wars, the Basques helped the Carlists take control of much territory. In southern Spain Alcoy, Seville, Cadiz, and Valencia fell to the Carlists as did a number of lesser towns. Cartagena held out against Carlist forces for four months before capitulating. Nevertheless, the Carlists failed to achieve definitive victory, and Spain was plunged into a chaos that brought down the republic. It was replaced in January 1874 by a military dictatorship under General Francisco Serrano y Domínguez (1810–85). His forces lifted the Carlist siege of Bilbao but could not stem the Carlist victories at Estella and Cuenca.

Despite repeated Carlist victories—most of the Spanish officer corps was Carlist—Serrano y Domínguez and his subordinates restored the Spanish Bourbon monarchy at the end of 1874 by placing Alfonso XII (1857–85), Isabella's son, on the throne. This restoration brought a degree of unity to those opposing the Carlists, and in 1875 Alfonso's troops suppressed the Carlist rebellion in Catalonia and Aragon. In February 1876 the Carlist-allied Basque stronghold of Pamplona fell after a protracted siege. This prompted Don Carlos III to abandon the struggle and flee to France, and 10,000 Carlist adherents were banished. For the Basques, who had achieved a degree of independence after the earlier Carlist wars, defeat in the Third Carlist War was costly. The Basque provinces were compelled to renounce their distinctive systems of taxation and military service.

With the rebellion suppressed, a newly elected Cortes drafted and ratified a new constitution in July 1876. Alfonso would rule as a constitutional monarch.

Further reading: R. M. Blinkhorn, *Carlism Crisis in Spain* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1975); Edgar Holt, *The Carlist Wars in Spain* (London: Putnam, 1967); Vincent Kennett-Barrington, ed., *Letters from the Carlist War, 1874–1876* (Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press, 1987).

Carmathian Revolt

See KARMATHIAN REVOLT.

Carnatic War, First (1747–1748)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (with Indian allies) vs. Britain (with Indian allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Carnatic region, India
DECLARATION: No official declaration, but may be considered coincident with the War of the Austrian Succession

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Indian trade
OUTCOME: The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, ending the war, restored Madras to England but resolved no other issues of colonial trade and, therefore, failed to create a lasting peace.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French and French-allied forces, 1,200 French regulars, in addition to naval and native personnel; British forces, a small body of British regulars and naval personnel, in addition to 10,000 native troops
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, October 18, 1748

When word of the outbreak of the War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION reached India, the French governor general there, Marquis Joseph François Dupleix (1696–1763), tried to arrange neutrality between the French and the British East India Company. However, after Commodore Curtis Barnett led the British fleet to clear Indian waters of French shipping, Dupleix called on Admiral Bertrand-François Mahé, comte de la Bourdonnais (1699–1753), to bring a French fleet from Mauritius. Bourdonnais arrived at Pondichéry, the seat of French government in India, in June 1746 with eight ships of the line and a contingent of 1,200 troops. He engaged the British fleet, now under Commodore Edward Peyton (who had succeeded in command after the death of Barnett), at the Battle of Negapatam on July 25, 1746. Outsailed, Peyton was forced to make for Hooghly. The naval engagement was followed during September 2–10 by the siege of Madras. While Bourdonnais blockaded the city, Dupleix invaded it, accepting its surrender on September 10. On September 21 Nawab Anwar-ud-din, allied with the British, approached Madras. Rather than await the nawab's attack, the French forces sortied out from Madras and made short work of his army. This victory was followed on November 3 by the Battle of St. Thomé, in which a force of 230 French regulars and 730 native sepoys made a surprise assault on 10,000 of the nawab's troops, completely routing them. After this Dupleix laid siege to Fort St. George, a key British base near Madras. The operation extended to April 1748, when Dupleix was forced to withdraw upon the arrival of a new British fleet carrying reinforcements. Edward Boscawen (1711–61), the admiral in command of the new fleet, conducted combined land and naval operations against Pondichéry during August–October 1748. Dupleix held the British off until the onset of the monsoon season forced the British fleet to withdraw and the siege to be raised. Shortly after this the British and French in India received word of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, signed on October 18, 1748, ending the War of the Austrian Succession and, therefore, the First Carnatic War as well. With regard to the Indian situation, the treaty restored Madras to Britain. However, the treaty resolved no other issues of colonial trade and, therefore, failed to create a lasting peace, and the First Carnatic War was followed within a year by the SECOND CARNATIC WAR.

Further reading: M. S. Anderson, *The War of the Austrian Succession 1740–1748* (London and New York: Longman, 1995); H. V. Bowen, Nigel Rigby, and Margarette Lincoln, eds., *The Worlds of the East India Company* (London: Boydell and Brewer, 2004).

Carnatic War, Second (1749–1754)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (with Indian allies) vs. Britain (with Indian allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Carnatic region, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Trade competition between the French and British East India Companies; the two commercial interests backed opposing Muslim candidates for nawab (viceroy) of the Carnatic region and nizam of Hyderabad.
OUTCOME: The British East India Company became the dominant European force in India.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French and Indian allies, more than 10,000 deployed; British and sepoy troops, fewer than 1,000 deployed
CASUALTIES: Disproportionate among the French-allied Indian troops. At Trichinopoly, British and Indian losses were 180 of 500 engaged. French-allied Indian losses were far heavier; in a single hour at Trichinopoly 400 were killed out of a force of 10,000.
TREATIES: None

The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, signed on October 18, 1748, ended the War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION and its Indian phase, the FIRST CARNATIC WAR. However, hostilities between the French and British East India Companies quickly resumed. The two commercial interests backed opposing Muslim candidates for nawab (viceroy) of the Carnatic region and nizam of Hyderabad. The British East India Company, led by Thomas Saunders, supported Anwar-ud-din as nawab and Nasir Jang as nizam, whereas the French, under Governor General Marquis Joseph François Dupleix (1696–1763), threw their support behind the upstart Chanda Sahib as nawab and Muzaffar Jang (Nasir Jang's son) as nizam. In 1749 Chanda, Muzaffar, and the French, led by Marquis Charles de Bussy, defeated the forces of Anwar-ud-din at the Battle of Ambur. Anwar-ud-din himself fell in battle, whereupon Chanda was proclaimed nawab of the Carnatic. He became a puppet of Dupleix. For their part, however, the British supported Muhammad Ali, who retained control of Trichinopoly even after the accession of Chanda. Clinging to this foothold, the British also supported Nasir Jang's invasion

of the Carnatic during 1749–50. Although Nasir Jang was partially successful in reestablishing Hyderabad control of the Carnatic, he was assassinated in December 1750 with the complicity of his son Muzaffar Jang. Upon his father's death Muzaffar became nizam, and Dupleix also proclaimed him subahdar of the Deccan. In turn Muzaffar named Dupleix governor of all former Mogul lands in the eastern Deccan. Dupleix now put his army at the disposal of Muzaffar, and the French controlled much of southern India.

During September–October 1751, while Chanda besieged the British garrison at Trichinopoly, Robert Clive (1725–74), an East India Company clerk-turned-military commander, led 500 men out of Madras in an assault on Arcot, Chanda's capital. This was a diversionary operation to draw Chanda's forces from Trichinopoly, which Clive relieved on September 12. However, Chanda's son, Raja Sahib, led a force of 10,000 to resume the investment of Trichinopoly. Clive held out for 53 days, his strength reduced to 120 British regulars and 200 sepoys, when Raja Sahib stormed the garrison. Unfortunately for Raja Sahib, the herd of elephants he drove to batter down the gates stampeded wildly when they were fired on. A second attempt to storm across the moat failed, and the attackers withdrew after an hour, having lost 400 men to deadly British fire. Clive's spectacular defense of Trichinopoly drove a stake into the heart of the French-Indian campaign. Native forces now saw the British as the dominant power. Governor Dupleix was recalled to Paris in 1754, and French fortunes in India, once so promising, were immediately reversed. From the mid-18th century on, British control over India would rapidly expand.

See also Seven Years' War.

Further reading: M. S. Anderson, *The War of the Austrian Succession 1740–1748* (London and New York: Longman, 1995); H. V. Bowen, Nigel Rigby, and Margarette Lincoln, eds., *The Worlds of the East India Company* (London: Boydell and Brewer, 2004); K. S. Mathew, ed., *French in India and Indian Nationalism, 1700 A.D.–1963 A.D.* (Delhi: B. R. Publishing, 1999); Patrick Tuck, ed., *The East India Company* (New York: Routledge, 1998).

Carthaginian Civil War (Revolt of the Mercenaries) (241–237 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Carthage vs. its unpaid mercenaries
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Carthage
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Carthage's defeat in the First Punic War led to unrest among its mercenaries.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mercenaries: 25,000 under Matho plus others scattered throughout North Africa; Carthage, unknown but including 10,000 reserves from the city
CASUALTIES: Tens of thousands
TREATIES: Unknown

Creating an opportunity for Hamilcar Barca (c. 285–229 B.C.E.) to take control of Carthage, the civil war of 241–37 also began the demise of Carthage's control of North Africa. Carthaginians suffered a series of military setbacks in the third century B.C.E., the worst of which was defeat at the hands of the Romans in the First Punic War (264–241 B.C.E.). Carthage lost Sicily, lost its navy, and was forced to pay a heavy indemnity to the Romans.

At the same time mercenaries employed by Carthage during the First Punic War began to rebel, in part because of their general Hanno's (fl. third century B.C.E.) ineptitude in the African campaigns, but also because they had never been paid for their services. The rebels rallied behind Matho (d. 237), a rival of both Hamilcar and Hanno.

The rebellion gave Hamilcar an opportunity to seize control of the city and defeat the insurrectionists. Matho's troops stood at some 25,000, and they laid siege to the city in 238. By a stroke of sheer military genius, Hamilcar was able to evacuate 10,000 loyal troops and give battle to the rebels, meeting them at the Battle of Utica. Matho's forces were almost totally destroyed, and Carthage was removed from immediate danger. However, a second rebel army was still at large and plundering North Africa in an effort to regain what the rebels felt was rightfully theirs. Hamilcar laid an ambush for them at Tunis and defeated them, effectively ending the rebellion.

Meanwhile, Rome took advantage of the rebellion, marching its legions into Corsica and Sardinia. As Rome suppressed the uprisings of Carthage's mercenaries, it maintained control of the islands and then leveled another heavy fine on Carthage for forcing the Romans to intervene. Although Carthage now was literally at the mercy of Rome, the civil war left Hamilcar firmly in control of the city.

See also Carthagenian War against Pyrrhus of Epirus; Punic War, Second; Punic War, Third.

Further reading: Adrian Goldsworthy, *The Fall of Carthage: The Punic Wars 265–146 B.C.* (London: Cassell, 2004); Serge Lancel, *Carthage: A History* (Oxford and Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1995).

Carthaginian-Syracusan War (481–480 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Carthage vs. Syracuse
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syracuse
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Carthage's efforts to impose hegemony over southern Italy and the western Mediterranean

OUTCOME: Carthage's forces were defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Hamilcar Barca of Carthage killed himself after his army's defeat and enslavement; the Carthaginian navy was destroyed; totals for Syracuse forces unknown.
TREATIES: Formal treaty unknown. Carthage was forced to pay an indemnity to Syracuse.

By the dawn of the fifth century B.C.E., Carthage had established itself as the predominant power in the Mediterranean. Situated in North Africa, Carthage controlled all of southern mainland Italy as well as the western Mediterranean. Carthage's hopes for total hegemony in the region lay in conquering the island of Sicily. If the Carthaginians had designs on domination in the Mediterranean, so Persia, under Xerxes (c. 519–465), had designs on Greece. Xerxes persuaded the Carthaginians to launch an invasion against Sicily, and, more important Syracuse, the powerful city-state on the island, thus keeping the powerful Greek colony occupied while Xerxes launched his colossal invasion against Greece itself. The Carthaginians readily agreed, as it was their intention to invade anyway.

In 481 a massive Carthaginian force under Hamilcar Barca (d. 480) embarked for Sicily while Xerxes launched his offensive of some 200,000 troops, perhaps the greatest force yet assembled in the world. The Carthaginians landed at Palermo and marched to the Syracusan city of Himera, laying siege to the city with a combined force of Libyans, Campanians, Sikels, Iberians, and even a few Greeks. However, Gelon (c. 540–478), the king of Syracuse and an evil tyrant, intercepted a Carthaginian communiqué to some mercenary cavalry and sent his own troops in disguise. This left Hamilcar's flank completely exposed. The Syracusans crushed Hamilcar's forces at Himera and then torched the Carthaginian fleet in Himera's harbor. Hamilcar, who had conducted sacrifices to the gods throughout the battle, allegedly made himself the last sacrifice by self-immolation.

The Carthaginian defeat at Himera was a major disaster. The entire fleet lay at the bottom of Himera harbor, thousands of troops were taken into slavery, and the Carthaginian economy suffered a severe blow as it watched massive amounts of silver, paid as indemnity, fuel an economic renaissance in Sicily. Syracuse stood at the height of its power and maintained its position of dominance for 70 years before the Carthaginians exacted a harsh revenge under the legendary general Hannibal (d. 406) (*see* HANNIBAL'S DESTRUCTION OF HIMERA [409 B.C.E.]).

See also PERSIAN INVASION OF GREECE.

Further reading: Serge Lancel, *Carthage: A History* (Oxford and Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1995); Gilbert Charles Picard, *Carthage: A Survey of Punic History and Culture from Its Birth to the Final Tragedy* (London: Sidgwick and Jackson, 1991); Brian H. Warmington, *Carthage,* rev. ed. (New York: Praeger, 1969).

Carthaginian War against Pyrrhus of Epirus (278–276 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Carthage vs. Epirus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Syracusans' inability to deal with Carthage on their own caused them to solicit aid from Pyrrhus.
OUTCOME: Carthage lost the majority of its territory and became a minor power in the Mediterranean.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

The first in a series of wars that would begin the downfall of Carthage, the conflict with Pyrrhus can best be considered a draw. Tarentum, a semiautonomous Spartan colony in Apulia, had parried with the Romans for several years over its economic autonomy and was forced to solicit aid from Epirus, led by its king, Pyrrhus (319–272 B.C.E.). Pyrrhus had a reputation for defeating the Romans. He had done so in 280 at Heraclea and in 279 at Ausculum, but at terrible cost to his own forces, hence the term *Pyrrhic victory.* When Roman ships moved into Tarentum's gulf, Epirus had them sunk.

With the increased military presence in the region, Carthage, fresh from her resounding defeat in the FIRST PUNIC WAR (264–241), grew wary of being overwhelmed in the Mediterranean. In the hope of securing its position, Carthage unnecessarily threw its support to Rome, offering financial resources and its navy. In so doing Carthage provoked Epirus into assuming it was now a belligerent threat. On the island of Sicily, Carthage was again harassing Syracuse and maintained control over the majority of the region. Hoping to alleviate Carthaginian pressure and perhaps destroy Carthage for good, Syracuse called on Epirus to rout the Carthaginians out of Sicily.

In the ensuing campaign the Carthaginians could do little right; they quickly lost most of their territory, retaining only their stronghold of Lilybaeum (Marsala) in western Sicily. The Carthaginian defeat left it firmly in the position of the minority power in the Mediterranean region, a condition that would last until the rise of Hamilcar Barca (d. 480) 35 years later.

See also CARTHAGINIAN CIVIL WAR; ROMAN WAR AGAINST PYRRHUS OF EPIRUS.

Further reading: Serge Lancel, *Carthage: A History* (Oxford and Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1995); Gilbert

Charles Picard, *Carthage: A Survey of Punic History and Culture from Its Birth to the Final Tragedy* (London: Sidgwick and Jackson, 1991); Brian H. Warmington, *Carthage,* rev. ed. (New York: Praeger, 1969).

Carthaginian Wars

See PUNIC WAR, FIRST; PUNIC WAR, SECOND; PUNIC WAR, THIRD.

Carthaginian Wars of Expansion
(650–500 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Carthage vs. Greece
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North Africa and the Mediterranean seacoast
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Carthage's expansion in the region to protect Phoenician colonies at a time when Greek city-states were also expanding in the Mediterranean
OUTCOME: Carthage expanded in Corsica and Sardinia but was repelled in Gaul.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Phoenicia, weakened by foreign invaders around 650 B.C.E., could no longer defend its trade routes in the Mediterranean Sea. Carthage, a colony on the north coast of Africa founded in the ninth century B.C.E. by Phoenicians from the city of Tyre, stepped up to protect Phoenician colonies that constituted a network of well-developed and prosperous commerce. In addition the colony began establishing colonies of its own in North Africa, the Iberian Peninsula, western Sicily, and other islands in the Mediterranean Sea.

At the same time Greek city-states embarked on their own period of colonization and expansion along the north rim of the Mediterranean. The similar goals of the two powers brought obvious conflict, and soon the two engaged in bloody clashes in Sicily, Corsica, Sardinia, southern Gaul, and the eastern Iberian Peninsula.

Carthage's campaign of expansion drew to an abrupt halt around 500 with the founding of Syracuse on the island of Sicily. Syracuse's rise issued a major challenge to Carthaginian dominance in the region, and at first Carthage was unable to meet that challenge, effectively ending any further significant expansion.

Further reading: Orville H. Bullitt, *Phoenicia and Carthage: A Thousand Years to Oblivion* (Philadelphia: Dorrance, 1978); Serge Lancel, *Carthage: A History* (Oxford and Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1995); Gilbert Charles Picard, *Carthage: A Survey of Punic History and Culture from Its Birth to the Final Tragedy* (London: Sidgwick and Jackson, 1991); Brian H. Warmington, *Carthage,* rev. ed. (New York: Praeger, 1969).

Castilian Civil War (1065–1072)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The sons of Ferdinand I of Castile and León, Sancho II, Alfonso VI, and García
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Castile, León, and Galicia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The brothers contended for dominance of Spain.
OUTCOME: While Sancho initially gained the upper hand, his death elevated Alfonso to dominance over Castile, León, and Galicia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Upon the death in 1065 of King Ferdinand I (c. 1016–65) of Castile and León, his kingdom was apportioned among his sons. To his youngest son, García (c. 1042–90), went Galicia; to his second, Alfonso IV (1030–1109), he left León together with the tribute paid by the Muslim kingdom of Toledo; and he made his eldest, Sancho II (c. 1038–72), king of Castile, which came with the tribute of Saragossa. Subsequently, Sancho tried in vain to unify Spain under his rule, first waging the War of the THREE SANCHOS against his cousins, then fighting his brothers.

Alfonso was defeated in 1068 at the Battle of Liantada but nevertheless managed to retain his kingdom. However, Sancho did succeed in driving García from Galicia in 1071 and then renewed the offensive against Alfonso, defeating him at Golpejera in 1072. Taken prisoner, Alfonso was banished from León and found refuge at the Moorish court of his vassalage in Toledo. Soon, his sister, Urraca (c. 1077–1126), initiated a revolt in León in support of his return, which led some modern historians to speculate they enjoyed an incestuous relationship. In any case Sancho responded by laying siege to her forces holed up in the fortified city of Zamora. During this onslaught, however, Sancho was killed by a turncoat knight, whereupon his army dissolved. Alfonso quickly returned from exile in 1072 to take control of Castile as well as León.

These developments emboldened García as well, who hoped to retake Galicia. However, Alfonso imprisoned him in 1073 and made himself ruler of Castile, León, and Galicia.

See also ALMORAVID CONQUEST OF MUSLIM SPAIN.

Further reading: Angus MacKay, *Society, Economy, and Religion in Late Medieval Castile* (London: Variorum Reprints, 1987); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Kingdom of León-Castile under Queen Urraca, 1109–1126* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1982).

Castilian Civil War (1214–1218)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The heirs of Alfonso VIII and Eleanor of Castile vs. a noble Castilian faction
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Castile
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Castile and subsequently Castile and León
OUTCOME: Ferdinand III, grandson of Alfonso VIII, became king of Castile and later of a united Castile and León.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: An agreement between Ferdinand III and his father, Alfonso IX, confirmed Ferdinand's occupation of the Castilian throne. Upon Alfonso's death Ferdinand fell heir to León as well.

The ill-timed deaths of both Castile's King Alfonso VIII (1155–1214) and Queen Eleanor within the same year left their 11-year-old son, Henry I (1203–17), heir to the throne but under the guardianship of his sister Berengaria (Berenguela) (1171–1246). More troublesome to the Castilian nobility than the new king's youth was his sister's marriage to Alfonso IX (1171–1230), king of the rival Iberian province of León. An aristocratic cabal forced Berengaria to agree to hand over the guardianship of her brother to one of their number, but it then proved so autocratic and arrogant as to bring Castile to the brink of revolt. When Henry's untimely accidental death in 1217 left the throne again vacant, Berengaria swiftly installed her own son, who was crowned King Ferdinand III (1199–1252) of Castile on August 31, 1217. Though he moved quickly to suppress the Castilian aristocrats, Ferdinand soon faced trouble from a quarter he (and his mother) had perhaps not fully anticipated—his father. Like most Leónese, Alfonso opposed the union of the two kingdoms in one house (which they feared in fact meant domination by Castile), and he went to war with his son. Now under attack from León, Ferdinand found himself fully supported by the kingdom's aristocracy. The thwarted Alfonso retreated and concluded a peace with his son in August 1218. Still, the father tried to stave off the inevitable by disinheriting his son in his will, but after his death the will was set aside. León and Castile were permanently united under Ferdinand in 1230.

Further reading: Angus MacKay, *Society, Economy, and Religion in Late Medieval Castile* (London: Variorum Reprints, 1987).

Castilian Civil War (1474–1479)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ferdinand and Isabella of Castile and Aragon vs. Juana la Beltraneja and King Alfonso V of Portugal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Castile
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Castile and Aragon
OUTCOME: Ferdinand and Isabella defeated Juana and Alfonso, thereby confirming their possession of the joint throne of Castile and Aragon.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Trujillo, 1479

During the 20-year reign of Henry IV (1425–74), beginning in 1454 the Spanish nobility engaged in an intense power struggle, seeking influence on—and even ascendancy over—the throne. As these barons vied among themselves for real power, the question of succession came to loom large. The nobles alleged that Henry was impotent and refused to accept the legitimacy of the infanta Joan (1462–1539), who they claimed was fathered by a favored courtier and derided as La Beltraneja. Instead, they favored Henry's sister, Isabella (1451–1504), who they believed—incorrectly—they could control. They forced Henry to declare her his legitimate heir in 1468.

When Isabella married Prince Ferdinand (1452–1516) of Aragon the following year without seeking her brother's permission, both the barons and her brother turned against her. Henry denounced Isabella and declared Joan, now backed by most of the nobles, the true heir. Nevertheless, upon Henry's death in 1474 Isabella managed to have herself proclaimed queen and, hence, Ferdinand king, after the two had come to terms with a powerful group of high-born clergy. Meanwhile, the barons had quickly arranged a proxy marriage between Joan and her uncle, King Alfonso V (1432–81) of Portugal, thereby ensuring that she would have a strong ally.

Alfonso sent Portuguese troops against the fortress of Zamora in León in 1575, but Castilian forces moved against the barons' lands and persuaded the towns subject to these barons to return to the Castilian fold. This accomplished, Zamora was retaken, and Ferdinand led an army to victory at the Battle of Toro in March 1476, which sent the Portuguese forces packing.

Madrid, stronghold of Joan, surrendered to Ferdinand and Isabella. Desperately, Alfonso sought aid from the French but was rebuffed. Following this he concluded the Treaty of Trujillo on September 14, 1479, acknowledging Ferdinand and Isabella as joint sovereigns. Alfonso also relinquished claim to the Castilian throne and annulled his marriage to Joan. He gave up his Spanish holdings in Estremadura and the Canary Islands in return for Ferdinand and Isabella's recognition of Portugal's African conquests. As for Joan, offered a marriage to Ferdinand and Isabella's one-year-old son, she chose to retire to a Portuguese convent instead.

Further reading: Angus MacKay, *Society, Economy, and Religion in Late Medieval Castile* (London: Variorum Reprints, 1987); Townsend Miller, *Henry IV of Castile, 1425–1474* (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1972).

Castilian Conquest of Toledo (1085)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Castile vs. the Muslims of Toledo
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Toledo, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A Christian attempt to conquer Muslim Spain
OUTCOME: Toledo fell, but its fall prompted an influx of Almoravid troops, which led to the Almoravid Conquest of Muslim Spain from 1086 to 1094.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Alfonso VI (1030–1109) assumed the throne of Castile in 1072 and immediately embarked on a series of wars against the Muslims in Spain. He put his mostly triumphant armies under General Rodrigo Díaz (c. 1040–99), known to the Muslims as *sidi* (lord) and to the Spaniards (and posterity) as El Cid. Although Alfonso VI, jealous of El Cid's growing fame, ordered him into exile in 1081—thereby turning him against Christian Spain—his victories had put Alfonso in an excellent position from which to conquer Toledo.

That conquest came swiftly in 1085, prompting the Islamic emir of Seville, Muhammad al-Mutamid (1040–95), to seek military aid from the Almoravids of Morocco. This resulted in an influx of Moorish troops under the leadership of Yusuf ibn Tashfin (d. 1106) and, ultimately, the ALMORAVID CONQUEST OF MUSLIM SPAIN.

Further reading: Angus MacKay, *Society, Economy, and Religion in Late Medieval Castile* (London: Variorum Reprints, 1987); Bernard F. Reilly, *The Kingdom of León-Castile under Queen Urraca, 1109–1126* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1982).

Castilian War *See* CASTILIAN CIVIL WAR (1065–1072).

Catalan Company Raids (1302–1311)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catalan Company mercenaries vs. Ottoman forces invading the Byzantine Empire; the Catalan Company vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Primarily Anatolia, Byzantine Nicaea, Thrace, and the Athens region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Byzantine Empire hired Catalan Company mercenaries to repel an invasion by the Ottoman Turks; later, claiming nonpayment, the Catalan Company raided Byzantine territory and attacked Constantinople.
OUTCOME: The Catalan Company raided throughout the Byzantine Empire and ultimately seized control of Athens.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Catalan Company, 6,500; Alans, 1,000; Turkic cavalry, 3,000. These opposed varying numbers of Ottoman and Byzantine troops.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Catalan Company of Spanish mercenaries was originally raised in 1281 in the War of the SICILIAN VESPERS. At the end of this two-decade-long conflict, the Catalan Company consisted of about 6,500 mercenaries led by Rutger von Blum (d. 1305), better known as Roger de Flor, a colorful soldier of fortune who had been a Templar sergeant, a smuggler of fugitives, and a pirate. With the conclusion of the Sicilian Vespers in 1302, de Flor sold the services of the Catalan Company to the Byzantine emperor, Andronikos II Palaeologus (1260–1332), who needed mercenaries to fight invading Ottoman Turks under Osman I (1258–1326). Previously, Andronikos had greatly reduced the empire's standing army in an effort to reduce ruinous expenses.

De Flor and the Catalan Company arrived at Constantinople in September 1303 and were soon transported to Anatolia to reinforce Philadelphia, a Byzantine city that had been invested by Turkish forces for years. Accompanying the Catalan Company was an Alan cavalry force. A violent dispute between the Catalans and the Alans resulted in some 300 Alan casualties. All but 1,000 of the Alans left after the skirmish. Those who remained assisted the Catalans in their raiding campaign against the Turks who occupied Byzantine Nicaea. The Catalan-Alan force landed at Cyzicus in 1303, then struck south to Philadelphia, passing through Sardis, Magnesia, and Ephesus before recrossing the Bosporus to land at Neapolis in Gallipoli. At this point de Flor had recruited nearly 3,000 Turkish cavalry to augment his ranks. These were not disciplined mercenaries but outlaws and freebooters, whose presence on Byzantine territory greatly disturbed Andronikos. Indeed, de Flor himself seems to have succumbed to overweening ambition. His military successes led him to marry into the imperial family and to plan the establishment of an empire of his own within Anatolia. In 1304, claiming that his Catalan Company had not been properly paid, he led an attack on Constantinople but was repulsed. In 1305, after leaving Adrianople, where he was trying to ingratiate himself with his imperial kin, de Flor was ambushed by Alan warriors and assassinated, certainly at the behest of the Byzantine emperor. Byzantine troops then attacked and killed as many of the Catalan Company as they could reach.

Following the murder of de Flor, command of the Catalan Company fell to Ramon Muntaner (1265–1336). He led his men in losing battles with the Genoese, but, soon after this, the Catalan Company was joined by Aragonese reinforcements and a number of disaffected Turkish and Turkopouli deserters from the Byzantine army. Thus augmented, the Catalan Company raided widely and brutally throughout the Byzantine Empire. Andronikos sent an army after them but was defeated in the 1305 Battle of Apros when the Alans deserted the Byzantine forces in the field. After this victory the Catalans advanced to Rhaidestos, which became a center of operations for an ineffectual blockade of Constantinople and renewed raiding throughout Thrace during 1306–07.

Sometime in 1308 internal dissension within the Catalan Company ranks, as well as dogged Byzantine resistance to their raids, forced the Catalans to move from Rhaidestos in Gallipoli to Salonica in Thessaly, northern Greece. From Salonica they raided northern Greece and robbed the rich Eastern Orthodox monasteries at Mt. Athos. Then, in 1310 Walter de Brienne (d. 1353), duke of Athens and one of the leaders of the Romanian Frankish "Latin Empire," hired the Catalan Company to expand his holdings. In service to Walter, the Catalans captured more than 30 castles. At the end of their service, however, in 1311 Walter attempted to dismiss them without pay. In response the Catalans turned against him. At Kephissos the Catalan troops arrayed themselves for battle behind a freshly flooded field. Walter led his Frankish knights in a charge that was soon mired in mud, transforming moving targets into stationary ones. The Catalans slaughtered Walter and many of his knights. This left the Catalan Company in control of the Latin Empire. The mercenaries asked the royal House of Catalonia-Aragon to provide them with a duke to serve as a figurehead ruler. Over the next 80 years the Catalan Company, nominally ruled by a succession of eight absentee dukes, held sway over Athens and the surrounding region.

See also Byzantine-Ottoman Turk War (1302–1326); Byzantine-Ottoman Turk War (1329–1338); Byzantine-Ottoman Turk War (1359–1399).

Further reading: David M. Nicol, *The Last Centuries of Byzantium, 1261–1453* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall,* vol. 3 (New York: Knopf, 1996); John H. Rosser, *Historical Dictionary of Byzantium* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Warren T. Treadgold, *Byzantium and Its Army, 284–1081* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1995); Warren T. Treadgold, *Concise History of Byzantium* (Houndsmills, Basingate, U.K.: Palgrave, 2001).

Catalan Revolt (1461–1472)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catalan revolutionaries vs. Ferdinand I of Naples and John II of Aragon
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Catalonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Catalonians rejected unpopular rulers.
OUTCOME: Rioting brought Catalonia an acceptable ruler in John of Calabria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

One of Rome's earliest possessions in Spain, Catalonia fell to the Goths during the fifth century, then to the Moors in 712, and finally, at the end of the eighth century, to Charlemagne (742–814). Though the great Frankish king incorporated this northeastern region of Spain into his realm, calling it the Spanish March, and though it was nominally ruled by a Frankish count, Catalonia developed a strong nationalist tradition and completely rejected French hegemony during the reign of Count Borrell (d. 991). From 1137, when Count Ramon Berenguer IV (c. 1113–62) of Barcelona married Petronila (Peronella), queen of Aragon, Catalonia and Aragon were united, though Catalan interests dominated the union and monopolized trade in the western Mediterranean throughout the 13th and 14th centuries. Then, in 1410, when the male line of the counts of Barcelona became extinct, Catalonia balked at Aragonese rule, especially that of the new Trastámara dynasty beginning in 1412. By 1461 their dissatisfaction had blossomed into full-scale revolt. The Catalans not only declared a Republic of Catalonia, they attacked Gerona, seat of King Ferdinand I (1423–94) of Naples, named by the French the ruler of a Catalonia unwilling to live under the hegemony of King John II (1397–1479) of Aragon, Navarre, and Sicily.

At this juncture, with the Catalans in open rebellion, King Louis XI (1423–83) of France threw his support to John II as monarch of Catalonia, whereupon leaders of the Catalan national movement offered the throne to a series of other rulers: Henry IV (1425–74) of Castile, Portuguese constable Pedro (d. 1466), and Rene I (1409–80) of Anjou. At last, Rene dispatched his son John (d. 1470) of Calabria to Barcelona, Catalonia's capital city, to rule. Peace ensued, and after John's death the region came under the governance of Aragon's King John.

Following the marriage in 1469 of John's son Ferdinand (1452–1516) to Isabella (1451–1504) of Castile, Catalonia became less central to Spanish affairs, and the Catalan bid for independence died out following the union of Aragon and Castile in 1479.

See also Catalan Revolt (1640–1659).

Further reading: Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Jon Cowans, ed., *Early Modern Spain: A Documentary History* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2003).

Catalan Revolt (1640–1659)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catalonia (with French allies) vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Catalonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Catalonia wanted independence from Spain.
OUTCOME: A Catalan republic proved abortive, but for 16 years the region voluntarily put itself under French rule.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of St. Jean-de-Luz, 1659

In 1626, when Philip IV (1605–65) became king of Spain at age 16, he fell under the control of a group of powerful neoimperialists led by the count of Olivares (1587–1645), who became his chief minister. Seeking to centralize all government in Castile, Olivares pushed reforms and passed taxes that greatly irritated Catalonia—after Portugal, traditionally Iberia's most autonomous state. Famous for its local blood feuds, Catalonia had a form of government as medieval as the day in 1486 that the province was "settled" by Aragon's Ferdinand II ("the Catholic") (1479–1516) (also Ferdinand V of Castile from 1474). It shared a long border with France that ran through a region swarming with smugglers and bandits. Whereas, at the Cortes (congress) summoned by Philip in 1626, Aragon and Valencia reluctantly voted to provide the Crown with money but no conscripts, Catalonia refused to pay a penny. And when Olivares, regardless of the Catalan resistance, published a royal decree dictating a "Union of Arms," relations between Madrid and Catalonia spiraled downward.

The ongoing THIRTY YEARS' WAR only made matters worse. As the cost of warfare shot up, Madrid became obsessed with what it considered Catalonia's perfidy in demanding immunity from taxation. In fact, Olivares's 1639 campaign against southern France was clearly engineered to force Catalonia into the war, since—as he reasoned—the Catalans would have to support the Spanish army in order to defend their own country. He could not have been more wrong. Not only did the Catalan peasants, urged on by their priests, refuse to accept the empire's army, they also broke out into riots and then open rebellion when Castilian troops were billeted in Catalonia. In response to this coercive quartering, the so-called Corpus of Blood revolt broke out in June 1640. Catalan rebels stormed Barcelona, rampaging through the streets and slaughtering Castilian governmental officials as well as the Spanish viceroy. Cardinal Richelieu (1585–1642), prime minister of France, dispatched troops to Roussillon and occupied the region bordering Catalonia in 1642.

In the meantime the Catalan rebels established an independent republic and appealed to the French for aid. King Louis XIII (1601–43) demurred, whereupon, anticipating an overwhelming onslaught of Spanish government troops, the rebels dissolved the republic and proclaimed Louis count of Barcelona. At this, a force of 5,000 French soldiers invaded Spain and laid siege to the Spanish royal stronghold at Tarragona, Catalonia. Shortly afterward Louis personally led additional troops into the region, and an indecisive war began, which was fought in a desultory manner through 1659, when the Catalans decided to rejoin Spain. A treaty was signed that year at St. Jean-de-Luz whereby France returned Catalonia to Spain but retained adjacent Roussillon as a French possession.

See also CATALAN REVOLT (1461–1472); CATALAN REVOLT (1934).

Further reading: Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Jon Cowans, ed., *Early Modern Spain: A Documentary History* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2003).

Catalan Revolt (1934)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catalan separatists vs. Spanish government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Catalonia
DECLARATION: Independence declared October 6, 1934.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence of Catalonia
OUTCOME: The rebellion was swiftly crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

With the SPANISH CIVIL WAR (1936–1939) brewing, the Catalans, the people of the chronically rebellious Catalan region of Spain, found the nation's growing fascist movement unpalatable. The central government had overturned an agrarian law enacted by the Catalan Generalidad (local assembly) and dragged its feet on implementing a promised statute of autonomy for Catalonia. In protest leftist leaders united with Communists in a general strike on October 5, 1934. The government called out the fascist Catalan police forces, which stormed the strikers. Instead of quelling the strike, the police action touched off widespread rebellion in the region.

On October 6, 1934, Spain's president Niceto Alcalá Zamora y Torres (1877–1949) imposed martial law throughout Spain. In response a defiant Luis Companys (1883–1940), president of the Generalidad, declared Catalonia independent. At this, Spanish government troops invaded the region, killing all the rebels they found and quickly crushing the separatist movement. The entire Catalan government, including Companys, was rounded up and cast into prison.

See also ASTURIAN UPRISING.

Further reading: Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Philip Toynbee, ed., *The Distant Drum: Reflections on the Spanish Civil War* (London: Sidgwick and Jackson, 1976).

Catherine the Great's First War with the Turks (1768–1774)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ukraine, Caucasus, Kabardia, Georgia, the Balkans, Moldavia, Wallachia, Egypt, Greece, and Crimea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Turks responded to a Russian incursion into their territory.
OUTCOME: Russia made substantial territorial gains and reserved the right to defend Christians in areas controlled by the Ottomans.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 280,000 (including 92,000 garrisoned troops) plus 15,000 Albanians under Ali Bey; Turks, 170,000
CASUALTIES: Disproportionately heavy for the Turks, on the order of a few thousand for the Russians vs. nearly 60,000 killed and wounded for the Turks.
TREATIES: Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji, July 16, 1774

In 1768 Catherine II (the Great; 1729–96) sent troops to Poland in support of the pro-Russian government there and pursued dissident Polish forces into Turkish territory, sacking the Turkish town of Balta. Although poorly prepared for war, the Turks felt they had no choice but to declare war against Russia in October. Immediately the Crimean Tartars invaded the Ukraine. With Austrian support the Turks engaged Russian forces invading the Caucasus. The Turks were defeated in Kabardia and Georgia during 1769, then also yielded to a Russian force led by Count Peter Rumiantsev (1725–96), who won victories in the Balkans, along the Dniester River, at Jassy, and in Moldavia and Wallachia, both of which fell to the Russians. A Russian invading force took and occupied Bucharest.

While the Turkish military was occupied with the Russians, Ali Bey (1728–73), governor of Ottoman-controlled Egypt, rebelled during 1769–73. Russia sent troops in support of his rebellion. In 1770 the Russians also helped to incite an anti-Turkish rebellion in Greece. Russian admiral Aleksei G. Orlov (1737–1808) sailed the Russian Baltic Fleet into the Mediterranean and captured Navarino in April 1770 and other towns in the Morea. The Turks were able to assemble a large force, however, drawing mainly on Albanians, to suppress the rebellious Greeks and by June drive the Russian fleet away. This proved a rare bright spot for the Turks. On July 6, 1770, Admiral Orlov's subordinate, Admiral Samuel Greig (1735–88), a Scot in the Russian service, defeated the Turkish fleet near Chios, off the Anatolian coast. This was followed in August by the Battle of Karkal, in which a mixed force of Turks and Tartars attacked the Russians in an attempt to drive them out of Moldavia. A vigorous Russian counterattack sent the Turks and Tartars into retreat behind the Danube. After this the Russians were able to capture the Turkish fortresses now exposed along the Danube and the Pruth.

The Crimea was next to fall. In 1771 a Russian army under Prince Yury Vladimirovich Dolgoruky (1740–1830) descended on the Isthmus of Perekop and from here conquered the Crimea. This helped bring about a truce accompanied by protracted peace negotiations. In fact, the Turks negotiated in bad faith and merely used the truce to refit and reorganize their battered army. In 1773 the fighting resumed with operations on the Danube. Russian forces progressed southward along the river, closing in on the main Turkish army. The Turks steadily retreated, fighting a series of rearguard actions and finally falling back on Shumla. Here they were held under siege, even as Russian forces also invested the Turkish fortresses of Varna and Silistria. Once again desperate, the Turks reopened peace talks. By this time the Russians were also hard pressed by a Cossack and peasant revolt in southeast Russia. Both sides were motivated to make peace, but it took one more Russian victory, the defeat of a large part of the Turkish army at the Battle of Kozludzha in June 1774, to move the Turks to sign the definitive Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji on July 16, 1774. By this document the Russians returned to Turkish control Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia but were granted the right in perpetuity to defend and protect Christians living within the Ottoman Empire. Moreover, the Turks would not be allowed an entirely free hand in Wallachia and Moldavia; the treaty provided for Russian intervention in the case of Turkish misrule or abuse in these territories. As for the Crimea, it was given its independence, except that the sultan was permitted to continue to reign there as religious leader of the Muslim Tartars. Russia gained significant territories, including Kabardia in the Caucasus, sovereignty over the port of Azov, and possession of part of Kuban near Azov. The Kerch Peninsula in the Crimea fell to Russia, as did the land between the Bug and Dnieper Rivers as well as territory at the mouth of the Dnieper. Moreover, Turkey agreed to permit Russian trading vessels free passage through the Dardanelles. With the acquisitions along the Dnieper and permission to navigate the Dardanelles, Russia now had access to the Black Sea, previously the exclusive domain of the Turks. Russia withdrew its troops to positions north of the Danube.

The Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji did not address the situation in Egypt. An Egyptian force under Abu'l Dhahab invaded Syria and took Damascus. However, Abu'l negotiated a secret agreement with the Turks by which he switched allegiance. After evacuating Syria he attacked Egyptian forces in Egypt. The result was a chaotic situa-

tion during 1772–73 as Abu'l essentially recovered Egypt for the Turks while Ali Bey advanced on Syria to retake it from the Turks. Along the way Ali consolidated his control of Palestine. However, at the Battle of Salihia (April 19–21, 1773) he was defeated and captured. Syria remained in Turkish hands, and Egypt was returned entirely to Turkish control, with Abu'l as governor.

See also CATHERINE THE GREAT'S SECOND WAR WITH THE TURKS; PUGACHEV'S REVOLT; RUSSO-TURKISH WAR (1736–1739).

Further reading: Ian Grey, *Catherine the Great: Autocrat and Empress of All Russia* (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1962); Carolly Erickson, *Great Catherine* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995); Henri Troyat, *Catherine the Great* (New York: Plume, 1994).

Catherine the Great's Second War with the Turks (Russo-Turkish War) (1787–1792)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia (with Austria as ally) vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Crimea and Balkans
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Turks sought to block Russian territorial ambitions.
OUTCOME: Russia made important territorial gains, taking all Ottoman territory east of the Dniester River, including the important warm seaport of Ochakov.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman Empire, unknown; Russia, 354,000; Austria, 245,000
CASUALTIES: Ottoman Empire, 76,000 killed, wounded, or died of disease; Russians and Austrians, 70,000 killed, wounded, or died of disease
TREATIES: Treaty of Sistova (Ottoman Empire and Austria), August 4, 1791; Treaty of Jassy, January 9, 1792

The territorial ambitions of Catherine II (the Great; 1729–96) renewed war with Turkey in 1787. The czarina had annexed the Crimea in 1783 and had demanded that Turkey recognize a Russian protectorate over Georgia. The Turks even feared that Catherine's plan was ultimately to absorb all of the Ottoman Empire. For its part Turkey intrigued with the Crimean Tartars to foment a rebellion against Russia. At the same time Russia forged a secret alliance with Austria. Independently, Prince Peter I (c. 1747–1830) of Montenegro led an uprising against the Ottomans in 1788.

In 1788 Russian marshal Alexander Suvarov (1729–1800) beat back a Turkish attempt to retake the Crimea. On June 17 and 27, 1778, the naval hero of the American Revolution, John Paul Jones (1747–92), having entered Catherine's service as a mercenary, led the Russian Black Sea fleet against the Turkish flotilla of Hasan el Ghasi in the two Battles of the Liman, fought on lagoons at the mouth of the Dnieper River. The first battle began poorly for the Russian fleet when Charles H. N. O. Nassau-Siegen—like Jones, a soldier of fortune in the Russian service—mishandled the ships. Jones asserted command, however, and saved the day, prompting the Turkish vessels to withdraw. Jones was in full command of the second battle from the beginning and in a spectacular victory sunk 15 Turkish ships, which went down with 3,000 men. Another 1,600 Turkish seamen were taken prisoner. Jones's losses were one Russian frigate, 18 sailors killed, and 67 wounded.

Against Russia's Austrian ally Turkey was more successful. During 1788 Turkish forces faced an Austrian army personally led by the Austrian emperor Joseph II (1741–90). He failed consistently in Transylvania and Serbia, but Austrian forces under the highly capable general Gideon E. von Laudon (1717–90) in 1789 managed to capture Belgrade after repulsing a Turkish invasion of Bosnia. This victory was insufficient to offset earlier Austrian losses, however. More pressingly, threats of Prussian invasion, deteriorating relations with the Russians, and general unrest within the empire itself prompted Joseph and his successor, Leopold II (1747–92), to negotiate a separate peace with Turkey following an armistice during July–September 1789. A definitive treaty, the Treaty of Sistova, was signed on August 4, 1791, by which Austria restored Belgrade to Turkey in return for a portion of northern Bosnia.

During 1789 the Russians invaded Moldavia from the north while the Austrians moved in from the west. The Turkish army, reinforced, resisted more vigorously than ever before. Nevertheless, at the Battle of Foscani on August 1 and the Battle of Rimnik on September 22, Suvarov and his Austrian counterpart, Prince Friedrich Saxe-Coburg (1724–1802), pushed the Turks back to the Danube.

The Russians were also aided in 1790 by the outbreak of an anti-Ottoman revolt in Greece, which drew off significant portions of the Turkish forces, and in December Suvarov captured the key Turkish fortress of Ismail after a protracted siege. By this point the Russians clearly had the upper hand, yet Catherine had become increasingly anxious to conclude a peace because of threats posed by Prussia in Poland. Negotiations were opened in 1791, and on January 9, 1792, the Treaty of Jassy was concluded, whereby Russia restored Moldavia and Bessarabia to Turkey while retaining all of the territory taken from Turkey east of the Dniester River, including the important warm seaport of Ochakov.

See also CATHERINE THE GREAT'S FIRST WAR WITH THE TURKS.

Further reading: Ian Grey, *Catherine the Great: Autocrat and Empress of All Russia* (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1962); Carolly Erickson, *Great Catherine* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995); Henri Troyat, *Catherine the Great* (New York: Plume, 1994).

Catiline Insurrection (63–62 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebels led by Lucius Sergius Catiline vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rome and Pistoia, Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Repeatedly defeated in his bid to become a Roman consul, Lucius Sergius Catiline incited and briefly led an insurrection intended to topple Rome itself.
OUTCOME: The insurrection was defeated in a single armed confrontation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Lucius Sergius Catiline (c. 108–62 B.C.E.) served in the SOCIAL WAR of 91–88 B.C.E., during which he acquired a reputation as a fanatical participant in the ruthless proscriptions of the Roman commander Lucius Cornelius Sulla (138–78). At Sulla's behest Catiline killed his own brother-in-law. Catiline was tried on charges of fornication with a Vestal virgin in 73 but was acquitted. In 68 he became praetor, then in 67–66 governor of the province of Africa. He wanted to stand for the consular elections in 65, but he could not because he was under indictment for extortion. Acquitted, he nevertheless failed to win election as consul in 64 and again in 63. This last defeat prompted Catiline to dispatch agents to recruit an army in Etruria for an armed insurrection. Simultaneously, Catiline drew up plans to burn Rome itself and to arm the slaves for an insurrection.

Catiline was dangerous in and of himself, but he was even more dangerous because of his appeal to the masses. He proposed widespread cancellation of debt and the proscription of wealthy citizens. He presented himself always as the champion of the underclasses. At the same time Catiline appealed to the very victims of the leader he had supported so zealously during the Social War, Sulla. Those who Sulla had dispossessed of their property as well as others disappointed by Sulla's policies were drawn to Catiline.

Marcus Tullius Cicero (106–43), who had repeatedly defeated Catiline in his bid for consulship, learned of the growing Catiline conspiracy through a network of spies and informers. He stayed his hand for some time, however, feeling that Catiline was too popular to confront. On October 21 Cicero finally made his move, denouncing Catiline to the Senate as a traitor in a speech celebrated for its passion and eloquence. Cicero obtained from the Senate the "ultimate decree"—essentially a proclamation of martial law. Catiline fled Rome on November 8 and joined his army of the dispossessed and discontented at Faesulae in Etruria. Despite Cicero's oration and Catiline's flight, many in the Senate were not fully persuaded of the danger Catiline posed. This situation changed on December 3, when envoys of the Gallic tribe of the Allobroges, whose support had been solicited by certain Catiline conspirators in Rome, turned over to Cicero signed documents that irrefutably proved the existence of the conspiracy. Now panic-stricken, the Senate ordered the arrest of the conspirators who were still in Rome. They were executed on December 5 by senatorial decree and without trial. The Senate also immediately mobilized the armies of the republic to take the field against Catiline's forces. In a single battle at Pistoia in January 62, Catiline's army was destroyed and he himself killed.

See also LEPIDUS, REVOLT OF.

Further reading: Edward Spencer Beesly, *Catiline, Clodius, and Tiberius* (Tustin, Calif.: American Reprint Service, 1985); Edward Spencer Beesly, *Catiline and the Roman Conspiracy: Two Accounts* (New York: Arno Press, 1972); Anthony Everitt, *Cicero: The Life and Times of Rome's Greatest Politician* (New York: Random House, 2001).

Cavite Mutiny (1872)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Filipino soldiers vs. Spanish colonial authorities
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cavite, Philippines
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ultimately, Philippine independence from Spain
OUTCOME: The mutiny was quickly crushed. In its wake, trials and executions provided the Philippine independence movement with martyrs.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Filipino rebels, 200; two Spanish regiments
CASUALTIES: Most of the rebels were killed.
TREATIES: None

Amid growing demands for Philippine independence from Spain, 200 Filipino soldiers mutinied on January 20, 1872, in Fort San Felipe, in the Cavite province south of the Philippine capital of Manila. The mutiny proved short-lived. Rounded up, tried, and severely punished, the mutineers were readily neutralized. However, the Spanish authorities in the Philippines seized upon the mutiny as evidence of incipient revolution. They assumed emergency powers and detained, arrested, and tortured various intellectuals and others known to advocate independence or government reform. A swift series of show trials resulted in treason verdicts and a round of executions, including the executions of three Catholic priests. Thus, Spain succeeded only in fanning the flames of rebellion by providing the movement with martyrs.

Further reading: Amante P. Marinas, *Pananandata: History and Techniques of the Daga, Yantok, Balison, and other Traditional Weapons of the Philippines* (London: Paladin Press, 2002); Eliodoro G. Robles, *The Philippines in the Nineteenth Century* (Quezon City, Philippines: Malaya Books, 1969).

Cayuse War (1848–1855)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cayuse and related tribes vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southeastern Washington and northeastern Oregon
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Cayuses were fighting a war of resistance against white settlement of their homelands.
OUTCOME: The Cayuses were defeated, their lands confiscated, and the remnants of the tribe confined to a reservation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1848 the Cayuse Indians of the Pacific Northwest killed 14 white settlers and missionaries and held 53 others captive for ransom. What settlers called the WHITMAN MASSACRE set off a chain of events that would, over the course of nearly a decade, come to be known as the Cayuse War. Almost immediately after the massacre, about 500 settlers took up arms and went on a rampage through Cayuse territory (southeast Washington and northeast Oregon). After the Cayuses responded to the settlers' demands for the surrender of those warriors responsible for the crimes at the Whitman mission with more raids on white settlements, the U.S. government called in federal troops and militia stationed in the Oregon Territory to suppress those Indians who refused to make peace. The federal troops captured five of the Cayuses accused of participating in the raid, and they were tried and convicted, then hanged on June 3, 1850. However, the Cayuses refused to make peace, and bloodshed continued in the area. It was hardly surprising, then, that the Cayuses—and the closely related Walla Wallas—were numbered among those various tribes that responded with violence to Isaac Stevens (1818–62), governor of the Washington Territory in 1855, when he negotiated a treaty calling for all the region's Indians to be removed to reservations.

As federal forces reluctantly became engaged on the side of the settlers in the YAKAMA WAR and the ROGUE RIVER WAR, what should be considered the last stage of the ongoing Cayuse War got under way. In 1855 the U.S. Army attacked the Walla Walla homelands along the Walla Walla and Touchet Rivers, encountering along the way a Walla Walla chief named Peo-Peo-Mox-Mox of the Umatillas (a tribe closely related to and allied with the Cayuses), who had just burned the abandoned Hudson's Bay Company Fort Walla Walla. An aborted parley between the army and the Indians led to the brutal slaughter of Peo-Peo-Mox-Mox and six other chiefs, which in turn enraged the Walla Wallas and Cayuses throughout the region. They raided outlying white settlements. On February 23 raids along the lower Rogue destroyed more than 60 homes and left 31 settlers dead and 130 survivors of the raids took refuge near Gold Beach, where they were besieged for almost a month. Rescue efforts by ships were repeatedly foiled by a heavy surf that prevented landing. Eventually, however, the Indians withdrew.

The Walla Wallas and Cayuses had become part of the more general uprising of the Yakama War. As the United States began to gain the upper hand against the Yakamas and to hear talk of peace, in 1856 a force of volunteers engaged the Walla Wallas and Cayuses in the Grande Ronde Valley, soundly defeating them. They, too, sued for peace. Like the Yakamas, the Cayuses were herded off to reservations, their numbers greatly reduced by the long, sporadic war, and much of their tribal homelands confiscated and turned over to settlement by westering whites.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Ray Hoard Glassley, *Pacific Northwest Indian Wars* (Portland, Ore.: Binfords and Mort, 1953); Robert M. Utley, *Frontiersmen in Blue: The U.S. Army and the Indian, 1848–65* (New York: Macmillan, 1967).

Celtiberian Wars (154–133 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Celtiberians and Lusitanians vs. the Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Iberian Peninsula
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tribes of the Iberian Peninsula allied to throw off imperial Roman control of the region.
OUTCOME: Celtiberians were eventually subdued.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Romans against the forces of the Lusitanian leader Kaisaros, 9,000; otherwise, totals unknown
TREATIES: The Peace of 152 B.C.E. was disrupted five years later when the Celtiberians revolted while Rome engaged in the Third Punic War; Pompeius Quinus offered peace c. 145 but reneged after receiving reparations from the Numantians.

Eventually ending in Roman victory, the Celtiberian Wars served as an unsuccessful challenge to imperial Roman authority. In 153 B.C.E., the Belli, a tribe in Nearer Celtiberia, was ordered to seize a fortress at Segeda. The Romans invaded Celtiberia, the mountainous regions of north-central Spain and northeastern Portugal, the same year. Also at roughly the same time, the Lusitanians of central Portugal and western Spain revolted against the empire in a purely piratical manner, seeking only to seize wealth, not to challenge the status quo. After a stunning Lusitanian victory over the Roman general Mummius (fl. mid-second century B.C.E.) in which the imperial legions suffered 9,000 casualties, the Lusitanian leader Kaisaros sent the captured Roman standards to the Celtiberians in an effort to unite the two against the Roman invaders.

In 152 the Roman consul Marcus Fulvius Nobilior (second century B.C.E.) began his offensive against the Segeda fortification by marching up the Jalon valley. The unfinished Segeda fortress fell without a fight, and its inhabitants fled to the Arevaci in Further Celtiberia, gaining the support of the Celtiberians and expanding the war. When Nobilior sought to pursue and destroy the Celtiberian forces, he was trapped in a narrow defile near Almazan. The Romans were crushed, suffering more than 50 percent casualties. However, the Arevaci also suffered, including the loss of their general, Karos. With Karos's death the Celtiberians were momentarily weakened, and Nobilior was able to take Gran Atalaya Mountain and establish a fortified base camp.

After failing to subdue the Celtiberians, Nobilior was replaced in 152 by Claudius Marcellus (d. 148). He quickly subdued the Jalon valley and the majority of Celtiberian tribes with it by promising peace in the valley and no Roman reprisals—provided the Arevaci would cease hostilities. The Jalon and Douro tribes sent emissaries to Rome, but the negotiations fell through when the Arevaci refused to submit. Marcellus made peace with the Numantia and defeated the Lusitanians; the other tribes quietly retired from the field without further aggression. There was peace in Celtiberia for the following five years, but hostilities began anew in 147, when the Lusitanians again roused the Celtiberians to action. The two decided to take advantage of the Roman preoccupation with the Third Punic War, 149–146, and revolted against the occupying Roman legions, inflicting heavy casualties.

The consul Quintus Caecilius Metellus (d. 115) was sent to deal with the insurrection. After two years he was able to bring only the Jalon valley under his control; the rest of the region was still aflame with revolt. When his successor, Pompeius Quinus (as consul, c. 144–131) attempted to take Numantia by storm, he was heavily defeated, though his forces outnumbered the defenders by almost four to one. He also failed to take the city by siege before finally offering peace in exchange for a large reparation in silver. After receiving the payment Pompeius declared the treaty void because it had not been ratified by the Roman Senate. But he kept the silver. His successors fared no better in reducing Numantia and the Celtiberian-Lusitanian alliance.

The alliance, however, fell apart in 139 when the powerful Lusitanian leader Viriathus died, leaving the Celtiberians to fend for themselves. Successive Roman campaigns simply ignored Numantia and only attacked other tribes in Nearer and Further Celtiberia. By 135, however, it became evident that Numantia must be subdued if the Romans were to maintain any hegemony in the Iberian Peninsula. Rome sent the great general Scipio Aemillianus (c. 184–129) to lead the campaign. Within six months Scipio had defeated the Numantians through careful planning and well-fortified siege lines. The city fell in 133, ending Celtiberian resistance.

See also Numantian War; Lusitanian War.

Further reading: Adrian Goldsworthy, *The Fall of Carthage: The Punic Wars 265–146 B.C.E.* (London: Cassell, 2004); Serge Lancel, *Carthage: A History* (Oxford and Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1995).

Celtic Sack of Rome

See Rome, Celtic Sack of.

Central American Federation Civil Wars

(1826–1829, 1838–1840)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conservative vs. liberal constituents of the Central American Federation
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Guatemala and El Salvador
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Central American Federation
OUTCOME: Breakup of the Central American Federation, with conservative domination of the constituent nations
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Between 1826 and 1846, battle deaths for the countries involved were: Guatemala, 2,291; El Salvador, 2,546; Honduras, 682; Nicaragua, 1,203; Costa Rica, 144
TREATIES: None

In Spanish colonial times Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and El Salvador were united under a captaincy general (until they gained independence in 1821, after which they were briefly annexed to the Mexican empire) formed by Agustín de Iturbide (1783–1824). In 1825, independent, these nations decided to join in a loose federal state, the Central American Federation or Central American Union, which ultimately failed to rise above the political jealousies and ideological differences

that had emerged during the region's late colonial history. The federation's first election indicated clearly that the seeds had already been sown for the dissolution of the tentative new union when the liberal Salvadoran army officer Manuel José Arce (c. 1783–1847) defeated the moderate Honduran José Cecilio del Valle (1777–1834), despite the fact that the latter appeared to have won the popular vote. The suspicious victory angered both conservatives, who backed del Valle as the lesser of two evils, and liberals, who believed Arce had sold out his principles to attract moderate and right-wing votes. At the first federation congress in Guatemala City in 1826, violent disputes broke out, and Arce began quarreling with his own liberal party, which refused to enact his legislation. At this, Arce did indeed ally himself with the conservatives and assumed dictatorial powers, which incited many of his erstwhile allies in the Salvadoran Liberal Party to attempt a coup in Guatemala City. Forces loyal to Arce defeated the insurgent liberals, which, paradoxically, won for Arce the support of the conservatives, who seized Guatemala City. Allied now with the conservatives, Arce replaced Guatemala's liberal governor with a staunch conservative, which touched off an all-out civil war.

With the federation capital in conservative hands, Arce led an army against San Salvador and laid it under siege. In response, Francisco Morazán (1792–1842), a Honduran liberal, led a force against Arce at San Salvador and lifted the siege in 1829. He then marched on Guatemala City, where he routed the conservative garrison. Having retaken the city, he replaced Arce as federation president in 1830.

Morazán moved the federation capital to San Salvador, but he could not resolve the ongoing friction between liberals and conservatives. As conservative power and influence grew, the congress voted in 1838 to dissolve the federation, the constituent states having become fearful that they would lose any semblance of independence and sovereignty. On the extreme fringe of the conservative faction was Rafael Carrera (1814–65), who led a rebellion that took control of Guatemala City in 1838. Morazán led forces against Carrera in an effort to recover the city, but his army was defeated in March 1840. Morazán fled into exile, returning in 1842 with a Costa Rican army hoping to resurrect the federation. He failed, and Carrera remained in power as an arch-conservative dictator of Guatemala. Although the Central American states would now remain independent of one another, Carrera applied a strong hand in setting up similarly conservative governments throughout Central America. Thus, the bloody struggle established what would become the standard struggle between liberals and conservatives, lasting well beyond the brief life of the federation.

Further reading: Jeffery M. Paige, *Coffee and Power: Revolution and the Rise of Democracy in Central America* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1997); Ralph Lee Woodward, Jr., ed., *Central America: Historical Perspectives on the Contemporary Crisis* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1988).

Centralia (Missouri) Raid

See UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: TRANSMISSISSIPPI THEATER.

Ceylonese Rebellion (1971)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The People's Liberation Front (PLF) vs. Ceylonese government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ceylon (Sri Lanka)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Radical leftists opposed the moderately leftist government in a dispute also rooted in a long-standing conflict between Tamil and Sinhalese ethnic factions.
OUTCOME: The government prevailed but, in creating Sri Lanka from Ceylon, incorporated reform elements desired by the PLF and its adherents.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Ceylon (Sri Lanka) achieved independence from Great Britain in 1948 and experienced considerable instability, culminating in the Ceylonese Rebellion—the rebellion of the People's Liberation Front (PLF)—in 1971. During August 12–19, 1953, the new nation was plagued by waves of communist terrorism, and between 1956 and 1961 it was periodically swept by "Language Riots." (The Tamil minority agitated, sometimes violently, to gain acceptance of their language as an alternative to Sinhalese, the nation's official tongue.) These disturbances were quelled on August 5, 1961, by legislation granting limited official status to Tamil. However, early in 1962 Ceylon weathered an attempted coup.

The ongoing conflict between the Buddhist Sinhalese majority and the Hindu Tamil minority resulted in the assassination in 1959 of Prime Minister S. W. R. D. Bandaranaike (1899–1959), a Sinhalese member of the Sri Lanka Freedom Party. His leadership of the party was succeeded by his widow, Sirimavo Bandaranaike (1916–2000), who became prime minister in 1960. The government she created was far to the left and was opposed by the Tamil minority as well as by more moderate Sinhalese. The elections of 1965 replaced Mrs. Bandaranaike with a moderate socialist. Sirimavo Bandaranaike did not disappear from the picture, however, and she regained the prime minister's office in 1970, forming a coalition government made up of the Sri Lanka Freedom Party and Marxist socialist parties.

The program of political and economic reform the coalition proposed was insufficiently radical to appease the nation's most extreme leftists, the PLF. On April 5, 1971, the PLF attempted to seize Colombo, Ceylon's capital, and assassinate Mrs. Bandaranaike. Both attempts failed, and by April 13 the government had regained control of Colombo and the other cities. Fierce guerrilla resistance continued in rural and jungle areas, however. Prime Minister Bandaranaike appealed to the Soviet Union, India, and Pakistan for military aid in suppressing the rebellion. The Soviets supplied fighter aircraft and combat pilot training, whereas India and Pakistan furnished helicopters and crews. Great Britain also provided support in the form of ammunition and weapons. On June 9, 1971, the prime minister declared that the rebellion had been suppressed. A little less than a year later, on May 22, 1972, Prime Minister Bandaranaike proclaimed the Republic of Sri Lanka, which included a new, reformist constitution. The name that had replaced Ceylon, however, is a Sinhalese word (meaning "resplendent land"), and it underscores the ongoing friction between the Sinhalese majority and Tamil minority, which had been expressed in the earlier Language Riots.

Further reading: A. C. Alles, *Insurgency, 1971: An Account of the April Insurrection in Sri Lanka* (Colombo: Trade Exchange, 1976); W. A. Wiswa Warnapala, *The Sri Lanka Political Scene* (New Delhi: Navrang Booksellers and Publishers, 1993).

Chaco War (1932–1935)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bolivia vs. Paraguay
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gran Chaco, disputed land west of the Paraguay River and north of Río Pilcomayo
DECLARATION: May 10, 1933, Paraguay on Bolivia
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bolivia wanted possession of the Gran Chaco, chiefly as a source of oil and as an outlet to the Atlantic via the Paraguay and Paraná Rivers.
OUTCOME: Paraguay acquired or retained most of the Gran Chaco but agreed to provide landlocked Bolivia Atlantic access via the Paraguay and Paraná Rivers.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Bolivia, 48,000; Paraguay, 30,000
CASUALTIES: 30,000 Bolivians were taken prisoner in the capture of Fort Ballivián, the major battle of the war. Total losses for Paraguay were 12,000 killed in battle, 24,000 died of disease; for Bolivia, 25,000 killed in battle, 27,000 died of disease.
TREATIES: Treaty of Buenos Aires, July 21, 1938

The Gran Chaco, or Chaco Boreal, is 100,000 square miles of barren land west of the Paraguay River and north of Río Pilcomayo. As early as 1825, the region had been a subject of dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay, but the situation heated up in the 1920s, when it was thought that the Gran Chaco contained rich oil deposits. As a result of the War of the PACIFIC between Bolivia and Chile, Bolivia lost its seacoast. Now the Gran Chaco loomed not only as a source of oil but as a shipping route for it via the Paraguay and Paraná Rivers to the Atlantic.

In the 1920s increasing numbers of Bolivian colonists and troops occupied the Gran Chaco, often clashing with the Paraguayans already settled there. In 1928 military forces from the two nations clashed, but a pan-American conference was called to intervene and attempt peaceful arbitration of the dispute. The conference soon broke down, and sporadic armed exchanges continued, then intensified. Paraguay asserted de facto control over the region because its settlers were there in greater numbers. However, the Bolivian government responded by enlisting Hans von Kundt (1869–1939), a German general, to train and lead an army of occupation and to establish military outposts in the Gran Chaco. On June 15, 1932, Kundt captured Fort Lopez (Fort Boquerón), at Pitiantuta, central Chaco, thereby gaining military control of the Paraguay River route to the ocean.

The capture of Fort Lopez prompted a massive military effort from Paraguay. In mid-July 1932 Paraguayan frontier troops retook Fort Lopez, even as the Paraguayan military underwent a prodigious expansion from 3,000 to 60,000 men. On May 10, 1933, Paraguay formally declared war on Bolivia and launched a major offensive under Colonel José Felix Estigarribia (1888–1940). The operation had been under preparation since 1932, with the establishment of a supply line into the Chaco via Puerto Casado. During 1933–34 Estigarribia systematically retook most of the disputed region. Kundt was relieved as Bolivian commander in chief by General Enrique Penaranda (1892–1970), but to little avail. On November 17, 1934, Estigarribia captured Fort Ballivián, the headquarters of the Bolivian army in the Gran Chaco, taking more than 30,000 prisoners in the course of the campaign.

From Fort Ballivián Estigarribia invaded Bolivia proper but, yielding to counterattacks, withdrew in 1935. Through the intervention of the United States and a coalition of five South American nations, a truce was brokered and a cease-fire concluded on June 12, 1935. The subsequent Treaty of Buenos Aires, signed on July 21, 1938, formally ended the Chaco War by awarding most of the Gran Chaco to Paraguay but providing landlocked Bolivia Atlantic access via the Paraguay and Paraná Rivers. Puerto Casado was designated a free port and made available to Bolivian shipping.

Further reading: Bruce W. Farcau, *The Chaco War: Bolivia and Paraguay, 1932–1935* (Westport, Conn.: Praeger, 1996); Philip de Ronde, *Paraguay, A Gallant Little Nation: The Story of Paraguay's War with Bolivia* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1935).

Chad, French Conquest of

See FRENCH CONQUEST OF CHAD.

Chadian Civil War (1965–1996)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The nation's northern vs. southern residents with intervention by France, Libya, Nigeria, and Zaire (Democratic Republic of the Congo)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chad
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Southern domination of the government provoked increasingly violent opposition from the north.
OUTCOME: An uneasy reconciliation between the north and south amid continued violent factionalism
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable; in total, between 1965 and 1990, Chad government, 50,000; Chad rebel groups, 50,000; France, 5,000; Libya, 73,000; Nigeria, 94,000; Zaire (Democratic Republic of the Congo), 48,000
CASUALTIES: Between 1966 and 1990, 50,000 Chadians were killed.
TREATIES: None

In 1965 the nation of Chad was roughly divided, north and south, into two major groups: nomadic Arab Muslims in the north and Bantu Christian and pagan farmers in the south. The Chadian government was dominated by southerners, a situation that provoked violent protest from the north, which soon ripened into a chronic, low-level civil war. The first phase of this war culminated in the military coup of April 13–15, 1975, led by General Noel Odingar. The coup overthrew President N'garta Tombalbaye (1918–75), who was killed, and elevated a Bantu, General Félix Malloum (b. 1932), to the head of the Military Council, effectively making him head of state. Opposed to the new regime was the Chadian National Liberation Front (FROLINAT), a Muslim rebel guerrilla movement led by Hissen Habré (b. 1942) and backed by Libya. On September 27, 1975, learning that France had been negotiating with the FROLINAT to secure the release of French nationals held hostage, Malloum summarily ordered all French troops out of the country. The withdrawal during October 13–27 ended a French military presence that had been continuous since the end of the 19th century. With the French gone, FROLINAT guerrillas made an attempt on the life of General Malloum, but the coup failed. After this Colonel Muammar Qaddafi (b. 1943), Libya's dictator, annexed 37,000 square miles of northern Chad on September 9, 1977, and sent military aid to the FROLINAT rebels in the region during 1976–77. The Malloum government, which had earlier expelled the French military from the country, now requested French aid. French transport aircraft airlifted government troops to the northern front and sent a small contingent of military advisers. Despite this, a strong FROLINAT offensive that began February 1, 1978, seized control of as much as 80 percent of Chad by February 7. Malloum felt that he had little choice but to agree to a cease-fire on February 20, and on February 24 he met with leaders from Libya, Niger, and Sudan in an effort to negotiate a permanent peace.

It did not last long. On April 15 FROLINAT launched a new offensive, which prompted Malloum to request the intervention of the French Foreign Legion. About 500 legion troops arrived on April 26, 1978, and joined 1,500 government soldiers. The offensive was stopped by June 6, and 2,000 additional Foreign Legionnaires landed in Chad.

In August Malloum seized an opportunity when guerrilla leader Hissen Habré split with FROLINAT. On August 29 Malloum named Habré premier. It was, to say the least, an uneasy coalition. During February 12–17, 1979, Habré attempted to oust Malloum by means of a coup, which had to be put down by the French troops. Defeated, Habré fled north into guerrilla country. Despite this, during March 16–23, 1979, Malloum, Habré's FROLINAT faction, and the rival faction of FROLINAT (headed by Goukouni Oueddi [b. 1944]) hammered out an agreement to end the civil war by forming a three-way coalition government. At the request of the coalition, the French agreed to a phased withdrawal, and on March 23, 1979, Oueddi assumed leadership of the new government.

This did not bring peace to Chad. Almost immediately after the coalition government went into operation, Libyan troops on April 20 invaded Chad, claiming that they were assisting the rebels of the north. Chadian government troops and French Foreign Legionnaires quickly forced the Libyans into retreat. But amid continued unrest, a force of Congolese peacekeepers, acting under the auspices of the Organization of African Unity, was dispatched to Chad on January 18, 1980. Despite the presence of this body, the civil war was renewed on March 22, 1980, when partisans loyal to Habré revolted in the capital city of Ndjamena after Oueddi, already premier, succeeded Malloum as president. Oueddi asked for the assistance of Libyan troops to quell the revolt, and Habré fled to Cameroon. From this point forward Oueddi moved the government of Chad closer to the Libya of Muammar Qaddafi. On January 7, 1981, with the approval of Oueddi, Qaddafi proclaimed the "unity" of Chad and Libya, and 6,000 Libyan troops were admitted across the border as an occupying force, only to be withdrawn again on October 31, 1981, at Oueddi's request. The Organization for African Unity furnished a smaller peacekeeping force to replace the Libyan contingent. But once the Libyan withdrawal had been completed, Habré returned from exile to renew his attempt to overthrow Oueddi. Civil war fighting resumed on March 21, 1982, and ended, briefly, with the defeat and ouster of Oueddi on June 8. Calling on Libya for military assistance, Oueddi

reentered Chad and during June and July 1983 retook the northern half of the country. On July 30 Oueddi's rebels seized the Faya-Largeau oasis. Habré's troops fought bitterly to recapture the oasis and succeeded in forcing Oueddi's troops out. However, on August 3 Libya launched a massive air campaign against the position, and by August 10 Oueddi was back in control of the oasis.

Seeking to stabilize the situation, 1,000 French paratroopers landed in the capital city of Ndjamena, then marched north to Salaland Arada, the limit of Oueddi's territorial control. A stalemate developed during which the rival Chadian factions and the French agreed to a cease-fire (August 17, 1983). A year later France and Libya negotiated a mutual withdrawal of troops. While the French troops evacuated the country in early 1984, Libya maintained a military presence along the Aouzou Strip, on the Chadian-Libyan border. This became the base from which Libya would renew its incursions into Chad during February–March 1986. Chadian government forces, with French assistance, hit the Libyans hard during March. A year later Chadian government troops mounted a concerted counteroffensive against the Libyan presence in the Aouzou Strip. The Libyans, routed, abandoned a wealth of heavy equipment and agreed to a cease-fire in September 1987.

Habré was faced with a new coup attempt in April 1989, but his loyalist guard successfully fended it off, killing one leader, Hassan Djamouss, and sending the other, General Idriss Deby (the country's former defense minister), fleeing to Sudan. From Sudan Deby mounted several guerrilla assaults. Unfortunately for Habré, this victory was only a reprieve. It became clear that his support from the northern tribal coalition was falling apart, and by April 1990 Deby's Sudan-based raids were becoming increasingly successful. On November 10, 1990, Deby led troops of his Popular Salvation Movement across the Sudan-Chad border and captured the town of Abéché on November 29. Habré fled to Cameroon on December 1, and Deby took the capital in short order, suspended parliament, and on December 4 declared himself president of Chad. Although he was quick to pledge a democratic government open to a multiplicity of parties, the United States, mindful of Deby's ties to Libya, airlifted some 400 Libyan prisoners released by Deby to Nigeria on December 6. The idea was to remove this Libyan presence from the country as soon as possible.

In 1993 Deby fended off two coup attempts, including one led by Habré, and by 1994 Deby found his government under continual challenge by some 40 opposition movements and six full-fledged rebel movements. The long Chadian Civil War ended in 1996 after peace agreements were signed by a welter of rebel groups in the north as well as the south.

Further reading: Mario J. Azevedo, *Roots of Violence: A History of War in Chad* (London: Gordon and Breach, 1998); Millard Burr, *Africa's Thirty Years War: Libya, Chad, and the Sudan, 1963–1993* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1999).

Chalukya Dynasty, Wars of the (550–655)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chalukyas vs. Pallavas
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Deccan region of southern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of southern India, including key trading routes
OUTCOME: The Chalukya came to dominate the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Chalukya describes several dynasties that ruled in the Deccan of southern India and that claimed descent from Pulakesin I, who reigned from 543 to 566. By the middle of the sixth century, the early Chalukyas held sway in the northern Carnatic and were rivals to the Pallava.

Pulakesin was no more than a chieftain who, despite claiming Rajput lineage, was an outsider. During the period immediately following the fall of the Gupta dynasty, India descended into confusion in which the small states of the Deccan plateau vied with one another for dominance over the region. About 550 (some authorities put this at 543) Pulakesin captured the hilltop fort at Vatapi (Badami). Once in possession of this strong point, he was able to capture the territory between the western Deccan and the western Ghats, defeating the Vakataka lords who held it.

Pulakesin I died in 566, and his son Kirtivarman I (fl. 566–97) continued the expansion of the dynasty's holdings by pushing northward and taking the Konkan coast (Bombay) by 597. Pulakesin I's grandson, Pulakesin II (fl. c. 610–42), acquired by conquest portions of Gujarat (the Kathiawar Peninsula) and Malwa. His successful prosecution of the CHALUKYAN WAR AGAINST HARSHA pushed the southern boundary of the Chalukyan empire to the Marmada River. By the end of the first quarter of the seventh century, Pulakesin II had brought the Chalukyan dynasty to its height by conquering the lands of the Andhra dynasty, thereby extending Chalukyan eastern holdings south to the Kistna River. In 624 he conquered Vengi, an east coast kingdom of the Visnukindin. Here he founded the eastern Chalukyan dynasty, centered at Pishtapura on the Bay of Bengal. In 630 Kubja, the brother of Pulakesin II and now the viceroy of Vengi, rebelled against his brother and established an independent Eastern Chalukyan Dynasty, which was destined to last well into the 11th century.

Thanks to Pulakesin II, the Chalukyan dynasty now held territories on both coasts of India and therefore controlled the east Asian trade. The Chalukyas also enjoyed a broad buffer against the warlike and often avaricious kingdoms of southern India. From 625 to 630 Pulakesin II established his supremacy in the south by repeatedly defeating the Pallava dynasty. Parthians who had ventured

from the Ganges region to become the first genuine emperors of southern India, the Pallava began a resurgence in 630 under King Narasimharvarman I. From 641 to 647 the Pallava raided the Deccan, and in the battle to conquer Vatapi in 642 Narasimharvarman killed Pulakesin. This did not end the contest between the Chalukya and the Pallava, however. Vikramaditya I (fl. 655–80), son of Pulakesin II, defeated the Chola and Pandya kingdoms, which gained the Chalukya sufficient power to retake Vatapi from the Pallava.

See also CHALUKYAN-PALLAVAN WARS; CHALUKYAN WAR AGAINST HARSHA.

Further reading: K. V. Ramesh, *Chalukyas of the Vatapi* (Delhi: Agam Kala Prakashan, 1984); Ghulan Yazdani, ed., *The Early History of the Deccan,* 2 vols. (New Delhi: Oriental Reprint, 1982).

Chalukyan-Cholan Wars (990–1070)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chalukya vs. Chola
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Deccan region of southern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Domination of the Deccan region, including its key trading routes
OUTCOME: Marriage between Chalukyan and Cholan royalty united the two dynasties in domination of the Deccan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The empire the Chalukya acquired under Pulakesin II (fl. c. 610–642) during the wars of the Chalukya dynasty had collapsed by the middle of the eighth century, whereupon the Chalukyas' ancient rivals, the Pallava, recaptured some of their former territory and power on the east coast of the Deccan. The Cholas generally rose in power and influence during the first half of the ninth century. However, the Rashtrakuta king Krishna III campaigned vigorously against the Cholas in the south; in 953 Krishna defeated the Chola in battle, killing their king, Parantaka I (fl. 907–953). Just 20 years later, Taila II (fl. 973–997), leader of the cluster of minor principalities to which the Chalukya dynasty had been reduced, led a resurgence of his people and in 973 spearheaded a revolt against the Rashtrakuta that resulted in its overthrow and replacement by the Later Chalukya dynasty, or the Chalukyas of Kalyani.

The Chalukyan defeat of the Rashtrakuta opened the way for the Cholas to rise again, under Rajarata I, as the dominant power in southern India. However, this created a power struggle with the resurgent Chalukyas and triggered a long series of conflicts roughly between 990 and 1070. At first the Cholas assumed the offensive, repeatedly invading the Chalukyan lands of the southern and western Deccan from about 990 to 1021. At this point it was the Chalukyas, under Somesvara I (fl. 1043–68), leader of the dynasty's eastern empire, who seized the initiative. The principal prize was control of Vengi, which, in turn, conferred control of east Asian trade.

Somesvara I was principal leader of a coalition of Hindu princes arrayed against the Cholas. Their first major triumph came at the Battle of Koppan in 1052, at which the Cholan king, Raajaadahira I, was killed. In 1062 Virarajendra of Chola scored a major victory against the Chalukyas and thereby reestablished Cholan supremacy in south India. Throughout the rest of Virarajendra's reign, warfare between the Chalukyas and Cholas was chronic. But in 1070, with the end of his reign and the marriage of the eastern Chalukya prince Rajendra Chola Kullotunga to Virarajendra's daughter, the Chalukya and Chola dynasties were united in their control of the eastern and southern Deccan, and warfare between them ceased.

See also CHALUKYAN-PALLAVAN WARS; CHALUKYAN RASHTRAKUTAN WARS; CHOLAN-PANDYAN WAR; RASHTRAKUTAN-CHOLAN WAR.

Further reading: K. V. Ramesh, *Chalukyas of the Vatapi* (Delhi: Agam Kala Prakashan, 1984); Ajay Mitra Shastri, *Early History of the Deccan* (Delhi: Sundeep Prakashan, 1987); Ghulan Yazdani, ed., *The Early History of the Deccan,* 2 vols. (New Delhi: Oriental Reprint, 1982).

Chalukyan Civil War (1156–1181)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kalacuris vs. Chalukyas
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Deccan region of southern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Kalacuri dynasty, subordinate to the Chalukyas, chose to rebel rather than pay tribute and taxes levied.
OUTCOME: Internal dissension within the Kalacuris weakened the dynasty, creating an opportunity for Somesvara IV, the last significant ruler of the western Chalukya, to retake the central throne of the Deccan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Historians refer to the armed internecine conflict in the Deccan region of India during this period as a civil war. This, however, is open to some interpretation because the territory over which the Chalukyan dynasty held nominal sway was in no sense a unified state or even an empire. Rather, it was a loosely constituted feudatory kingdom that owed taxes and the services of military troops to the central power but in other respects conducted its affairs autonomously. From time to time a subordinate or client kingdom

resisted payment of taxes or the furnishing of troops or might even rise up in full-scale revolt in an effort to gain dominance. Beginning about 1156 Bijjala (fl. 1156–67), ruling patriarch of the Kalacuri dynasty, and subordinate to the Chalukyas, rebelled and even displaced the Chalukyas for a brief period. Despite temporary success against the Chalukyas, internal dissension within the Kalacuri weakened the dynasty, creating an opportunity for Somesvara IV (fl. 1181–89), the last significant ruler of the western Chalukyas, to retake the central throne of the Deccan by 1181. For background on the Chalukyan dynasty, see Wars of the CHALUKYA DYNASTY and CHALUKYAN-CHOLAN Wars.

Further reading: M. A. Nayeem, Aniruddha Ray, and K. S. Mathew, eds., *Studies in History of the Deccan: Medieval and Modern* (Delhi: Pragati Publications, 2002); K. V. Ramesh, *Chalukyas of the Vatapi* (Delhi: Agam Kala Prakashan, 1984); Ajay Mitra Shastri, *Early History of the Deccan* (Delhi: Sundeep Prakashan, 1987); Ghulan Yazdani, ed., *The Early History of the Deccan,* 2 vols. (New Delhi: Oriental Reprint, 1982).

Chalukyan Civil War (1180–1189)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The western Chalukyan dynasty vs. the feudal kingdoms of the Hoysala, Yadava, and Kakatiya families
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The southern region of India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of coastal trade in India's Deccan region
OUTCOME: The three feudal kingdoms were able to wrest control of the Deccan region from the once powerful Chalukyas.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the late 12th century the western Chalukyan dynasty was in control of territory stretching from Kathiawar to the Krishna River in southern India. To the east the dynasty's land bordered that of the eastern Chalukyas, and to the south it bordered on the kingdom of the Cholas. From 1156 to 1180 the Chalukyas had engaged in civil war, which resulted in the ousting of the Kalacuri family who had earlier, under the leadership of Bijjala (fl. 1156–67), wrested control of the territory. In 1180 civil war broke out again. This war pitted the Chalukyans against the feudal kingdoms of the Hoysala, Yadava, and Kakatiya families. The Chalukyas were unable to defend their position, and in 1189 the Hoysalas captured the southern territories; the Yadavas ruled the region south of the Narmada River. The Chalukyas then found themselves encircled by the three families that had once been feudatories. It was not until the 14th century that the Deccan region was united under the Delhi sultanate.

See also CHALUKYAN CIVIL WAR (1156–1181); DELHI SULTANATE RAIDS IN SOUTH INDIA.

Further reading: A. Aruna, *State Formation in the Eastern Deccan, 7th Century A.D.–13th Century A.D.* (Delhi: Bharatiya Kala Prakashan, 2000); M. A. Nayeem, Aniruddha Ray, and K. S. Mathew, eds., *Studies in History of the Deccan: Medieval and Modern* (Delhi: Pragati Publications, 2002); K. V. Ramesh, *Chalukyas of the Vatapi* (Delhi: Agam Kala Prakashan, 1984); Ajay Mitra Shastri, *Early History of the Deccan* (Delhi: Sundeep Prakashan, 1987); Ghulan Yazdani, ed., *The Early History of the Deccan,* 2 vols. (New Delhi: Oriental Reprint, 1982).

Chalukyan-Pallavan Wars (670–975)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Chalukya vs. the Pallava dynasties of southern India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of India's prosperous eastern coast
OUTCOME: After more than 300 years of nearly constant warfare, the Chalukyans rose again under Taila II and utterly destroyed the Pallavan dynasty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the collapse of the Gupta dynasty in India, the Pallavas, under Narasimharvarman I, defeated the western Chalukyas in 642. Over the following years, however, the western Chalukyas barred the Pallavas from the Deccan region, and the eastern Chalukyas confined the Pallavas to a narrow strip of land along the coast near modern-day Madras. The Chalukyas reestablished the temple-fort of Vastapi in 655. In addition, they captured and partially destroyed the Pallavan capital at Kanchipuram in 670. The Pallavas, however, were persistent, and over the rest of the ninth century and three-quarters of the 10th century, warfare between the two dynasties was constant. The warring caused the decline of the Pallavan dynasty, which was eventually overpowered by the Cholas. The Chalukyas declined as well. In 752 the Rashtrakutas, formerly Chalukyan feudatories, overthrew and killed the western Chalukyan king Kirtivarman II and seized Vatapi. In 975, however, under Taila II (fl. 973–997), the western Chalukyas completely destroyed the Rashtrakutas. With the Rashtrakutas destroyed, the Cholas once again rose to power in the Deccan under Rajaraja I.

See also CHALUKYAN-CHOLAN WARS; CHALUKYAN RASHTRAKUTAN WARS; CHALUKYA DYNASTY, WARS OF THE; GUPTA DYNASTY, CONQUESTS OF THE.

Further reading: A. Aruna, *State Formation in the Eastern Deccan, 7th Century A.D.–13th Century A.D.* (Delhi: Bharatiya Kala Prakashan, 2000); M. A. Nayeem, Aniruddha Ray, and K. S. Mathew, eds., *Studies in History of the Deccan: Medieval and Modern* (Delhi: Pragati Publications, 2002).

Chalukyan-Rashtrakutan Wars (752, 973–975)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Chalukya vs. Rashtrakuta dynasties of southern India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of India's Deccan region
OUTCOME: The Rashtrakutas ultimately lost their hold on southern Indian and the powerful Chola dynasty arose.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 752 Dantidurga (fl. 752–760) led the Rashtrakutas in an uprising against the Chalukya dynasty, which had grown weak from constant warfare with the Pallavas in southern India. The Rashtrakutas seized Vatapi and killed the western Chalukyan king Kirtivarman II (d. 752). After taking control of most of the Deccan region, the Rashtrakutas attempted to spread their power to trade routes in the Ganges valley in northern India. Between 793 and 814 Govinda III conquered Malwa and Gujarat and defeated the Pallava. Rashtrakutan supremacy in the region was not long-lived. In 973 under Taila II (fl. 973–997), the western Chalukyas rose against the Rashtrakutas and completely destroyed the dynasty.

See also CHALUKYAN-CHOLAN WARS; CHALUKYAN-PALLAVAN WARS.

Further reading: A. Aruna, *State Formation in the Eastern Deccan, 7th Century A.D.–13th Century A.D.* (Delhi: Bharatiya Kala Prakashan, 2000); M. A. Nayeem, Aniruddha Ray, and K. S. Mathew, eds., *Studies in History of the Deccan: Medieval and Modern* (Delhi: Pragati Publications, 2002); Ghulan Yazdani, ed., *The Early History of the Deccan,* 2 vols. (New Delhi: Oriental Reprint, 1982).

Chalukyan War against Harsha (620)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Harsha Vardhana (unifier of northern India) vs. the Chalukya dynasty in the south
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Deccan region of southern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Harsha's ambition was to unite India under his rule.
OUTCOME: In his contest with the Chalukyans, Harsha ultimately failed to draw the Deccan into his scheme of uniting all of India under a single ruler.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As Pulakesin II (fl. 610–642) was the dominant figure in the Deccan region of India during the first half of the seventh century (*see* CHALUKYA DYNASTY, WARS OF THE), so Harsha Vardhana (c. 590–c. 647) rose to dominate the north of India during this period. Harsha was the second son of Prabhakaravardhana, king of Thaneswar-Sthanvisvara, in the Punjab. Harsha succeeded his elder brother Rajayavardhana to the throne in 606 after the latter was assassinated by Sasanka, king of Bengal. At this time as well Grahavarman, the husband of Harsha's sister Rajyasri, was defeated and killed in battle by the king of Malwa, prompting Rajyasri to flee to parts unknown. One of Harsha's first acts, therefore, was to locate and recover his sister and to form an alliance with King Kumara Bhaskarvarman of Karmarupa in order to send an army against Sasanka. Harsha failed to unseat Sasanka, but he waged incessant war against him from 606 to 612, conquering what the Chinese pilgrim Hsuang-tsang called the "five Indies": probably Valabhi, Magadha, Kashmir, Gujarat, and Sind.

Having amassed a great northern empire, Harsha attempted to conquer the region west of the Indus River, which would give him passage to the northwest. When this failed, he turned instead to the south-central Deccan plateau in 620. What he encountered was fierce Chalukyan resistance led by Pulakesin II. Little is known of the details of Harsha's defeat at the hands of Pulakesin, but the outcome of the 620 war was a treaty fixing the Narmada (Narbada) River as the southern boundary of Harsha's realm. This demarcation survives as the traditional separation between southern and northern India.

Harsha's object in his northern wars as well as his attempt to take the Deccan had been to unite India under himself. A ruthless military conqueror, he nevertheless allowed the rulers he conquered to remain on their thrones in return for tribute and homage. Although Harsha failed to draw the Deccan into his grand scheme, he did go further than any previous ruler in uniting northern India. Yet he left no enduring political legacy. When he died about 647, his realm dissolved into anarchic and warring factionalism, whereas the Deccan remained relatively stable under the Chalukya dynasty.

See also GUPTA DYNASTY, CONQUESTS OF.

Further reading: A. Aruna, *State Formation in the Eastern Deccan, 7th Century A.D.–13th Century A.D.* (Delhi: Bharatiya Kala Prakashan, 2000); D. Devahuti, *Harsha: A Political Study,* 2nd ed. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1970); M. A. Nayeem, Aniruddha Ray, and K. S. Mathew, eds., *Studies in History of the Deccan: Medieval and Modern* (Delhi: Pragati Publications, 2002); Ghulan Yazdani, ed., *The Early History of the Deccan,* 2 vols. (New Delhi: Oriental Reprint, 1982).

Cham Civil War (1150–1160)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Jaya Harivarman vs. rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Champa (central Vietnam)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Suppression of rebellions
OUTCOME: After a long struggle, the rebellions were crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After triumphing over the Khmers in the KHMER-CHAM WAR (1144–1550), Jaya Harivarman I (d. 1166–67), monarch of Champa (central Vietnam) continually fended off assaults on his reign. The most serious challenge came from his brother-in-law, Vamsaraja (d. c. 1150), who rebelled with the support of the Cham hill tribes.

After suffering a serious defeat in 1150, Vamsaraja found an ally in the ruler of Dai Viet, or Annam (northern Vietnam). He dispatched some 5,000 troops to aid Vamsaraja. In response Jaya Harivarman led forces from his capital city of Vijaya (Binh Dinh) to the plains of Dalva and Lavang, where he met and defeated the rebel forces and their Dai Viet allies. He went on to conduct a campaign throughout the rebellious Cham regions of Amaravati (Quang Nam) in 1151. Subduing this region consumed five years, after which Jaya Harivarman went on to the conquest of Panduranga in 1160.

Further reading: Ramesh Chandra Majumdar, *Champa: History and Culture of an Indian Colonial Kingdom in the Far East, 2nd–16th Century A.D.* (Delhi: Gian Publishing House, 1985).

Cham Invasion of the Mekong Delta (1421–1428)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cham and Khmer
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mekong Delta, Cambodia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Invasion and conquest
OUTCOME: In a long campaign the Khmer expelled the Cham.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the late 14th and early 15th centuries, the Khmer of Cambodia were menaced primarily by the Tai, who had by 1401 conquered most of western Cambodia. During this conflict, the Cham invaded the Mekong delta. Astoundingly, although pressed by the Tai, the Khmer not only repulsed the Cham during 1421–26 but went on in 1432 to drive the Tai out of Cambodia as well.

Further reading: Lawrence Palmer Biggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (Philadelphia: American Philosophical Society, 1951); Ramesh Chandra Majumdar, *Champa: History and Culture of an Indian Colonial Kingdom in the Far East, 2nd–16th Century A.D.* (Delhi: Gian Publishing House, 1985).

Champa-Angkor War (1144–1150)

See KHMER-CHAM WAR (1144–1150).

Champa-Angkor War (1167–1190)

See KHMER-CHAM WAR (1167–1190).

Champa-Angkor War (1191–1203)

See KHMER-CHAM WAR (1191–1203).

Champa Civil War

See KHMER-CHAM WAR (1191–1203).

Chandragupta's Conquests

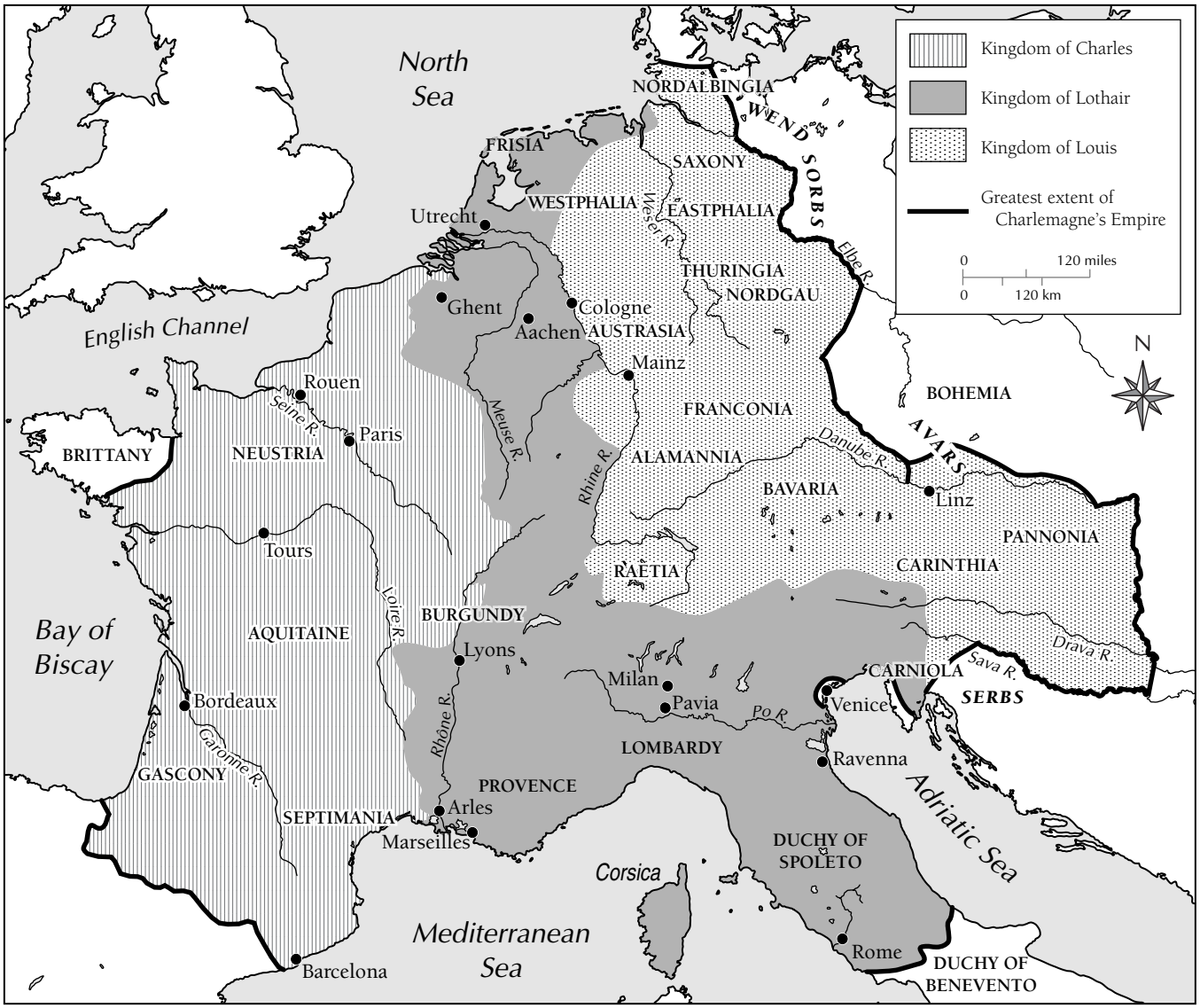
See GUPTA DYNASTY, CONQUESTS OF THE.

Chandragupta II's Imperial Wars

See GUPTA DYNASTY, CONQUESTS OF THE.

Charlemagne's Conquests (771–814)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Frankish Empire vs. Germanic and Italian adversaries, as well as internal rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Bohemia, and Byzantium
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Expansion of the Frankish Empire, creation of the Holy Roman Empire



Europe at the time of Charlemagne's death

OUTCOME: Charlemagne created an empire of great extent and, in effect, nearly revived the bygone greatness of Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely varied
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None applicable to these conflicts

The origins of the Franks lay in the Meuse-Moselle borderlands of modern France, Germany, Belgium, and the Netherlands. Early in the eighth century their king, Pepin III (the Short) (c. 714–768), founded the Carolingian dynasty that would eventually be named after his more famous eldest son, Charles (742–814).

As Charles grew to manhood, Pepin was busy assuming sovereignty over all the Frankish tribes. He originally ruled the Frankish government jointly with his older brother Carolman I as major domus ("palace mayor") to the by now largely ceremonial ruling house, the Merovingians. After Carolman retired to a monastery, Pepin dethroned the Merovingians, a move quickly sanctioned by Rome. Indeed, when Pope Stephen II arrived in the Frankish kingdom during the winter of 753–754 to seek help against the aggression of the Lombards, he annointed not only Pepin as king, but also Charles (who had come out to meet him) and Charles's younger brother, Carolman II (751–771), thus sanctioning not only the overthrow of the old ruling house but also the founding of a new one.

Upon Pepin's death the kingdom, following old Frankish custom, was evenly divided between his two sons. Charles took command of the western Franks (Neustria) and Carolman of those in the east (Austrasia).

Not surprisingly, the two developed a strong rivalry and fought frequently, and when Carolman died in 771, Charles became king of all the Franks.

Charles embarked upon a program of military conquest and expanded the Frankish kingdom into a great empire. He imposed sweeping ecclesiastical, judicial, and political reforms, which ultimately earned him elevation to the throne of the Holy Roman Empire and his proclamation as Charles the Great: Charlemagne.

In 772 Desiderius (fl. 756–774), duke of Tuscany, attacked the Franks in response to what he saw as Charlemagne's seizure of Carloman II's territory. Charlemagne, in turn, invaded Lombardy in 773 and defeated Desiderius there (*see* CHARLEMAGNE'S DEFEAT OF DESIDERIUS). Simultaneously with his swift operations against Lombardy, Charlemagne prepared to wage a protracted campaign against the Saxons, a war that spanned 32 years, from 772 through 804 (see CHARLEMAGNE'S WAR AGAINST THE SAXONS).

Although Charlemagne fought to expand his empire, he was also continually engaged in putting down rebellions, the most important of which was in Lombardy in 776. While unsuccessfully campaigning in Spain (*see* CHARLEMAGNE'S INVASION OF NORTHERN SPAIN), he invaded Lombardy a third time in 780. This resulted in the enthronement of his two young sons as Lombard king and the reinforcement of the power of the papacy there. Spread thin, Charlemagne suffered a defeat at the hands of the Saxons, which he avenged in 782.

During most of his reign, Charlemagne repeatedly invaded Saxony between the rivers Elbe and Em. He ravaged Brittany in 786, and he campaigned successfully to take charge in Bavaria during 787–788. Beginning in 791 he fought the Avars (*see* FRANKISH-AVARIAN WAR) and then launched a bloodless invasion of Italy in 800, which culminated in his coronation as Holy Roman Emperor.

In 801 Charlemagne launched a campaign against rebellious leaders in Beneventum, a papal territory, and fought the Byzantine Empire, largely to augment papal power. (*See* FRANKISH-BYZANTINE WAR.) A breakthrough against the Saxons came in 804, when Saxon forces were neutralized, and this triumph was followed in 805 by a hard-won victory against the Bohemians. In 806 the Slavic Wends were brought to heel. This permitted Charlemagne to turn his attention to the Danes, who had allied with a diehard remnant of Saxons, in a war that spanned 808 to 810. Still, Charlemagne's external expansion would not advance substantially beyond the borders he had achieved by about 800, and even then his resources were stretched too thin to hold and defend all he had conquered. In 806, just as had his father and grandfather, he planned to divide his empire between his two eldest sons, but when they died early he crowned the younger Louis I of Aquitaine (778–840) his co-emperor and sole successor a few months before his own death in 814.

See also FRANKISH CIVIL WARS.

Further reading: Matthias Becher, *Charlemagne* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2003); Stewart Copinger Easton, *The Era of Charlemagne: Frankish State and Society* (Huntington, N.Y.: Krieger Publishing Company, 1961).

Charlemagne's Defeat of Desiderius
(773–774)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Franks vs. Lombards
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lombardy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Charlemagne wanted to conquer Lombardy, nominally a Frankish and papal vassal, but ruled by Desiderius, who sought independence.
OUTCOME: Charlemagne was victorious, Desiderius was deposed, and Charlemagne assumed the title of king of the Franks and Lombards.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Led by Pepin the Short (c. 714–768), the Franks defended Rome against a Lombard invasion during 754 and again two years later. Pepin then ceded to the pope a portion of Lombard territory. This would later be expanded into the Papal States. After Pepin's death his kingdom was, by Frankish custom, divided evenly between his two sons—Charlemagne (742–814) and Carolman II (751–771)—who soon fell to fighting. Helped by his mother, Charlemagne concluded an alliance with Desiderius (fl. 756–774), duke of Tuscany and king of Lombardy, who gave his daughter in marriage to his feudal overlord. After Carolman's death Charlemagne pushed aside his nephews to become sole ruler of the Franks, and Carolman's wife and children and their few remaining supports fled to Lombardy and the protection of Desiderius, who had decided to seek independence for Lombardy, both from the Franks and from the papacy. Outraged, Charlemagne responded by divorcing Desiderius's daughter and taking over the territories that had been ruled by his (Charlemagne's) brother.

In 771 Desiderius attacked Rome and other papal possessions, putting pressure on the Holy See to recognize Carolman's sons as Frankish kings. This prompted Pope Adrian I (d. 795) to call on Charlemagne for military aid. Charlemagne led his troops over the Italian Alps in 773, attacked and overran Verona, and seized Carolman's wife and children; Carolman's sons simply disappeared. From Verona, Charlemagne marched on Pavia, the capital of Lombardy, and took Desiderius prisoner. The Lombard king was consigned to a distant monastery

near Liège, and Charlemagne proclaimed himself king of the Franks and Lombards.

Further reading: Matthias Becher, *Charlemagne* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2003); Roger Collins, *Charlemagne* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1998); Stewart Copinger Easton, *The Era of Charlemagne: Frankish State and Society* (Huntington, N.Y.: Krieger Publishing Company, 1961).

Charlemagne's Invasion of Northern Spain (777–801)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Franks vs. Moors and Basques
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Charlemagne wanted to extend his empire and conquer Moorish Spain for the Christian church.
OUTCOME: Charlemagne's attack on Saragossa was aborted, and a devastating assault on Pamplona proved a tragic error; Charlemagne's army was hounded out of Spain.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The reign of the great Frankish king and first Holy Roman Emperor, Charlemagne (742–814), was marked by the twin forces of legal and political reform and unremitting wars of conquest. After subduing the Saxons (*see* CHARLEMAGNE'S WAR AGAINST THE SAXONS), Charlemagne decided to exploit the civil disorder and dissent in Spain by embarking on a campaign of conquest there. Spain had come to Charlemagne's notice in 777, when Abbasid emissaries arrived at the diet he held in Paderborn to settle the fate of a Saxony seeking his aid against the Umayyad emir of Cordoba. Instead of the ally of one group of Arabs against another, Charlemagne arrived as the champion of Christianity, his ambition not only to expand his Frankish empire but to impose his religion on all Islamic (Moorish) Spain.

During 777–778 Charlemagne led a large force over the Pyrenees and advanced on Saragossa, where two Muslim dynasties were vying heatedly for power. When he failed to breach the defenses of Saragossa, Charlemagne lashed out at the surrounding towns and countryside, causing great destruction.

Charlemagne's campaign of terror was interrupted by news of reversals in Saxony. On his way back to Saxony, he attacked Pamplona, Spain, believing it to be in Moorish hands. In fact, it was held by Christian Basques, the proud Gascons of Navarre, who, enraged by Charlemagne's devastating attack, joined forces with the Muslims to make a surprise attack on Charlemagne's rear guard. That unit was led by Charlemagne's nephew Roland (d. 778), who made a heroic stand at the Battle of Roncesvalles on August 15, 778. Roland was killed along with all of the rear guard, but their action did save the main body of Charlemagne's army and entered the realm of courtly literature and legend, primarily through the great *Chanson de Roland* (Song of Roland).

After Charlemagne's tragic blunder in attacking Pamplona, he left Spain forever and never mounted another campaign against the Moors. Nevertheless, low-level warfare persisted between the forces of Aquitaine and the Moors and between an alliance of Basques and Moors and the Franks. In 800–801 the Franks laid siege to Barcelona, which fell and was incorporated into the so-called Spanish March, a Frankish province that encompassed northeastern Spain and that constituted a kind of cordon sanitaire for purposes of holding the Moors in abeyance.

The defeat marked the end of Charlemagne's early period of vigorous expansion of Frankish holdings. Not long afterward the Saxons would rise again against the empire, costing Charlemagne dearly to defend those regions he had already conquered.

See also CHARLEMAGNE'S CONQUESTS.

Further reading: Matthias Becher, *Charlemagne* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2003); Roger Collins, *Charlemagne* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1998); Stewart Copinger Easton, *The Era of Charlemagne: Frankish State and Society* (Huntington, N.Y.: Krieger Publishing Company, 1961).

Charlemagne's War against the Saxons (772–804)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Franks vs. Saxons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Saxony
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Charlemagne sought to subdue the Saxons, convert them to Christianity, acquire new territory, and put an end to Saxon raiding against his empire.
OUTCOME: After a very long and difficult war consisting of 14 major expeditions into Saxony, the Saxons surrendered, having been converted, at least nominally, to Christianity.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Totals unknown; 45,000 Saxons executed at Verdun
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As the great enemies of Rome in its decline were the Germanic tribes of the north, so Charlemagne's (742–814) chief adversary during his long reign was the Saxons, stubborn, heathen, and independent. They were a continual threat to

outlying portions of the Frankish empire, and they habitually staged raids into Austrasia, the eastern territory of the Franks. From about 772 to 804 Charlemagne conducted 14 invasions into Saxony, between the Em and the Elbe Rivers, in an effort to conquer them once and for all.

The first major raid was pure reprisal for Saxon raids against Austrasia. Charlemagne attacked the symbol of Saxon pagan religion, the Column of Irminsul, representation of the great mythic tree that had engendered the universe. Charlemagne's army not only destroyed the monument but appropriated the treasure associated with it. If Charlemagne thought that by this single symbolic act he could subdue the Saxons, he was mistaken. The raids continued unabated into Frankish territory.

Charlemagne assembled a much larger army in 775 and mounted a full-scale invasion. Through skillful deployment of smaller forces—and an unconquerable will to resist—the Saxons held out, and Charlemagne resigned himself to an understanding that this people could not be conquered with one blow. Accordingly, he embarked on a strategy of limited conquest. Gradually annexing one Saxon parcel after another, he judiciously fortified each acquisition. Once the region was controlled militarily, he sent in missionaries to begin the process of converting the pagans to Christianity. At a diet held in 777 in Paderborn, Charlemagne seemingly sealed the submission of the Saxons. Also attending the diet were some Arab emissaries from northern Spain who sought his aid in their uprising against the Umayyad emir of Córdoba.

Charlemagne's patient if piecemeal military and cultural conquest of the Saxons might have worked had it not been for the rise of a new Saxon leader, Widukind (d. 807), a Westphalian. Widukind concluded alliances with the Danes and Slavs to mount an ongoing resistance against the Franks even as Charlemagne advanced into Spain (*see* Charlemagne's Invasion of Northern Spain). But it was not until that campaign failed that the Saxons' uprising proved enough a threat to again command Charlemagne's attention. The renewed war against these newly baptised former pagans became the longest and most cruel the Franks ever fought. In Charlemagne's eyes the Christianized Saxons, having signed a treaty of allegiance, were both traitors and apostates. So when Widukind scored a major victory in 782 against a Frankish force that attacked a Saxon camp, Charlemagne responded with ruthless terror. At the Battle of Verden (782) he captured 4,500 Saxon prisoners—and summarily massacred them.

Still, the Saxon resistance continued. In 785 Widukind gave up and submitted to baptism in 786. Even this was not sufficient to halt the momentum of resistance. Charlemagne, increasingly frustrated, became increasingly ruthless, conducting a campaign that appalled even many Franks. The result was not the suppression of the Saxons, however, but an increase in their level of desperation. In 792, the Saxons mounted a general rebellion, which was put down at great cost. From that point forward Charlemagne conducted yearly invasions, and he began systematically to expel Saxons from areas that came under his control. After each expulsion Charlemagne settled Franks in the vacated land.

By 804, with the Saxon surrender of Nordalbingia (Holstein), the Saxon resistance had at last come to an end. Saxony was Christianized—although a nominal pagan tribal identity remained—and the Saxons no longer raided the Franks.

See also Charlemagne's Conquests.

Further reading: Matthias Becher, *Charlemagne* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2003); Roger Collins, *Charlemagne* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1998); Stewart Copinger Easton, *The Era of Charlemagne: Frankish State and Society* (Huntington, N.Y.: Krieger Publishing Company, 1961).

Charles Martel's Expeditions in Germany

See Frankish-Moorish War, First.

Charles Martel's Invasion of Aquitaine

See Frankish-Moorish War, First.

Charles Martel's Rhone Valley Campaigns (against Muslims)

See Frankish-Moorish War, Second.

Cherokee Uprising (1759–1762)

Principal combatants: The Cherokees vs. English settlers
Principal theater(s): Southern frontier region, principally the Virginia and Carolina backcountry
Declaration: None
Major issues and objectives: Cherokee resistance to white usurpation of their lands
Outcome: Faced with famine, the Cherokees capitulated in the winter of 1762, ceding much of their eastern land and agreeing to a boundary separating them from the English settlers.
Approximate maximum number of men under arms: Totals unknown; English regular army numbers, approximately 1,500
Casualties: Unknown; battle casualties from individual encounters were light.
Treaties: The Cherokee land cession was probably formalized by treaty, but no document survives.

This conflict may be considered an aspect of the French and Indian War but was sufficiently self-contained to be

treated as an independent, albeit related, war. The Cherokees had been English allies since South Carolina governor Charles Craven (in office from 1711–16) had concluded a treaty with them, by which they supplied warriors in exchange for a commitment from the colonials to defend, in their absence, their families against the Creeks and Choctaws. Pursuant to the treaty, Craven directed the building of several frontier forts and outposts. Their appearance was soon perceived not as a means of defense but as evidence of English encroachment on Cherokee land. As the Indians saw it, the sequence of events was all too familiar: Forts were built, settlers followed, and the Indians were dispossessed.

In 1758 a group of Cherokee warriors, slowly making their long journey home after abandoning General John Forbes's (1710–59) interminable campaign against Fort Duquesne (Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania), seized some wild horses. A group of Virginia frontiersmen encountered the Indians, claimed ownership of the horses, and attacked the party, killing 12 Cherokees. Following this the frontiersmen sold the horses and collected bounties on the Cherokee scalps, claiming that they had been taken from hostile Indians. Predictably, the act triggered a vengeance raid. Cherokee warriors killed 20–30 settlers. This, in turn, was sufficient provocation to ignite a full-scale war along the southern frontier. It would require two armies and two years to put down.

Lieutenant Colonel Archibald Montgomery (d. 1796) and his Scottish Highlanders conducted the first campaign, which met with heavy and highly effective guerrilla resistance led by the Cherokee war chief Oconostota. By early April 1760 General Geoffrey Amherst (1717–97) was building more forts on the Virginia frontier, but these proved insufficient to neutralize guerrilla activity. Oconostota expelled some 1,500 Highlanders from his territory and laid siege to Fort Loudoun on the Little Tennessee River. The garrison surrendered, and many were killed as they fled Fort Loudoun for Fort Prince George.

After the failure of the first campaign, a larger army consisting of Carolina Rangers, British light infantry units, Royal Scots, and Indian allies swept through Cherokee country, bringing total war to warriors as well as their families. The colonial forces concentrated on destroying Cherokee villages and burning crop fields. Faced with famine, the Cherokees capitulated in the winter of 1762, ceding much of their eastern land and agreeing to a boundary separating them from the English settlers. The boundary would not endure for long, however, as settlers relentlessly moved westward.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Thomas M. Hatley, *The Dividing Paths: Cherokees and South Carolinians through the Era of Revolution* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1993).

Cheyenne and Arapaho War (1864–1865)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cheyenne, Arapaho, and various Sioux Indian factions vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Colorado Territory
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Territorial governor's attempt to usurp mineral-rich Indian lands
OUTCOME: Indecisive, U.S. Congress cut military appropriations.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, from 700 at Sand Creek Massacre (November 28, 1864) to 3,000, (summer 1865); Indians, 1,000 to 3,000 (July 26, 1865) at North Platte River crossing
CASUALTIES: At Sand Creek by some reports, 163 killed, 110 of whom were women and children; other reports, 42 of 46 Arapaho and 137 Cheyenne killed, 111 of whom were women and children; totals unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1864, when Colorado's territorial governor John Evans (1814–97) failed to acquire the mineral-rich Cheyenne and Arapaho hunting grounds he wanted, offering reservations in exchange for them, he called upon U.S. Army colonel John M. Chivington (1821–94), military commander of the territory and already known for his hatred of Native Americans, to sweep the Indians out. Neither the Cheyenne nor the Arapaho had given cause for a fight, and indeed most Cheyennes wanted peace. But a militant minority of young warriors known as the Hotamitanio (Dog Soldier Society) were sufficiently provocative for Chivington to claim that all the Cheyenne were at war. The colonel launched a number of assaults, which provoked an Indian response and created a war where none had existed before. To meet the growing hostility they had created, Evans and Chivington formed the Third Colorado Cavalry, consisting of volunteers from local mining camps.

Still, the vast majority of Cheyennes refused to fight. During the winter Chief Black Kettle (c. 1804–68) appealed to Major Edward Wynkoop, commander of Fort Lyon, to communicate his peaceful intentions to Governor Evans. Evans and Chivington did meet with the Cheyenne and Arapaho, ordering them to lay down their arms at a local fort. The Indians left the meeting and marched to Sand Creek, about 40 miles northeast of Fort Lyon, where they planned to talk with the sympathetic Major Wynkoop, whom they trusted. The army, however, acted quickly to remove Wynkoop and replace him with one of Chivington's officers. He cut the Indians' rations and provocatively fired on a group of unarmed Arapahos who had approached the fort to trade buffalo hides for food.

Still Black Kettle and his people, encamped at Sand Creek, believed they were at peace. Despite protests from some of his own officers, on November 28, 1864,

Chivington deployed a 700-man force around Sand Creek. Disturbed by the presence of the army, on November 29 Black Kettle hoisted an American flag and white flag of truce over his tepee. At this, the troops opened fire and charged, killing unarmed warriors, old men, women, and children and committing gross atrocities of cruelty and mutilation (*see* SAND CREEK MASSACRE).

Black Kettle escaped, and, astoundingly, persisted in seeking peace. But the Southern Sioux, Northern Arapaho, and Cheyenne united in a campaign of raiding throughout the territory during late 1864 and early 1865, cutting a swath of destruction north along the Powder, Tongue, Republican, and Yellowstone Rivers. A few costly but indecisive skirmishes were fought, but, for the most part, the army pursued fruitlessly.

Plans were drawn up for a grand offensive using cavalry to carry out vigorous offensive operations while infantry regiments guarded and patrolled the mail and emigration trails, but bad weather prevented execution of the strategy. Worse, an arrogant and outspoken man, John Pope (1822–92), who had organized the Powder River Campaign and reorganized his command into the Department of the Missouri, had run afoul of Congress. Disgusted by Sand Creek, Congress was in the throes of a peace offensive. Facing obstacles natural and political, Pope's grand offensive came to little.

Government negotiators tried to hammer out a peace with the Comanches and Arapahos against a background of Indian raiding and fitful military response. Finally, on July 26, 1865, 1,000 to 3,000 warriors massed against a cavalry unit guarding the Oregon-California Trail North Platte River crossing. Miraculously, army casualties were light, but the attack provoked a sharp response from General Patrick E. Connor (1820–91), who sent a force of 3,000 troops into the Powder River country, destroying one Arapaho village and engaging the Sioux.

Like previous offensives, however, Connor's campaign was cut short by premature winter storms that forced his withdrawal by the end of September 1865. In the lull, Congress—realizing that Chivington's action at Sand Creek had provoked a senseless $20 million war during the waning months of the vast Civil War—acted to cut troop numbers and military appropriations drastically. The Cheyenne-Arapaho War ended without formal treaty or declaration.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); George B. Grimell, *The Fighting Cheyennes* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1982).

Cheyenne War, First (1856–1858)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cheyenne Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nebraska and western Kansas
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Cheyenne disruption of an "emigrant road"
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; after fighting petered out Cheyennes sued for peace in summer 1858.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Various, most Indian raids conducted by small groups; confrontation of General Edwin V. Sumner troops and Cheyenne along the Solomon River (July 29, 1857), Indians, about 300; United States, about 300.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Unlike the Apache, Navajo, and the Sioux, the Cheyenne through the early 1850s were essentially peaceful toward the United States. As was often the case, however, friction increased with the frequency of Euro-American–Indian contact. In 1851 Cheyenne representatives had signed a treaty agreeing to refrain from raiding their traditional enemies, the Pawnee in the vicinity of Fort Kearny, Nebraska, but by the mid 1850s young Cheyenne warriors began doing just that, thereby posing a danger to the immigrant road Fort Kearny was assigned to defend.

In 1856 U.S. Army general William S. Harney (1800–89) threatened the Cheyenne as well as Arapahos with an all-out war, if they did not stop the raids, but, at the time, his forces were too preoccupied with pre–Civil War violence between pro-slavery and abolitionist factions to carry out such a threat. In April some Cheyenne fell into an argument with whites over the ownership of a horse. In the following scuffle, one Indian was killed, and the other two were taken to prison. Local Cheyenne, fearing this was the start of a war against them, fled toward the Black Hills, killing a trapper along the way. Two months later Cheyenne in pursuit of Pawnee killed a white immigrant near Fort Kearny. In August another Cheyenne party, also in search of Pawnees, stopped a mail coach to beg for tobacco. The driver, panicked, drew his revolver but took an arrow in the arm before he could shoot.

Fort Kearny's commander dispatched a company and a half of the First Cavalry to find the Cheyenne. The troopers attacked the first encampment they encountered, killing 10 Cheyennes, wounding another 10, and "appropriating" an assortment of goods and livestock. Retaliatory raids followed from the Indians all along the Platte Road, and Secretary of War Jefferson Davis (1808–89) authorized a punitive campaign.

During late May and June 1857 General Edwin V. ("Bull-head") Sumner (1797–1862) scoured the Cheyenne country of Nebraska and western Kansas but found no Indians to fight. On July 29, 1857, scouts reported a band of 300 Cheyenne along the Solomon River. Sumner's forces and the Indians were equally matched, and because Sumner knew that Indians rarely engaged in battle unless they enjoyed superior numbers, he expected them to scatter.

But these warriors, it seems, had washed their hands in what they believed was a magic lake whose waters conferred absolute protection from white bullets. They stood their ground.

Unfortunately for the warriors, Sumner took the unusual step of ordering his men to sling their carbines and charge instead of using drawn sabers. Seeing this, the Cheyenne panicked, broke, and ran, with Sumner in hot pursuit.

As was often the case during the Indian Wars, the First Cheyenne War did not so much conclude as simply peter out. In September 1857 Sumner was ordered to break off the Cheyenne campaign to join an expedition to Utah. With the pressure relieved, the Indians launched a few raids, but they were, for the most part, exhausted, and following a quiet interlude, most of the Cheyenne sued for peace during the summer of 1858.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); George B. Grimell, *The Fighting Cheyennes* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1982); John H. Moore, *The Cheyenne* (Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1996).

Chickasaw Resistance (1720–1724)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The English-allied Chickasaw vs. the French-allied Choctaws and French settlers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Mississippi River region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Allying themselves with the English, the Chickasaws resisted domination by the French.
OUTCOME: Inconclusive
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Armistice of 1724; no treaty

By the mid-17th century the rivalry between French and English colonial interests in America had become intense and violent. Both sides recruited allies from among the Indians. Typically, those Indian tribes that traded with the French allied themselves with the French, whereas those that traded primarily with the English allied themselves with the English. The Chickasaws, who lived along the southern Mississippi River in French-controlled territory during the early 18th century, became allied with the English and warred against the French and the French-allied Creeks and Choctaws. The most concentrated violence came between 1720 and 1724 and is called by historians the Chickasaw Resistance.

In 1720 the tribe defied French authority by openly maintaining trade relations with the English and by allowing English traders to "invade" territory claimed by France along the Mississippi River. In an attempt to reassert control, the French incited their Choctaw allies to raid Chickasaw settlements. In turn, the Chickasaw retaliated with raids of their own, not only against Choctaw villages but against French shipping on the Mississippi, operating vigorously enough to create an effective trade blockade. In the face of this economic crisis, the French redoubled their recruitment efforts among the Choctaw, offering them a bounty on Chickasaw scalps and freely supplying firearms and ammunition. For the next four years the Chickasaw and Choctaw engaged in an ongoing exchange of destructive but ultimately inconclusive raids that were suspended by an armistice concluded in 1724.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Patricia Dillon Woods, *French-Indian Relations on the Southern Frontier, 1699–1762* (Ann Arbor, Mich.: UMI Research Press, 1980).

Chief Joseph's Uprising

See NEZ PERCÉ WAR.

Children's Crusade (1212)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French and German children intending to fight Islamic forces in a crusade to the Holy Land
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The "crusaders" failed to reach the Holy Land, the intended theater of operations.
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Popular response to the disgraced Fourth Crusade
OUTCOME: The children failed to reach the Holy Land; most died in the attempt.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French children, as many as 30,000 reported; German children, as many as 20,000 reported; actual numbers probably lower
CASUALTIES: Thousands died or suffered enslavement and other abuse; 1,400 alone were killed in shipwrecks.
TREATIES: None

The so-called Children's Crusade, uncounted among the official series of European crusades to the Holy Land, had its origin in the collective shame surrounding the notorious Fourth CRUSADE, authorized in 1202 by Pope Innocent III (c. 1160–1216). The organizers of the Fourth Crusade contracted with Venice for transportation, then failed to pay for it. Under pressure from the Venetians, the Crusaders agreed to pay in service. That service was the sacking of Zara, a leading maritime rival of Venice—and, not incidentally, a Christian city. In 1204 the Crusaders sacked and looted the Byzantine capital of Constantinople so that Baldwin of Flanders (1172–1205) could be installed as the

first ruler of the Latin Empire. These Crusader atrocities against Christian cities and people sent shock waves throughout Europe and brought shame not only upon the crusaders but the papacy as well. Moreover, the sacking of Constantinople greatly widened the already formidable gulf separating the Christian churches of the East and West.

As Europe still reeled from the humiliation of the Fourth Crusade, a new crusade developed in France in 1212 around Stephen, a shepherd boy from Cloyes, near Vendôme. Stephen claimed he had received a message from Jesus ordering him to crush the infidels. Stephen's preaching, which appealed to the innocent and the pure of heart, seemed to purge the guilt of the Fourth Crusade. Some estimates have as many as 30,000 unarmed children, most under the age of 12, heeding the word of Stephen to join his crusade to recover the Holy Sepulchre from the Muslims. Adults apparently approved of and actively encouraged the popular movement.

Simultaneously, Nicholas, a German peasant boy, made a similar appeal. Estimates reach 20,000 children for his crusade, though most historians believe the number was closer to 7,000—still considerable. Nicholas claimed his inspiration had come from a cross of light in the sky.

The two Children's Crusades got under way, only to meet with disaster. Thousands of French children, led by Stephen, died of hunger and disease during their march. Thousands of German children, Nicholas's contingent, froze to death in the Alps or plunged to their deaths while traversing the mountains.

The survivors of the French group reached Marseilles, where they expected the Mediterranean to part, as Stephen had promised it would. When it did not, local merchants furnished ships to carry the children to the Holy Land. Two ships were wrecked in a storm, with the loss of perhaps 1,400 children. Others reached the shores of Egypt, not Palestine, and were sold into slavery by the sailors with whom they had traveled. Forced to convert to Islam, those who refused were martyred. The German survivors, upon reaching Genoa, found no transportation at all. Many were killed or raped on their long journey back to Germany.

Further reading: J. E. Christian, *The Children's Crusade* (Los Angeles: Liberty Bell Productions, 1998); Geoffrey Hindley, *The Crusades: A History of Armed Pilgrimage, and Religious Holy War* (New York: Carroll and Graf, 2003).

Chile, Spanish Conquest of

See Spanish Conquest of Chile.

Chilean Civil War (1829–1830)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conservative vs. liberal factions
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chile
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conservatives sought the overthrow of a liberal reformist regime.
OUTCOME: A reactionary dictatorship was installed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown, but forces were relatively small.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Although the people, and especially the army, rallied behind the man who "liberated" Chile from Spain and made Bernardo O'Higgins (1778–1842) their supreme dictator, he did not win over the Chilean landowning oligarchy. These conservative aristocrats supported him, however, out of necessity while Spain continued to hold on to parts of Peru and loyalist guerrillas stalked the badlands of Chile.

By 1822 the Chilean-Argentine army had not only expelled Spain from its last stronghold in Peru but had driven its remaining supporters from Chile as well, and O'Higgins, who had long been in favor of reducing the privileges of the landowners, was now forced by means of a new constitution to concede a larger political role to the aristocrats. It did not work. The unappeased oligarchy, suffering failing harvests and a growing and general unrest, forced him to abdicate in 1823, leaving a power vacuum in Chile.

Amid near anarchic instability, the moneyed landowning elite and the reactionary clergy blocked all efforts at liberal reform, which was favored by the lower classes and the army, who wanted agrarian reform, redistribution of land, and radical curtailment of the power of the clergy. For the next seven years this internal political split between the oligarchy and the army would lead to 30 successive governments and a variety of political experiments. In 1828 a reformist constitution was promulgated for Chile, triggering renewed civil unrest and by 1829 outright civil war.

The champion of the conservative cause was General Joaquín Prieto (1786–1854), who commanded the army garrison at Concepción. He was opposed by a ragtag liberal army led by General Ramón Freire (1787–1851). The only significant battle of the war took place on April 17, 1830, at Lircay, where the conservative forces won a decisive victory. This single triumph gained Prieto the presidency, although it was his appointee, Diego Portales (1793–1837), a cabinet minister, who became the real power in Chile, assuming dictatorial authority over the conservative regime.

See also Chilean War of Independence; Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation, War of the.

Further reading: Samuel Collier, *A History of Chile, 1808–1994* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996); John L. Rector, *The History of Chile* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2003).

Chilean Civil War (1891)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The conservative forces of Chile's congress vs. the liberal forces of Chile's president
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chile
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A conservative congress responded militarily to what it perceived to be the excessive reforms of President José Manuel Balmaceda.
OUTCOME: Balmaceda was deposed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Congressional forces, 9,000, including naval vessels; presidential forces, 10,000
CASUALTIES: Very light because the presidential forces capitulated upon confrontation.
TREATIES: None

In 1886 Chileans elected a liberal reformer, José Manuel Balmaceda (1840–91), to the presidency. He embarked on an ambitious program of public works, free public education, and public health care, all of which strained the Chilean treasury—already depleted by the WAR OF THE PACIFIC (1879–1883)—beyond its capacity to pay for the reforms.

When the government tried to claim the revenues from Chile's saltpeter mines, the Chilean oligarchy, looking for a weaker, rather than a stronger central power, turned up the pressure on the president's political enemies in the Chilean congress. In 1890 the congress attempted to check Balmaceda by voting down his budget. In early 1891 the president responded with a pledge that he would implement his programs with or without the congress. This prompted congress to depose Balmaceda and appoint in his place a conservative naval officer, Jorge Montt (1845–1922), as acting or provisional president. The appointment split Chile's military. The navy backed Montt, whereas Balmaceda retained the loyalty of the army. Thus, Balmaceda refused to step down and, indeed, exercised dictatorial powers, at least within the capital city, Santiago.

In August 1891 naval vessels transported 9,000 congressional troops to the vicinity of Valparaíso, where 10,000 of Balmaceda's troops were stationed. Confronted by the congressional forces, most of Balmaceda's soldiers refused to fight, and the city was easily taken. From Valparaíso the congressional troops advanced on Santiago, which quickly capitulated. Balmaceda fled the presidential palace and found asylum with the Argentine legation in Santiago. He remained at the legation until the end of his term, September 19, 1891, and on that day took his own life.

Further reading: Samuel Collier, *A History of Chile, 1808–1994* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996); John L. Rector, *The History of Chile* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2003).

Chilean Revolt (1973)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: A group of U.S.-backed Chilean generals vs. the Marxist government of Salvador Allende
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Santiago, Chile
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Allende's radical reform of Chilean society and its political and economic life plus U.S. efforts to block foreign loans and destabilize the government resulted in social turmoil verging on civil war. A group of right-wing generals, probably funded and trained by the CIA, staged a coup to "save" the country from communism.
OUTCOME: Allende committed suicide while under attack by the military, and a military junta was installed that rolled back the radical reforms.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Chilean military, 77,000
CASUALTIES: Official Chilean records list 2,095 Chileans killed during the coup and 1,102 missing.
TREATIES: None

On September 11, 1973, in the midst of a U.S.-backed coup staged by the Chilean military, Marxist president Salvador Allende Gossens (1908–73) shot himself in the presidential palace, bringing to a close a brief and precarious revolution in many ways typical of the volatile nature of South American politics in the 20th century. For most of that century the diverse and culturally rich South American continent lived in the shadow of its powerful and jealous neighbor to the north. Occasionally, as with the rise to power in Argentina of the populist demagogue Juan Perón (1895–1974) (*see* ARGENTINE REVOLT [1951], ARGENTINE REVOLT [1954], ARGENTINE REVOLT [1962–1963]) or the coming to office of Allende in Chile, South America seemed poised to break free of U.S. influence, but in the end the United States maintained its hegemony over the Western Hemisphere.

Allende, a scion of Chile's upper middle class who held a medical degree from the University of Chile, was one of the founders of Chile's Socialist Party. Elected to the chamber of deputies in 1937, he served in the left-leaning coalition of President Pedro Aguirre Cerda (fl. 1938–41) in the late 1930s and 1940s before running for the Senate in 1945. During his four successive terms as a Chilean senator, Allende would enter the presidential race twice before finally becoming Chile's chief executive on November 3, 1970. Though Allende was never as openly anti-U.S. as Argentina's Juan Perón, he also did not turn his back on the left once he gained power, as Perón did. An avowed Marxist, Allende immediately began to restructure Chilean society along socialist lines. Allende soon expropriated the U.S.-owned copper companies in Chile, which put him at odds with the hemisphere's major power and shook foreign investors' confidence in his government.

Determined to be independent of U.S. influence, Allende established diplomatic relations with Cuba and China, both at the time arch-foes of the United States during the COLD WAR. He began purchasing privately owned businesses, took over large agricultural estates and turned them into peasant cooperatives, authorized huge wage increases, and froze prices, all in an attempt to redistribute the wealth of the country. He paid for his structural changes by printing currency to cover the huge deficits created by his spending policies. Soon Chile faced stagnant production, a fall-off in exports, a loss of private-sector investments, exhausted financial reserves, widespread strikes, rising inflation, food shortages, domestic unrest, and foreign intrigue. The United States ensured that Chile was cut off from international lines of credit, and Allende's own inability to control his radical left-wing supporters exposed him to the hostility of the Chilean middle class from which he had sprung. More important perhaps, he incurred the wrath of the right-wing parties dominated by the Chilean military.

But through it all, Allende retained the support of most workers and peasants, and his electorial coalition won 44 percent of the vote in the March 1973 congressional elections. As the economy continued to worsen over the summer, street fighting, sabotage, congressional infighting and a crippling anti-nationalization became daily events. A two-month long strike in the trucking industry brought Chile to the verge of civil war. Alarmed by these events, a group of U.S.-trained Chilean generals, reportedly financed by the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), staged a successful coup on September 11, 1973. Chile came under the brutal rule of a four-man military junta, with General Augusto Pinochet Ugarte (b. 1915) as its leader. Though Allende shot himself in the head during the military's concerted attack on the presidential palace, the new Chile did not publicly acknowledge that the rumors of suicide were true. They remained unconfirmed until his body was exhumed from an unmarked grave in 1990 and given a public burial. Meanwhile, the junta had fallen, and Allende had become a hero of the Latin American left.

Further reading: Robert Barnes, *Constitutionalism and Dictatorship: Pinochet, the Junta, and the 1980 Constitution* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Samuel Collier, *A History of Chile, 1808–1994* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996); John L. Rector, *The History of Chile* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2003).

Chilean War of Independence (1810–1818)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chilean revolutionaries vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chile
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A popular revolt triggered by Spain's defeat at the hands of Napoleon
OUTCOME: Independence was won, but a dictator was installed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Chilean rebels, 6,600; royalist troops, 9,000
CASUALTIES: Chilean rebels, 2,640 killed; royalists, 1,700 killed
TREATIES: Independence formally proclaimed February 12, 1818

Napoleon Bonaparte's (1769–1821) conquests in Europe during the early 19th century (*see* NAPOLEONIC WARS), especially his defeat of Spain during the PENINSULAR WAR, sparked a wave of liberation movements against the aging empire in Central and South America, including a popular revolt in Chile. In 1810 at a *cabildo abierto* (open town meeting) in Santiago, wealthy Chileans replaced the official colonial government with an elected junta composed of local worthies. While professing loyalty to the ousted Spanish king, Ferdinand VII (1784–1833), as opposed to the French interlopers, Chilean patriots nevertheless removed royal colonial officials from office. They opened Chile's ports—which had been restricted to commerce with the mother country—to free trade. They took steps toward abolishing slavery, promoted general education, and set up a newspaper to publicize the patriot cause.

Unfortunately, however, the revolutionary movement itself was torn by dissension. During 1811–14 the radicals, rallying behind José Miguel Carrera (1785–1821), fought with the moderates, led by Bernardo O'Higgins (1778–1842), undermining and greatly weakening the revolution. Thus, when Napoleon was finally defeated, and the Spanish throne decided to reassert its empire, Spanish royalist forces were able to defeat the revolutionary armies at the Battle of Rancagua in 1814. Royal authority was then reestablished in Santiago.

Defeat, however, had moved Carrera and O'Higgins to pool their surviving forces and then to unite with José de San Martín (1778–1850), a military leader who had been preparing, training, and organizing an army based at Mendoza in neighboring Argentina. San Martín's object was not the liberation of Chile, but of Peru. To get there, however, he would have to march through Chile. San Martín was persuaded that defeating the Spanish in Chile would be a great aid to the eventual liberation of Peru. Although he fell out with Carrera, who he accused of sedition (for which he was subsequently exiled), San Martín pressed ahead with the liberation of Chile, preparatory to the liberation of Peru.

Early in 1817 he led 5,000 rebel troops across the Andes—something no army had ever before attempted, let alone accomplished—and engaged the royalists at the Battle of Chacabuco on February 12, 1817. From here San Martín continued on to Santiago, which fell to him. Early in 1818 San Martín declared the independence of Chile. This declaration was validated by a final engagement with the royalist forces at the Battle of the Maipo River on April

5. In the meantime, Lord Thomas Cochrane (1775–1860), a Britisher hired to command the small Chilean navy, bombarded Spanish coastal forts and daringly seized a number of Spanish warships between 1818 and 1820. Defeated on the ground and with its command of Chilean waters broken, Spain conceded defeat. Chile was free. However, Bernardo O'Higgins, a moderate during the revolution, assumed the presidency and embarked on a course of dictatorial rule.

See also CHILEAN CIVIL WAR (1829–1830); PERUVIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Samuel Collier, *A History of Chile, 1808–1994* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996); John L. Rector, *The History of Chile* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2003).

Chilean War with Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation

See PERUVIAN-BOLIVIAN CONFEDERATION, WAR OF THE.

Chindit War (Burma Campaign) (1943–1945)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Chindits vs. Japanese army
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma (Myanmar)
DECLARATION: *See* World War II: Pacific
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Burma Road, principal communications and supply artery to China
OUTCOME: The Allies ultimately attained their objective.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Allied forces, 27 divisions, Japanese forces, 10 divisions and two brigades
CASUALTIES: British Empire and Commonwealth, 74,909 casualties; United States, 6,070; Chinese, unknown; Japanese, an estimated 100,000
TREATIES: *See* World War II: Pacific (1941–1945)

The Chindit War may be considered a phase of World War II, but action here was so concentrated and remote from the principal theaters of that war that it is typically regarded as a separate conflict. In their sweep of Asia and the Pacific, the Japanese conquered and occupied Burma (Myanmar) early in 1942. The demands of the other Pacific theaters of World War II left Allied planners scant resources to devote to what came to be called the China-Burma-India Theater (*see* WORLD WAR II: CHINA-BURMA-INDIA THEATER (1941–1945). Nevertheless, whoever controlled Burma controlled the Burma Road, the only supply route from northern Burma into China, and whoever controlled the Burma Road went a long way toward controlling China. To leverage their scarce resources, the two leading Allied generals in the theater, Britain's Orde Charles Wingate (1903–44) and the United States's Joseph "Vinegar Joe" Stilwell (1883–1946), developed indigenous troops. Wingate trained a mixed band of British, Gurkha, and Burmese soldiers in jungle and ranger warfare. Called Wingate's Raiders—or Chindits—these troops waged guerrilla warfare against Japanese military installations, especially airfields and communications outposts. Simultaneously, General Stilwell trained two Chinese armies, one in India and the other in China, in the more conventional methods of Western warfare.

While Wingate harried the Japanese with his Chindits, Stilwell in December 1943 led a mixed force of U.S. and Chinese troops on an expedition to retake Burma. Traveling from the north, Stilwell's army fought its way over mountain passes and through nearly impenetrable jungle. These were obstacles formidable enough, but the force also had to fight jungle-hardened Japanese troops along the way. In February 1944 an elite cadre of 3,000 specially trained U.S. troops led by Colonel Frank D. Merrill (1903–55) and dubbed Merrill's Marauders, was attached to Stilwell's army. The Marauders served as the advance guard, working deep behind enemy lines in the jungle to clear the way for the main body of troops.

In a fight during May 17–18, 1944, Stilwell's forces took the Japanese airfield outside of Myitkyina, northern Burma. This gave the Allies a vital foothold in the region, allowing the resupply and reinforcement of Allied positions in Burma. Nevertheless, it was August 3 before the city of Myitkyina fell to the Allies.

With the Myitkyina airfield available, the U.S.-trained Chinese Expeditionary Force was able to make headway against the Japanese at Lun-ling, an outpost controlling a critical pass along the Burma Road. The so-called Battle for the Road extended into early 1945, as the Japanese yielded territory almost on a yard-by-yard basis. After liberating 400 villages along the Burma-China artery, the Burma Road was reopened to Allied traffic on January 27, 1945.

See also SINO-JAPANESE WAR (1937–1945).

Further reading: Stewart Cochrane, *Chindit: Special Force, Burma 1944* (Philadelphia: Xlibris, 2000); David Rooney, *Burma Victory: Imphal, Kohima and the Chindit Issue, March 1944–May 1945* (London: Arms and Armour Press, 1992); Bidwell Shelford, *The Chindit War: Stilwell, Wingate, and the Campaign in Burma, 1944* (New York: Macmillan, 1980); Bill Towill, *A Chindit's Chronicle* (Lincoln, Neb.: iUniverse, 2000).

Chinese-Annamese War (907–939)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Annam (northern and central Vietnam) vs. Cantonese China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Annamese-Chinese borderlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Annam fought for independence from China.
OUTCOME: Annamese independence was achieved.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The once mighty Tang dynasty gradually declined in China over the course of the ninth century. As the Tang's central authority grew weaker, the power of semiautonomous war lords increased. Early in the 10th century the Tang were overthrown by a war lord, General Zhu Wen (Chu Wen), who seized control of the country in 907 and murdered the last Tang emperor. As always in China when a dynasty fell, a period of anarchy and chaos followed the end of Tang rule, and during that period China's vassal state in Southeast Asia, Annam, began a struggle for its independence.

Chinese influence had been evident in Tonkin and northern Annam since at least the ninth century B.C.E. Late in the third century B.C.E. the area was conquered by the Chinese general Zhao Tuo (Chao T'o) and included in the rebellious regime he established in South China. The name Nam Viet was first applied to Zhao Tuo's entire Cantonese kingdom, of which Annam was the "pacified south," a term the natives much resented. Though Nam Viet was soon limited to the Tonkin and northern Annam provinces, the whole area was still considered Annam, a pacified southern region of China proper that stretched south of Hue until the Chams established an independent pirate kingdom, Champa, below the 17th parallel around 200 C.E.

Even before the fall of the Tang, the Annamese had obtained the right to choose their own mandarin governor, and shortly afterward—following the emperor's murder—all government officials. Soon they were skirmishing with the Cantonese Chinese just to their north. By 931 they had completely evicted the Chinese from Annam.

Following the eviction of the Chinese, Annam itself was beset by rebellion. In 939 a rebel army officer killed the leader of Annam, whereupon the leader's kinsman, Ngo Quyen (897–944), organized an army against the forces of the rebel officer. He appealed to China for aid, which unleashed an invasion. Ngo and his troops killed the officer, then advanced to the Bach Dang River to repel the Chinese invaders. The Bach Dang is a tidal river, and Ngo booby-trapped it by driving great iron spikes into the riverbed at low tide. These were submerged at high tide, and when the ships of the Chinese invaders sailed up the river, they found themselves impaled as the tide went out. This allowed Ngo to attack and destroy the invaders and their fleet. The victory was so absolutely decisive that except for a brief period of Chinese reoccupation during 1407–28, Annam remained independent until the French conquered and colonized it in the 19th century.

Further reading: Terry Cannon, *Vietnam: A Thousand Years of Struggle* (San Francisco: Propus Press, 1969); Oscar Chapius, *A History of Vietnam* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1995); Nguyen Khac Vien, *Vietnam: A Long History,* rev. ed. (Hanoi: Gioi Publishers, 1993).

Chinese-Annamese War (1057–1061)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. Annam (Dai Viet, northern Vietnam)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dai Viet (northern and central Vietnam)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chinese reconquest of Annam (or its "Pacified South")
OUTCOME: The Dai Viet pushed the Chinese out of their territory.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1057 Chinese troops invaded Dai Viet (central and northern Vietnam) in an effort to reconquer what had been, from 111 B.C.E. to 939, the Chinese province of Annam ("Pacified South"). Annamese (or Dai Viet) troops engaged the invaders along the Red River, fighting a war that lasted four years before the Chinese were driven back into their own territory.

While the Dai Viet forces were engaged against the Chinese, the Chams and the Khmers, people neighboring the Dai Viet, invaded in an attempt to seize territory. After defeating the Chinese in the north by 1061, the Dai Viet armies confronted the Chams and Khmers by invading Champa. This pushed the Dai Viet border southward, below the 17th parallel. A band of Dai Viet soldier-peasants then settled along the coastal region, gradually pushing out the original Cham residents. This action may be seen as a phase of the VIETNAMESE-CHAM WAR (1000–1044).

For the background of Annam and Annamese independence from China, see CHINESE-ANNAMESE WAR (907–939).

Further reading: Terry Cannon, *Vietnam: A Thousand Years of Struggle* (San Francisco: Propus Press, 1969); Oscar Chapius, *A History of Vietnam* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1995); Nguyen Khac Vien, *Vietnam: A Long History,* rev. ed. (Hanoi: Gioi Publishers, 1993).

Chinese-Annamese War (1075–1079)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chinese with Cham and Khmer allies vs. Dai Viet (formerly the Chinese province of Annam)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dai Viet (modern northern and central Vietnam)

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chinese reconquest of a portion of Dai Viet
OUTCOME: Dai Viet ceded five border provinces to China.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Relevant document is a 1084 treaty, which fixed the border between Dai Viet and China.

The Chinese under the Song (Sung) Dynasty allied with the Chams and Khmers to attack Dai Viet (formerly Annam) in 1075. These combined forces overwhelmed Dai Viet, which ceded five border provinces to China in exchange for the withdrawal of the invading army. The provinces were returned by a treaty of 1084, which fixed the border between Dai Viet and China.

For the background of Annam and Annamese independence from China, see CHINESE-ANNAMESE WAR (907–939). *Also see* CHINESE-ANNAMESE WAR (1057–1061); VIETNAMESE-CHINESE WAR (1405–1407); VIETNAMESE-CHINESE WAR (1418–1428).

Further reading: Terry Cannon, *Vietnam: A Thousand Years of Struggle* (San Francisco: Propus Press, 1969); Oscar Chapius, *A History of Vietnam* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1995); Nguyen Khac Vien, *Vietnam: A Long History,* rev. ed. (Hanoi: Gioi Publishers, 1993); Walter J. Sheldon, *Tigers in the Rice: The Story of Vietnam from Ancient Past to Uncertain Future* (New York: Crowell-Collier, 1969).

Chinese Campaigns in Manchuria and Korea

See SINO-KOREAN WAR (610–614).

Chinese-Burmese Wars

See BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1438–1446); BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1658–1661); BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1765–1769).

Chinese-Cham War (431–446)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. Champa (central Vietnam)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern and central Vietnam
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Taking advantage of the ongoing chaos in China during its "Dark Ages" of the "Six Dynasties," Cham adventurers looted Chinese possessions in Southeast Asia, finally provoking China to retaliate.
OUTCOME: Champa's major cities were sacked, and the country fell under the control of China's client state, Tonkin.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the fifth century China suffered through the near anarchy of what Chinese historians would call the "Six Dynasties," China's "Dark Ages," which had begun with the collapse of the ancient Han Empire in 220. Throughout the century China would remain divided into two major regions—one mostly north, the other south of the Yangtze (Chang) River—that fought incessantly with each other even as both suffered from internal strife. In 420 the Eastern Jin (Chin) dynasty was overthrown by a warlord named Liu Yuan, who would establish the "Former" Song (Sung) dynasty, only to be overthrown in turn within a few decades.

While China suffered through such chaos, neighboring powers took risks they would otherwise have avoided. Sometime around 200 an Indonesian people known as the Chams established an independent and piratical kingdom, Champa, south of Hue in southern Annam (central Vietnam), and during China's troubled fifth century they began to make numerous and bold raids into Chinese-ruled Nam Viet to the north of Champa. One of the leading Cham warriors and rulers to conduct such pirate raids was Ling Bhadravarman (c. 400), and he was followed around 405 and 406 by King Fan Hu-ta (d. c. 414). In 413 he led an invasion north of Jih-nan from which he never returned. Later in 431 the new Cham king Yang Mah II (c. 402–447) launched more than 100 boats on a plundering expedition along Jih-nan's coast in Chinese-held Tonkin (northern Vietnam). However, the Chinese struck back while the king was out of the country. They besieged Ch'u-su until bad weather forced them to break off. Meanwhile, Yang Mah tried unsuccessfully to obtain the aid of Funan soldiers while fighting in Tonkin. Sporadic Chinese-Cham skirmishing continued until 446, when the new governor of Tonkin, Tan Ho-chu, denounced his ongoing peace negotiations with Champa, launched an overland punitive expedition, and besieged Ch'u-su. The city fell in 446, laying its rich booty before him. Emboldened, he marched on and captured and sacked the Cham capital near Hue. Tan's successes apparently much reduced the Chams' taste for raiding into Nam Viet, and in effect Tan had taken temporary control of Champa.

Further reading: Ramesh Chandra Mujumdar, *Champa: History and Culture of an Indian Colonial Kingdom in the Far East, 2nd–16th Century* A.D. (Delhi: Gian Publishing House, 1985).

Chinese-Cham War (605)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Champa (central and southern coastal Vietnam) vs. China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Champa

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Chams took advantage of internal Chinese instability to make an abortive play for independence.
OUTCOME: Champa failed to achieve independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As frequently happened, the ruler of a region subject to Chinese domination took advantage of dynastic instability to attempt rebellion. During the late sixth century the Chinese Sui dynasty suffered internal upheaval, prompting Sambhuvarman (d. 629), king of the Chams, to attempt to free Champa (central and southern coastal Vietnam) from Chinese domination. When the Sui dynasty was reinvigorated, however, Sambhuvarman called off the rebellion and resumed tribute payments due the Chinese overlords. This was not sufficient for the Chinese, however, who invaded the region of modern-day Vietnam, quelling ongoing rebellions in Tonkin and Annam, both Chinese provinces, then advanced south into Champa. Here the Chinese forces neutralized Sambhuvarman's army, captured and occupied the city of Ch'ü-su, then sacked the Cham capital city, Tra-kieu. After swiftly visiting much devastation on Champa, the Chinese withdrew just as swiftly, allowing Sambhuvarman to resume leadership of his kingdom, albeit in strict subjugation to China.

Further reading: Ramesh Chandra Mujumdar, *Champa: History and Culture of an Indian Colonial Kingdom in the Far East, 2nd–16th Century* A.D. (Delhi: Gian Publishing House, 1985).

Chinese Civil War (1398–1402)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The forces of Zhu Di (Chu Ti), prince of Yay (Yen), vs. the forces of Emperor Jianwen (Chien-wen)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nanjing
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Zhu Di, prince of Yan, challenged Jianwen for succession to the Ming throne.
OUTCOME: Jianwen was overthrown.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Upon the death of Zhu Yuanzhang (Chu Yüan-chang) (1328–58), founder of the Ming dynasty (*see* MONGOL-CHINESE WAR [1356–1368]), the throne passed to Jianwen (1337–1440), Zhu Yuanzhang's grandson, and not to any of Zhu Yuanzhang's six sons. Anxious to avoid a relapse into the chaos that characterized the fall of Mongol rule over China and well aware that, at 16 his own rule was in jeopardy, Jianwen quickly moved to neutralize his uncles' power. He reduced three from royal status to that of mere citizens. Another uncle withdrew to a monastery, and a fifth committed suicide. This provoked the only remaining uncle, Zhu Di (Chu Ti) (1359–1424), prince of Yen, into a rebellion against Jianwen. Chu Ti soon enlarged his own realm, and by 1398 he dominated all China's northern provinces. In 1402 he advanced on Nanjing, the imperial capital, and laid siege to it. In part because the royal court was rife with traitors and defectors, the city quickly capitulated. Zhu Di assumed the throne as Yongle (Yung Lo), third emperor of the Ming dynasty. Jianwen disappeared. Some say he perished when his palace was set ablaze, but most historians today believe he escaped in the disguise of a Buddhist monk. Yongle meanwhile stabilized Ming rule and greatly expanded the dynasty's holdings, commanding tribute from kingdoms as far away as Africa. He returned the capital to Ta-tu and renamed it Beijing. For the next century Ming China would enjoy both prosperity and tranquillity.

Further reading: Valerie Hansen, *History of Early China to 1600: The Open Empire* (New York: Norton, 2000); John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese Civil War (1621–1644)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Warlord Li Zicheng (Li Tzu-ch'eng) vs. the Ming government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Shaanxi (Shensi) and Henan (Honan) provinces
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Li Zicheng wanted to overthrow the Ming and assume the Chinese throne.
OUTCOME: The Ming dynasty was overthrown.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Li Zicheng commanded an army of at least 300,000; Ming forces were smaller and less organized.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The great Ming dynasty (*see* MONGOL-CHINESE WAR) reeled under attack from the Manchus (*see entries relating to the* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA), the devastation of which was compounded by a series of natural disasters, including widespread famine and flood. Attempts to shore up the crumbling Ming dynasty through a vigorous program of heavy taxation served only further to erode popular

support for the government. Rebellion became commonplace throughout China as individual warlords vied for dominance, using armies recruited from the hordes of the dispossessed and starving.

By the 1630s Li Zicheng (c. 1605–45) had emerged as one of the most powerful of the warlords. In 1637 he mounted an assault against the provincial capital of Sichuan (Szechwan). When this failed he regrouped and invaded Shaanxi, then in 1640 advanced into Henan Province. Within two years he had conquered both Shaanxi and Henan, then marched into Shanxi, which he took in 1643. With this conquest he declared himself emperor of China.

Li Zicheng now controlled a vast army of at least 300,000 men, which in 1644 he led into Beijing, the imperial capital. The Ming military was in such disarray that the two armies sent to intercept the forces of Li Zicheng fragmented, the rival commanders refusing to coordinate the defense with one another. Li Zicheng easily defeated the defenders in detail, then marched triumphantly into the capital. Chong Zhen (Ch'ung-chen; 1611–44), the last Ming emperor, did not flee but hanged himself, and Li Zicheng assumed the throne of China, but he was destined to hold it only briefly. For when the Ming generals turned to the Manchus for help in punishing Li Zicheng and restoring the dynasty, the Manchus seized the throne for themselves.

Further reading: John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese Civil War (1674–1681)

See THREE FEUDATORIES, REVOLT OF THE.

Chinese Civil War (1927–1937)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chinese Communists vs. Chinese Nationalists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After joining forces to subdue the chaos that followed the Chinese Revolution of 1911–12, the Kuomintang (pinyin: Guomindang), China's Nationalist Party, and the Chinese Communist Party fell to fighting each other for dominance in China.
OUTCOME: Although the Nationalists appeared victorious initially, the Communists proved resilient, and their influence steadily grew. When the Japanese attacked China, the two joined forces once more, this time to repel the invaders, only to fall out again at the end of World War II.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Red Army (1928–30), 70,000; (1930–37), 200,000+; Nationalists, 800,000 to 1 million deployed at high point
CASUALTIES: Between 400,000 and 1.5 million battle deaths total for both sides
TREATIES: None

The road toward a communist state on the Chinese mainland began in and around the port city of Shanghai, a lawless wide-open city that housed White Russian refugees from the Soviet Union, American soldiers of fortune, Japanese and Bolshevik spies, British diplomats and empire-builders, and masses of desperately poor Chinese washed up from years of brutal civil warfare among China's cut-throat warlords. In and around Shanghai during the summer of 1921, a number of radical Chinese students held a series of clandestine meetings that culminated in weeks of sessions aboard a boat moored on a lake outside the city. It was the only place that the delegates to what was being called the First Party Congress felt safe from the surveillance of Shanghai's corrupt police. From such humble beginnings would grow the 20th century's largest, most powerful, and longest lasting communist party.

Five year's earlier, in 1916, China's first republic (*see* CHINESE REVOLUTION), founded by Sun Yat-sen (Sun Yixian or Sun I'hsien; 1866–1925), had fallen prey to the ambitions of a number of regionally powerful warlords, and the vast country had reverted to a particularly bloody form of feudalism. The warlords, many of them not much more than land pirates, constantly fought among themselves, forming a bewildering series of alliances, always supposedly in the name of a united republic, but always collapsing into another round of bitter feuds. Many Chinese had developed a passion for revolution, none more than the students who had made up a majority of Sun Yat-sen's early supporters and who had, therefore, enjoyed the heady years of China's nationalist revolution against the aged and creaking Manchu dynasty under the boy-king Puyi (P'u-yi; 1906–67), China's last emperor.

Loath to let go of the fragile victories in modernization gained under Sun Yat-sen, the students filled the void left in Chinese leadership with radical talk inspired by the success of the Bolsheviks (*see* BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION), who the young radicals wished to emulate. Recognizing an opportunity, Vladimir I. Lenin (1870–1924) sent envoys from the Comintern, the communists' vehicle for world revolution set up by the Russians, to help China organize the country's disperate socialist groups into a coherent Marxist party.

Arriving in China flush with advice from the Comintern, Chen Duxiu (Ch'en Tu-hsiu; 1879–1942)—cofounder of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP)—led the effort to recruit new members and set up schools to train Chinese radicals in the fine art of revolution. A new generation of young Chinese radicals sprang up. In Hunan a 27-year-old schoolteacher named Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung; 1893–1976) started a communist cell in his home province; in Paris a 16-year-old student named

Deng Xiaoping (Teng Hsiao-p'ing; 1904–97) joined the French Communist Party; Zhou Enlai (Chou En-lai) (1898–1976), 22 and also living in Paris, founded a branch of the CCP. In Shanghai they all came together and focused their thinking and their goals.

First they allied with Chiang Kai-shek (pinyin: Jiang Jieshi; 1886–1975), who had taken over China's Nationalist Party, the Kuomintang (or Guomindang, KMT), after the death of Sun Yat-sen. The KMT was China's bourgeois revolutionary party, and for those with eyes to see, Chiang—as generalissimo of his large national liberation army—was himself not much more than a warlord, already evidencing hints of the gangsterlike thinking that characterized China's generals as a group and in the future would more clearly characterize the slippery Chiang as well. But he had an army, he had been with Sun Yat-sen, and with his help the Chinese communists organized their own Red Army, which they used to pay back the Bolsheviks by joining their fight against the White Russians, who had been occupying Mongolia for almost a year, and helping the Soviets to win the Russian Civil War (1917–1922).

Like all his fellow CCP members, Mao Zedong had joined the Kuomintang in 1923, and he was chosen as an alternate member of the KMT's Changai Executive Committee in 1924. But Mao was not to get along with the imperious Chiang.

Born in Henan (Honan) in 1893 the son of a landowning and prosperous peasant family, Mao had received a classical Confucian education before he left school in 1911 to serve briefly with the revolutionary forces of Sun Yat-sen. Mao's father compelled the young man to leave the army and enroll in a commercial school during 1912–13, and from 1913 to 1918 he lived in the provincial capital of Changsha, where he attended the local normal school. He moved to Beijing (Peking) for one year, from 1918 to 1919, and worked in the library of Beijing University. He returned to Henan in 1919 as a teacher at the Changsha Normal School before heading off to the First Party Congress in Shanghai. Shortly after entering the ranks of the KMT he suffered a bout of illness, then set about organizing unions of laborers and peasants. In 1925 he fled to Canton to avoid arrest for his radical activities, and it was in Canton, protected by the Nationalist army, that he moved into Chiang Kai-shek's inner circle as head of the propaganda section of the KMT. Almost immediately, Mao and Chiang fell to arguing, and Chiang fired the young radical from his propaganda post in 1926. Mao immediately joined the Peasant Movement Training Institute, a far-left CCP cell.

In March 1927 the CCP organized a strike in Shanghai, which paralyzed the city, leaving it open to Chiang Kai-shek and his revolutionary army. Chiang swept into Shanghai and took the city without firing a shot. The Kuomintang and the CCP now controlled most of the country, the long period of Chinese civil upheaval seemed to be drawing to a close, and the Communists were getting most of the credit. Only Manchuria, ruled by the warlord Zhang Zoulin (Chang Tso-lin), remained outside Chiang's and the Communists' sphere of influence.

In Russia the new Communist Party leader, Joseph Stalin (1879–1953), locked in a bitter dispute with Leon Trotsky (1879–1940) over the future direction of the Bolshevik government, was beside himself. Moscow interpreted the Communist success during these turbulent times as a victory for Stalin, who was already dreaming of the things he could do with the world's most populous country in his camp.

Chiang had other ideas. In April, a month after taking Shanghai, Chiang betrayed his radical young allies. He moved his troops against the trade unions in Shanghai, purged the Kuomintang of Communists, outlawed the CCP, proclaimed a Nationalist Republic of China, and named himself president. Moscow broke off diplomatic relations, and as Chiang's anticommunist rhetoric heated up, Comintern agents fled for the Russian border. Stalin quickly engaged in some unseemly revisionism, claiming through tight lips that the former hero Chiang was, like Trotsky, a traitor, and that communism was stronger for knowing Chiang's true colors. Chiang himself turned his attention to Manchuria, launching a campaign against Zhang Zoulin. A year later the warlord lay dead, assassinated by his son and successor, who made peace with Chiang. China once again was unified, under Chiang Kai-shek and his Kuomintang.

Meanwhile, Chinese Communists rallied for a rebellion led by Zhu De (Chu Teh; 1886–1976), and others expelled from their ranks members of the old Hankou (Hankow) left wing of the Kuomintang. On August 1, 1927, 20,000 Communists stormed the 10,000-strong Nationalist garrison in the city of Nanchang and inflicted some 800 casualties. Though they held the city briefly, they were forced to evacuate on August 8, and the defeated Zhu De retreated with a force of nearly 20,000 into temporary refuge in Hunan Province.

When the purge had come in Shanghai back in April, Mao, too, had retreated. Going into the always healthy Chinese underworld, he had worked independently of the now-outlawed CCP structure and organized a revolutionary army in August, 2,000 Communists in four regiments, which he led in the Autumn Harvest Uprising in a region of Hunan west of Nanch'ang from September 8 to 19. When the uprising collapsed, Mao was expelled from the CCP. He responded by gathering his remaining forces of 1,200, retreating to the mountains, and allying himself with that other outcast, Zhu De (Chu Teh), to form a peasant army called the Mass Line in 1928. Mao and Zhu established their own renegade CCP republic, the Jiangxi (Kiangsi) Soviet.

Although Kuomintang forces harassed the Chinese Communists in the countryside and the mountains, they were diverted from all-out war by a series of rebellions within their own ranks. Then, in 1930 a major misstep by

the Communists captured Chiang Kai-shek's full attention. The political leader of the CCP, Li Li-san (1896–1967)—Mao's major rival for power within the party from 1928 to 1930—argued persuasively to military commanders that China's cities were ripe for revolution. They launched an offensive. It failed to inspire fervent urban uprising of the masses in support of the Red Army and was an abject failure militarily. Not only were Communist casualties heavy, but Chiang was now determined to launch what he called Extermination Campaigns against the Marxist insurgents in Jiangxi Province.

The First Extermination Campaign opened in October 1930. The Communists had maintained their forces for years by following Mao's four golden rules of guerrilla warfare—when the enemy advanced, they retreated; when the enemy halted, they harassed; when the enemy avoided them, they attacked; when the enemy retreated, they followed. Now, Zhu—attacked by the Nationalists from three directions—gave ground when necessary, then with great tactical skill concentrated his forces against isolated divisions of the Nationalist army. In the single battle of Lungkiang December 27–January 1, the Red Army destroyed the entire KMT 18th Division, capturing more than 8,000 rifles and 9,000 POWs. By the end of January 1931 Chiang's first campaign had failed. Zhu De's forces had suffered no more than 3,000 killed and wounded.

One of those many executed outright by the KMT, however, was Yang Kaihui (K'ai-hui), Mao's first wife. But it was not only Chiang Kai-shek killing Communists. In the midst of the First Extermination Campaign, Mao led his Communist Front Committee in a purge of some 6,000 comrades in the Fut'ien Incident. Accusing his internal opponents of conspiring with the KMT's Anti-Bolshevik League, Mao had some 4,000 imprisoned and 2,000 executed, far exceeding Zhu De's casualties.

The Second Extermination Campaign came in May 1931, when a 150,000-strong KMT force once again invaded Jiangxi, only to be once again tied in knots by Chu's 20,000 rebels. The Nationalists suffered almost that many casualties, while the Communists lost about 4,000. In the Third Extermination Campaign, launched two months later in July, Chiang himself took command of about 300,000 against Zhu De's 30,000 (his forces were, however, growing). This time the KMT faired better, inflicting nearly 10,000 casualties before the campaign was aborted by the Mukden Incident (when the Japanese seized the Manchurian city of Mukden). As Chiang fought off the invasion of Manchuria that followed, some 20,000 soldiers in the KMT's Twenty-sixth Army deserted en masse to join the Communists. The Fourth Extermination Campaign had to await a lull in the fighting of the Japanese in Manchuria and Shanghai, and that came in June 1932. Once again, the Communist forces, now numbering 30,000 in the First Front Army of the Jiangxi Soviet, 20,000 in the Ouywan Soviet's Fourth Front Army, and 10,000 in the Hunan Soviet's Second Front Army, more than held their own, capturing 20,000 KMT POWs in Jiangxi alone.

By now the Jiangxi Soviet spoke for some 15 million people, and Zhu De and Mao Zedong were defying not only Chiang Kai-shek's KMT but also the Russian-dominated international Communist Party, which had backed Li Li-san and ordered would-be communist revolutionaries to concentrate on capturing cities. This was not their only break with Marxist orthodoxy, for Mao and Zhu turned their revolutionary attention not to the urban proletariat, as Marx prescribed, but to the rural peasantry.

The Fifth Extermination Campaign was a different kind of effort, one much more effective than the previous four. This time Chiang employed German general Hans von Seeckt (1866–1936) to advise KMT commanders. Von Seeckt argued for a strategy of attrition. The Nationalists should surround Communist-held territory with a ring of blockhouses and fortified lines, then clear one belt of ground after another, steadily shrinking their enclaves until each could be totally surrounded and destroyed. It would be a costly strategy and require unrelenting discipline, von Seeckt admitted, but if the pressure were sure and steady it should work. Chiang agreed and in October 1933 threw 500,000 troops at the Jiangxi Soviet, defended by about 200,000 men, only half of them armed. Another 300,000 KMT troops began to tighten the belt around the Oyuwan Soviet. In November Chiang's Nineteenth Army rebelled and offered to join the Communists, but Mao refused, leaving the army to its fate at the hands of the KMT, which by February 1934 had utterly destroyed the disloyal force. In April the Communists brought the Nationalists to a standstill in the fiercely fought battle of Guangqiang (Kuangchi'ang), which cost both sides some 16,000 men, but for the most part and in the long run the KMT's pressure was unrelenting.

By summer the noose was growing very tight around both the Jiangxi and the Oyuwan Soviets. Zhu De had lost 60,000 killed or wounded, and the casualties at Oyuwan were even worse. More than 1 million peasants living in the battle zones had died collateral deaths, and the CCP hierarchy was ready to admit defeat. With Mao they decided to evacuate the soviets and try to link up with Xu the Peasant and his 13,000-strong Red Army far to the north in Shaanxi Province. Come the fall of 1934, Mao set off on the famed Long March out of Jiangxi, leading some 86,000 men and women in a 6,000-mile mass evacuation to Shaanxi.

Zhu De launched the breakout on October 16, 1934, using nearly 90,000 troops (a third of them raw recruits) and 30,000 civilians against a KMT wall made up of 300,000 troops in 100 regiments. A remnant of 25,000 stayed behind to continue Communist operations in the south, and Zhu took 10,000 casualties in fighting through the ring of blockhouses and 15,000 more just to cross the Xiang River. He lost another 15,000 in November fighting

his way through Hunan. He would hook up with the 50,000 who had fought free of the Oyuwan Soviet and, while Mao kept on going to Shaanxi with some 30,000 troops, Zhu would lead 55,000 to seek refuge in Xinjiang (Sinkiang) province (losing some 10,000 more on the way).

In October 1935, a year after the march began, Mao led some 8,000 survivors into the North Shaanxi Soviet. At Yen-an, Mao established a new party headquarters. The fighting went on for another year. Zhu De left Xinjiang in 1936, now with a force of 80,000, to join his comrades in Shaanxi, only to lose 15,000 of them to a combined Nationalist and Muslim cavalry while trying to cross the Yellow River in August. In all, against the 200,000 KMT forces, he lost 20,000 to battle or disease and 10,000 to desertion before reaching Mao in Shaanxi. Thus, the Long March was in truth a series of marches by separate columns. It cost the Communists about 100,000 casualties, and they recruited about 50,000—mostly peasants—along the way, leaving another 40,000 of their number behind to form cadres and establish soviets. By 1936 they had maybe 100,000 men in the Shaanxi Soviet, half of them armed. So Mao had not been wiped out. He emerged instead from the epic ordeal of the Long March more determined than ever to impose his brand of communism on China.

Meanwhile, Chiang Kai-shek was trying to persuade satellite Manchurian warlord Zhang Xueliang (Chang Hsuh-liang; b. 1898), called the "Young Marshal," to deploy his 150,000 men against the Shaanxi Soviet (Chiang called it "bandit suppression" for his Western audiences), but the Young Marshal was more worried about the Japanese, who he knew would one day soon be attacking China proper. When Chiang tried to force the issue by calling a war conference in Xi'an in December 1936, the Young Marshal arrested the generalissimo and forced him to open negotiations with the communists. Marxist diplomat Zhou Enlai helped broker a deal that saw the war against the Communists suspended in return for help fighting the invaders.

Thus, on July 7, 1937, when the Japanese attacked China, the CCP and KMT again joined forces. Mao launched the Hundred Regiments offensive against the Japanese during August 20–November 30, 1940, but mainly used the war years to strengthen the CCP position in northern China and further consolidate his own leadership of the party. Mao worked vigorously to organize peasants, and he also directed a ruthless program of purges through which he secured in April 1945 election as permanent chairman of the party's central committee. The CCP had begun the war years in 1937 with 40,000 members. It emerged in 1945 with 1.2 million.

Further reading: Timothy Cheek, *Mao Zedong and China's Revolutions* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2002); Trevor N. Dupuy, *The Military History of the Chinese Civil War* (New York: Franklin Watts, 1969); John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese Civil War (1945–1949)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chinese Communists vs. Chinese Nationalists
DECLARATION: None
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In the wake of World War II and Japan's withdrawal from China, the Chinese Communists and Nationalists once again took up the decade-old civil war they had abandoned after the Japanese invaded the Chinese mainland in 1936.
OUTCOME: Late in 1949, after forcing Chiang Kai-shek's Nationalist army to flee to the island of Taiwan, Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) and his fellow Communists declared China's vast mainland to be the People's Republic of China.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Communist forces, nearly 4 million by the spring of 1949; Nationalist forces, 5.7 million starting out in 1946.
CASUALTIES: Communists, 1.5 million killed or wounded, Nationalists, 571,670 killed or wounded between June 1948 and December 1949. More than 4.5 million Nationalists were captured during the war. Battle deaths for both sides totaled 1.2 million.
TREATIES: None

The conclusion of World War II also ended the truce between the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) and the Kuomintang (Guomindang, KMT) that concluded the last Chinese Civil War (1927–1937), and a bitter full-scale civil war erupted anew. With the expulsion of Japan from the mainland, both Mao's Communists in the north and Chiang's Nationalists in the south rushed to seize the areas formally occupied by Japanese troops. Backing the Koumintang, the U.S. Air Force airlifted thousands of Chiang's troops on American planes to Shanghai, Nanjing, and other Chinese cities. The U.S. government sent its World War II army chief of staff, General George Marshall (1880–1959), to try to negotiate a peace between the two old enemies. But Chiang proved unwilling to bargain, despite Marshall's warning that China's ailing economy would utterly collapse if the negotiations did not succeed.

Returning home in 1947, Marshall declared his mission a failure, and President Harry Truman (1884–1972) withdrew American troops, though he continued American military and economic aid, mostly to Chiang, throughout the growing crisis. Meanwhile, whole divisions of the Koumintang were jumping ship and joining the Communists. Chiang's commanders, never the best of officers,

corrupt to a man, and hardly fond of actually fighting, quarreled among themselves and refused to take the field. Just as Marshall warned, rampant inflation ruined the economy, which along with the Koumintang's always flagrant corruption destroyed what was left of its credibility and popularity. Tellingly, in October 1948 300,000 Nationalist troops threw down their guns in Manchuria and surrendered to the Communists.

Two months later Mao's men surrounded and captured 66 Nationalist divisions in north-central China, at least those among them who had not yet deserted. Mao's forces repeatedly defeated the armies of Chiang Kai-shek from 1946 to 1948. In April the Communists crossed the Yangtze (Chang) and swept through the south. Shanghai fell in May, Guangzhou in October, and Chongqing in November. In December Chiang, his minions, and the Nationalist government itself were forced at last to flee to the small island of Formosa (later Taiwan), where Chiang set up a government in exile, which he grandiosely dubbed the Republic of China. Millions had died, millions more were ruined and starved, and U.S. aid to the high-living officers of the Koumintang had fostered a bitter anti-Americanism among much of China's population and certainly among all its new Communist leaders. Late in 1949 Mao and his fellow Communists declared the creation of the People's Republic of China on the vast mainland.

The most populous nation on the planet was now committed to communism. The event was viewed in the capitalist West as a major defeat in the rapidly developing COLD WAR, a view that led U.S. politicians to overestimate the cohesion of the so-called communist bloc for some three decades and stubbornly to deny recognition of a government that, for the first time since the fall of the ancient Qing (Ch'ing) dynasty at the beginning of the 20th century, had truly united the massive Chinese population.

What happened instead was that when the United States rejected Mao's overtures to establish diplomatic relations, he allied his country with a Soviet Union now firmly under the yoke of Stalin. It was an uneasy alliance. Mao, every bit the dictator in China that Stalin was in Russia, found it no easier to share the limelight with "Uncle Joe" than he had formerly with Generalissimo Chiang. But the West, particularly the United States, was too busy blaming—and purging—the China experts in its State Department for the "loss" of the mainland to notice. As far as the West was concerned, China and Russia had formed a communist bloc implacably opposed to what the United States and its western European allies were now calling the Free World.

Further reading: Timothy Cheek, *Mao Zedong and China's Revolutions* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2002); Trevor N. Dupuy, *The Military History of the Chinese Civil War* (New York: Franklin Watts, 1969); John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese Conquest of Nam Viet (111 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chinese Han dynasty vs. the Viets
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southeast Asia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the region around present-day Vietnam
OUTCOME: The Chinese Han dynasty gained control of present-day Vietnam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Beginning in about 500 B.C.E., Chinese traders ventured into present-day northern Vietnam. A renegade Chinese general named Chao T'o or Trieu Da (d. after 208 B.C.E.) conquered the region and established a kingdom known as Nan Yueh or Nam Viet around 208 B.C.E. As the Han dynasty in China grew more powerful, war broke out between the Hans and the Viets in about 181. By 111, the Han forces had captured the entire region. Wu Ti (157–87), the Han emperor, incorporated Nam Viet into the Chinese empire as the province of Giao Chi (later known as Giao Chau). The Chinese colonized the region, known as Annam, or "Pacified South" to the Chinese, by establishing nine military administrative units and by installing peasant-soldiers to build forts and villages.

See also CHINESE-ANNAMESE WAR (907–939); CHINESE-ANNAMESE WAR (1057–1061); CHINESE-ANNAMESE WAR (1075–1079); TRUNG SISTERS' REBELLION.

Further reading: Terry Cannon, *Vietnam: A Thousand Years of Struggle* (San Francisco: Propus Press, 1969); Oscar Chapius, *A History of Vietnam* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1995); Nguyen Khac Vien, *Vietnam: A Long History,* rev. ed. (Hanoi: Gioi Publishers, 1993); Walter J. Sheldon, *Tigers in the Rice: The Story of Vietnam from Ancient Past to Uncertain Future* (New York: Crowell-Collier, 1969).

Chinese Cultural Revolution (1966–1969)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mao Zedong's (Mao Tse-tung) young Red Guards vs. thousands of Chinese citizens labelled anti-Mao, intellectuals, or elitists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In 1966 Mao Zedong and his third wife, Jiang Qing (Chiang Ch'ing), launched what they called the Great Proletarian "Cultural

Revolution," and until roughly 1969 they effectively maintained China in a state of perpetual revolution toward the end of creating a pure Marxist society.
OUTCOME: The Red Guard's fervor came close to creating anarchy in China before Mao called off the revolution and turned to his army to restore order. Following Mao's death the "Gang of Four" briefly renewed this Cultural Revolution.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Not applicable
CASUALTIES: 25–35 million killed
TREATIES: None

By way of ousting Liu Shaoqi (Liu Shao-ch'i; 1898–1969), Mao Zedong (1893–1976) and Jiang Qing (c. 1914–91) engaged the Chinese nation in a frenzied debate on its political future. Once Mao regained his post as party chairman and head of state, he embarked on a headlong program to expunge every trace of traditional Chinese government and culture. The so-called Cultural Revolution created a mass army of radical Maoist students known as the Red Guards, who brought perpetual revolution to China and sought to re-create the experience and fervor of the Red Army's LONG MARCH of 1934–35. Receiving free rail passes, hundreds of thousands of militant young men and women flooded Beijing and paraded through Tiananmen Square. They competed for the fervor with which they denounced Mao's enemies, destroyed works of art and historical relics, abused intellectuals, burned books, and attacked elitists. They closed schools and universities, packing teachers off to be reeducated, and came close to shutting down the economy. The Red Guards even fought one another over doctrinal differences, and in the provinces various Chinese factions, especially in the south, took up arms one against the other. When the activities of the Red Guards assumed the dimensions of anarchy, Mao turned to the military, led by Lin Biao (Lin Piao; 1907–71), whose support he recruited by arranging to have him named his successor in the 1969 constitution of the Chinese Communist Party. By 1971 Lin Biao had effectively pacified the Red Guards but soon afterward was reported killed in a plane crash after having plotted to assassinate Mao.

In the spring of 1969, schools reopened, but the universities remained shuttered till the fall of 1970. With the Red Guards in their place and Lin Biao dead, Mao Zedong was again in control of China, but the experience had taught him the value of moderation. The same leader who had wanted to eliminate Chinese tradition on the one hand and Western influences on the other now made overtures to the United States in hopes of reestablishing diplomatic and economic relations. Mao even received President Richard M. Nixon (1913–94) in Beijing in 1972. They were important overtures, but the aging chairman failed to carry through on them when his health deteriorated rapidly during the early 1970s. He died in Beijing on September 9, 1976.

With Mao died also—for a time—the trend toward moderation. Mao's third wife, Jiang Qing, and her circle of intimates, derisively called the Gang of Four, leaders of the Cultural Revolution, attempted to seize power from Mao's immediate successor, Zhou Enlai (Chou Enlai; 1898–1976). The four were arrested and accused of the terrorist excesses of the Cultural Revolution. Tried in 1980 on charges that included attempting to overthrow the state, two "gang" members—Mao's widow and Zhang Chunqiao (Chang Ch'un-ch'iao; 1917–c. 91)—protested that they had only done Mao's bidding. Nevertheless, in January 1981 all four were found guilty. In the meantime, the man Mao had designated to succeed him, Hua Guofeng (Hua Kuo-Feng; b. 1921), also had been ousted from the government, and China came under control of genuine moderates.

The Cultural Revolution had been an astounding amalgam of contradictions. Like the Hundred Flowers Movement, its founding principles were constructive criticism and questioning of those in authority, but it produced an almost hypnotic mass personality cult, and the image of Mao Zedong was everywhere in places public and private, whereas his "little red book"—a collection called *Quotations from Chairman Mao*—was read, studied, and pored over by virtually every man, woman, and child in China. The book, the perpetual revolution (an idea with unacknowledged roots in the writings of Leon Trotsky [1879–1940]), and Mao's celebrity (recognized by that most astute student of celebrity, Andy Warhol [c. 1928–87], in a famous series of prints) had an impact on left-wing movements worldwide, especially in France and the United States, where posters of Mao became de rigueur for student radicals and appeared ubiquitously at public protests.

See also CHINESE CIVIL WAR (1927–1937); CHINESE CIVIL WAR (1945–1949); CHINESE REVOLUTION (1911–1912).

Further reading: Timothy Cheek, *Mao Zedong and China's Revolutions* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2002); John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Tang Tsou, *The Cultural Revolution and Post-Mao Reforms: A Historical Perspective* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1986); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese-French Wars

See SINO-FRENCH WAR.

Chinese-Korean War

See SINO-KOREAN WAR (610–614); SINO-KOREAN WAR (645–647); SINO-KOREAN WAR (660–668).

Chinese Revolts (1865–1881)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Anti-Western, bandit, and anti-Manchu rebels vs. the Manchu military
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Opposition to Manchu control
OUTCOME: The Manchu dynasty was at last able to suppress the rebellions by 1881.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Manchu forces in Xinjiang (Sinkiang), 100,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but half the Muslim population of Sinkiang was reportedly slain.
TREATIES: None

At the close of the first phase of the TAIPING REBELLION, widespread insurrections plagued the Manchu dynasty of China. Nian Fei, a bandit group, operated in Anhui (Anhwei), northern Jiangsu (Kiangsu), and Shandong (Shantung). A Muslim regime, opposed to Western and Christian influences in China, captured control at Tali in Yunnan.

In Xingiang, a Muslim tribal leader named Yakub Beg (1820–77) began ousting the Manchus in the mid-1860s. The Manchus dispatched an army of 100,000, which captured the Muslim capital of Urumchi on November 16, 1876, and a major Muslim stronghold at Turfan on May 16, 1877. After this, Yakub Beg surrendered, and the Siankiang rebellion was put down.

The Miao tribe uprising that began in Guizhou (Kweichow) in 1855 lasted until 1881, when it, like the other rebellions, was crushed by the Manchu military. The cost to the Manchus was great and could be ill afforded by a dynasty that needed to devote its resources to defeating the Taiping rebel regime in southern China and reuniting the empire.

Further reading: Jean Chesneaux, *Peasant Revolts in China 1840–1949* (New York: Norton, 1973); John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese Revolution (1911–1912)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chinese revolutionaries vs. the Qing (Ch'ing) dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South and central China
DECLARATION: None, though the nationalists declared a republic in December, 1911.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Chinese viewed the Manchu lords of the corrupt Qing dynasty as an army of occupation that had sold out their country to Western foreigners, and they fought to establish a nationalist Chinese republic.
OUTCOME: The Qing dynasty was ousted and a weak republic established that quickly led to feuding between powerful warlords.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: The last emperor's (Puyi, P'u-yi) declaration of abdication on February 12, 1912

In 1911 Dr. Sun Yat-sen (Sun Yixian or Sun I'hsien; 1866–1925), who would become known as the father of modern China, returned from his 16-year exile to take charge of a growing mutiny in the imperial army of the last Manchu ruler in the Qing dynasty (1644–1911) and to turn it into a full-fledged revolution. The first Chinese republic in history, which closed the book on 2,000 years of imperial rule, itself proved to be much shorter-lived, disintegrating into a chaos from which China would not truly emerge until the communists took charge of the mainland in 1949.

In 1907, four years before the Chinese Revolution, Sun, leader-in-exile of the Revolutionary Alliance, outlined his democratic program to a meeting of 5,000 revolution-minded students in Tokyo. Sun wanted a national China in which all citizens enjoyed freedom and equality; he called for a popular sovereignty under which the Chinese would garner the right of self-government; and he introduced what he called the doctrine of livelihood, a call for land and capital to be equitably distributed among China's masses. China's revolutionary elite greeted Sun Yat-sen's plans with guarded support, but students by the thousands rushed to join his Revolutionary Alliance.

The corrupt and tottering Qing dynasty's elite were called Manchus because they originally came from Manchuria, and—despite nearly two and a half centuries of rule in China—they were still considered by many Chinese to be aliens. Chinese radicals despised the dynasty supported by its army of occupation, which in reality had become a corps of inefficient pensionaries, and blamed the Manchus for selling their country out to the major European powers. Over the course of the 19th century, the West had taken control of China's seaports and gained concessions to build its railroads, roads, and mines. Meanwhile, the Manchus continued their lives of comparative idleness. To the Chinese suffering under the social dislocations of a forced economic development (*see* BOXER REBELLION), it appeared that the Western powers had not merely stolen their country but had destroyed their ancient culture with drugs and money (*see* OPIUM WARS). At the same time, new public and private schools, some missionary-spawned, introduced students to Western ideas and produced graduates who demanded political freedom and economic improvement for themselves and their fellows. Seething with political unrest and social turmoil, China in the first decade of the 20th century was fertile

ground for revolution, secret societies sprang up everywhere calling for a nationalist revolt, and Chinese radicals living in Japan and the United States sent money home to finance reform, resistance, and rebellion.

The Qing elite were not totally impervious to the turmoil; they tried a few reforms. But the aging and isolated dowager empress, Cixi (Tz'u Hsi; 1834–1908), totally out of touch with quotidian life in China, abruptly canceled them. When she died the dynasty had lost its last able leader and fell into the weak hands of a defenseless boy-emperor named Puyi (1906–67). His advisers made a last ditch effort to save the dynasty by introducing constitutional reforms, but given the determination of Sun Yat-sen and the other Chinese radicals to bring down the government, the move was too little too late.

On April 5, 1911, a group of foreign bankers representing four Western powers signed an agreement on a loan for the construction of rail lines on the Hukwang Railroad in central China. The Beijing government decided to take over from a local company the operation of a line through Sichuan (Szechwan), on which construction had barely begun, and to apply part of the foreign bank loan to its completion. The sum Beijing offered did not meet the demands of stockholders, and in September 1911 dissatisfaction with this latest Manchu racket boiled over into open revolt. The nationalist Revolutionary Alliance made its presence known when an explosion rocked the city of Hankou on October 10. The Manchus immediately arrested and executed the leaders of the plot. Across the river in Wuchang, a city in the central China province of Wuhan, dissident army soldiers who knew about the plot and feared they would be implicated seized the mint and arsenal on October 10, which would become celebrated in China as the day of the "Double Ten." They persuaded a brigade commander, Li Yuanhong (Li Yuan-hung; 1864–1928), to lead a rebellion, sacked the governor's residence, and took control of the city.

Li's sudden shift of allegiance from the Manchus to the rebels fed the mutiny, sparking uprisings all over China as city after city declared against the Manchus. Given the alienation of the Qing royal court from much of Chinese society, it was difficult for the Manchus to raise an army to put down the mutineers. A panic-stricken regent recalled the Assembly, an advisory body of appointed and elected leaders, which immediately demanded the adoption of a constitution and turned to the retired general and former vice-regent Yuan Shikai (Yuan Shih-kai; 1859–1916) to save the dynasty. In November he was elected premier.

Had Yuan acted quickly and decisively he might indeed have suppressed the uprising and rescued the dynasty by at least delaying the inevitable. Instead, he dallied in the north, building his army and making sure of his support among imperial commanders. Meanwhile, archradical Sun Yat-sen had hurried home from a lecture and fund-raising trip to America to take command of what he was now calling a revolution. By the end of the year, 14 provinces, mostly in south and central China, had declared against the Qing. In several cities the revolutionaries had massacred Manchu garrisons, and they had forced the prince-regent out of office. In December 1911 the revolutionaries convened a congress at Nanjing and elected Sun president of the new republic in South China declared by the convention.

Sun recognized that Yuan, who retained the loyalty of most of the army's officers in North China, who had retaken several cities from the revolutionaries, and who had ordered that the revolution should stop, was a powerful force to be reckoned with. Casting a cold eye on the frailty of his divided nation, the head of the provisional government on January 1, 1912, offered the presidency to the general on the condition that he force the boy emperor to abdicate and dissolve the dynasty. Yuan, the organizer of China's "modern" army who had no deep love for the Manchus and was happy to run the country himself, immediately agreed. He marched into the Forbidden City, intimidated the hapless Puyi, and demanded that the last emperor step down. On February 12, 1912, Puyi formally resigned, issuing a proclamation that transferred the government to the people's representatives, declared that the constitution should henceforth be republican, and gave Yuan full powers to organize a provisional government. In return the Nanjing leaders agreed that Puyi was to retain his title of emperor for life and receive a large pension. The next day Sun Yat-sen stepped aside; Yuan Shikai was now president of the whole of China. The revolutionary general Li became his vice president. By March 1912 the Nanjing parliament had promulgated a provisional constitution, and in April the government was moved to Beijing.

For many Chinese it all had seemed to happen very fast and with comparative ease, but almost instantly the general betrayed Sun Yat-sen. When Sun's Nationalist Party, the Kuomintang (KMT; Guomindang)), won a breathtaking majority in China's first parliamentary elections, Yuan balked. Attempting to seize unilateral control of the government, the general outlawed the KMT, forced Sun yet again into Japanese exile, and dissolved parliament. But Yuan had a fight on his hands against the Kuomintang nationalists. In 1915, when Yuan announced his plan to reestablish the empire with himself on the throne, rebellion broke out in Yunnan and spread throughout China. By early 1916 Sun Yat-sen had mounted an armed revolt, backed by the Japanese government, against the self-declared dictator. Sun encouraged restive warlords to declare the provinces under their control independent of Yuan's republic, and many did. Then in March 1916 civilian as well as military interests refused to support him, and the aging general, exhausted and disenchanted, succumbed to illness two months later.

Sun Yat-sen found it more difficult than he had imagined to control the warlords he had unleashed. In the absence of a strong constitutional tradition, Sun could not regain the presidency, and he replaced Yuan with Li Yuan-hong. But, dissatisfied with Li's parliamentary government,

the northern military governors (*tuchuns*) revolted and established a rival government at Tianjin (Tientsin) in the summer of 1917. One of them, Zhang Xun (Chang Hsun; fl. 1917), pretending to mediate with Li, overthrew the Beijing government and briefly reinstated the Manchu dynasty from July 1–12, 1917. His military colleagues, however, turned on him, occupied Beijing, overthrew the "empire" yet again, forced Li to resign, and installed Feng Guozhang (Feng Kuo-chang; d. 1920) as the new president. Over the next decade the *tuchuns* and various Chinese generals became almost completely independent of nominal central authority. They executed a series of complicated internecine struggles while the republic grew weaker and weaker. The nation plunged into a chaos of feuding warlords fighting for control of a China that would spend the next 33 years searching for true political stability.

See also CHINESE CIVIL WAR (1930–1934); CHINESE CIVIL WAR (1945–1949); CHINESE CULTURAL REVOLUTION.

Further reading: Jean Chesneaux, *Peasant Revolts in China 1840–1949* (New York: Norton, 1973); John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Eto Shinkichi and Harold Z. Schiffrin, eds., *China's Republican Revolution* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1994); Eto Shinkichi, ed., *The 1911 Revolution in China: Interpretive Essays* (Tokyo: University of Tokyo Press, 1984); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese-Tibetan War

See SINO-TIBETAN WAR (641).

Chinese (Tong) Wars (mid-1850s)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rival Chinese workers under the control of Chinese district companies or "benevolent" societies
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The California gold field region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rivalry for jobs controlled by different companies and, sometimes, long-standing Chinese clan or village rivalries
OUTCOME: The formation of the Six Companies to control Chinese working life in the American West
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 2,500
CASUALTIES: Fewer than 100
TREATIES: None

In the mid-1850s California newspapers coined the phrase *Chinese wars* (sometimes called the "Chinese Tong Wars" or "Tong Wars") to describe the pitched battles of the Chinese district companies fighting for control of Chinese immigrants. The companies consisted of merchants who paid for the immigrants' passage from China and acted as controlling benevolent institutions once the immigrants arrived in America. They provided some of the structure of home in a hostile, foreign setting, and regimented the immigrant-debtors to ensure they worked for their merchant-creditors.

In any work camp of the mining regions, the overseer of a district company faced hostility from white miners and fierce rivalry from competing district companies for the places vacated by white miners. When compromises failed, battles erupted. At times those fights continued as traditional clan (*tong*) and village rivalries. Few white outsiders understood the hostilities; some regarded them as extensions of the campaigns between Taiping rebels and imperial armies (*see* TAIPING REBELLION).

Various lengthy preparations usually preceded the battles in the gold fields. Most Trinity County blacksmiths spent the summer of 1854 forging weapons for the first war at Weaverville. In other skirmishes rifles, revolvers, and knives substituted for traditional armament. Campaigns of intimidation raised the martial spirit and morale of competing district companies.

In the mining areas armies consisted of about 200 men, but in May 1854 a proposed battle at Jackson in Calaveras County attracted 2,000 Chinese before the sheriff arrested the leaders and prevented bloodshed. Near Kentucky Ranch in Tuolumne County in October 1856, 2,500 fighters of competing district companies clashed. Skirmishes in Nevada City, Sacramento, and San Francisco seldom involved more than 200 participants, with the exception of a great melee on Sacramento's I Street in September 1854, which involved 600 fighters.

No account lists more than 21 killed in any of the Chinese wars. After the first war at Weaverville in July 1854, one newspaper reported 10 dead and 12 severely wounded; another counted 21 dead. In the second war in Weaverville in April 1857, eight died; in the third in April 1858, one died. At the beginning of the 1860s, a coordinating council that dealt with the general affairs of the district companies gained prominence. Administered by the headmen of each company, the organization became known to Americans as the Chinese Six Companies. Until the 1960s the companies controlled to a considerable degree life and labor in the Chinatowns of the United States.

Further reading: Herbert Asbury, *The Barbary Coast: An Informal History of the San Francisco Underworld* (New York: Avalon, 2002); Peter L. Huston, *Tongs, Gangs, and Triads: Chinese Crime Groups in North America* (Lincoln, Neb.: iUniverse, 2001).

Chinese Wars with the Eastern Turks (629–641)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Chinese Tang dynasty vs. the Eastern Turks of the present-day Inner Mongolia region
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern China

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In an attempt to defeat the northern barbarians, the new ruler of the Tang dynasty, Taizong (T'ai Tsung), supported the revolt of various tribes in the Eastern Turkish kingdom.
OUTCOME: Taizong crushed the Eastern Turks.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Taizong (r. 627–649) succeeded his father Gaozu (Kao Tsu; r. 618–627) as emperor of China, he was faced with almost constant threats to his power. To the north the Eastern Turks had been growing more powerful and were threatening the border with China. Before undertaking an all-out strike against the Eastern Turks, Taizong reorganized his military operations. He strengthened his militia units and ordered them to receive periodic training and serve rotating stints with the imperial guard. When discontented tribes in the Eastern Turk region rose against Hie-li, the Turkish king, Taizong sent his powerful army to the north in support of the rebels. Over the course of 10 years of punitive expeditions, Taizong destroyed the khanate. Many of the defeated Turkish troops were incorporated into the Chinese army. China was the unrivaled power in northern, central, and eastern Asia by the middle of the seventh century.

See also CHINESE WAR WITH THE WESTERN TURKS, FIRST.

Further reading: John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Gale Group, *Imperial China, 617–1644,* vol. 3 (Detroit: Gale Research, 2002); Valerie Hansen, *History of Early China to 1600: The Open Empire* (New York: Norton, 2000); Kurt A. Raaflaub and Nathan S. Rosenstein, eds., *War and Society in the Ancient and Medieval Worlds: Asia, the Mediterranean, Europe, and MesoAmerica* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2000); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese War with Koxinga *See* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR (1652–1662).

Chinese War with Nanchao (751–774)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Shan vs. the Chinese
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Present-day Yunnan and southern Sichuan (Szechwan) in southern China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Shan king declared his independence from China.
OUTCOME: The Chinese emperor was unable to put down the Shan rebellion and recognized Shan as an independent state.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the eighth century the Shan, a Thai racial group, occupied the area of present-day Yunnan and southern Sichuan in southern China and acknowledged the suzerainty of China. In 733 a Shan prince, Pi-lo-ko (P'i-Lo-Ko; fl. eighth century), declared himself king of Nanzhao (Nanchao). The emperor Xuanzong (Hsuan-tsung; r. 713–755) acknowledged his title and accepted tribute from the king. The succeeding king of Nanzhao, however, denied his kingdom's dependence on China. Emperor Suzong (Su Tsung; r. 756–762) sent his army to the area but did not succeed in quelling the rebellion. China recognized Nanzhao as an independent state in 774.

Further reading: John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); David Andrew Graff, *Medieval Chinese Warfare, 300–900* (New York: Routledge, 2002); Valerie Hansen, *History of Early China to 1600: The Open Empire* (New York: Norton, 2000); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese War with the Khitans (979–1004)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Song (Sung) dynasty (Chinese) vs. the Khitans (Liao dynasty)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northeastern China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Song sought to regain the northeastern territories from the Khitans.
OUTCOME: The long war saw gradual Song gains; ultimately, the Song recovered a substantial portion of the northeast.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Shanyuan, 1004

By 950 the Mongol tribe known as the Khitans overran and occupied most of China as far south as the Huang Ho (Yellow) River and set up the Liao dynasty. In 960 Zhao Kuangyin (Chao K'uang-yin; r. 960–975) founded the Song dynasty as Emperor Taizu (T'ai-tsu; r. 960–975), and, beginning in 979, successive Song rulers campaigned

to regain the northeastern territories that had been lost to the Liao, or Khitans. Specifically, the Song targeted Zhili (Chili) and Shanxi (Shansi) Provinces for recovery.

The Song attacked Beijing in 979 but failed to take the city. It was not until 986 that the Song reconquered a portion of southern Zhili and most of northern Shanxi. After this gain, however, the war continued in desultory fashion, first one side gaining the upper hand, then the other. On balance, the Song made gradual gains, so that by 1004 much of northeastern China had been retaken. The Khitans agreed to the Treaty of Shanyuan in 1004, evacuating southern Zhili in exchange for possession of the northern portion of Shanxi and a tribute of 100,000 ounces of silver and 200,000 rolls of silk annually.

Further reading: John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); David Andrew Graff, *Medieval Chinese Warfare, 300–900* (New York: Routledge, 2002); Valerie Hansen, *History of Early China to 1600: The Open Empire* (New York: Norton, 2000); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese War with the Tanguts, First (990–1003)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Song (Sung) dynasty of China vs. the Tanguts
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Tanguts declared their independence from China and created a kingdom known as the Xixia (Hsi-Hsia) or Western Xia.
OUTCOME: The Chinese were unable to put down the Tangut rebellion, and an uneasy peace ensued.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 990, 30 years after the founding of the Song dynasty in China, a people known as the Tanguts declared their independence from the dynasty's rule. A seminomadic people, the Tanguts occupied the area north of the Great Wall. They named their kingdom Xixia or Western Xia. Acknowledged by the Khitans, a Mongol people occupying most of northeastern China, the Tanguts maintained an uneasy peace with the Chinese until 1040, at the outbreak of the Second Chinese War with the Tanguts.

Further reading: John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); David Andrew Graff, *Medieval Chinese Warfare, 300–900* (New York: Routledge, 2002); Valerie Hansen, *History of Early China to 1600: The Open Empire* (New York: Norton, 2000); Kurt A. Raaflaub and Nathan S. Rosenstein, eds., *War and Society in the Ancient and Medieval Worlds: Asia, the Mediterranean, Europe, and MesoAmerica* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2000); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese War with the Tanguts, Second (1040–1043)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Chinese vs. the Tanguts of Xixia (Hsi-Hsia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Tanguts of Xixia invaded the Song (Sung) dynasty in an attempt to conquer the entire region.
OUTCOME: The Song army pushed the Tanguts back across the northern border and maintained peace through payment of an annual tribute.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Having won independence from the Song dynasty of China in the First Chinese War with the Tanguts (990–1003), the Tanguts of Xixia invaded China in an attempt to conquer the entire empire. With help from the Uighars of Xinjiang (Sinkiang), the Song army pushed the Tanguts back to the north. The Chinese emperor Zhao Zhen (Chao Chen; r. 1023–63) agreed to pay an annual tribute to the Xixia ruler Li Yuanhao (1003–48) in exchange for nominal vassalage in China.

Further reading: John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Valerie Hansen, *History of Early China to 1600: The Open Empire* (New York: Norton, 2000); Kurt A. Raaflaub and Nathan S. Rosenstein, eds., *War and Society in the Ancient and Medieval Worlds: Asia, the Mediterranean, Europe, and MesoAmerica* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2000); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese War with the Western Turks, First (641–648)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Chinese Tang dynasty vs. the Western Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Asia

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Emperor Taizong (T'ai-tsung) wanted to protect the trade routes connecting China to the West from marauding Western Turks.
OUTCOME: Taizong drove the Western Turks from their positions in Central Asia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Taizong (r. 627–49) subdued the Eastern Turks in present-day Inner Mongolia, he turned his attention to the Western Turks of Central Asia. The Western Turks had gained control of the Oxus region and parts of Khorasan in about 622. Using much the same tactics he had used with the Eastern Turks—stirring up dissent among the various tribes—he sent his powerful and fearsome cavalry to Central Asia and drove the Western Turks out of the region. His goal was to protect trade routes connecting China to the West, and to do so he enlisted the aid of the Uighur tribes.

See also CHINESE WARS WITH THE EASTERN TURKS.

Further reading: John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Gale Group, *Imperial China, 617–1644,* vol. 3 (Detroit: Gale Research, 2002); David Andrew Graff, *Medieval Chinese Warfare, 300–900* (New York: Routledge, 2002); Valerie Hansen, *History of Early China to 1600: The Open Empire* (New York: Norton, 2000); Kurt A. Raaflaub and Nathan S. Rosenstein, eds., *War and Society in the Ancient and Medieval Worlds: Asia, the Mediterranean, Europe, and MesoAmerica* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2000); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chinese War with the Western Turks, Second (657–659)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Chinese Tang dynasty vs. the Western Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Asia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Emperor Gaozong (Kao-tsung) sought to confirm his control over Central Asia by subduing the Western Turks.
OUTCOME: Gaozong's forces captured the khan and crushed the Western Turks.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Gaozong (628–83) came to power as the third emperor of the Tang dynasty, he continued to expand his reach. One of the first problems he had to deal with was a revolt among the Western Turks, whom Taizong (T'ai-tsung; 600–49) had subdued in 641. Fought in the steppes of Central Asia, this war involved nomad militia and cavalry loyal to the Chinese, particularly the Uighur tribes. These forces pushed the Western Turks beyond the Pamirs region and from present-day Afghanistan. The Tang dynasty then had strong control over the Oxus valley region, but this control lasted only until the Tibetan revolts of 663 to 683, when the Chinese met with military failures and the Western and Eastern Turks freed themselves from Chinese domination.

See also CHINESE WARS WITH THE EASTERN TURKS; CHINESE WAR WITH THE WESTERN TURKS, FIRST.

Further reading: John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1998); Gale Group, *Imperial China, 617–1644,* vol. 3 (Detroit: Gale Research, 2002); David Andrew Graff, *Medieval Chinese Warfare, 300–900* (New York: Routledge, 2002); Valerie Hansen, *History of Early China to 1600: The Open Empire* (New York: Norton, 2000); Kurt A. Raaflaub and Nathan S. Rosenstein, eds., *War and Society in the Ancient and Medieval Worlds: Asia, the Mediterranean, Europe, and MesoAmerica* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2000); Denis Twitchett and John K. Fairbank, eds., *The Cambridge History of China* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

Chioggia, War of (1378–1381)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice vs. Genoa (in alliance with Hungary and Padua)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chioggia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Venice's trade rivals, especially arch enemy Genoa, wished to temper the city's aggression and diminish its influence while aggrandizing their own.
OUTCOME: Venice endured as a great maritime trading power.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Turin, 1381

Venice and Genoa were ruthless and determined rivals in trade, having fought the VENETIAN-GENOESE WAR (1350–1355) over trade issues and now renewing the conflict in the War of Chioggia. The Genoese mustered a formidable roster of allies. The king of Hungary, who had already won control of Dalmatia from Venice, agreed to

shelter and support the Genoese fleet. In 1379 Hungarian troops also presented a threat to Venice by land from the north. Padua was another ally. Its army severed Venice's communications to the west. Beset by Hungary and Padua in addition to Genoa, the ever-aggressive Venetians had made the mistake of sending one of their large fleets to raid and prey upon Genoese shipping and ports in the eastern Mediterranean. This left Venice with a significantly weakened fleet for home defense—a fact that did not go unnoticed. In the summer of 1379, the Genoese fleet made a surprise appearance and moved quickly to blockade the entrances to the Venetian lagoon. By mid-August the Genoese forces had been joined by those of Hungary and Padua, so that Venice was encircled.

Now the Genoese fleet attacked swiftly at the south end of the lagoon, bringing its fleet into the channels of the lagoon, then with its allies attacking Chioggia, which soon fell. From here the capture and destruction of Venice seemed an inevitable next step. However, on December 22, 1379, the Venetians launched a diversionary attack on Chioggia, then, while the Genoese were occupied in resisting this apparent attempt to retake the settlement, they used the cover of darkness to submerge obstructions, closing off every channel the Genoese fleet could use to escape from the cul-de-sac at Chioggia. When the Venetian galley fleet, which had been on the raiding expedition in the Mediterranean, returned to Venice on January 1, 1380, it was an easy matter to encircle the trapped Genoese. Over the next several months the two sides skirmished as the Genoese attempted to clear a channel of escape. The Venetians impeded this activity by continually firing on the Genoese. Finally, in June 1380 the entire Genoese fleet, effectively held under siege and now on the verge of starvation, surrendered, and 4,000 Genoese sailors were taken prisoner.

The spectacular turn-about Venetian victory at Chioggia prompted the signing of the Peace of Turin in 1381. The treaty gained no territory from Genoa or any of its allies, but it did put an end to Genoa's challenge against Venetian maritime superiority. If Venice did not ultimately triumph over Genoa, it at least earned the right to survive and to continue as a great Mediterranean trading power.

Further reading: John Jeffries Martin and Dennis Romano, eds., *Venice Reconsidered: The History and Civilization of an Italian City-State, 1297–1797* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2003); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1989).

Chitral Campaign (1895)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chitrali tribespeople vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chitral (northern Pakistan area)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Chitrals resisted British colonial domination.
OUTCOME: Chitral was formally annexed to British India.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Britain, 16,000; Chitral, 12,000
CASUALTIES: Chitrali losses, about 600 killed or wounded; British losses negligible
TREATIES: None

On March 3, 1895, a small military detachment (100 men of the 14th Sikhs and 300 Kashmiris under a half-dozen British officers) was attacked by hostile mountain tribesmen while it was en route to Chitral, a British fort on India's Northwest Frontier. On March 4 Chitral itself fell under siege by some 10,000 tribesmen. The Chitral garrison consisted of 543 people, including 343 effective troops, of whom 83 were Sikhs. When word of the siege reached the British government at Peshawar, a relief force of 15,000 men was sent on the march. The force reached the Malakand Pass on April 3, where it sent some 12,000 Chitralis into disorganized retreat. In this engagement about 500 Chitralis were killed or wounded, while the Anglo-Indian relief column sustained 69 killed or wounded.

On April 7 the Anglo-Indian forces engaged about 4,500 tribesmen at Chakdara, while a smaller force of 383 Sikh Pioneers, 34 Kashmiri sappers, 100 Kashmiri infantry, 100 Hunza militiamen, and two seven-pounder cannons fought mountain tribesmen and closed in on Chitral. On April 20 this force built a bridge across a deep gorge, marched over it, then fought through 220 miles in 28 days to relieve Chitral.

Further reading: George Scott-Robertson, *Chitral: The Story of a Minor Siege* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1977).

Chmielnicki's Revolt (1648–1654)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ukrainian rebels under Hetman Bogdan Chmielnicki vs. Polish overlords of the Ukraine
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ukraine and Poland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chmielnicki sought Ukrainian independence from Poland.
OUTCOME: Despite early successes, a strong Polish counteroffensive suppressed the rebellion and drove the Cossacks into the Russian camp, thereby precipitating the Russo-Polish War of 1654–1656.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Poland, 150,000 (some authorities put it at 100,000); Chmielnicki's forces, 200,000 (some authorities say 300,000) mixed Cossacks and Tartars

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Provisional treaty of 1649; Russo-Cossack treaty of 1654

King Ladislas IV (r. 1632–48) of Poland ruled the Ukraine with an iron fist, which led to the festering hatred of the Poles by the local peasantry and the Cossacks. When the Cossacks raided and rebelled, Ladislas established a chain of fortresses in the Ukraine. He used these facilities to enforce an even more brutal and repressive reign, taking many captives, then slaughtering them, and repealing virtually all measures of autonomy in the region. Eventually, Ladislas stationed so many Polish troops in the Ukraine that the once-proud Cossacks were reduced to a state of virtual serfdom.

Out of this situation arose Hetman Bogdan Chmielnicki (1595–1657), a wealthy Ukrainian landowner, who, like many of his fellows, suffered Polish usurpation of many of his holdings. When he protested to the Polish governor, he was rebuffed and insulted, and his family was threatened. Outraged and desperate, Chmielnicki recruited rebels from among the Cossacks and led them in revolt. This proved the match that touched off a general explosion. Throughout the Ukraine peasants, Cossacks, and gentrymen rose up against the Polish overlord. Chmielnicki soon found himself at the head of an army of Tartars, peasants, and skilled Cossack warriors. They swept through the ranks and fortresses of the Polish invaders, then advanced into Poland itself, penetrating as far as Lvov during 1648–49.

During the height of the revolt, in 1648, Ladislas IV died and was succeeded by John II Casimir (1609–72), who wisely sued for peace. However, his offers to negotiate inspired a revolt among the Polish nobility. This threw Poland into sufficient chaos that Chmielnicki's army was able to advance beyond Lvov and lay siege to the town of Zborow. Chmielnicki's greatest victory came at Pilawce in 1649, when he resisted a Polish army of 36,000. Later that year, a provisional treaty was concluded between Chmielnicki's forces and Poland. The Poles acknowledged Chmielnicki hetman (chief) of the Cossacks, and the Polish king further agreed to guarantee certain Ukrainian rights and liberties. However, when Chmielnicki moved to install his son as ruler of Moldavia, the Poles renewed the war in a major way.

In 1651 John II Casimir led an army of 34,000 men against a larger force of Tartars, Cossacks, Wallachians, and Lithuanians (200,000–300,000 men) under the command of Chmielnicki. At the Battle of Beresteczko in July 1651, despite his superiority of numbers, Chmielnicki lost heavily. The Cossack faction of his army immediately sued for peace. Chmielnicki himself and a loyal core of followers were determined to carry on the fight for independence from Poland and made an alliance with Russia. Ultimately, in 1654, a Russo-Cossack treaty was concluded, by which the Ukrainians—rather than admit defeat to the hated Poles—accepted czarist rule over the country in preference to Polish sovereignty. This transformed the Ukrainian revolt against Poland into the Russo-Polish War (1654–1656).

Further reading: Anna Reid, *Borderland: A Journey through the History of the Ukraine* (Denver: Westview, 2000); Orest Subtelny, *Ukraine: A History* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2000).

Cholan-Pandyan War (c. 910)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chola vs. Pandya
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Contest over territories Chola had seized from the Pallava dynasty
OUTCOME: Chola pushed the Pandyas out of the former Pallavan lands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Chola was established in southern India by Vijayalaya, who captured Tanjore in 850. Under King Parantaka I (fl. 907–953) the Cholan Empire was enlarged northward at the expense of the Pallava dynasty, whose territories Parantaka seized. These lands were also targeted by rulers of the Pandya dynasty, based in southern India and allied to the central Indian Ganga dynasty. Cholan forces had little difficulty pushing the Pandyas out of the former Pallavan lands. This conquest put Chola in a position to gain hegemony over most of the southern tip of India. Having acquired an extensive coastline, Chola departed from the customarily insular orientation of most Indian dynasties and adopted a maritime policy, which led later to the conquest of Sri Lanka and the Maldives. The conquest of southern India was essentially accomplished during 926–942, but the height of Chola power was not achieved until the reigns of Rajaraja during 985–1014 and his son Rajendra I, who reigned from 1014 to 1044.

Further reading: Brajadulal D. Chattopadhyaya, *Making of Early Medieval India* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1994); André Wink, *Early Medieval India and the Expansion of Islam 7th–11th Centuries,* vol. 1 (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill Academic Books, 2002).

Chremonidean War (266–262 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sparta and Athens (with Egyptian and Epirote support) vs. Macedonia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peloponnese

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The liberation of Greece from domination by Macedonia
OUTCOME: Macedonia remained dominant over Greece.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Antigonus II Gonatus (c. 319–239 B.C.E.), king of Macedonia, rebuilt his kingdom's power and through a series of conquests gained hegemony over Greece. The death of King Pyrrhus (c. 318–272 B.C.E.) of Epirus at Argos in 272 left Antigonus in absolute control over Macedonia. A master diplomat, Antigonus also gained control of the Thessalian League and established friendly relations with neighboring Illyria and Thrace. In Greece he maintained control by occupying Corinth, Chalcis on Euboea, and Demetrias in Thessaly. He also threw his support behind pro-Macedonian factions in several cities in the Peloponnese, and he fostered the rise to power of compliant tyrants in Sicyon, Argos, Elis, and Megalopolis. However, Antigonus realized that to keep Greece in complete subjugation, he needed to control the Aegean Sea. Recognizing the danger such control represented, King Areus (r. 309–265) of Sparta and Chremonides of Athens declared war against Macedonia for the liberation of Greece. Their alliance had been urged and promoted by Ptolemy II (c. 285–246) of Egypt, who supplied Sparta and Athens with money and grain to support the anti-Macedonian coalition in Greece. Epirus also figured in the alliance.

Chremonides declared war in 267. Although Antigonus II did not want to fight, he realized that preemptive action would be most effective, and instead of mounting a defense, he struck first, before the allies could organize a simultaneous attack on him. He invaded Attica in 266, then defeated the Spartans in 265. In 264 Epirus mounted an invasion of Macedonia, which Antigonus withstood and ultimately expelled. Macedonia also weathered a maritime blockade by the Egyptian fleet. Ptolemy abandoned this in 263, whereupon Antigonus led an attack on Athens, which surrendered in 262. With this, the Spartan-Athenian-Epirote-Egyptian alliance was broken, and Macedonia was again dominant in Greece. The region was at peace for a decade, although Antigonus did retaliate against Egypt by supporting the Syrian-based Seleucids in their wars against the Ptolemies.

See also DIADOCHI, WARS OF THE.

Further reading: Nicholas G. L. Hammond, *Macedonian State: Origins, Institutions, and History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1993).

Christians' Revolt in Japan

See SHIMABARA REVOLT.

Cid's Conquest of Valencia, The (1089–1094)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Christian-Moorish army of El Cid (the Cid) Campeador vs. the independent kingdom of Valencia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Valencia, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Cid Campeador sought to gain control of the kingdom of Valencia.
OUTCOME: The Cid was successful in conquering Valencia, which remained under his control until his death in 1099.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the 11th century Spain continued its slow process of Christian reconquest. Internal strife and the constant changing of hands from Christian to Muslim control brought about the creation of independent kingdoms, principalities, and emirates. One such kingdom was Valencia, upon which Rodrigo Díaz de Vivar, better known as El Cid Campeador (c. 1040–99), set his sights. Having been banished by King Alfonso VI (1030–1109) of Castile, who grew jealous of his popularity, the Cid joined up with the Moorish emir of Saragossa and defeated the Christian rulers of Barcelona and Aragon. After Alfonso's defeat in 1088 at the hands of the Almoravids of Morocco, he pardoned the Cid and called him back to restore his military forces. This reunion lasted only a short time, and the Cid was once again banished in 1089. Wanting to gain control of Valencia, the Cid raised a private army made up of both Christians and Muslims. With the aid of the Almoravids, the Valencians rebelled against their ruler, al-Kadir (d. 1092). The Cid invested the city immediately to keep the Almoravids from taking control. After a 20-month siege the Valencians surrendered on June 17, 1094, and the Cid became the kingdom's new ruler. He remained in power until his death in 1099. The Almoravids reconquered Valencia in 1102.

See also ALMORAVID CONQUEST OF MUSLIM SPAIN.

Further reading: Simon Barton and R. A. Fletcher, eds., *World of El Cid: Chronicles of the Spanish Reconquest* (Manchester, U.K.: Manchester University Press, 2001); Bernard F. Reilly, *Conquest of Christian and Muslim Spain, 1031–1157* (London: Blackwell, 1995).

Cimmerian Invasion of Phrygia (696–695 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Cimmerians vs. the kingdom of Phrygia in Anatolia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia (Turkey)
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Cimmerians, originally of the Caucasus region, were searching for a homeland, having been driven from their territory by the Scythians.
OUTCOME: The Cimmerians destroyed the capital of Phrygia and took control of the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Having been driven from the Caucasus region by the advance of the Scythians, the Cimmerians were pushed into Anatolia, or Turkey, in the eighth century B.C.E. In search of a homeland, the Cimmerians invaded the kingdom of Phrygia in central Anatolia, destroyed its capital of Gordium, and caused its king, Midas (c. 736–c. 696 B.C.E.), to commit suicide. The kingdom of Phrygia ceased to exist as a political entity. Eventually the Scythians again drove the Cimmerians out of their territory, this time into Cappadocia.

Further reading: Charles Burney and David Marshall Lang, *The Peoples of the Hills: Ancient Ararat and Caucasus* (New York: Sterling, 2001).

Ciompi, Revolt of the (1378)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: *Ciompi* and other radical factions vs. Florentine ruling class
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Florence
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Effort to organize and give voice to lower-class workers of Florence
OUTCOME: The *ciompi* established a short-lived reform government, which soon collapsed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but light
TREATIES: None

Ciompi is the Italian word for wool carders, who in 14th-century Florence were the most radical among the poor who staged a revolt against the repressive rule of the conservative, privileged classes of Florence. Florentine commerce—and, in large measure, government—was regulated by the various ruling trade guilds. When the impoverished wool carders were denied permission to organize a guild of their own, they called upon lower-class, unorganized workers to rebel. The action began in late June and continued through July. During this period the *ciompi* and others petitioned the Signoria, the executive council of Florence, for the establishment of a more equitable fiscal policy as well as the right to establish guilds. The Signoria proving unresponsive, the rebellious lower classes seized the government by force in a coup of July 22, 1378. They elevated to the key office of *gonfaloniere* of justice a carder named Michele di Lando (1343–1401). Thus, a new government controlled by the minor guilds and unorganized lower-class workers was established. The *ciompi* and others were raised to guild status.

Both the new government and the popular euphoria surrounding it were short-lived. The political upheaval brought economic disaster, and the lot of the *ciompi* and their allies, desperately poor to begin with, now worsened. The new government was powerless to help. Among the minor guilds and the *ciompi* dissension increased, and the minor guilds united with the major guilds against the *ciompi*. On August 31 forces of the minor and major guilds attacked *ciompi* gathered in the Piazza della Signoria. The *ciompi* were routed in an event that heralded their end. The *ciompi* guild was abolished, and amid sporadic rioting the dominance of the major guilds was gradually reestablished by 1382.

Further reading: Leonardo Bruni, *History of the Florentine People,* vol. 1 (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2001); Ferdinand Schevill, *History of Florence: From the Founding of the City through the Renaissance* (New York: Continuum International, 1961).

Civil War of (Portuguese) Succession

See SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1580–1589).

Claiborne's Rebellion (1644–1646)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Virginia vs. Maryland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Maryland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dispute over possession of Kent Island
OUTCOME: Supported by Virginia, Claiborne led a two-year takeover of Maryland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Minimal
TREATIES: None; order of Oliver Cromwell issued in 1657 officially restoring Calvert government to Maryland

Claiborne's Rebellion was really a series of disturbances sparked when William Claiborne (d. 1677 or 1678), a Virginia fur trader and political official (he was twice secretary of state for Virginia), refused to yield to the authority of Leonard Calvert (1606–47), the governor of Maryland, in disputes over certain Crown grants of land. Claiborne had come to Virginia from England in 1621 and commenced exploration of the Chesapeake Bay. He established

himself in 1631 on Kent Island, where he set up a lucrative fur trading operation. Although Kent Island was part of the 1609 land patent granted to Virginia, a charter issued to the Calvert family in 1632 designated Kent Island as lying within the boundaries of Maryland. Hostilities between Maryland and Virginia, intermittent over the issue, culminated in Maryland's seizure of Kent Island in 1637, and Claiborne was forced to leave the island. In 1644, however, he organized some Puritan Marylanders and other anti-Catholics in a revolt against Governor Calvert, forcing him out of Maryland and into Virginia. Claiborne held Maryland from 1644 to 1646, when the Crown reassigned the disputed land. It was not until 1657 that Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658) ordered the full restoration of the Calvert government in Maryland. Claiborne then returned to Virginia, where he figured prominently in the affairs of that colony until his death in 1677 or 1678.

Further reading: Janet Freedman, *Kent Island: The Land That Once Was Eden* (Annapolis, Md.: Maryland Historical Society, 2002).

Coalition, War of the First (1792–1797)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Austria, Prussia and (from 1793) Britain, Russia, the Netherlands, Spain, Sardinia, Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, Portugal, Baden, Hesse-Kassel, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Hanover. Spain withdrew from the coalition in 1795 and joined the French to oppose Britain in 1796.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France, the Low Countries, the Rhineland and western Germany, the Pyrenees, and Italy
DECLARATION: First coalition against France April 2, 1792
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: First the preservation on the French Revolution, later French expansion beyond her borders
OUTCOME: French victories and allied dissension drove the allies out of the coalition one by one. Prussia, the Netherlands, and Spain all left the coalition in 1795. Defeated in northern Italy by Bonaparte, the Austrians concluded peace with France in 1797. By this peace France gained the Austrian Netherlands, roughly today's Belgium. France also picked up the left bank of the Rhine and other areas, such as Savoy, through earlier treaties. By the end of 1797 only Britain continued an armed resistance to the French. However, war did not end with the defeat of the First Coalition, for in 1798 Britain forged a new alliance against the French, the Second Coalition, to continue the struggle.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the height of the action in summer 1794, the French claimed a paper strength of 1,000,000 men, with perhaps only 750,000 actually present under arms. The allies never concentrated their full numerical strength against the French because during the critical years, 1792–95, Austria, Prussia, and Russia devoted much of their attention to the partitions of Poland in 1792 and 1795.
CASUALTIES: The best figures list 663,000 battle deaths as a total for the wars of the First and Second Coalitions, 1792–1802.
TREATIES: Treaty of Basel (April 5, 1795), Treaty of the Hague (May 16, 1795), Treaty of Campo Formio (October 17, 1797)

The War of the First Coalition set off an era of more than 20 years of armed conflict summed up as the FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS and NAPOLEONIC WARS. Only with some difficulty and distortion can historical surgery separate the War of the First Coalition from this larger period of turmoil.

Moreover, to try to isolate the impact of the War of the First Coalition is, to a large degree, to stop a process in mid-course. Still, this conflict settled some key issues and introduced fundamental changes to warfare by 1797. Although the survival of the new French state and the social revolution that gave it birth were at risk when war started in 1792, they were essentially secure by 1797. Nationalism, which would become a dominant force in warfare for succeeding centuries, appeared first on European battlefields at this time, although its full force would not be felt until the imperial conquests of Napoleon and the resistance that they spurred. Moreover, the French had begun a revolution in military institutions and the conduct of war that would again progress under Napoleon and leave warfare forever changed. French victories had already planted Jacobin seeds in western Germany, northern Italy, and what is today Belgium by 1797, but it was still uncertain how those seeds would sprout. The prewar borders of Europe appeared different by 1797, but they would remain in nearly constant flux until stabilized by the Congress of Vienna (1814–15). That assembly also enshrined a new and far more stable international system, but this prospect was at best faintly seen by 1797. In hindsight, there is no question that the War of the First Coalition constituted a watershed in the history of war and international relations, but that was not entirely clear at the time.

CAUSES

Revolution drove the French to war in 1792, but they did not fight simply to protect their democratic gains against the hostile monarchies of Europe. The French Revolution symbolized by the storming of the Bastille on July 14, 1789, promised a new world as defined by the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen. The remnants of feudalism disappeared in the countryside, freeing the peasant majority from shackles that had bound it for many centuries, and urban rebellions established new elected governments to replace traditional oligarchies. The new

National Assembly regarded the institutional church as an enemy and stripped it of its land and power.

For the first two years the vacillating king, Louis XVI (1754–93), showed himself alternately hostile and tolerant of the Revolution, but he finally announced his opposition by trying unsuccessfully to flee France in June 1791. His flight and the blustering of European conservatives convinced the French that European monarchs were linked in a conspiracy to smother the Revolution at its birth and that the French must prepare for war. In fact, war did not come until spring 1792, and when it did it was not the result of monarchical aggression from outside French borders but of political struggles from within. Convinced that war was inevitable in any case, revolutionary radicals believed that war would reveal the king as a traitor and clear the way for a republic. Moderates such as the marquis de Lafayette (1757–1834) hoped that victory would strengthen the king and restore a healthy constitutional monarchy without jeopardizing the democratic gains of the Revolution. Conservatives believed that a war would result in the defeat of the revolutionaries, and that, once triumphant, the crowned heads of Europe would eradicate the Revolution and restore Louis XVI to his rightful powers. Confident of different results, the parties of France united to declare war on April 2, 1792, because war met their internal political needs. Significantly, the French declared war only against their traditional enemy, the Austrian Hapsburgs, hoping to isolate the conflict to manageable proportions, but war, once unleashed, got out of hand.

TRANSFORMATION OF THE ART OF WAR

The War of the First Coalition was not war as usual, because revolutionary France fought for higher stakes with a new spirit and a transformed army. Perhaps the most important aspect of this conflict was the introduction of a radically new style of warfare.

The revolutionary army benefited from a military reform movement precipitated by French defeat in the SEVEN YEARS' WAR (1756–63). This movement brought key technical improvements and planted seeds of tactical change. Most important among technical innovations, the Gribeauval artillery system, adopted in 1774, altered the very manufacture of field guns: Rather than casting cannons with a hollow bore, the French now cast barrels solid and then bored them out on massive frames. This much more exact technique allowed the production of shorter and lighter barrels. Mounted on improved carriages, French artillery became the most mobile and the best served in Europe.

The reform era also witnessed debate over infantry. On the one hand, soldiers battled over the merits of different formations for close-order infantry, as advocates of the traditional line contended with champions of the more mobile column. Supporters of deep column formations, the *ordre profond,* argued that the French were naturally suited to the attack. Those who preferred the line, or *ordre linéaire,* pointed to its greater fire power. Controversy finally produced the drill manual of August 1791, which presented a variety of tactical options to the soldiers of the Revolution. On the other hand, the French also experimented with light infantry, eventually adding a light infantry company to every battalion and creating 12 entire battalions of light *chasseurs à pied.*

Despite their real contribution, however, it would not be fair to credit the success of the new armies of revolutionary France simply to reforms that took root before 1789, for the changes wrought by the French Revolution were far more fundamental and potent. Whatever its desire for improvement, the prerevolutionary reform movement could not transform the social givens of the army. The rank and file of the army of the old regime came from the castoffs of society, men who their officers regarded as untrustworthy rabble. But the new soldiers were the best young men that France had to offer, men whose patriotic enthusiasm and personal initiative could be marshaled on the battlefield. When the army geared up for war after June 1791, the government not only beefed up the regular army but called for volunteers from the citizen militia, the National Guard, and these stepped forward as the Volunteers of 1791 and 1792. When army numbers needed to be increased in 1793, however, the revolutionary government resorted to conscription. After an attempt to conscript 300,000 men in February 1793 produced disappointing results, the people's representatives declared the *levée en masse* on August 23. This decree mobilized the entire French population for the war effort:

> Young men will go to battle; married men will forge arms and transport supplies; women will make tents, uniforms, and serve in the hospitals; children will pick rags; old men will have themselves carried to public squares, to inspire the courage of the warriors, and to preach the hatred of kings and the unity of the Republic.

By mid-1794 the flood of volunteers conscripted though this great levy boosted the French army to the unprecedented size of a million men, a paper figure usually discounted to 750,000 men present under arms. This force was truly representative of French society in its social composition and in its aspirations; it was, in short, the nation in arms.

This revolutionary army was led by a revolutionary officer corps. Aristocrats had composed about 85 percent of the officers in the old army, but by the summer of 1794, they made up only 2–3 percent of the commanders. Understandably out of sympathy with the Revolution, aristocratic officers emigrated from France or simply retired to their homes, whereas the government drove others from command. Many sergeants rose into the commissioned ranks, and volunteer battalions elected their own,

usually middle-class, officers. The principle of "careers open to talent," tempered by seniority, guided promotion and staffed an officer corps of capable men who understood the potentials promised by the new soldiery.

The army of the French Revolution outstripped its opponents in the field both in terms of tactics and mobility. Combining the line for defense and firepower, the column for maneuver and attack, and dispersed order for skirmishing, French infantry possessed a tactical system far more flexible than any they faced. Superior French artillery more than compensated for the army's shortcomings in cavalry. The army also enjoyed a more supple organization, as its battalions were grouped into combat divisions, an organizational innovation of the Revolution. French soldiers who served out of revolutionary fervor, patriotic sentiment, or civic responsibility could be expected to do without or to fend for themselves when logistics broke down. Earlier armies had dissolved when not regularly supplied, but the French did not. Early revolutionary commanders took but partial advantage of this potential; only Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) would fully exploit the rapidity of movement made possible by troops who could be expected to live off the country without destroying unit integrity.

THE REVOLUTION IS SAVED, APRIL 1792–JUNE 1793

Although the revolutionary army would soon win many victories, it began the war with a series of defeats. Soon after the assembly declared war in April 1792, it ordered troops stationed along the frontier to mount several attacks into the Austrian Netherlands. Partially trained French battalions neither advanced boldly nor stood resolutely in the face of enemy resistance. Instead, French soldiers panicked and streamed to the rear crying "We have been betrayed!" and "Every man for himself!" The situation was little improved by several changes of command as the French sought a winning combination. Eventually, trial and error brought talented men to the top: Notably Charles Dumouriez (1739–1823) took over the Army of the North, while François Kellermann (1770–1835) assumed command of the Army of the Center.

By mid-summer the Prussians, who had allied with the Austrians to oppose the French, prepared to invade France from the Rhineland and drive on Paris. The renowned Frederick William, duke of Brunswick (1771–1815), commanded the Prussian invasion, which moved slowly from Coblenz and crossed the French frontier at Longwy on August 19. The Parisians reacted to Brunswick's invasion by taking to the streets, arresting Louis XVI, and declaring a republic. Dumouriez rushed south and blocked Brunswick's path at the Ardennes. Although Brunswick succeeded in crossing this barrier, he had to turn and offer battle. By then Kellermann had marched his Army of the Center to join Dumouriez, and it was the Center that stood against the Prussians at Valmy on September 20, 1792. Brunswick could not afford a costly battle and still continue his march on Paris; his only hope of success lay in routing the French with little damage to his own army. However, French troops who had run in the spring had become seasoned by the fall, and they held the ridge through a furious cannonade. When French artillery threatened to shred tentative Prussian assaults, Brunswick called off his battalions. After 10 days of pointless parlays, Brunswick began to retrace his steps, and in their retreat the Prussians suffered heavy casualties from disease and exposure. Valmy had turned backed the dreaded invasion and may have saved the Revolution.

While the Prussians limped back into Germany, Dumouriez rushed north to continue the momentum of French victory by invading the Austrian Netherlands. On November 6 his large army defeated outnumbered Austrians at Jemappes, clearing the way for him to occupy the Austrian Netherlands that winter. Meanwhile, Adam Custine (1740–93) led the French Army of the Moselle into the Rhineland.

French fortunes would soon turn for the worse, however. Relieved that the new republic was seemingly secure, volunteers left the army and headed for home. The exodus proved so large that the army dwindled in size. Meanwhile, the allies marshaled their forces to expel the French. Defeat at Neerwinden on March 18, 1793, lost France the Austrian Netherlands, and setbacks also drove the republicans from the Rhineland. Only the fortress line crafted by Vauban stood between Paris and the allied forces. Luckily for the revolutionaries, the allies stopped to besiege fortresses rather than advancing on the French capital.

In fact, the powers allied in the First Coalition never concentrated on defeating France and instead regarded one another with suspicion. Rivals in eastern Europe, where they each had a great deal at stake, Austria, Prussia, and Russia could not act with a single purpose in western Europe. Of the main powers only Austria did its best to defeat the French, but even Austria could not look exclusively to the west, since the partition of Poland demanded its attention. Prussia and Russia cared much more about maximizing their gains in Poland than about reestablishing the Bourbons on the French throne. In fact, Prussia actually dragged its feet along the Rhine precisely to keep its Austrian rival from doing too well against the French. The British, who joined the fight against France in 1793, committed only modest land forces, as was their habit, and as a whole their performance left a good deal to be desired. The best that can be said for the British is that in defeat they tempered future victorious commanders, such as Arthur Wellesley, duke of Wellington (1769–1852), and that they gained the impetus for military reform.

Spring defeat sent another shock of panic through France. At this point the revolutionary assembly, now styled the National Convention, concentrated executive

power in the hands of a body of 12 men, the Committee of Public Safety, which accrued dictatorial power over the course of the next year. The Reign of Terror had begun. Summer brought the *levée en masse* as troops already at the front trained and skirmished with the allies. Among the members of the Committee of Public Safety, Lazare Carnot (1753–1823), a military engineer by training, stood out for his great ability as a military administrator. He drove arms production and supply and more than any other individual shaped French strategy in 1793 and 1794. A grateful nation would dub him the "Organizer of Victory."

While the revolution stiffened its resistance on the borders, internal war tore at its center. In resistance to the conscription law of February 1793, conservative areas of western France took to arms in open rebellion against Paris and the Revolution. This Vendée revolt became the most brutal of the fights waged by the republic. Whereas French soldiers regarded their uniformed opponents along the frontiers as "slaves" who could be freed and educated, republican troops regarded the peasants of the Vendée as traitors to be exterminated. The Vendée revolt must be discussed within the context of the War of the First Coalition because the Vendée drew men and matériel away from the frontiers and because the British tried to exploit the Vendée as a second front. The worst fighting occurred in 1793, but revolt would flare periodically through the west into the reign of Napoleon.

REPUBLICAN VICTORY, JULY 1793–DECEMBER 1795

During summer 1793 French forces rebuilt and trained anew, and by the fall the course of the war began to shift back in their favor. The Army of the North under Jean-Nicolas Houchard (1739–93) bludgeoned an Anglo-Hanoverian army at Hondschoote on September 8, but Houchard failed to exploit his victory and paid for that timidity with his neck. His successor, Jean-Baptiste, Jourdan (1762–1833), defeated the Austrians at Wattignies on October 17. Hoche, at the head of the Army of the Moselle, received a check at Kaiserslautern on November 28–30 but rebounded to relieve Landau and take Speyer. Meanwhile, Kellermann drove the enemy from Savoy, and the Spanish retreated along the Pyrenees. The French had not crushed their enemies, but they had stopped them and taken the initiative.

Republican forces also triumphed within French borders. While the Vendée rose in revolt, key cities, notably Bordeaux, Lyon, and Toulon, also declared their independence from Paris. But Bordeaux and Lyon fell to republican forces in October. Toulon, which had admitted the British fleet to assist in their resistance, held out until December 19. There, a young Bonaparte first showed his metal by driving the fleet from the harbor with his cannons. In the Vendée a republican army smashed the main rebel force at Le Mans and Savenay in December. An undercurrent of guerrilla warfare and brutal repression continued, but the major threat had passed.

Throughout the winter of 1793–94 the conscripts of the *levée en masse* arrived at the front and trained as best they could. Surrounded by seasoned veterans, the new men learned with surprising rapidity. Spring brought some initial reverses, but on May 17–18 the Army of the North won an important victory at Tourcoing against an allied army that outnumbered it. French victory in May seemed to take the heart out of the Austrian commander, Francis, duke of Saxe-Coburg (1750–1806). Next, an army of 75,000 troops from the North and the Moselle and placed under the command of Jourdan completely defeated 52,000 Austrians under Saxe-Coburg at Fleurus on June 26. After this defeat the Austrians abandoned the southern Netherlands. French troops eventually crossed into the Dutch Netherlands and imposed the Treaty of the Hague in May of the following year. By its terms not only did the Dutch withdraw from the coalition, they also ceded land to France and allied with her. The tide of French victory had already swept the Prussians from the war in April, when they signed the Treaty of Basel with the new republic. Spain also left the alliance in July 1795 and joined France in war against the British a year later, in August 1796. Russia was of very little weight in the coalition, and although Catherine II (1729–96) kept Russia in the war until her death in 1796, she never contributed much more that a few ships and some money to the alliance. By the end of 1795 the only serious contenders to the French were the Austrians and the British.

WAR AT SEA

It comes as little surprise that the British triumphed at sea during the War of the First Coalition. Although the revolution had created a large and potent army filled with spirited troops, the French fleet degenerated after 1789. Experienced sergeants and talented amateurs rose to fill the places of officers who fled the army, but skilled officers lost to the navy could not be so easily replaced. Command at sea required years of training. Moreover, difficult and dangerous life at sea required discipline and authority inconsistent with revolutionary principles. At the same time, the British were entering their most illustrious period of naval victory.

The British suffered no major defeats at sea, although they were not always able to capitalize on their naval victories. Admiral Richard Howe (1726–99) triumphed in the first important naval action of the war, the "Glorious First of June," May 29–June 1, 1794. There he defeated a French escort fleet, although he allowed the merchant vessels they accompanied to reach port safely. In June 1795 the British used their naval preeminence to land a force of 3,000 French émigrés in Brittany with hopes of raising western France into massive revolt once again. There

5,000 local rebels joined the émigrés, but the republicans rallied with an army of 10,000 under General Louis Lazarel Hoche (1768–97) to defeat and capture the majority of the rebel force at Quiberon from July 16–20. In 1796 the French tried and failed to land 13,000 troops at Bantry Bay in Ireland to foment rebellion in that unhappy land. Bad weather played a greater role in French defeat there than did British fleet action. In 1797 the British clashed with French allies. On February 14, 1797, Admiral John Jervis (1725–1823), with Horatio Nelson (1758–1805) as one of his captains, defeated a Spanish fleet at Cape St. Vincent. During this battle Jervis abandoned the standard line-ahead tactics to break the enemy fleet and fight a mêlée action, as would his famous subordinate at Trafalgar. Later in the year another British fleet defeated the Dutch at the Battle of Camperdown, October 11.

STALEMATE ALONG THE RHINE, 1795–1796

Although 1795 brought diplomatic triumphs and the French army did well in the Dutch Netherlands, the French stalled along the Rhine. Jourdan led the Army of the Sambre and the Meuse in an invasion of Germany, but after initial success he was driven back by Austrian forces under Clerfayt. Here French defeat can be attributed to Pichegru, commander of the Army of the Rhine and Moselle, who joined a royalist plot and betrayed French plans to the enemy.

French frustration along the Rhine continued in 1796. Jourdan and Moreau were to coordinate in an invasion of Bavaria, but the young and extremely able Archduke Charles (1771–1847) employed interior lines to parry both thrusts. Jourdan crossed the Rhine in June and advanced on Wetzler, but there the archduke defeated him and forced the French back across the river. Archduke Charles next marched to counter Moreau along the Danube. Checked at Malsch, Charles marched north again to defeat Jourdan at Amberg on August 24, but in his absence Moreau won a battle at Friedberg. Charles pursued Jourdan and defeated him again at Würzburg on September 3. Jourdan now agreed to an armistice, freeing Charles to turn south, but Moreau, hearing of Jourdan's defeat, retired to the Rhine.

French forces failed not only because of treachery or improved enemy command, but because French forces shrank after the great manpower bounty of the *levée en masse,* for the revolutionary government failed to establish regular conscription for several years. The great *levée* proved to be more a revolutionary spasm than a system, and comparatively few men joined the ranks from 1795 until the creation of the Jourdan Law that regularized conscription in 1798. The army, which could claim 750,000 men present under arms in 1794, fell to 480,000 a year later and still further, to 400,000, in 1796. This was not much larger than the armies that served Louis XIV in his great wars a century before.

Not only was the army smaller, but it was becoming the stepchild of the revolutionary government. After victory at Fleurus the Reign of Terror came to an end when the National Convention arrested Maximillian Robespierre (1758–94) and other radicals on the Committee of Public Safety. Many had good cause to celebrate the end of radical revolution, but the radicals always supported the army as best they could. The new government, the Directory, which came to power in 1795, was more moderate but also more selfish and corrupt, and it left the army to fend for itself on the frontiers. This meant that republican troops who arrived outside French borders as liberators stayed as thieves, because soldiers left unpaid and poorly fed had to supply themselves by looting. Pillage turned occupied populations against revolutionary France.

BONAPARTE'S ITALIAN CAMPAIGN, 1796–1797

Although the French met frustration and defeat along the Rhine in 1796, they scored great victories south of the Alps, where 26-year-old general Napoleon Bonaparte took command of the Army of Italy on March 27. This army, clothed in rags and poorly supplied, clung to the Mediterranean shore from the border of France to Genoa. Bonaparte appealed more to its needs and avarice than to its revolutionary principles:

> Soldiers! You are hungry and naked; the government owes you much but can give you nothing. The patience and courage which you have displayed among these rocks are admirable; but they bring you no glory—not a glimmer falls upon you. I will lead you into the most fertile plains on earth. Rich provinces, opulent towns, all shall be at your disposal; there you will find honor, glory and riches. Soldiers of Italy! Will you be lacking in courage or endurance?

Bonaparte began this extraordinary campaign by wedging between the Piedmontese forces and the Austrians. Driving off the Austrians under Jean Pierre Beaulieu (1725–1819) at the Battles of Dego and Monenotte, Bonaparte then defeated the Piedmontese at Mondovi on April 21 and pursued the shattered army so relentlessly that they sued for an armistice on April 23, and a few days later Piedmont withdrew from the war. Now Bonaparte concentrated against the Austrians, who he soon drove from Lombardy; he entered Milan on May 15, although the Austrian garrison held on for several weeks. By June only the fortress of Mantua denied his conquest of north Italy.

Bonaparte invested Mantua on June 4, but here he would not win another lightning victory, because the Austrians marshaled army after army to relieve the fortress and defeat the French. In a series of brilliant marches and battles Bonaparte and his generals, notably Pierre Augereau (1757–1816) and André Masséna (1758–1817), employed interior lines to beat back one Austrian column after another. Count Dagobert Wurmser (1724–97) led a first

attempt to relieve Mantua but was defeated at Castiglione on August 5. In a second attempt Wurmser's army was roughly handled by the French at Bassano, although Wurmser was able to break through to the city with some troops who swelled the garrison but did little more. Josef Alvintzy (1735–1810) led further Austrian forces in a third attempt to relieve Mantua but met defeat once more at Arcola, November 15–17. The fourth and final attempt took place in January 1797, when Alvinzy once again marched south, but Bonaparte concentrated his forces, defeated Alvintzy at Rivoli on January 14, and then pursued the retreating Austrians. Mantua finally capitulated on February 2.

After the fall of Mantua, the French invaded Austria. Archduke Charles opposed him, but the able Charles was unable to check the French advance. However, armed risings in northern Italy compromised Bonaparte's rear, so when he reached Leoben, 95 miles from Vienna, he concluded the preliminary Peace of Leoben with the Austrians. Bonaparte dictated the terms of Leoben without consulting the Directory, which later negotiated a formal peace agreement with Austria, the Treaty of Campo Formio. By it the Austrians ceded the southern Netherlands, today's Belgium, to France and recognized the creation of a new "Cisalpine Republic" in north Italy. Austria received the Republic of Venice in compensation for lands lost to the new Cisalpine Republic. If the campaign of 1792 guaranteed the survival of the revolution and the campaign of 1794 ensured the expansion of the republic, that of 1796–97 presaged the coming of the empire, for it gave revolutionary France a great and ambitious general just at a time when the government in Paris seemed particularly inept and corrupt.

With the Treaty of Campo Formio, Great Britain alone remained of the great powers who had formed the First Coalition, yet war continued. Bonaparte received command of the Army of England intended to cross the channel and invade the British Isles. However, he advocated an invasion not of England but of Egypt. While Bonaparte pursued this will-o-the-wisp, the British and Austrians cobbled together another alliance against France in 1798's War of the Second COALITION.

See also COALITION, WAR OF THE THIRD; HUNDRED DAYS' WAR; NAPOLEON'S INVASION OF RUSSIA; NAPOLEON'S WAR WITH AUSTRIA; PENINSULAR WAR.

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Coalition, War of the Second (1798–1801)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Second Coalition (Austria, Britain, Russia, Portugal, Naples, and the Ottoman Empire) vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy and Switzerland
DECLARATION: Second Coalition against France, 1798
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Threatened by French revolutionary aggression, the conservative coalition attempted to block French sponsorship of Italian and Swiss republics.
OUTCOME: Despite initial victories, the coalition was defeated in two major battles, and revolutionary France maintained its gains, greatly aiding in the rise of Napoleon.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Coalition forces, 360,000; French forces, 200,000
CASUALTIES: At Marengo: Austria, 9,400 killed and wounded; France, 5,900 killed and wounded; at Hohenlinden: Austria, 7,000 killed and wounded, another 12,000 taken prisoner. Total Coalition losses estimated at 200,000 killed or wounded, and total French losses, 370,000 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner.
TREATIES: Peace of Lunéville, February 9, 1801

The FRENCH REVOLUTION had already triggered the War of the First COALITION in 1792, and the nation's ongoing aggression drove the pope out of the Vatican and inspired the creation of Roman, Helvetic, Cisalpine, and Ligurian Republics. These developments prompted Austria, Britain, Russia, Portugal, Naples, and the Ottoman Empire to form a second coalition against France.

The first hostilities took place in Italy, where French forces overran the Piedmont in November and December 1798. In southern Italy Neapolitan forces, led by the Austrian general Karl Mack von Leiberich (1752–1828), invaded the Roman Republic and took Rome itself on November 29. This prompted a French counterattack, which drove the Neapolitans out of Rome by December 15. The major battle in this early phase of the war was at Civita Castellana on December 4, in which 10,000 French troops trounced 26,000 Neapolitans. Neapolitan losses were some 2,500 casualties versus 500 killed or wounded on the French side. The major campaigns of the war began in 1799.

ITALIAN CAMPAIGN OF 1799

After his Neapolitan troops mutinied following their defeat, General Mack defected to the French, and Naples soon dropped out of the war, becoming the Parthenopean Republic, a French satellite. However, in June 1799 some 17,000 Neapolitan royalists, in concert with a British fleet under Admiral Horatio Nelson (1758–1805) and with the aid of the Lazzaroni, a Neapolitan mob, ousted the

French occupiers from Naples. King Ferdinand (1751–1825) was restored to the Neapolitan throne, and, backed by the British fleet, Neapolitan troops retook Rome on September 29.

In the meantime, in northern Italy a French army of 53,000 moved into position in March 1799 to attack some 52,000 Austrians along the Adige River near Verona. The French objective was to defeat this force before it could be joined by Russian troops marching from the east. A French repulse at Magnano on April 5 bought sufficient time for the arrival of Russian forces, which boosted coalition strength here to 90,000. On April 27 the Russians defeated some 30,000 French troops at Cassano, between Milan and Brescia. On April 28 Milan and Turin fell to the Russians. However, coalition commanders then blundered by dividing their forces to lay siege to remaining French garrisons. Seizing on this mistake, French general Jacques Macdonald (1765–1840) rushed 35,000 French troops from the south to join other French troops at Genoa. The resulting Battle of Trebbia, from June 17–19, resulted in a severe defeat for the French. The Russians went on to another victory at Novi on August 15, and the French retreated across the Apennines.

Most of the Russian army was sent into Switzerland at this point, and some 60,000 Austrians were left to continue fighting against the remaining French in Italy. By the end of the year, the Italian gains Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) had made in the War of the First Coalition had been all but completely wiped out.

RHINE AND SWISS CAMPAIGNS OF 1799

In March French forces under General André Masséna (1758–1817) surprised Austrian troops at Vorarlberg and Grisons and scored a series of hard-won victories. In the meantime, along the Rhine French general Jean-Baptiste Jourdan (1762–1833) led his 40,000-man Army of Mayence against some 80,000 Austrians. Despite some successes, Jourdan was defeated, and command was turned over to Masséna. He made a fighting retreat to Zurich, then on June 7 withdrew to the west from that city. Regrouping in August, he resumed the offensive but was repulsed outside of Zurich during August 13–16.

Having apparently dealt with the French, Archduke Charles (1771–1847) pulled more than half his troops out of Switzerland to fight in the Netherlands. Only some 40,000 coalition troops were left in Switzerland under Russian general Alexander Korsakov (1753–1840)—although more Russians were on their way from Italy. Masséna exploited the present coalition weakness, and on September 25 at the Third Battle of Zurich, he routed Korsakov. In the meantime, General Alexander Vasilievich Suvorov (1729–1800) led 20,000 Russians up from Italy on an epic fighting march through the Alps, but he was relieved of command by order of the czar before he was able to reinforce Korsakov.

NETHERLANDS CAMPAIGN OF 1799

In August 1799 Frederick Augustus, duke of York (1763–1827) landed a force of 27,000 British troops at Groet-Keeten, quickly defeating Dutch forces, then joining with Russian troops to create a coalition army of 35,000. This force engaged French and Dutch (Batavian Republic) troops at Bergen on September 16 but suffered a defeat. Undaunted, York regrouped in October and renewed his offensive, which resulted in the inconclusive Second Battle of Bergen on October 2. York then fought the Franco-Dutch army at Kastrikum on the North Sea coast on October 6. A breakdown in communications between the British and Russians contributed to a stunning coalition defeat in which 3,439 of 20,900 troops were lost; Franco-Dutch losses were 1,398 of 17,300 troops engaged.

York withdrew. Despite his setbacks, he had succeeded in neutralizing the Dutch fleet, and with the signing of the Convention of Alkmaar later in the year, the Netherlands was out of the war.

ITALIAN CAMPAIGN OF 1800

The War of the Second Coalition saw the meteoric rise of Napoleon, who overthrew the weak government of the French Directory on November 9, 1799, and became first consul—effectively dictator of the French Republic. Also at this time Czar Paul I (1754–1801) precipitously withdrew Russia from the Second Coalition. This left France in a hopeful position. Although Italy was lost, France held on to all other fronts. Nevertheless, French losses were considerably more than 300,000, and Napoleon understood that he had to end the hemorrhage through decisive counteroffensives in Italy and Germany. His plan was to invade Italy via Switzerland. As Masséna reeled under attack from the Austrians at Genoa, Napoleon led 51,400 troops via the St. Bernard Pass (with detachments also crossing at the St. Gotthard and Simplon Passes) into Italy. Arriving on the Lombard plain on May 24, Napoleon took Milan and Pavia and then marched to the relief of Masséna at Genoa. However, with his forces greatly reduced, Masséna surrendered Genoa to the Austrian army on June 4, before Napoleon reached him.

In the meantime, the Austrians concentrated 31,500 men, their main force, at Alessandria, bracing for the arrival of Napoleon. He encountered 29,000 Austrians under Michael Melas (1729–1806) just east of Alessandria, at Marengo, on June 14. The resulting battle was one of Napoleon's signal victories. The Austrian army was routed, with 9,402 casualties, and Austria sued for peace.

GERMAN CAMPAIGN OF 1800

During the spring French general Jean Moreau (1763–1813) defeated the Austrians at Stockach (May 3), Moskirch (May 5), and Biberach (May 9), driving them into Bavaria. The armistice concluded after Marengo

applied to Germany as well, but on November 13 hostilities revived there as a 136,000-man Austrian army confronted Moreau's 119,000-troop Army of the Rhine. After several minor battles the two forces met at the Bavarian town of Hohenlinden on December 3. Because the Austrian forces were committed to the battle in piecemeal fashion, Moreau scored a significant victory and harried the retreating Austrians as they fell back toward Vienna. Simultaneously, other French forces renewed the battle in Italy, and Austria soon sought terms. The Treaty of Lunéville was concluded on February 9, 1801, ending the major phases of the War of the Second Coalition. Britain continued to fight on its own for another year, however, until the signing of the Treaty of Amiens on March 27, 1802.

France emerged from the war with its many gains intact. However, the nation was severely depleted and war weary. It would be up to Napoleon, initially as first consul, then consul for life, and, finally, emperor, to rally the nation to the remainder of its military destiny.

See also COALITION, WAR OF THE FIRST; COALITION, WAR OF THE THIRD; FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS; HUNDRED DAYS' WAR; NAPOLEONIC WARS; NAPOLEON'S INVASION OF RUSSIA; NAPOLEON'S WAR WITH AUSTRIA; PENINSULAR WAR.

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Coalition, War of the Third (1805–1807)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. the Third Coalition (Great Britain, Austria, Russia, Sweden, Naples, and, later, Prussia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Middle Europe and the Mediterranean
DECLARATION: Third Coalition formed by British during April 11–August 9, 1805
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Napoleon made plans to invade Britain in order to secure his rule in Europe; Britain formed the Third Coalition to oppose him.
OUTCOME: France soundly defeated Austria and broke up the Holy Roman Empire, giving Napoleon hegemony over much of the continent, but Britain's great victory at Trafalgar served as a turning point in world history, giving Great Britain rule over the oceans.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France: 225,000; Coalition: Austria, 166,000; Russia, 98,000; Prussia, 254,000; Others, including British naval forces, 144,000
CASUALTIES: Coalition: 75,000-plus killed or wounded in the major battles, with many 10s of thousands more taken prisoner (at Austerlitz the Austro-Russian army lost 32 percent of its fighting force, at Jena, the Prussian army, 47 percent of its); French losses in the same battles were around 43,000 killed or wounded.
TREATIES: Treaty of Pressburg, December 25, 1805; Treaty of Tilsit, July 7 and 9, 1807

The FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS evolved, like the FRENCH REVOLUTION itself, into a prosecution of Napoleon Bonaparte's personal ambitions. Emerging from those wars as first consul for life, Napoleon was determined to recover Saint-Domingue, which had rebelled and renamed itself Hispaniola, to occupy Louisiana, which had been ceded to France by Spain in 1800, and perhaps to reconquer Egypt. In any case, it was clear he intended to extend French influence in both the Mediterranean Sea and the Indian Ocean, and he was advancing France beyond what the rest of Europe considered its natural frontiers—incorporating the Piedmont into his revolutionary republic, imposing a democratic and French-friendly government on the Swiss Confederation, and compensating dispossessed German princes for their former Rhine territories with shares in the ecclesiastical states he had secularized. The British were upset by all this, by France's peacetime expansions, and especially by the First Consul's attempt to reserve half of Europe as a market for French goods without lowering customs duties (*see* NAPOLEONIC WARS).

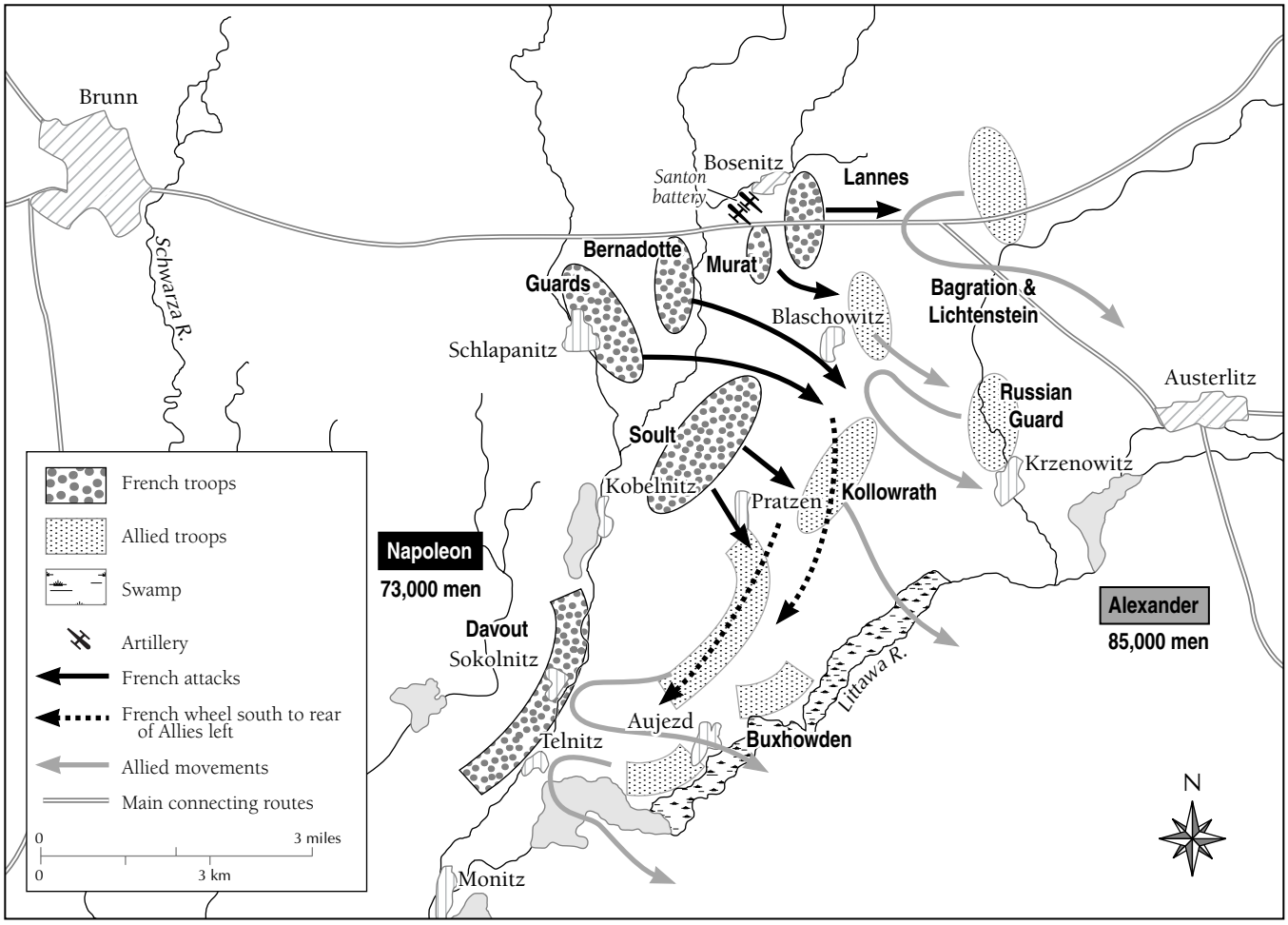
In the midst of a maritime commercial explosion of its own, Great Britain could barely tolerate the fact that one state and one man should command the coast of the Continent from Genoa to Antwerp, and over Malta the English dug in their heels. The British had taken Malta when the French occupation collapsed during the last stage of the Revolutionary Wars. By the Treaty of Amiens, they were supposed to give it back to the Knights Hospitallers, from whom Napoleon had seized it. Using the excuse that the French had not yet evacuated certain Neapolitan ports, they refused to leave the island. As French-British relations grew strained over Britain's defiance of the precarious peace terms, the British used the brouhaha as the pretext for declaring a new war in 1803.

Bonaparte raised a large army, but he could not hold back the British as they seized French colonial possessions one after the other. Although for now he was fighting Great Britain alone, Napoleon realized that his only hope for victory lay in landing his Grande Armée (Grand Army) on the British Isles. The British, in turn, knew that, ultimately, they could defeat the French only by forming another continental coalition against him. Bonaparte concentrated his troops

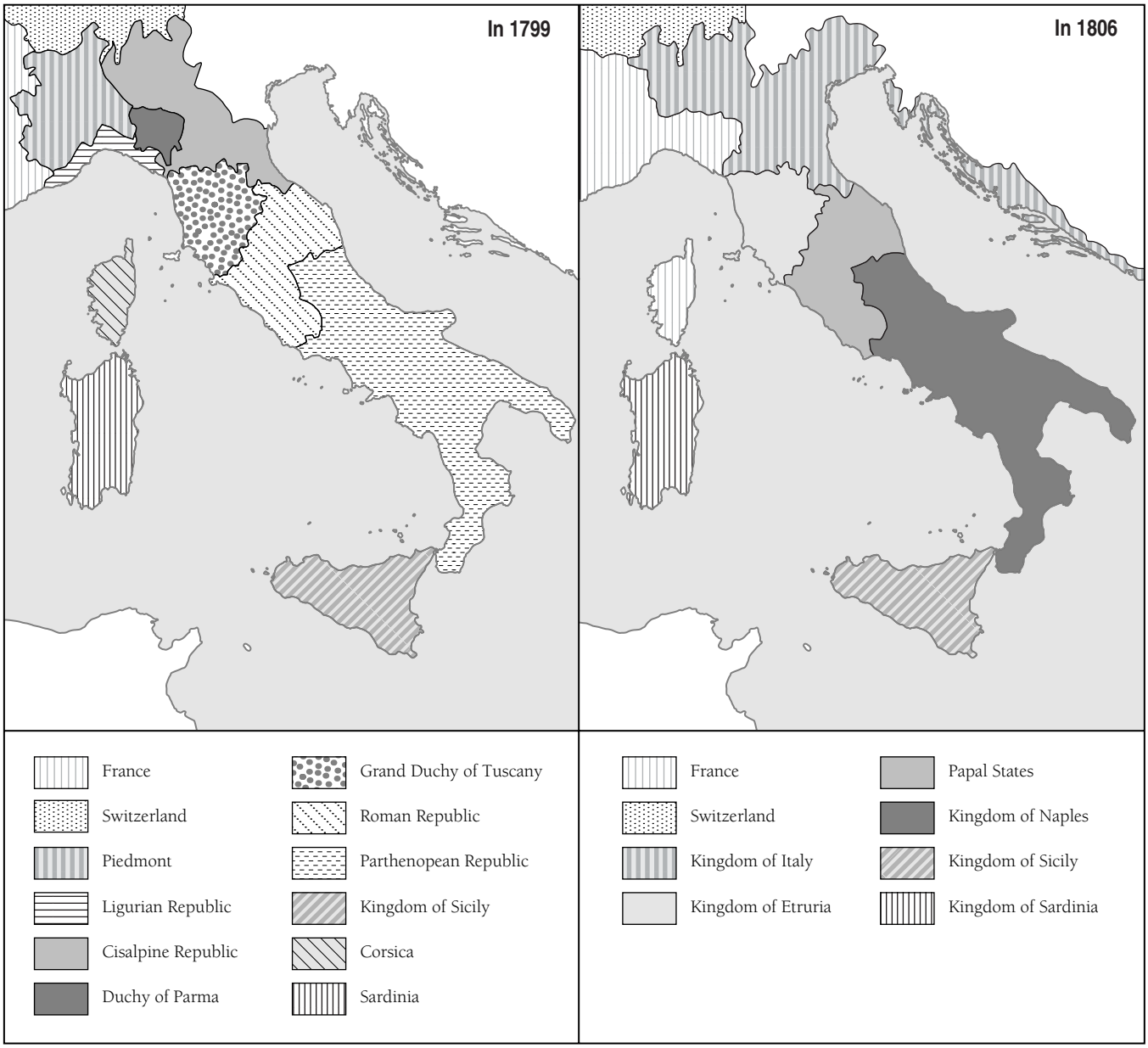
at Boulogne and gathered nearly 2,000 ships between Brest and Antwerp, but his problem remained the same as it had always been: To cross the channel, he needed control of the seas, and the French fleet was still far inferior to the Royal Navy. Even when he induced Spain to declare war against Britain in December 1804, the combined fleets were no match for anything more than a squadron of British ships. Napoleon decided that if he massed the French-Spanish armada in the Antilles, he could lure a British squadron into these waters and defeat it, which in turn would give him rough parity with Britain at sea.

Meanwhile, Napoleon—now acclaimed emperor of France—annexed Genoa and crowned himself king of Italy, an act that gave the British all they needed to succeed in organizing a new anti-French coalition, the Third Coalition, consisting of Austria, Russia, Sweden, and Naples. Abandoning his plans for the moment to invade England, the emperor sent his Grande Armée against the Austrians at Ulm, winning an overwhelming victory there in October 1805. That same month his scheme for defeating Britain at sea came a cropper. France's Mediterranean squadron under Admiral Pierre de Villeneuve (1763–1806) had earlier in the summer arrived in the Antilles to find no Spanish fleet awaiting. Alone, pursued by Britain's great admiral Horatio Nelson (1758–1805), and not daring to attack him, Villeneuve turned sail toward Europe and took refuge off the Spanish coast at Cádiz in July 1805. The English threw up a blockade, and there Villeneuve remained until October, when, goaded by accusations of cowardice from his emperor, he decided to run the blockade with the help of a Spanish squadron. Off Cape Trafalgar on October 21, 1805, Lord Nelson attacked the Franco-Spanish fleet and utterly destroyed it, losing his own life in the battle. A decisive victory, Trafalgar eliminated any danger of invasion and gave Great Britain rule of the high seas.

Less concerned with the long-term implications than he might otherwise have been, Napoleon remained occupied with the war he was fighting inland. In mid-November he occupied Vienna and routed the Russians and Austrians at the Battle of Austerlitz on December 2, 1805, eliminating the Austrians from the coalition and evicting them from Italy under the ensuing Treaty of Pressburg. Napoleon's celebrated victory at Austerlitz allowed him not only to force Austria to renounce all influence in Italy



Battle of Austerlitz, December 2, 1805



Italy before and after it was "reorganized" by Napoleon

and cede Venetia and Dalmatia but also to turn over vast territories in Germany to his protégés in Bavaria, Württemberg, and Baden. After Austerlitz Napoleon dethroned the Bourbons in Naples and bestowed that kingdom on his brother Joseph. He created a French-controlled federation that embraced all western Germany and established a veritable French imperium in central Europe.

As a direct result of Austerlitz and the Treaty of Pressburg, the Holy Roman Empire was dissolved (on August 6, 1806), most of the smaller German states disappeared, and the larger ones were grouped together as the Confederation of the Rhine, with Napoleon as protector. Finally, Austerlitz and the Treaty of Pressburg heralded the ultimate collapse of the Third Coalition against Napoleon, but the treaty could hardly offset Trafalgar. Pressburg would have a long-term impact on European history mostly because, like other treaty settlements by Napoleon, it lit the fire of union in German hearths; the implications of Trafalgar were both more immediate and even more wide ranging. It was one of those battles that changed the world, making possible the ascendancy of the British Empire in the 19th century and giving England a freedom of movement on the seas that would not be effectively challenged for another hundred years.

Nevertheless, while Napoleon's defeat of Austria at Austerlitz and the resulting Treaty of Pressburg heralded

the collapse of the Third Coalition, the fighting continued for a while beyond the Hapsburgs' withdrawal from the allied cause. Just a month before, in September 1806, Prussia had joined the coalition only now to be promptly defeated at Jena and Auerstadt. Russia acquitted itself better in the inconclusive fighting at Eylau in February 1807, briefly checking the French advance on the Russian frontier. Come summer, however, the French emperor was ready to push on, crushing Russian resistance. Napoleon's defeat of the Russians at the very hard fought Battle of Friedland (June 14, 1807) brought the War of the Third Coalition to an end. While the Russian czar, Alexander I, might well have continued the struggle, he was weary of his alliance with the British and chose instead to negotiate with Napoleon. The talks between the two autocrats commenced on June 25 on a raft in the Neman River near the east Prussian town of Tilsit; subsequently, King Frederick Wilhelm III of Prussia also took part in the discussions.

The negotiations resulted in two documents collectively known as the Treaty of Tilsit, signed on July 7 and bringing peace between France and Russia. Czar Alexander I recognized Napoleon's European conquests and—by secret articles within the treaty—agreed to mediate between France and Britain and to ally Russia with the French if mediation failed. The terms Napoleon planned to propose to England were harsh. The English nation would abandon its colonial conquests since 1803 and would rescind the Orders in Council, which prohibited neutral trade with France and its allies. By the document of July 9, Frederick William III ceded most of Prussia's territory west of the Elbe River to the French-controlled Kingdom of Westphalia. Prussia's Polish provinces were ceded to the newly created Duchy of Warsaw. Moreover, Prussia agreed to reduce the size of its army and to allow for the garrisoning of French troops within its borders. Finally, Prussia joined the "Continental System," Napoleon's latest scheme against the stubborn English, a grand, worldwide economic embargo of trade with Great Britain.

On a raft anchored in the middle of the Neman River, the emperor of the French and the czar of all the Russias had forced Prussia to give up half her territory and, in effect, divide up the control of Europe, Napoleon taking the west and Alexander the east. As the negotiations drew to a close, Alexander promised vaguely to make an attack on British possessions in India.

The British, after Tilsit, once again found themselves dangerously isolated. Nevertheless, they moved quickly and used their superb navy to seize the Danish and Portuguese fleets before Napoleon could secure them. The two powers blockaded each other's ports. To be sure, the Continental System created economic hardship in Britain but in no way approaching the degree Napoleon had hoped for. Smuggling was common, and Britannia, courtesy of Trafalgar, continued to rule the waves and to trade actively and openly with its colonies. Moreover, the Continental System caused drastic shortages of goods throughout Europe and greatly inflated prices on many commodities, creating much discontent, especially in the Netherlands and northern Germany.

See also COALITION, WAR OF THE FIRST; COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND; HUNDRED DAYS' WAR; NAPOLEON'S INVASION OF RUSSIA; NAPOLEON'S WAR WITH AUSTRIA; PENINSULAR WAR.

Further reading: Gregory Fremont-Barnes, *The French Revolutionary Wars* (London: Osprey, 2001); Robert Gardiner, ed., *Nelson against Napoleon: From the Nile to Copenhagen, 1798–1801* (Annapolis, Md.: Naval Institute Press, 1997); Gunther E. Rothenberg, *The Art of War in the Age of Napoleon* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1978); Gunther E. Rothenberg, *Napoleon's Great Adversaries: The Archduke Charles and the Austrian Army, 1792–1814* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1982); Gunther E. Rothenberg and John Keegan, *The Napoleonic Wars* (London: Cassell, 1999); Paul W. Schroeder, *The Transformation of European Politics, 1763–1848* (Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 1994); Samuel F. Scott, *The Response of the Royal Army to the French Revolution* (Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 1978).

Coeur d'Alene War (Spokane War) (1857–1858)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Coeur d'Alene and Spokane Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Washington Territory
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Indians fought to prevent further white "incursions," especially the new Missouri-to-Columbia road; the United States fought to "punish" the Indians for raiding and to remove them to reservations.
OUTCOME: The Indians were defeated, leaders of the Indian "revolt" were hanged, and the tribes were moved to reservations.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Indians, 1,000; United States, 1,500
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None; the Indians were forced to abide by the earlier Stevens Treaty of 1855.

When the YAKAMA WAR drew to its inconclusive close, the Indians' leader, Kamiakan (fl. 1850s), escaped capture or engagement by the reluctantly involved U.S. Army and moved east of the Columbia River, where he continued to agitate the native populations against the policy of Washington Territory's governor, Issac Stevens (1818–62), who wished to remove the Indians to reservations and grab their lands for white settlement. During 1857 and 1858 Kamiakan worked to foment a general uprising against settlers and gold seekers who were overrunning the country.

The Coeur d'Alene and Spokane Indians were a ready audience for Kamiakin's exhortations as word spread among them that a white man's road—the Missouri-to-Columbia Road—was to be built through their lands. The whites had not even bothered to inform the Indians, let alone negotiate a treaty to allow passage of the road. They were ready for a fight, and the resulting convulsion of violence would be called the Coeur d'Alene (or Spokane) War.

Late in 1857, beset by sporadic raiding, a number of prospectors at Colville petitioned for the protection of U.S. troops. In May 1858 158 regulars out of Fort Walla Walla under the command of Lieutenant Colonel Edward J. Steptoe (1816–65) were marching to the gold camp of Colville with the intention of impressing the Palouse, Spokane, and Coeur d'Alene Indians with the prowess of the U.S. Army. Steptoe, who was unaware of the Indians' rage over the proposed Missouri-to-Columbia road, thought he was marching out principally to satisfy a handful of distressed miners. The regulars carried inferior and obsolescent arms and were so poorly provided with pack animals that ammunition boxes were discarded to make room for baggage.

More than 1,000 warriors intercepted the column about 20 miles south of the present-day city of Spokane. They told the troops to go home, and although Steptoe had been foolish enough to march out poorly prepared, he was not a complete idiot. He agreed to turn back. Through the day and into the next, the warriors followed the regulars, taunting them with jeers. On May 17 the Indians suddenly attacked the column, killing two officers. Steptoe made for a defensible hilltop position, arranging the burdensome baggage as breastworks and alotting from the niggardly supply only three rounds of ammunition per man. Steptoe brought his only major asset to bear, some howitzers, and managed to hold the warriors at bay during the remainder of the day. By nightfall it was clear to the regulars that they were in a bad way. In desperation Steptoe resolved to fight to the finish, to go down in honor and a blaze of glory. His officers were less than enthusiastic about their colonel's plan and successfully argued for escape. Leaving their artillery and other supplies behind, the regulars crept in darkness down the hill, circled behind the dozing Indian camp, and crept back to the safety of Fort Walla Walla.

Outraged by this humiliation, army commanders ordered a vigorous campaign against the hostiles. In a rare act of overconfident stupidity, the Indians gave Colonel George Wright (1803–65) a perfect opportunity to carry out his orders. About 600 warriors met Wright's force (which was augmented by friendly Nez Percés) not guerrilla-style, but in the open on two battlefields—Spokane Plain (September 1, 1858) and Four Lakes (September 5)—suited to the kind of conventional warfare the army had been trained to fight. Wright not only commanded a superior force, but a better-armed one; each man had been issued brand-new long-range repeating rifles. In both battles the Indians suffered decisive defeats.

Deeming his victories insufficient "punishment," Wright sent one of his officers, a Major Garnett, and a detachment of men from Indian camp to Indian camp to demand delivery of those who had led the attack on Steptoe and his men. A total of 15 Indians were hanged, and others were made prisoner. Chief Kamiakin, although he had been injured by artillery fire in the Battle of Spokane Plain, escaped to British Canada. The chief's brother-in-law, Owhi (d. 1858), approached Wright to make peace, was seized, and was forced to summon his son, the war leader Qualchin (d. 1858). Wright summarily hanged the young man in the presence of his father. In a subsequent escape attempt, Owhi was shot and killed. Thoroughly dispirited, the tribes of the Columbia Basin made no more war but resignedly marched to the reservations prescribed by Governor Stevens in an earlier treaty, which the U.S. Senate hurriedly ratified on March 8, 1859.

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Cold War (1946–early 1990s)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The United States and its capitalist allies and proxies vs. the Soviet Union and its communist allies and proxies

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Virtually every "hot" spot on the globe

DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Two of the major victors—the United States and the Soviet Union—in World War II became superpowers that divided the world into two heavily armed and irreconcilable camps. The tension and constant fear of Armageddon, which for so many characterized this metaphorical war, however, was mostly the result of both countries' technological success in producing weapons of mass destruction. Otherwise, the cold war was not merely a war—a series of related conflicts of various extent stemming from the same conditions—but also a system of alliances not unlike—at least in function—the system of alliances Otto von Bismarck had put together to preserve a general European peace in the previous century. From this point of view, the superpowers simply replaced the Great Powers as the brokers of international relations. Moreover, the decades of the cold war, although certainly decades of fear and failure, also represented a creative period in which the world experienced the closest thing to a general peace since Bismarck created modern Europe. For nearly half a century, from the late 1940s to the early 1990s, the

boundaries, institutions, and relationships fashioned at the beginning of the period—with the sole exception of the Sino-Soviet split—were still shaping world politics right up to the cold war's sudden end.

OUTCOME: The Communist bloc imploded, and the United States emerged as the world's sole superpower, with little sense of direction and little notion of where its real interests lay.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Not applicable

CASUALTIES: Not applicable

TREATIES: Virtually every diplomatic agreement for nearly five decades following World War II

THE COMING OF THE COLD WAR

It had happened before, at the end of World War I, and it was happening again at the end of World War II—the next conflict began smoldering in the ashes of a world ruined by the near total devastation of modern war. Among the powers occupying the ruins of Nazi Germany and Nazi-dominated eastern Europe, as suspicions of each others' postwar intentions flared, that conflict sometimes threatened to burst into flame. But at the end of World War I, a grand round of treaty-making, dictated by the victors, which was intended to dampen the enmities created by the war by finding a "just" resolution to its causes and conduct, had only fanned the hatreds to burn brighter. In contrast, after World War II the victors simply moved into the burned over area with their armed forces, set up camp, and began bickering with each other.

At first their animosity was held in check by the sheer scale of the devastation from what had been the greatest conflict in the history of the planet. Europe looked as people imagined the surface of the moon would look. All the great cities of central and eastern Europe, much of London, and western Russia were pitted remnants standing jagged against the horizon. Transportation networks had been ripped to shreds, farmland turned into scorched earth, and industrial production brought to a complete standstill. Japan was just as blighted, its cities flattened by fire-bombing and two nuclear blasts, its industry and shipping destroyed. China, under occupation for 14 years, was facing a decade of civil war almost as destructive as the war itself. In Europe 45 million people were homeless, half of them in places such as Poland, the Ukraine, and western Russia that had been burned to the ground three times during the fighting. Indeed, the war loosed on the earth a vast army of refugees. A total of 27 million had fled the Nazis or were forced out by them, and nearly 5 million more had been seized and made into slaves. Huge numbers, too, fled the coming of the Russians, many of them ethnic Germans or collaborators who feared, accurately, an especially brutal reprisal. All told, experts estimated 60 million people from 27 countries and 55 ethnic groups were uprooted by the war. And then there were the prisoners of war—7 million taken by the Allies during the war and 8 million more liberated from Axis camps. Finally, there were the 670,000 survivors of the death camps, who left behind some 6 million Jews and 3 million Slavs, gypsies, and other "social undesirables" who the Nazis had exterminated.

Nobody wished to risk a renewed conflict that could wreak this kind of damage, but everybody feared that this kind of damage could be wreaked on them if they were not careful. There in the battle-spawned ruins of central and eastern Europe, the liberal democracies and Communist Russia, erstwhile Allies, became suspicious of each other, worried about the next step, eager to get a jump on the other. In one sense what was happening was nothing new. In the past, long before either World War I or World War II, grand wartime coalitions had invariably broken up once the common fight gave way to diplomatic sparring over the division of the spoils. Indeed, the Versailles peace negotiations could be—and were—viewed as one huge debate about reparations and revenge, couched in the grandiose language of a hollow idealism. This time, however, the postwar diplomats became the midwives of something new. The result of their work would hardly be recognizable as a peace, but it would not appear to be a war either.

The birth of this new condition gestated in diplomatic disputes over such matters as what to do with the utterly defeated Germany, who would exercise hegemony over eastern Europe, and how the world would handle the spectacular scientific revolution in weapons of mass destruction showcased in the levelling of two Japanese cities. Some, maybe even most, of these disputes might have been avoided. The feuding victors after the wars of Louis XIV (1638–1715) and Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) or World War I at least managed to negotiate treaties, and the rancor among them had been leavened by the passage of time or the worry that the enemy they had so recently vanquished might yet rise again. That did not happen after 1945. No one called a grand peace conference. No one worried about a Germany or a Japan—or for that matter, an Italy—rising anew to pose a threat. These defeated nations were bombed-out, blasted almost to oblivion, and none of the old Axis powers held the ultimate postwar ace-in-the-hole, the atomic bomb.

Thus, distrust, miscommunications, and the incompatible goals of the Allies became not the mere squabbling among victors familiar from the past, but swelled into irreconcilable quarrels between countries, which developed year by year into ever more rigid political positions and became so hide-bound that they caused the world to split into two ideological, armed camps. This smoldering conflict that no one could put out but no one wanted to stir up into a third worldwide conflagration would be dubbed—by U.S. presidential adviser Bernard Baruch

(1870–1965) and press pundit Walter Lippmann (1889–1974)—the cold war.

THE NATURE OF THE CONFLICT

The fact that every major industrial region of the world but North America had been laid waste by the war in many ways determined the nature of the conflict. On a stunned globe, the United States now accounted for nearly half the gross annual product. It enjoyed a technological lead lately symbolized by, but hardly limited to, its nuclear franchise. Yet the United States, for the most part, just wanted to go home after the war and get back to business. Matters were otherwise in the Soviet Union, where Stalin—who had done no small amount of mass murder himself and who feared nothing so much as a personal loss of power—took heart in the fact that, though his country, too, might be in ruins, his armies occupied much of Europe, and puppet communist parties were agitating for control of the rest. When the war ended on the Continent, Stalin had been justified in feeling safe at last; it appeared as if the Allies were going to allow him to build a buffer zone around the new Soviet empire that would keep both his borders and his people safe from Western encroachments. Then Harry S. Truman (1884–1972) dropped the bomb on Hiroshima, and Stalin felt the need—as Winston Churchill (1874–1965) would say in a Missouri speech—to drop an "iron curtain" in Europe (address at Westminster College, Fulton, Missouri, March 5, 1946).

Posing "asymmetrical" threats (meaning threats unsuited to the other's potential response) to each other, the United States and the Soviet Union began a postwar struggle in 1945 over treatment of occupied Germany and the composition of the Polish government. It spread in 1946 as Russia communized the lands under its occupation and the former allies failed to finalize a plan for the control of atomic energy. From 1947 to 1950 Washington and Moscow reacted to threats, real or perceived, from each other, and the temporary division of Europe calcified two blocs, followed by the same process in much of the rest of the world as this conflict became universalized, institutionalized, and militarized. The reason there was no Treaty of Versailles after World War II to set up a peace from which could grow the next conflict was that the next conflict was already underway. There was merely the end of combat proper and a series of treaties—some establishing defense alliances, some creating commercial unions, some that launched new states—but all that over time reconstructed the postwar world.

At the same time the cold war magnified and distorted historical trends established or fed by the two world wars in the first half of the 20th century—Asian nationalism and the breakup of the old colonial empires; the continuation of the three-decades-long Chinese Revolution and its denouement in a communist takeover; the movement in western Europe toward diplomatic and economic integration; and the bursting forth of two "superpowers" onto the world's diplomatic stage. These trends led to a new round of alliances that reflected in one way or another the ideological rendering of the world. The irony was that for all this turmoil and the danger of world annihilation, the cold war also gave birth to a stable world order unmatched since Bismarck's alliance system had immolated itself in 1914.

THE TRUMAN DOCTRINE

Hoping to avoid the mistakes of Versailles, America's first impulse toward postwar Europe was a generous one. George C. Marshall (1880–1959), secretary of state under President Truman and former army chief of staff during World War II, announced (in a commencement address at Harvard University on June 5, 1947) a bold plan of economic assistance to rebuild war-ravaged Europe. A brilliant military leader whose energies had so recently been focused on destroying the might of Germany and Japan, Marshall developed a sweeping plan for rebuilding what the war had devastated. To France, Britain, and central Europe, economically crippled by the war, Marshall—fearing they might thus fall prey to the siren call of communism—promulgated a policy of economic aid on an unprecedented scale to restore "normal economic health in the world, without which there can be no political stability and no assured peace."

Great Britain and France spearheaded the formation of a Committee for European Economic Cooperation, made up of delegates from 16 nations, and the committee officially requested $22.4 billion from the United States. Congress appropriated more than $13 billion in funds to be disbursed through the Marshall Plan, and it also authorized a Displaced Persons Plan, through which nearly 300,000 Europeans, including many survivors of the Holocaust, became U.S. citizens. As a direct result of the Marshall Plan, Western Europe was able to get back on its feet. Key to that recovery was the formation of a West German republic—the Federal Democratic Republic—out of the western sector of divided Germany after 1947 and its rapid economic growth under the plan. From the beginning, however—and despite Marshall's pronouncement at Harvard that the policy of aid was not aimed "against any country or doctrine but against hunger, poverty, desperation, and chaos"—the Marshall Plan occasioned the drawing of the battlelines along which the long, tense, and debilitating cold war would be fought, dominating world politics for four decades.

The reality of the communist threat was underscored in September 1947, when the Soviet Union tested its first atomic bomb, a weapon the United States had been smug enough to think it alone in the world had the capacity to develop. The communist provocations in Eastern Europe and the Balkans continued as Greece became embroiled in a civil war sparked by communists, and Turkey came

under Russian pressure to provide bases and naval passage through the Dardanelles. Truman announced a new "get-tough" doctrine to accompany the rehabilitation of Europe under the Marshall Plan. Not truly understanding Stalin and his aggression (few did), Truman based his new policy on a "long memorandum" he had received from Moscow in 1946 written by diplomat George Kennan (b. 1904). In 1947, writing under the pseudonym of "Mr. X" to ensure anonymity and allow him to express his personal, unofficial opinion. Kennan developed the ideas contained in his memo and published a highly influential article in the journal *Foreign Affairs,* presenting the idea of "containment" of Soviet communism "by the adroit and vigilant application of counter-force at a series of constantly shifting geographic points."

Following Kennan's lead, Truman called for combatting communism by containing its spread, using all means necessary, including military force. In effect, the "Truman Doctrine" meant that the United States was put on a footing of perpetual preparedness, and such a degree of preparedness required permanent and continual sources of information about foreign governments, hostile and potentially hostile, as well as the capability for "covert action"—foreign policy initiatives to be kept hidden from the American public. In the chill climate of the cold war, the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA)—an outgrowth of the U.S. World War II espionage organization, the Office of Strategic Services (OSS)—came into being and expanded rapidly in size and power, to the point of becoming a kind of shadow government (similar if not quite on the scale or power of the Russians' own new security apparatus, the KGB) and exploiting statutes granting the agency great leeway and ensuring the secrecy of its operations. In addition to the CIA, Truman's new "national security" measures included the establishment of permanent chiefs of staff, making the air force independent of the army and beefing up its Strategic Air Command, under whose bailiwick would fall the responsibility for deployment of nuclear weapons, and the negotiation of a string of regional alliances on the borders of the Communist bloc that would serve as firewalls against Soviet mischief.

There was mischief enough to come. In February 1948 the Communists, backed by Stalin and the Red Army, overran Czechoslovakia, which led Britain, France, and the Benelux countries (Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg) to speed up their mutual defense agreement, the Treaty of Brussels. In response the Soviets, who still occupied the eastern sector of Germany, withdrew from the Allied Control Council overseeing the occupation and blockaded the city of Berlin (in the eastern sector, but divided into western and eastern zones) in June 1948. During the blockade the United States airlifted supplies for nearly a year to residents of West Berlin, and the Truman administration began implementing the containment policy. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), formed in 1949, joined the United States to Canada and 10 Western European nations in a military alliance. An attack on any member nation would be deemed an attack on all of them. NATO became the model for the military alliances the United States would organize with Mediterranean nations in the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO), and with the nations of Southeast Asia in SEATO. By the 1950s the United States had a string of allies around the world that all but enclosed the Soviet Union and its satellite nations.

Of course the Soviet Union countered. When a rearmed West Germany joined NATO in 1955, Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971), the Soviet Union's new premier, responded with the Warsaw Pact, an alliance of his East European satellites. Khrushchev made alliances with India and other neutral nations. He used tanks in 1956 to ensure Soviet control over Hungary and Poland. In 1961 he built a wall—symbolic to the Western world of the harshness and hopelessness of communist oppression—separating the Soviet sector of Berlin from the rest of the city. And when Fidel Castro (b. c. 1926/27) gained power in Cuba, the Soviet Union placed its nuclear missiles a scant 90 miles away from U.S. shores. The Cuban missile crisis of October 1962, perhaps more than any other event in the cold war, made the U.S. public realize that the world, divided into two camps both armed to the teeth with weapons of unimaginable destruction, stayed ready through the postwar years to touch off a war not to "end all wars" but to end the world itself.

Indeed, by then the potential for conflict had escalated almost beyond imagination. In October 1949 the United States had commenced a program to step up production of uranium and plutonium, a necessary first step in the creation of the "H-bomb," which used a nuclear detonation to set off a far more powerful thermonuclear explosion. On November 1, 1952, the first hydrogen bomb—code named "Mike"—was detonated at Eniwetok Atoll in the Pacific. The test was so secret that it was not reported to the public until February 2, 1954, when President Dwight David Eisenhower (1890–1969) made a statement. On March 24 of that year a hydrogen bomb test in the Marshall Islands exceeded all estimates of its power. The U.S. monopoly on the hydrogen bomb was, however, even briefer than what it had enjoyed with the atomic bomb. The Soviets tested an H-bomb on November 23, 1955. As the nuclear arms race turned into a thermonuclear arms race it reached "critical mass" and became self-sustaining. With the United States and Soviet Union matching one another "device for device," soon it was the delivery systems for these bombs—intercontinental missiles developed by former German scientists recruited by both ideological camps—that took center stage.

THE THIRD WORLD

Not only had the cold war escalated, it had spread to every corner of the globe, connecting events in Africa, Asia, and

Latin America to events in Europe in ways that the Continent's old imperial nations of the 18th, 19th, and early 20th centuries would never have imagined. Late in 1949, after forcing the Chinese Nationalist army under Chiang Kai-shek (Jiang Jieshi; 1887–1975) to flee to the small island of Taiwan, Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung; 1893–1976) and his fellow Communists declared China's vast mainland to be the People's Republic of China, an event viewed in the capitalist West as a major "defeat" in the rapidly developing cold war. When the United States rejected Mao's overtures to establish diplomatic relations, he allied his country with the Soviet Union, but it was an uneasy alliance, as Mao had many ideological differences with Stalin. The West, particularly the United States, failed to acknowledge these differences and treated China and Russia as a united front and a single foe. This led U.S. politicians to overestimate the cohesion of the so-called communist bloc for some three decades and stubbornly to deny recognition of the legitimate government of one of the world's major nations.

This misunderstanding greatly inflated the importance of the first of a series of brush wars—the Communists called them "wars of national liberation"—in what would become known as the third world. On June 27, 1950, after communist-backed forces crossed the 38th parallel dividing North from South Korea, President Truman, concluding—incorrectly—that the Soviet Union had directed the assault, committed U.S. military supplies to South Korea and moved the U.S. Seventh Fleet into the Formosa Strait, a show of force meant to intimidate a China Truman assumed to be a Soviet puppet. Truman acted with neither a declaration of war nor the advice and consent of the Senate. Instead, the United States called for United Nations sanctions against the North, an action that committed America to a war the U.S. government officially, if euphemistically, called a "police action."

Before it was over, the KOREAN WAR was immensely unpopular with the American public. The casualty list in and of itself had a great impact on the United States, still weary from World War II then only five years in the past. The Korean conflict also had a major effect on U.S. armed forces, bringing a popular president, Truman, into direct conflict with a popular war hero, General Douglas MacArthur (1880–1964), who the president relieved of command after MacArthur proposed bombing bridges over the Yalu River, which would have meant attacking Red China directly. In addition, the war cost the Democratic Party the White House, and Eisenhower was elected in 1952 promising that he personally would go to Korea to end the fighting, which he did, signing an armistice in 1953. The Korean War heightened the anticommunist hysteria of the McCarthy era and reshaped international politics by prompting the United States to demand greater contributions from its European allies to NATO and to form SEATO. In the face of such U.S. demands, two European cabinets—in France and Britain—fell from power, West Germany joined NATO, and the Soviets responded by creating the Warsaw Pact. Finally, Korea occasioned the first U.S. military buildup in South Vietnam, another step in the American cold war policy of containing communism.

Even parts of the globe not obviously subject to a direct communist "threat" were affected by the cold war. After World War II the British, faced with continual conflict between Arabs and Jews in Palestine, which they had occupied since 1917, withdrew from the country and turned it—and the Jewish-Arab conflict—over to the United Nations, which responded by partitioning Palestine into Jewish and Arab sectors. Over Arab protests the Jews established the state of Israel in 1948. Not a decade later, on July 26, 1956, the new Egyptian president, Gamal Abdel Nasser (1918–70), nationalized the Suez Canal, which touched off a crisis that changed Middle Eastern diplomacy forever. Great Britain and France, their influence already waning, could no longer serve as U.S. surrogates in the region, which put pressure on American diplomats to "solve" the Mideast's nearly unsolvable problems. Israel, which had—under a secret arrangement with Britain and France—invaded Egypt to take back the canal and depose, if possible, Nasser, was established as a power to be reckoned with in the region, even if it did meekly withdraw its troops at the demand of an angry President Eisenhower. The Arab states, in response to what they considered British and French treachery, followed Nasser's lead, turning to the Soviets for aid and support. Nasser emerged as a leader in the third world, which—like the Arab states—grew warmer toward the Soviet bloc.

Sometimes anticommunism served to mask economic colonialism in the third world, just as wars of national liberation masked Soviet influence-peddling. Such was the case, for example, in Iran in 1954. Responding to a liberalized Iranian parliament's announcement that it intended to nationalize the country's vast oil deposits, the intelligence agencies of the British and American governments began plotting the ouster of Iran's highest elected official, Dr. Mohammed Mossadegh (1920–53), via covert action. They later justified the policy with claims that he was backed by communist elements, which he was, though not critically so. Operation Ajax restored the monarchy of Reza Shah Pahlavi (1919–80), who was exceedingly "friendly" to the free world powers, but it also initiated a series of cloak-and-dagger meddlings in the affairs of other countries that undermined indigenous democratic movements, often influenced by Marxist economic programs, in favor of repressive oligarchies—including many in Latin America, such as Guatemala, Chile, Argentina, Nicaragua, and El Salvador, to name a few. These covert actions, which came to characterize the CIA created by Allen Dulles (1893–1969), undermined the credibility of U.S. foreign policy abroad and hurt its standing with such third world groups as the Organization of American States (OAS), which it had played a major role in founding.

On the other hand, in Africa Marxist governments with Soviet-friendly policies often accompanied postwar decolonization. In 1960 British prime minister Harold Macmillan (1894–1986), who had come to office in the wake of a crisis that had resulted in Britain granting Ghana its independence in 1957, spoke to the parliament of white-ruled South Africa about the new realities in Africa, announcing that a "wind of change" was sweeping the continent. Macmillan's phrase was not merely political hyperbole, since by 1960 17 new nations had emerged from the old African colonial states, and from 1960 to 1965 another 11 were to follow, which led to the formation of the Organization of African Unity (OAU), and left only the white-settler nations in the south as the last outposts of Africa's European-dominated past. None of these Marxist-inspired "liberations" ignited brush wars in Africa on the scale of Korea or Vietnam, or important ideological standoffs such as those in Berlin or against Cuba, in part because major portions of the emerging third world remained vaguely defined in the East-vs.-West political geography of the cold war.

COUNTERINSURGENCY

In the late 1950s and the 1960s there were indications that Eastern Europe was itself not especially overjoyed to be a part of the Communist bloc. On October 24, 1956, Hungary's prime minister, Imre Nagy (1896–1958), defied the USSR by announcing an end to one-party rule, thereby igniting the movement to remove itself from the Soviet sphere of influence established in Eastern Europe at the end of World War II, a movement the West came to call the HUNGARIAN REVOLT. Regardless of the United States's continued commitment to the Truman Doctrine, Eisenhower declined to intervene in the anti-Soviet revolt, and—much to the shock of the Hungarians—announced that the United States would offer no aid to the new government. Accordingly, the Soviets attacked on November 4, and despite impassioned radio pleas to America, no help was forthcoming. Within weeks the revolt was liquidated, and Hungary, barely recovered from the devastation of the world war, was in shambles. The Soviets had killed tens of thousands and had imprisoned more. Almost a quarter-million Hungarians fled the country. Eisenhower, a frugal and careful commander, had as an economy measure cut back spending on the U.S. armed forces and increased America's reliance on its airborne nuclear threat to deter communist aggression. Insisting on his right to reply with "massive retaliatory power" at places of his own choosing, he was apparently unwilling to risk thermonuclear war for a country already considered part of the Soviet sphere.

If the arrival of the missile age and its promise of instant destruction had made Eisenhower more cautious in his execution of the cold war, it led his successor, John F. Kennedy (1917–63) to be more vigorous in his responses to perceived communist aggression around the globe and especially in the third world. Kennedy called his technique "counterinsurgency." Overtly, Kennedy launched the Peace Corps, the Latin American Alliance for Progress, and NASA's race to the moon, to name a few new programs aimed at "paying any price" to compete successfully with the Communists anywhere in the world and out of it. Covertly, Kennedy unleashed the CIA on such "trouble spots" as Cuba and Southeast Asia, resulting in the Bay of Pigs fiasco and in the assassination of South Vietnamese president Ngo Dinh Diem (1901–63). These in turn led, respectively, to the Cuban missile crisis and, after his own assassination, to the VIETNAM WAR.

Cuba had, of course, been one of those third world countries that Eisenhower "lost" to the Soviets when Fidel Castro came to power in 1959 after overthrowing a typically corrupt U.S. "strongman" client, Fulgencio Batista (1901–73). On October 22, 1962, Kennedy appeared on national television to make a startling announcement: The Soviet Union was building bomber and nuclear missile bases in Cuba, and he intended to stop them. When Khrushchev refused to back down, the world rushed to the brink of nuclear war. Back-channel negotiations between Kennedy and Khrushchev ultimately resolved the crisis, but not before contradictions between official diplomatic responses and the secret talks threatened to make the situation spin out of control. So close had the world come to Armaggedon that both Kennedy and Khrushchev immediately agreed to disarmament talks, during which a special "hot line" was established as a direct communications link between the White House and the Kremlin to avoid any misunderstandings in the future that might accidentally spark a nuclear conflagration. The very existence of the hot line underscored the failure of the cold war policy of diplomatic brinksmanship, and the very same meeting of the Disarmament Committee that created the hot line also produced a limited nuclear test ban treaty. Clearly some kind of major disarmament agreement was in the cards as John Kennedy, sobered by the experience, looked toward a second term as president.

However, Kennedy's assassination brought to the White House Lyndon Johnson (1908–73), as determined to hold the line against communist influence in Vietnam as Kennedy himself had been in Cuba. Although Johnson would follow up on Kennedy's initiatives to sign a treaty on the nonproliferation of nuclear weapons, his Vietnam policies would serve to intensify and prolong the cold war. On August 7, 1964, in response to an apparent attack on a U.S. destroyer conducting espionage activities in the Gulf of Tonkin off the coast of North Vietnam, the U.S. Senate passed the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, giving President Johnson a free hand to prevent further "aggression" by North Vietnam and providing broad congressional support for expanding the war in Southeast Asia. Even as the resolution was being passed, Johnson assured the American public

that its sons would not die fighting an Asian war. However scarcely was the 1964 presidential election over when Johnson—faced with withdrawing from or escalating the conflict—chose to commit 22,000 troops. By 1965 75,000 Americans were fighting in Vietnam; by 1966, 375,000; by the next election, more than half a million. Earlier in the conflict both Kennedy and then Johnson had referred to the troops as "military advisers." By 1966 there was no way to denominate them as anything other than combat troops. As draft calls increased by 100 percent in 1965, young men flooded American colleges to avoid conscription and service in that "little green country." Starting in February of that year, the United States bombed the North, then stopped to see communist leader Ho Chi Minh's (1890–1969) response, which was invariably to send yet more leaders, more weapons, and more troops to help the insurgent Viet Cong. Over the next eight years the U.S. Army in Vietnam would grow to a peak of 542,000 troops, and the economic costs of the war would bleed Johnson's cherished domestic reforms—his Great Society—dry.

By then, too, opposition to the war was mounting in America, as some of its business leaders began to question the astronomical costs of the war, and many of its draft-age students its morality. An obsessed Johnson and military leaders, acting almost as if they were independent of the publicly stated American policy, no longer bothered to consult citizens or senators while they turned Vietnam into the fourth bloodiest conflict in American history. Johnson's own secretary of defense, Robert McNamara (b. 1916), admitted in 1967 that the bombing had not stopped North Vietnam's infiltration. In 1968, as if to prove McNamara's point, came the stunning massive and coordinated attack of the Viet Cong in the January Tet Offensive. Whether the Viet Cong "won" the Tet Offensive or not, it was certainly successful in putting to the lie Lyndon Johnson's public claims about the war. As 350,000 refugees abandoned their hamlets en masse and poured into the recently besieged towns, the United States began to strong-arm its puppet regime in South Vietnam toward the peace table. On May 10, 1968, talks with the North opened in Paris that would, years later, lead to a settlement of the war.

DÉTENTE

The talks came too late, however, for the Johnson presidency. Widely criticized in the media, the center of ever growing campus protests, and challenged by prominent members of his own party, such as Eugene McCarthy (b. 1916) and Robert Kennedy (1925–68), Johnson declined to run for reelection. Robert Kennedy's assassination on June 6, 1968, following his sound victory in the California presidential primary, destroyed the potential for the election to become a public referendum on Vietnam. The murder turned a disorienting, violent, and chaotic year into a brutally incomprehensible one, virtually ensuring that the United States would be politically incapable of avoiding profound, dangerous divisions in the body politic more serious than any since the Civil War. A politically revived Richard Nixon (1913–94) made plans to continue the grim policy, legalized by the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, of bombing a small country into oblivion to satisfy the ideological needs of the cold war once he finally arrived at the Oval Office. After much domestic turmoil and a brutal escalation of the bombing over the next three years, Nixon—faced himself with reelection—engineered a peace that abandoned the corrupt leadership of South Vietnam and brought U.S. involvement in the war to an inglorious close.

But Nixon, heading for a second term, had a broader agenda on his mind than the quagmire that, in retrospect, became a symbol of the lunatic quality of cold war foreign policy. As Vietnam had made evident, the Kennedy-Johnson counterinsurgency fervor of the 1960s, far from establishing U.S. hegemony, had instead wrought a diffusion of world power and an erosion of the rigid separation of the globe into superpower blocs. Western Europe and Japan, now recovered from World War II's devastation, had experienced dynamic growth that was leading to a certain independence in foreign as well as domestic policy. The Sino-Soviet split had become more evident behind the smokescreen of Vietnam. The third world, too, was showing more resistance to superpower coercion as the United States squandered it capital, its good name, and its domestic tranquillity in Southeast Asia. The Soviets, having achieved something close to parity with the United States in their nuclear arsenal, were increasingly obsessed with a potentially hostile China; the Americans, exhausted and divided, wanted to scale back their global commitments. In these circumstances, Nixon became the first U.S. president to visit both Beijing and Moscow, laying the ground for official recognition by the United States for the People's Republic of China and détente with the Soviet Union.

Détente, French for a release of tension, entered the U.S. vocabulary in 1971 and was heard frequently in the spring of 1972. With some justification, cynics said Nixon's trip to Moscow on May 22, 1972, like his earlier trip to China, was an election-year political tactic to deflect criticism of his conservative domestic policies and his continued prosecution of the war in Vietnam. More kindly put, Nixon had realized that the war itself was an impediment to these broader international possibilities and used the ending of the conflict as a wedge into the triangulation of foreign affairs he was seeking to establish. Whatever his motivation, the results, especially of his meetings with Soviet premier Leonid Brezhnev (1906–82), whose cold warrior credentials—like Nixon's—were well-established, proved historic and profound. Seven agreements were signed, including one aimed at preventing nuclear war and others covering unprecedented cooperation in scientific research, particularly in space explo-

ration, and expanded trade. When Brezhnev returned Nixon's visit in June 1973, coming to the United States for a second summit, the two signed a joint resolution defining the essence of their détente.

The Watergate scandal—itself a struggle over the "imperial" presidency created in no small measure by the developments of the cold war—would cut short Nixon's diplomatic efforts before they reached fruition. Détente did not end the cold war and hardly lasted beyond Nixon's removal from office, but it raised the possibility of the truly peaceful coexistence Khrushchev and Kennedy had first begun working toward in the wake of the Cuban missile crisis. The Nixon-Brezhnev détente was the first beacon of a new era in international relations. After much confusion, that era would come to witness the collapse of the ideological dispute that had plagued diplomacy since the end of World War I.

THE END OF THE COLD WAR

By the mid-1970s the respite in the cold war indicated by détente seemed to be crashing to an end. The Watergate scandal had derailed Richard Nixon's presidency and, with it, his apparent rapport with fellow cold warrior Leonid Brezhnev. Not long after the United States extricated itself from Vietnam, the Soviets would find themselves bogged down in their own version of that conflict in Afghanistan—and U.S. diplomacy, it seemed, required free-world support of the Afghani rebels. Meanwhile, the sudden increase in the price of oil imposed on the world by the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) had kicked off a spiraling inflation that undermined the peaceful coexistence policy that diplomats had been seeking since 1960.

The inflation and the end of détente also destabilized an already volatile Middle East. With the fall of the shah in Iran, a fundamentalist Islamic regime came to power and took U.S. diplomats, covert agents, press reporters, and businesspeople hostage. U.S. policymakers suddenly discovered there was no one in Iran willing to talk to them, much less negotiate the release of the hostages, and the resulting diplomatic crisis doomed the presidency of Jimmy Carter (b. 1924) and undermined U.S. prestige and foreign policy. Even before then, the outbreak of the Yom Kippur War between Egypt and Israel had emphasized the apparently intractible problems of the region, whereas unrest in Africa (such as the Soviet- and Cuban- supported military junta's overthrow of Haile Selassie [1892–1975] in Ethiopia) and in Latin America (such as the U.S.-backed military coup in Chile against left-wing president Salvador Allende [1908–73] and the rise of the Marxist Sandinistas in Nicaragua) gave proof that, certainly in the third world, the cold war was not only still active but was spinning out of control. Adding to the sense of general malaise was the marked increase in ideologically fueled terrorism, beginning with the Palestine Liberation Organization's (PLO) Black Septemberists' taking hostage Israeli athletes at the Olympic Games in 1972. By the early 1980s even the staid British had become more bellicose, as Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher (b. 1925) ordered the British navy to invade the Falklands. The decade or so stretching from the early 1970s to the early 1980s certainly put paid to any notion that the "global village," which media pundits and diplomats alike had begun talking about in the 1960s, was a friendly place.

Then something like a miracle occurred. In the Middle East Israel and Egypt suddenly appeared ready to "give peace a chance," and they began by meeting on U.S. soil and signing the Camp David accords. In Europe popular uprisings in the Soviet bloc—always brutally suppressed in the past—went not only unchallenged but seemed also to be encouraged by new leadership in the Kremlin. Czechoslovakians freely demonstrated against the current communist regime on the anniversary of the 1968 Soviet invasion. In Poland a workers' union called Solidarity demanded democratic reforms, and the Sejim—the parliament—legalized the return of confiscated property to the Catholic Church while Soviet-puppet president Wojciech Jaruzelski (b. 1923), to the shock of all, approved free elections for June 1989—the first in 40 years—during which Solidarity won all the available seats. Meanwhile, on May 2, 1989, Hungary unraveled the barbed wire along its borders with Austria, the first real breach in the iron curtain. In the fall the citizens of Berlin began to tear down the Berlin Wall, consummate symbol of the cold war. Within three months the unthinkable had happened—all of Eastern Europe had broken free of Soviet domination, and East and West Germany were discussing reunification. And the changes were not only limited to Europe and the Mideast. Almost as unthinkable as the fall of the Berlin Wall was the fact that the United States had given back the Panama Canal to the Panamanians in a new Panama Canal Treaty. And in China the repressive Maoist "Gang of Four" had been replaced by new leaders who talked of economic reforms and joining the world market.

Late in 1989 the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe met with NATO and the Soviets to proclaim that the cold war had ended. As if to prove the point, the various Soviet republics began declaring themselves sovereign or independent, and two years after the Paris conference an aborted military coup in Russia by conservative Communists led to the dissolution of the Communist Party and the collapse of the Soviet Union. Suddenly, the reckless national security system engendered by cold war diplomacy, in which two superpowers armed with weapons capable of destroying the planet many times over divided the world into hostile camps, vied for influence over unaligned third world countries, and held each other in check at tremendous costs to their own people in dollars and freedom, seemed superfluous. In the wake of the cold war, a United States that felt it had

"won" was, in fact, no longer quite sure of its place in a world in which the threat of massive retaliation was a hollow boast, and its foreign policy began to drift.

Many wished to take credit for bringing the cold war to a close. U.S. historians staked out claims for the effect of the hard-line anti-Soviet ascendancy of Ronald Reagan (1911–2004) and George H. W. Bush (b. 1924), the last of a breed formed by the experiences of World War II and its aftermath, who came into office talking about what Reagan called the "Evil Empire" of the USSR, invaded a few helpless third world countries such as Granada and Panama, and left following the defeat of Saddam Hussein in the Gulf War with vague homilies about a "New World Order." The rest of the world gave more credit to Mikhail Gorbachev (b. 1931), whose attempts to reform both the Russian economy and the political culture of the Communist Party led him to divest the Soviets of their European "empire" and garnered him a Nobel Peace Prize. Some credit should have been given to brave men like Anwar Sadat (1918–81) and Menachem Begin (1913–92), who also shared a Nobel for their efforts to find a way out of the impasse in the Middle East and who paid a price—Sadat was assassinated as a result—at home for doing so. Others gave credit to the new Polish pope John Paul II (b. 1920), or such men as Lech Walesa (b. 1943), or even Deng Xiaoping (1905–97).

But the truth of the matter is that Reagan's and Bush's third world raids, outside the Gulf War, earned the United States the condemnation of the foreign policy community, and Reagan's plan to spend the USSR into defeat cost him dearly at the nuclear bargaining table, when the Russians walked out of the START talks, as well as saddling the United States with a massive deficit that preoccupied domestic and foreign policy for a generation. By the time of the Gulf War, Bush could hardly afford any longer to act unilaterally, and without the scrim of UN backing, his own Congress would have derailed his Middle East strategy. Indeed, the New World Order of which he talked was evolving not from high-handed U.S. superpower diplomacy. Indeed, both he and his successor, Bill Clinton (b. 1946), wavered when it came to dealing with such post–cold war problems as the ethnic violence in Africa and Bosnia, and the Dayton Accords that brought the genocide in the former Yugoslavia to a close (*see* BOSNIA, WAR IN) was a testament not so much to U.S. pressure as to the combined pressure of Europe and Russia through an increasingly confident United Nations. Neither did Bush nor Clinton seem particularly adept at dealing with the persistent problem of terrorism by Islamic fundamentalists (such as Hamas), which continued to threaten the on-again, off-again Middle East peace process. Rather than leaving the world's only remaining superpower a clear legacy to follow in foreign policy, Reagan and Bush, the last of the cold warriors to hold power in the United States, left a defense establishment with a huge budget it did not need, a powerful national security apparatus it did not know what to do with, and a U.S. foreign policy community ambivalent at best about the direction world diplomacy had taken and should take.

Not that any of the other statesmen instrumental in ending the cold war fared much better. From the mid-1970s the Russians had achieved basic parity with the U.S. nuclear arsenal, so it was not Reagan's attempts to increase the costs of maintaining that arsenal, but the imbroglio in Afghanistan, that brought the Soviets to the edge of political and economic bankruptcy. The kinds of agreements the Soviets seemed anxious to reach with the United States had more to do with providing Gorbachev cover for pulling out of the war and finishing his domestic reforms than with shaving the Russian defense budget. In any case, Gorbachev was replaced soon after the fall of the Soviet Union by Boris Yeltsin (b. 1931), who had little foreign policy experience and who, necessarily, concentrated on his own crumbling country. Pope John Paul II was an arresting world figure, but the actual influence of the Roman Catholic Church on contemporary diplomacy was not measurably increased. Walesa never wielded influence outside Poland, whereas Deng—for all his skill in working his way to the top of the byzantine Chinese political world—only ensured the alienation of China from most of the world's diplomatic stage with his crackdown on the prodemocracy movement demonstrators in Beijing's Tienanmen Square in 1989.

In retrospect, the cold war seems to have been cyclical, with both the United States and the Soviet Union alternating between periods of assertion and relaxation. In the long run, it was not individual leaders who engineered its close, but the tremendous costs for both sides in energy and money and—more important—the rise of other players in an increasingly global marketplace. By the time George H. W. Bush left office, policy wags were joking that the cold war was over, and Japan had won. Certainly, the rise of Japan and the Pacific rim countries as a trading bloc was essential to the new directions in diplomacy, but as the United States learned, these directions were resistant to the old style of bilateral trade agreements. On the contrary, it was the success of the European Common Market in unifying Europe—commercially and culturally—that became the model for U.S. free-traders in shaping the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). Contrary to the pundits, the arrival of a global village did not put an end to the cold war and its hostilities. Instead, the end of the cold war cleared the way for the real emergence of the global market.

In the long run the cold war might well be missed, looked back upon with a certain nostalgia as a time when everything at least was clear and countries knew where they stood. Turmoil in the poorer nations of the world and the world's growing ethnic and religious divisions threatened to make the global village a chimera and the future more like the chaotic world after the collapse of the

Roman or Byzantine Empires. It may be that the world has entered one of those periods of history following a long period of diplomatic consensus—Europe, for example, under Bismarck's alliance system—that will yield to another round of great wars and the rise of new powers. The nature of such wide-ranging military, diplomatic, and political "settlements" as the cold war makes those living under such systems blind to other arrangements, which is why its close came as such a shock to so many.

See also CHINESE CIVIL WAR (1945–1949); CUBAN REVOLUTION; INVASION OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA; IRANIAN REVOLUTION.

Further reading: John Lewis Gaddis, *We Now Know: Rethinking Cold War History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1998); Edward H. Judge and John W. Langdon, eds., *The Cold War: A History through Documents* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1998); Walter Lafeber, *America, Russia, and the Cold War, 1945–1996* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 2001); Thomas Reed, *At the Abyss: An Insider's History of the Cold War* (New York: Random House, 2004); Martin Walker, *Cold War: A History* (New York: Henry Holt, 1995).

Colombian Civil War (1861)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conservative vs. liberal factions
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Colombia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The conservative government's attempts to regulate local militias and elections triggered civil war.
OUTCOME: A coup ousted the conservative president and ushered in the Colombian Epoch of Civil Wars.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Under Spanish colonial rule Colombia was long a part of New Granada, a vast territory comprising what is now Colombia as well as Venezuela, Ecuador, and Panama. In 1819 the great liberator of Venezuela, Simón Bolívar (1783–1830), liberated Colombia as well, and for the next decade Colombia was part of a tenuous confederation with Venezuela and Ecuador called Gran Colombia. Gran Colombia fell victim to regional differences among its constituents, which broke apart into separate nations. Within Colombia by 1849, two political parties, each dominated by Creole elites, were established: the conservatives, who favored a powerful central government tied to the church, and the liberals, who were federalists desiring separation of church and state. The opposed positions of the parties increasingly polarized Colombia. When the liberals came to power in 1849, reform came quickly. Slavery was abolished, church and state were separated, and the entire government was reorganized on federalist principles, so that local governments were rendered virtually autonomous.

Although the spirit of the reforms was laudable, their implementation increased the nation's fragmentation and political chaos. In this climate the liberals were discredited, and in 1857 a conservative president was elected. However, Mariano Ospina (1805–85) took significant measures to placate the liberal minority, promulgating a new, more conservative constitution that nevertheless retained many features of federalism. The Granadian Confederation, as the nation under Ospina was called, failed to coalesce as a single national entity, and, once again, the individual states within the confederation became increasingly autonomous and competitive.

At last, in 1860 the Ospina government attempted to institute uniform controls in local elections and to assume command over local militias. This triggered civil war, as General Tomás Cipriano de Mosquera (1796–1883), governor of the state of Cauca, declared his state independent then led an army into Bogotá, the Colombian capital. In a successful coup, Mosquera removed Ospina from office and on July 18, 1861, declared himself president. His assumption of office hardly brought stability to Colombia. Indeed, it heralded the COLOMBIAN EPOCH OF CIVIL WARS from 1863 to 1880.

Further reading: David Bushnell, *Making of Modern Colombia: A Nation in Spite of Itself* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Jesus Maria Henao and Gerardo Arrubla, *History of Colombia* (Port Washington, N.Y.: Kennikat Press, 1972).

Colombian Epoch of Civil Wars (1863–1880)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The various states composing the United States of Colombia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Colombia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The various states of Colombia rose in revolt against the central government over a period of 17 years until a strong, conservative president was elected in 1880.
OUTCOME: Rafael Núñez was elected president of Colombia and set out to strengthen the central government and end the state revolts.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Conservatives who desired a strong central government and liberals who preferred the states to have more authority were constantly at odds in the early years of Colombia's

national history. During the COLOMBIAN CIVIL WAR of 1861, General Tomas Cipriano de Mosquera (1796–1883), governor of the state of Cauca, marched his army to Bogotá and deposed the country's conservative president, Mariano Ospina (1805–85). Mosquera then declared himself provisional president of Colombia on July 18, 1861. Two years later, in 1863, the country adopted a new federal constitution, which created a union of seven sovereign states as the United States of Colombia. Intent on keeping the powers of the central government weak, the constitution proclaimed that presidential terms would be only two years and that no president could be reelected. Despite this prohibition, Mosquera was reelected to the presidency in 1865. He assumed dictatorial powers and clashed with the Liberal Party and congress. In 1867 he was deposed and imprisoned. Over the next several years a succession of liberal presidents was elected, and more than 40 armed conflicts broke out among factions contending for power in the individual states. An armed revolt in Cauca and several other states erupted in 1876 in opposition to the liberal president. Rafael Núñez (1825–94) was elected president in 1880 with support from both liberals and conservatives. He strengthened the central government and thereby ended the constant revolts among the states.

Further reading: David Bushnell, *Making of Modern Colombia: A Nation in Spite of Itself* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Jesus Maria Henao and Gerardo Arrubla, *History of Colombia* (Port Washington, N.Y.: Kennikat Press, 1972).

Colombian Guerrilla War (1976–ongoing)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Colombian government vs. leftist guerrilla groups
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Colombia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Left-wing political groups sought governmental reforms.
OUTCOME:
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After left-wing guerrilla groups in Colombia instigated civil war in the country, the government fought back in a protracted state of siege. In 1978 the government adopted a "security statute" that restricted individual civil liberties. The press and liberals objected to the document, and on January 1, 1979, the Movement of April 19 (also known as M-19) attacked the arsenal at Bogotá and seized more than 5,000 weapons. The movement, named for the date in 1970 on which its hero, Gustavo Rojas Pinilla (1900–75), lost the presidential election, suffered many losses during and after the arsenal attack. The Colombian government arrested hundreds of rebels, and reports of torture surfaced. In 1980 M-19 members seized 15 diplomats in a raid at the Dominican Republic embassy in Bogotá. Calling for the release of 311 political prisoners and demanding a $50 million ransom payment, the rebels held their hostages for 61 days. Once a settlement was reached, the guerrillas escaped to Havana, Cuba, where they released the remaining 12 hostages under their control. The following year hostilities continued, and on March 18, 1981, Colombian troops killed many M-19 guerrillas in a violent shoot-out. M-19 and other left-wing groups (including the Colombian Revolutionary Armed Forces, or FARC) and the National Liberation Army (ELN) continued their guerrilla activities despite reprisals by right-wing paramilitary groups and death squads. The government, eager to end the bloodshed, offered amnesty to the guerrillas, but the violence, although abated somewhat, continued. In 1984 Betancur Cuartes (b. 1923) was elected president, and he directed his government to improve the squalid living conditions of Colombia's poor, to adopt new fiscal measures designed to reduce inflation, and to gain control over the leftist groups by offering them a place in the political process. On November 6, 1985, claiming that promises for reforms had not been kept, members of M-19 seized the Palace of Justice and took 300 hostages. Police stormed the building, and in the ensuing battle 95 people were killed, including 11 Supreme Court justices. Violence in the country continued throughout the 1980s and 1990s, and increasingly the activities of drug traffickers became mingled with those of the left-wing guerrillas.

These connections only grew worse in the mid- to late 1990s, when Colombia's ruling Liberal Party was exposed for being in the pay of Colombia's drug cartels. U.S.-backed efforts to root out the drug lords, which resulted in the death of the Medellín cartel's overlord, Pablo Escobar (1949–93) at the end of 1993, only allowed the Cali cartel to grow more powerful as the Medellín foundered. And it was the Cali cartel from which Colombian president Ernesto Samper Pizano (b. 1950) was accused of taking money to assist in his election in June 1994. As the scandal spread, brave prosecutors arrested the Liberal Party campaign treasurer, who implicated the minister of defense. But ultimately the trials merely led to a wave of violence and kidnappings as the scandal worked its way up the political totem pole. Then Samper declared a state of emergency in 1995 following the assassination of a prominent critic of the government, and prosecutors prudently decided not to investigate the president himself. Though Samper was "cleared" of all charges in June 1996 by the Colombian congress, polls revealed that most Colombians nevertheless believed him guilty. It was a belief shared by the U.S. government, which revoked his entry visa.

Nevertheless, under mounting pressure from the United States, efforts to eradicate the coca and poppy plantations had continued, as the Colombian army launched operations against the jungle airfields and village entrepots used by the cartels (and the rebels). The left-wing guerrilla movement thrived amid the scandals and confusion, and the level of violence and kidnapping in the country remained very high. Both FARC and the ELN were active in many parts of the country, damaging power lines and oil pipelines and attacking police and military installations. The army reacted strongly, especially, to FARC and ELN bombings, which in turn substantially added to the high number of violent deaths. President Samper fired General Alvaro Velandia Hurtado after a trial found the commander of Colombia's Third Army guilty of human rights violations. Samper left office in 1998.

Through it all, the U.S. Congress continued to insist that U.S. security assistance for Colombia should be restricted to combating the drug trade rather than fighting the long-standing civil war against the guerrillas, in part because of human rights concerns, in part as a result of its post-Vietnam aversion to such entanglements. Recently declassified U.S. documents, however, reveal that despite the legal limits and repeated public assurances by government officials, U.S. aid repeatedly blurred the lines between counterdrug and counterinsurgency. By 2000, the United States was so deeply involved in Colombia's seemingly intractable civil conflict that it was on the brink of direct confrontation with the guerrillas. The new administration of President George W. Bush, in keeping with its notions about the UNITED STATES'S WAR ON TERRORISM, began pressing to lift all restrictions and allow present and future aid to be used in operations against guerrilla forces—or "narco-terrorists" as the United States was now calling them. Bush's proposed aid figure for Colombia in fiscal year 2003 included nearly $500 million in military and police aid alone.

Meanwhile, the kidnappings, killings, drug trafficking, and pervasive corruption continued to plague Colombia.

See also COLOMBIAN REVOLT.

Further reading: David Bushnell, *Making of Modern Colombia: A Nation in Spite of Itself* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Bert Ruiz, *The Colombian Civil War* (Jefferson, N.C.: McFarland, 2001).

Colombian Revolt (1948–1962)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Liberals vs. conservatives in Colombia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Colombia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The liberals and conservatives engaged in a political feud, and the ensuing lawlessness created a climate for the takeover by Army Chief of Staff Gustavo Rojas Pinilla.
OUTCOME: Democracy was reinstated with the formation of a coalition government, the National Front, in 1958.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Riot conditions
CASUALTIES: 2,585 total killed in 1948; by 1962 at least 180,000 had died.
TREATIES: None

Colombia, plagued by social unrest and economic ills, had been embroiled in a political struggle between the country's two political parties, the liberals and the conservatives, that stretched back to the 1830s. Despite the meddling of the U.S. government, which had cost Colombia the Panama Canal (*see* PANAMANIAN REVOLUTION), and the economic impact of U.S. corporations, which had helped to make the country a quintessential "banana republic" (although it was coffee and not bananas that Colombia exported), the political feud between these two ruling parties had little to do with class conflict, foreign ideologies, or other matters extraneous to the Colombian landscape.

By the time the United States held the Pan-American Conference in Bogotá, Colombia's capital city, that created the Organization of American States, the conservatives had been back in power for two years. This followed 16 years of liberal rule, which had seen a series of land reforms (called the "Revolution on the March") favoring peasant squatters against big plantation owners. Then, on April 9, 1948, during the middle of the international conference, a popular left-wing liberal leader, Jorge Eliecer Gaitain (1902–48), was assassinated in broad daylight in downtown Bogotá, which not only embarassed the government but also led immediately to riots and vandalism throughout the country (but which became known as the *bogotazo*.)

For 10 years and more the country was thrown into chaos, a state of constant insurrection and political and criminal violence that cost some 200,000 lives and $1 billion in property damages. La Violencia, as the Colombians called the period, increased under the regime of Laurenco Eleuterio Gomez (1889–1965), who between 1950 and 1953 attempted to introduce a fascist state. His downfall was engineered by Colombia's first military coup of the 20th century, led by General Gustava Rojas Pinilla (1900–75), whose corrupt, brutal regime was deposed by a military junta supported by both liberals and conservatives after the country's coffee crop failed disastrously in 1957. A year later the two parties formed a coalition government (the National Front) under newly elected president Alberto Lleras Camargo (1906–90). He slowly stabilized the country's devastated economy and instituted agrarian reforms that brought La Violencia to a close. But, because of his (and subsequent regimes') dependence on the U.S.-dominated Alliance for Progress, Colombia's dependence on the United States increased. By 1962,

though the violence was over, the country's economic growth had come to a virtual standstill.

See also COLOMBIAN GUERRILLA WAR.

Further reading: David Bushnell, *Making of Modern Colombia: A Nation in Spite of Itself* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Bert Ruiz, *The Colombian Civil War* (Jefferson, N.C.: McFarland, 2001).

Colombian War of Independence (1810–1819)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Popular revolt vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Colombia
DECLARATION: Independence declared July 20, 1810
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: During Spain's preoccupation with Napoleon during the Peninsular War, Colombia, like Spain's other South American colonies, made a bid for independence.
OUTCOME: Independence was achieved.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Bolivar's principal force, 3,500; royalist principal force, 2,400
CASUALTIES: At Battle of Boyaca, the culminating battle, Bolivar inflicted 100 royalist casualties and took 1,600 prisoners.
TREATIES: None

Under Spanish colonial rule Colombia was long a part of New Granada, a vast territory comprising what is now Colombia as well as Venezuela, Ecuador, and Panama. When Spain's king, Ferdinand VII (1784–1833), was deposed as a result of Napoleon I's (1769–1821) victory in the PENINSULAR WAR (1810–14), many Spanish colonies made bids for independence. The town council of Bogotá, colonial capital of New Granada, initially voted a declaration of loyalty to Ferdinand, but then in 1810 moved to expel all royal officials and replace them with a locally constituted junta. Most of the major cities throughout New Granada followed the example of Bogotá, ousting Spanish royal officials and even writing local constitutions. Yet a genuine revolutionary movement failed to coalesce because the local rebels refused to unite against the Spanish military. Instead, factionalism shattered the rebel movement.

Venezuela's great military and political leader, Simón Bolívar (1783–1830), led the most effective defense against the forces of the royalists but suffered a severe setback at the Battle of Santa Mara in 1815 at the hands of a royalist army led by Pablo Morillo (1778–1837). As a result of this defeat, the royalists regained Bogotá and control over all New Granada. Bolívar fled for his life to Jamaica and then to Haiti.

Bolívar regrouped, returned to Venezuela in December 1816, and established his headquarters at Angostura, Venezuela. After winning an important victory near Barcelona on February 16, 1817, Bolívar earned recognition as the central commander of Venezuela's patriot forces. He was, however, defeated by General Morillo at the Battle of La Puerta, March 15, 1818, suffering a total rout. Undaunted by this severe blow, Bolívar decided to hold in abeyance the war of independence in Venezuela and instead to drive the Spanish out of New Granada. To this end he mounted a daring expedition of 3,500 men to march across all of Venezuela and over the Andes to make a surprise attack on Bogotá. En route, during June–July 1819, Bolívar was joined by an army under the leadership of Francisco de Paula Santander (1792–1840) as well as a body of volunteer freedom fighters from Europe, paramountly the British Legion. After crossing the Andes he fought the Battle of Boyaca against 2,000 royalist infantry and 400 cavalry led by a Colonel Barreiro. Boyaca was a critical position that defended the approaches to Bogotá, and Bolívar positioned his attack with great tactical skill. He deployed his troops between Barreiro and Bogotá. With his right flank he hit Barreiro's left, while he sent the British Legion—his best troops—against Barreiro's cavalry. The result was the total defeat of the Spanish forces. Barreiro lost 100 killed and 1,600 prisoners, along with artillery and other heavy equipment.

On August 10, 1819, Bolívar entered Bogotá in triumph, having not only liberated New Granada—he established the Republic of Colombia, with himself as president—but having achieved victory in what proved to be the decisive battle of the revolutions throughout northern South America. Spanish rule crumbled.

See also COLOMBIAN CIVIL WAR; COLOMBIAN EPOCH OF CIVIL WARS; VENEZUELAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: David Bushnell, *Making of Modern Colombia: A Nation in Spite of Itself* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Jesus Marâia Henao and Gerardo Arrubla, *History of Colombia* (Port Washington, N.Y.: Kennikat Press, 1972).

Comuneros' Uprising in New Granada (1781)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: *Comuneros* vs. Spanish colonial authorities
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): New Granada (Colombia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The *comuneros* sought liberal political and social reform, including tax relief.
OUTCOME: The *comuneros* were defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 20,000; Spanish loyalists, 500
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The *comuneros* were citizens of New Granada (a Spanish colony encompassing modern-day Colombia, Panama, Venezuela, and Ecuador) who sought democratic political and social reforms. Their name came from the *comuneros* of old Spain (*see* COMUNEROS' UPRISING IN SPAIN), and their leaders were three Creoles, Juan Francisco Berbeo (d. 1782), José Antonio Galán (1740–82), and Ambrosio Pisco (d. 1793). A colonywide uprising was triggered by the Spanish government's raising taxes on tobacco and liquor and its attempt to collect, by force, back taxes. The locus of the uprising was at Socorro, where riots broke out in March 1781, then spread throughout the colony, as local *comunero* groups attacked and overthrew royal officials, especially targeting tax collectors.

The uprising rapidly escalated, and when it became clear that Berbeo was preparing to lead an army of followers against Bogotá, the colonial capital, Spanish authorities hastily opened negotiations with the *comuneros*. The result was an agreement to end the new taxes and open the government monopolies on trade. With this, the *comunero* forces dispersed. At this point, however, Manuel Flores (r. 1776–82), the Spanish viceroy at New Granada, received a large contingent of royal troops from Spain. Despite having effectively capitulated to the *comuneros,* he led his troops into the interior of New Granada and engaged *comunero* bands wherever he found them, as well as their Indian allies. The now largely disorganized *comuneros* were readily defeated, and the viceroy also captured all three principal leaders. Berbeo and Galán were summarily executed, and Pisco was sentenced to a long prison term, as were many of his lieutenants and other followers.

See also COMUNEROS' UPRISING IN PARAGUAY; COMUNEROS' UPRISING IN SPAIN.

Further reading: David Bushnell, *Making of Modern Colombia: A Nation in Spite of Itself* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Jesus Maria Henao and Gerardo Arrubla, *History of Colombia* (Port Washington, N.Y.: Kennikat Press, 1972).

Comuneros' Uprising in Paraguay (1723–1735)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: *Comuneros* vs. the royal government of Paraguay (with Indian auxilliaries)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paraguay
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Liberal opposition to the repressive and autocratic regime of the Spanish royal governor
OUTCOME: The revolt was ultimately crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *Comuneros,* 3,000+; royalists, 150; Indian auxilliaries, 6,000
CASUALTIES: Totals unknown; the *comunero* leader, José de Antequera y Castro, was executed.
TREATIES: None

The *comuneros* were Paraguayan citizens opposed to the repressive and autocratic regime of the colonial Spanish government and favoring the institution of democratic rights. José de Antequera y Castro (1690–1731), a prominent Creole and an attorney by profession, led a *comunero* coup at Asunción in which the governor was deposed and imprisoned. Antequera then assumed the office of governor and asserted the supremacy of the rights of the people over the prerogative of the king.

From Peru the viceroy there sent several military expeditions against Antequera, all of which failed. At last, in 1726 the governor of Buenos Aires led a royal army in an invasion of Paraguay and occupied Asunción. Antequera was taken prisoner and removed to Lima, Peru, where he was held for five years before he was executed on July 5, 1731. In prison Antequera recruited another political prisoner, Fernando de Mompox (fl. 1731–35), to continue the *comunero* struggle in Paraguay. Upon his release Mompox assumed leadership of the *comuneros* and proclaimed Paraguay an independent republic. Repeatedly, royal authorities sent military expeditions against Mompox and the *comuneros,* but it was not until 1735 that Bruno Mauricio de Zabala (1682–1736) led a force of sufficient strength, which included a large Indian contingent, to overthrow the *comunero* regime and reestablish royal government at Asunción.

See also COMUNEROS' UPRISING IN NEW GRANADA; COMUNEROS' UPRISING IN SPAIN.

Further reading: Adalberto L. Gopez, *The Revolt of the Comuneros, 1721–1735: A Study in the Colonial History of Paraguay* (Rochester, Vt.: Schenkman Books, 1976).

Comuneros' Uprising in Spain (1520–1523)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: *Comuneros* vs. the forces of Emperor Charles V
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Castile, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *Comuneros* sought constitutional government.
OUTCOME: *Comunero* movement was crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Royal troops, 800; *comunero* strength unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The *comuneros* were citizens of the *comunidades,* the autonomous cities of Castile, who rose up in rebellion

against the repressive autocracy of Emperor Charles V (1500–58). The *comuneros* believed in the institution of a constitutional government that included at least some elements of democratic representation; beyond this common ground, however, they were a diverse group that included certain nobles, the bourgeoisie, and out-and-out political radicals. After an initial burst of energy, what little unity existed among the *comuneros* quickly dissolved, and the nobility deserted the cause, suddenly reaffirming their loyalty to Charles.

The biggest battle in the *comuneros*' uprising was fought at Villalar on April 23, 1521. Royalist forces defeated the *comuneros* and quickly arrested the leaders of the uprising. These individuals were summarily tried and executed. With that, the Crown's control of Spain was firmly reestablished, and in a conservative backlash against the *comuneros* movement the emperor was accorded more power than ever before.

Although the Battle of Villalar ended the major phase of the uprising and resulted in the execution of the *comunero* leader, Juan de Padilla (d. 1521), the uprising spread to Valencia and Majorca. In Valencia Vicente Peres (d. 1522) led the revolt but was defeated and killed in March 1522. The following March Spanish authorities dispatched 800 troops and four galleys to Majorca. This force laid siege to Palma de Majorca, which soon capitulated.

See also COMUNEROS' UPRISING IN NEW GRANADA; COMUNEROS' UPRISING IN PARAGUAY.

Further reading: Stephen Haliczer, *Comuneros of Castile: The Forging of a Revolution 1475–1521* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1981).

Congolese Civil War (1960–1968)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Various tribes in Congo, plus mercenary troops and Belgian paratroops
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Democratic Republic of the Congo (Zaire)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Kantanga and Kivu provinces sought independence from Congo, as the government of Congo sought to gain control of the warring tribal factions.
OUTCOME: President Mobutu returned to power in November 1965, drove out white mercenaries, and gradually gained stability in Congo.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Tribal numbers unknown; mercenary forces and Belgian paratroops, fewer than 1,000
CASUALTIES: About 18,000 killed on all sides, the majority civilians
TREATIES: None

On June 30, 1960, the Congo was granted independence from Belgium. Problems of unifying members of more than 200 tribes plagued the new government led by President Joseph Kasavubu (1910?–69) and Premier Patrice Lumumba (1925–61). The various tribes began fighting each other, and portions of the army mutinied. Only weeks after independence, Katanga Province and South Kasai Province announced their secession. The president and premier asked the United Nations to provide a peacekeeping force, and Lumumba also appealed to the Soviet Union for aid. Charged with being a communist, Lumumba was forced to resign on September 5, 1960. He was later arrested and murdered in prison. Colonel Joseph Mobutu (Mobuto Sese Seko, 1930–97), army chief of staff, then seized virtual control of the government. Over the next few years fighting between the various factions continued, and Katanga remained independent of the Congo. In 1963 the United Nations persuaded Katanga to rejoin the Congo, and Katangan leader Moise Tshombe (1919–69) went into exile. UN forces began leaving the Congo in 1963 and continued to do so in 1964 due to a lack of funds to support them. Nine days after the departure of the last UN troops, Tshombe returned from exile and was named premier. He attempted to make peace with the rebel groups and hired white mercenary troops and officers to train the Congolese army. Tshombe was unable to bring peace to the Congo and met with criticism from other African nations for his use of white mercenaries. The rebels, with aid from communists, Sudan, Uganda, and U.A.R., continued to gain strength. They seized 2,000 white hostages and held them at Stanleyville. On November 25–27, 1964, U.S. airplanes brought Belgian paratroopers to the region. They seized Stanleyville and secured the release of 1,650 white hostages. Several hundred hostages were killed, however, when the Belgian troops withdrew in response to criticism from anti-Tshombe Africans and the communist bloc. The following year Tshombe fell from power, and President Kasavubu took control. His administration lasted only a little more than one month. Mobutu deposed Kasavubu in a bloodless coup and named himself president of a military government. Rebels continued to threaten peace in the country as Belgian and French mercenaries attempted to seize Katanga and Kivu and Kantangan rebels captured Bukavu, the capital of Kivu Province. By November 1967 the Congolese army chased about 2,000 rebels and mercenaries out of the Congo into Rwanda, and stability returned to the war-torn country. On October 27, 1971, President Mobutu renamed the country Zaire.

Though he brought stability to the Congo, Mobutu quickly squandered Zaire's mineral-rich resources, and by the 1990s, 30 years of economic mismanagement and corruption had destroyed its infrastructure and given Zaire one of the world's lowest standards of living. Forced to share power in a multiparty system beginning in 1991, Mobutu would soon lose control of his country completely. In October 1996, Laurent Desire Kabila (1939–2001), a leading member of the armed opposition to Mobutu's Zaire who had dropped out of sight for nearly a decade,

reemerged as the head of a recently formed Alliance of Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Congo-Zaire. Riding the crest of the wave of inter-tribal violence sweeping across central Africa between the Hutu and the Tutsi (*see* BURUNDIAN CIVIL WAR [1993–onging]), Kabila rallied his mostly Tutsi force from eastern Zaire and installed himself as head of state on May 17, 1997. Fleeing to Morocco, Mobutu died there in September. Meanwhile, Kabila had rejected the name *Zaire* for his Congo and reverted officially to the title of Democratic Republic of the Congo.

Further reading: Robert B. Edgerton, *The Troubled Heart of Africa: A History of the Congo* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2002); Crawford Young with Thomas Turner, *The Rise and Decline of the Zairian State* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1985).

Constantinople, Fall of

See BYZANTINE–OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1452).

Constantinople, September–October Revolt in

See JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1730).

Constantinople Revolt

See CANDIAN WAR.

Corinthian-Corcyrean War (435–433 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Corinth vs. Corcyra (Corfu)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mainland colony of Epidamnus
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Contest for control of the jointly ruled colony
OUTCOME: Corcyra triumphed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Corinth, 75 warships; Corcyra, 80 warships
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Corcyra (Corfu) rebelled against Corinth, its mother city-state, when Corinth attempted to wrest from it total control of Epidamnus, a mainland colony jointly possessed by Corcyra and Corinth. In 435 Corcyrean forces laid siege to Epidamnus. Corinth dispatched a fleet of 75 vessels to the relief of Epidamnus, but the ships were met in battle in the Gulf of Ambracia by 80 ships of the Corcyrean navy. The Corinthian fleet was soundly defeated.

While Corinth went about the construction of a larger fleet, Corcyra sought military aid from Athens. In 433 at the Battle of Sybota, the new Corinthian fleet mauled the Corcyrean vessels until the arrival of Athenian warships tipped the balance against the Corinthians. Once again Corinth found itself on the losing side of a naval battle. Resentment over the alliance between Athens and Corcyra would figure as one of the precipitating factors of the Second (Great) PELOPONNESE WAR.

Further reading: Terry Wick, ed., *The Peloponnesian War by Thucydides* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1982).

Corinthian War (395–387 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Thebes, Athens, Corinth, and Argos (initially with financial aid from Persia) vs. Sparta (with later Persian alliance)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cnidus and Boeotia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rebellion against the tyranny of Sparta
OUTCOME: Sparta prevailed, but at the cost of many concessions to Persia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

The Second (Great) PELOPONNESE WAR from 431 to 404 B.C.E. created a situation in which Sparta tyrannized its recent allies. Thebes responded by striking an alliance late in the war with its enemy, Athens, and the two powers formed a coalition with Corinth and Argos to fight Sparta. Sparta's involvement in war with Persia also brought Persian financial aid to the coalition.

Using Persian money Athens built a fleet, refortified its port, and, by defeating the Spartan fleet at Cnidus in 394, recovered from Sparta the islands of Lemnos, Scyros, and Imbros. For its part, Thebes successfully repelled a Spartan invasion of Boeotia. Generally, however, the coalition was far less successful on land than at sea. The Spartan victory at the Battle of Nemea in 394 B.C.E. recovered Coronea and put Sparta in a position to blockade Corinth. Antalcidas, the Spartan agent in Persia, negotiated peace with Persia, a halt to Persian support of the coalition states, and ultimately an alliance. In 387 the Persian fleet cut off Athens's fleet in the Dardanelles. Once this occurred Athens had no choice but to agree to the King's Peace (the Peace of Antalcidas) of 386, by which Cyprus and the Greek city-states in Asia Minor were returned to Persia and the Athenians were forced to give up their conquests, except for Lemnos, Imbros, and Scyros. Thebes relinquished control of the Boeotian cities, and Argos evacuated Corinth. The Greek city-states, except those in Asia Minor, which were now controlled by Persia, were to be entirely independent and were barred from forming alliances, combinations, and coalitions. Thus, Sparta achieved much of what it wanted in the Corinthian War, except that its triumph came at the price of yielding much power and authority to Persia, for it was the Persian king,

Artaxerxes II (fl. late fifth and early fourth century B.C.E.) who held the whip hand.

Further reading: Terry Wick, ed., *The Peloponnesian War by Thucydides* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1982).

Corsican Revolts (1729–1769)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Corsica vs. Genoa (and later France)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Corsica
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Corsican struggle for independence from Genoa
OUTCOME: Corsica prevailed against Genoa, but the independence movement was crushed by French forces after France acquired the island from Genoa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In 1768, 12,000 rebels; 30,000 French
CASUALTIES: In 1768, French—4,000 died in combat, 6,000 from wounds and sickness. Rebel casualties uncounted but presumably higher than the French.
TREATIES: None

Corsica chafed under the brutal and repressive control of Genoa and in 1729 rose in revolt. The movement was led by the foremost citizens of Corsica, who gradually took the struggle into the island's interior and made significant gains. Baron Theodor Neuhof (1694–1756), a German soldier of fortune, cast his lot with the Corsican rebels and led well-organized military operations against Genoese forces. In 1736 the Corsicans proclaimed Neuhof King Theodor I of Corsica, but his reign proved brief indeed. Later in the year he suffered a harsh defeat at the hands of the Genoese and fled the island, leaving Corsica to fight a low-level civil war. Twice more Neuhof returned to Corsica, in 1738 and 1743, but was soundly defeated both times by Genoese forces, which were now allied with the French. In 1743, Neuhof fled to England, never to return.

By the mid-1700s the sporadic insurgency in Corsica had almost ceased when a new leader emerged to spark new revolts. Pasquale Paoli (1725–1807) was the son of a Corsican rebel leader whose allegiance to Neuhof had gotten the Paolis exiled along with the German soldier of fortune. In 1755 Pasquale suddenly returned, and this time the new revolt he led against Genoese rule succeeded. The Corsicans quickly drafted a republican constitution and elected Paoli president. Genoa struck back, but despite repeated efforts and some additional help from the French, they repeatedly failed to overturn Paoli and his liberal democratic government. At last, in 1768 Genoa, abandoning hope of ever subjugating Corsica, sold the island to Louis XV (1710–74), who was thus motivated to mount a major invasion. Led by the Comte de Vaux, 30,000 French troops invaded. At Borgo in November they suffered a major setback, losing 600 killed, 1,000 wounded, and 600 captured. Nevertheless, they soon secured the coasts and marched inland. Paoli, having raised 12,000 men, met them in May 1769 at Ponte-Nuovo and was defeated. He fled, and the Corsican cause failed. Paoli found refuge in England, and France formally annexed the island.

Further reading: Thadd E. Hall, *France and the Eighteenth-Century Corsican Question* (New York: New York University Press, 1971).

Costa Rican Civil War (1948)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Supporters of Otilio Ulate vs. supporters of Rafael Calderón Guardia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Costa Rica
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ulate's supporters began the war after the election of Ulate to the Costa Rican presidency was nullified by congress.
OUTCOME: Ulate was reinstated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Ulate's forces claimed to have lost only 67 killed; Calderonista losses, 1,500 killed.
TREATIES: None

On March 1, 1948, the Costa Rican congress, citing voting fraud voided the election of the right-wing candidate Otilio Ulate (1891–1973) as president of the nation. This immediately triggered a civil war between Ulate's partisans and those supporting his rival, Rafael Calderón Guardia (1900–70). Ulate's armed supporters, dubbed the Caribbean Legion, were led by Colonel José "Pepe" Figueres Ferrer (1906–90), and those who supported Calderón were called the Calderonistas. This force, which included government troops as well as communists, received military aid from President Anastasio Somoza (1896–1956) of Nicaragua and President Tiburcio Carías Andino (1876–1969) of Honduras. Despite this outside aid the Caribbean Legion consistently prevailed in engagements and marched into the capital city of San José on April 28, 1948. Figueres ousted the sitting government and on May 8 put in place a military junta. Immediately the junta made sweeping reforms, disbanding the Costa Rican army, outlawing the Communist Party, and nationalizing the banks. The corrupt patronage system was summarily abolished and civil service reform instituted.

Calderonistas, who had fled to Nicaragua, mounted an invasion of Costa Rica on December 10 but were successfully repulsed by Figueres's Caribbean Legion. After intervention by the Organization of American States, which condemned Somoza's involvement in the civil war and the subsequent invasion attempt, the Costa Rican situation sta-

bilized, and early in 1949 a constitutional assembly was convened to draft a reformed and revised constitution for Costa Rica. By the end of the year, on November 8, 1949, Figueres dissolved the junta and turned the nation's government over to Ulate. But Figueres himself, who had proven to be a progressive politician, would remain the dominant figure in Costa Rica for another 20 years.

See also COSTA RICAN REBELLION; COSTA RICAN REVOLUTION.

Further reading: John A. Booth, *Costa Rica: Quest for Democracy* (Denver: Westview Press, 1997); Jeffery M. Paige, *Coffee and Power: Revolution and the Rise of Democracy in Central America* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1997).

Costa Rican Rebellion (1955)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The moderate Costa Rican government vs. forces of Rafael Calderón Guardia, supported by Nicaragua
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Costa Rica–Nicaragua border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Nicaraguan president Anastasio Somoza supported rebels under failed Costa Rican presidential candidate Rafael Calderón Guardia; Costa Rican government forces resisted.
OUTCOME: The rebels were suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Anastasio Somoza (1896–1956) believed that the Caribbean Legion (*see* COSTA RICAN CIVIL WAR), which had supported the election of José "Pepe" Figueres Ferrer (1906–90) as president of Costa Rica, was implicated in a plot to assassinate him. Acting on this belief, Somoza aided rebels led by Rafael Calderón Guardia (1900–70), who had lost his presidential bid against Figueres in 1953. Calderón used Nicaragua as a base for his forces, with which he invaded Costa Rica on January 11, 1955, occupying the border town of Villa Quesada, located on the important Pan-American Highway. The Costa Rican government responded to the invasion by appealing to the Organization of American States for an investigation. As soon as it announced its findings, identifying Nicaragua's role in aiding and abetting the rebels, Somoza withdrew his support for them, and Costa Rican government forces, supplied with U.S. military hardware, including four fighter planes, readily pushed the rebels back into Nicaragua. Despite some sharp fighting in several border towns, casualties were limited. Publicly, Costa Rica and Nicaragua announced their agreement to cooperate in surveillance and patrol of the border region.

See also COSTA RICAN CIVIL WAR; COSTA RICAN REVOLUTION.

Further reading: John A. Booth, *Costa Rica: Quest for Democracy* (Denver: Westview Press, 1997); Jeffery M. Paige, *Coffee and Power: Revolution and the Rise of Democracy in Central America* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1997).

Costa Rican Revolution (1917)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conservative military forces vs. liberal government supporters
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Costa Rica
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conservative military coup in opposition to liberal democratic reforms
OUTCOME: Liberal democratic president Alfredo González Flores was overthrown by General Federico Tinoco Granados, who set up a short-lived dictatorship.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Light
TREATIES: None

In 1913 Alfredo González Flores (1877–after 1967) was elected president of Costa Rica on a platform of liberal democratic reform. These measures were opposed by conservative General Federico Tinoco Granados (1870–1931), who early in 1917 organized a military coup against González, toppling his government on January 27, 1917. Immediately, Tinoco set up a dictatorship, which provoked widespread insurrection. Although the United States did not actively support the insurrections, it pointedly refused to acknowledge the legitimacy of the Tinoco regime and repeatedly threatened to intervene. Under continued pressure from the United States, Tinoco stepped down in May 1919, and in June a contingent of U.S. Marines arrived to protect U.S. interests in the country. A democratically elected president, Julio Acosta García (1872–1954), took office in 1920.

See also COSTA RICAN CIVIL WAR; COSTA RICAN REBELLION.

Further reading: John A. Booth, *Costa Rica: Quest for Democracy* (Denver: Westview Press, 1997); Jeffery M. Paige, *Coffee and Power: Revolution and the Rise of Democracy in Central America* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1997).

Count's War (1533–1536)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Danish peasantry and middle class (and their Swedish allies) vs. the Danish nobility
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Denmark, Sweden, Jutland, and Holstein
DECLARATION: No formal declaration

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The war resulted from a social, economic, and religious conflict between the predominantly Lutheran middle class and peasantry of Denmark and the predominantly Catholic ruling class; war was triggered by a dispute over royal succession.
OUTCOME: Christian III became king of Denmark and established the Lutheran church as the state religion. The Hanseatic League suffered great diminishment of power and influence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

The Danish Rigsraad, or state council, dominated by Catholic nobles, refused to name a successor to Frederick I (1471–1533) on his death in 1533 because the leading candidate was a Lutheran. The decision to govern without a king incited civil war as Lutheran rebels, led by Christopher, count of Oldenburg (1504–66)—hence the name "Count's War"—sought to force the restoration of Christian II (1481–1559), imprisoned as a result of the KALMAR CIVIL WAR 10 years earlier. The Count's army also sought to unite Copenhagen and Malmö with the other powerful Baltic members of the Hanseatic League. Opposed to the count was another Christian, the duke of Holstein (1503–59), son of Frederick I.

In the course of battle Count Christopher invaded Holstein, then blockaded and subsequently captured Copenhagen. Zealand, Malmö, and Skåne also fell to the count's forces. Despite this, in 1524 the Rigsraad elected the duke of Holstein, Christian III, king of Denmark. Thus validated, he led forces in retaliation against Count Christopher. With Swedish allies Christian III pushed the count's army out of much of the territory it had taken, ultimately bottling up his main forces at Ålborg, northern Jutland. Once contained there, the count's army made an easy target for Christian III, who decimated the forces in 1535. In the meantime, Swedish forces laid siege to Malmö, Landskrona, and Zealand while Christian III blockaded Copenhagen. These actions forced the count's remaining forces to surrender by late July 1536.

Following his victory Christian III assumed the Danish throne, not as a Catholic, however, but as a Lutheran, and he imposed the faith not only on his realm but on Norway as well. The political and economic power of the Hanseatic League, which had sided with Count Christopher, had been greatly diminished by the war. As for Christopher himself, he was permanently banished from Denmark and departed for his home in Oldenburg, Germany.

Further reading: "Count's War," in Alastair H. Thomas and Stewart P. Oakley, *Historical Dictionary of Denmark* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press, 1998); Paul Eric Norwood, *The Hanseatic League* (Frederick, Md.: America House Book Publishers, 2004).

Covenanters' Rebellion (1666)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scots Covenanters vs. the forces of Charles II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vicinity of Edinburgh
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Covenanters resisted Charles II's attempts to suppress Presbyterian practice in Scotland.
OUTCOME: The Covenanters did not prevail militarily but continued to resist nevertheless.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In his all-out effort to secure his restoration to the throne, Charles II (1630–85) signed the Solemn League and Covenant, first proposed in 1643, pledging to support a civil and religious union of England, Scotland, and Ireland under a Presbyterian-parliamentary system. In truth Charles II had no intention of honoring the covenant, and after his restoration in 1660 he governed Scotland at arm's length through a pair of puppets, John Maitland (1616–82), duke of Lauderdale, and James Sharp (1613–79), archbishop of St. Andrews. Both of these men were in favor of restoring the Anglican bishops to Scotland. This, of course, enraged the Covenanters, who felt—and, indeed, had been—betrayed. After Charles II pushed through Parliament a rescissory act formally abolishing all agreements made during the interregnum—the period of Oliver Cromwell's (1599–1658) rule—the Covenanters were pushed to open rebellion. They defied a panoply of legislation, decrees, and restrictions, including a ban on Presbyterian religious services and fines for religious observances. On November 28, 1666, armed rebellion broke out at the Battle of Pentland Hills, which resulted in defeat for the Covenanters. Despite losing the battle, they continued to resist Charles II's anti-Presbyterian decrees.

See also COVENANTERS' REBELLION (1679); COVENANTERS' REBELLION (1685).

Further reading: Peter Somerset Fry and Fiona Somerset Fry, *The History of Scotland* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995); Fitzroy MacLean, *Scotland: A Concise History* (London and New York: Thames and Hudson, 2001).

Covenanters' Rebellion (1679)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scots Covenanters vs. the forces of Charles II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Covenanters continued to resist Charles II's suppression of Presbyterian practice

in Scotland after the Covenanters' Rebellion of 1666; the war commenced with the assassination of the archbishop of St. Andrews.
OUTCOME: After initial success the Covenanters were defeated, then treated mercilessly; this served only to incite further rebellion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Covenanters, 5,000; Royal forces, 5,000
CASUALTIES: Covenanters, 700 killed, 1,400 taken prisoner, 300 exiled (of whom 200+ were killed in a storm at sea).
TREATIES: None

After the COVENANTERS' REBELLION (1666), Charles II's (1630–85) chief minister in Scotland was John Maitland (1616–82), duke of Lauderdale, who was responsible for administering and enforcing the king's repressive measures, especially those banning the observance of Presbyterian religious practices. At length the Covenanters rose up against James Sharp (1613–79), the archbishop of St. Andrews, head of the Church of England in Scotland. The assassination of Sharp signaled a new rebellion of the Covenanters, who engaged a royalist force at the Battle of Drumclog on June 1, 1679. After the Covenanters prevailed Charles II authorized a much larger royal army under the command of his bastard son, James Scot (1649–85), duke of Monmouth. At Bothwell Bridge on June 22, 1679, the Covenanters were decisively defeated with heavy casualties, including 700 killed and 1,400 taken prisoner. Of this number, 300 were exiled to America. However, a storm at sea resulted in the drowning of more than 200. Far from suppressing the Covenanters, the aftermath of the rebellion of 1679 incited further rebellion and violence, which was chronic through the first half of the 1680s, the so-called killing time, which culminated in the COVENANTERS' REBELLION (1685).

Further reading: Peter Somerset Fry and Fiona Somerset Fry, *The History of Scotland* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995); Fitzroy MacLean, *Scotland: A Concise History* (London and New York: Thames and Hudson, 2001).

Covenanters' Rebellion (1685)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scots Covenanters vs. the royal forces of James II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A continuation of the religious wars of rebellion—the Covenanters' Rebellion of 1666 and the Covenanters' Rebellion of 1679—between Scots Presbyterians and the English government
OUTCOME: The rebellions of this period proved abortive; the succession of William of Orange to the British throne resolved, for most Scots, the Covenanters' issues.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable
CASUALTIES: Light; however, the ninth earl of Argyll was executed.
TREATIES: None

Twice during the reign of Charles II (1630–85) of England, Scotland, and Ireland—in the COVENANTERS' REBELLION (1666) and the COVENANTERS' REBELLION (1679)—Scots Presbyterians had rebelled against the Crown's attempts to suppress their religion. Upon Charles's death in 1685, he was succeeded by James II (1633–1701). A Catholic, James attempted to introduce general religious toleration throughout his realm, but this was generally interpreted as an attempt to pave the way for the forced reintroduction of Catholicism not only in England but Scotland as well. Having resisted the imposition of Anglicanism under Charles II, the Scots Covenanters were not about to accept Catholicism. Archibald Campbell (1651?–1703), ninth earl of Argyll, had opposed the suppression of the Covenanters and for this was sentenced to death in 1681. He escaped to Holland, where he became leader of a Covenanter rebellion and returned to Scotland. He was captured and executed, his rebellion dying with him (*see* MONMOUTH'S REBELLION).

James II's religious policies were well received nowhere in his realm, and his reign lasted a mere three years before William of Orange (1650–1702) displaced him with his GLORIOUS REVOLUTION in 1688. Under William not only was the Protestant cause secured, but the suppression of the Scots church came to an end. Only the Jacobites—the minority who remained loyal to James II—chafed under the new monarch (see JACOBITE REBELLION [1689–1690]).

Further reading: Peter Somerset Fry and Fiona Somerset Fry, *The History of Scotland* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995); Fitzroy MacLean, *Scotland: A Concise History* (London and New York: Thames and Hudson, 2001).

Cracow Insurrection (1846)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Polish revolutionaries vs. Austrian overlords
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cracow and Galicia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Polish revolutionaries in the free city of Cracow wanted to spread the cause of liberty beyond the free city.
OUTCOME: The attempt to foment a general revolt against the Austrian overlords of Poland was suppressed, and in the process Cracow lost its status as a free city.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

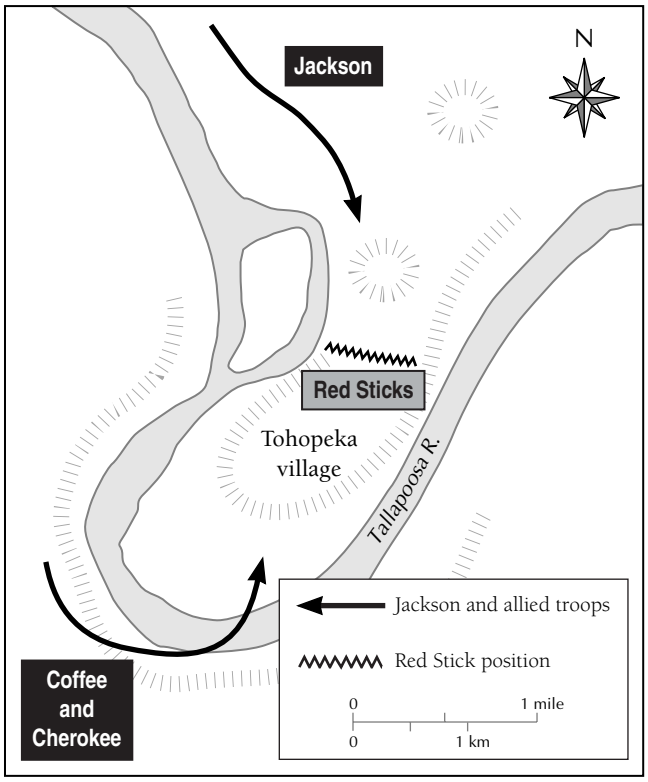
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

At the conclusion of the NAPOLEONIC WARS, the Congress of Vienna created the Republic of Cracow, consisting primarily of the city of Cracow and its immediate environs. The rest of Poland had been divided among Russia, Austria, and Prussia. The POLISH REBELLION (1830–1831) had cost perhaps 20,000 Polish lives but had not crushed the independence movement. During February–March 1846 Polish revolutionaries living in Cracow, led by Jan Tyssowski (1811–57), attempted to spread the cause of Polish independence beyond the free city of Cracow. Throughout Poland and especially in Galicia (Austrian Poland), many landlords were strong nationalists. It was among this group that Tyssowski and others operated to foment a major uprising. Unfortunately, the landlords' tenants, the great Polish peasantry, were principally loyal to Austria. This loyalty was encouraged by means of a bounty of 10 florins payable to anyone who captured or killed a rebellious landlord. Thus coopted, the insurrection quickly collapsed. Its failure was hastened by the intervention of Russian and Austrian troops, who soon occupied Cracow. The city's independent status was ended when Austria unilaterally annexed Cracow to Galicia.

Further reading: Norman Davis, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* vol. 2 (New York: Columbia University Press, 1984); Jerzy Lukowski and Hubert Zawadzki, *Concise History of Poland* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001); Adam Zamoyski, *The Polish Way: A Thousand-Year History of the Poles and Their Culture* (New York: Hippocrene Books, 1997).

Creek War (1813–1814)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States, Cherokees, and "White Stick Creeks" vs. "Red Stick Creeks"
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tennessee, Mississippi Territory, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pro-British Red Stick Creeks attacked American settlers during the War of 1812
OUTCOME: Red Sticks were defeated; Red Sticks and White Sticks—the latter allied to the United States in the war—gave up two-thirds of their lands to white settlers.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Varied: Andrew Jackson assembled 5,000 Tennessee militia, 19 companies of allied Cherokees, and 200 Lower Creeks in response to the massacre at Fort Mims August 30, 1813.
CASUALTIES: At Fort Mims, 400 white settlers; Jackson's November 1813 offensive killed 186 Red Sticks at Tallahatchee and nearly 300 at Talladega; 15 U.S. troops killed, 85 wounded; at Horsebend, Red Stick Creeks, 750 of 900 killed; U.S. forces, 32 killed, 99 wounded; Cherokees, 18 killed, 36 wounded; White Stick Creeks, 5 killed, 11 wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Horseshoe Bend, 1814



Battle of Horseshoe Bend, March 27, 1814

During the WAR OF 1812 the Creek Indians of Georgia, Tennessee, and the Mississippi Territory were engaged in their own intratribal war between those who advocated cooperation with the whites and those bent on driving the whites out of their land. The former sided with the Americans during the War of 1812, whereas the latter tended to side with the British, who had promised to drive the Americans off Indian lands. Little Warrior (d. 1813), one of a pro-British faction known as the Upper Creeks, or Red Sticks, fought against the Americans in the War of 1812. The Creek peace faction—the Lower Creeks, or White Sticks—led by Big Warrior (fl. early 1800s), arrested and executed Little Warrior, thereby widening the gulf between the two tribal factions.

Supplied by Spanish interests in Florida, the Red Sticks, led by a half-breed, Peter McQueen (d. 1818), attacked settlers in present-day Alabama. On August 30, 1813, William Weatherford (also known as Red Eagle, c. 1780–1824), a half-breed adherent of Tecumseh (c. 1768–1813), attacked Fort Mims, on the lower Alabama River, killing more than 400 settlers in what was to be the last Indian attack on a settlement east of the Mississippi River.

The assault on Fort Mims provoked a massive vengeance. The Tennessee legislature dispatched Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) with 5,000 Tennessee militiamen, 19 companies of friendly Cherokee warriors, and 200 Lower Creeks into Red Stick country. Early in November 1813 a detachment of volunteer cavalry under Colonel John Coffee (1772–1833)—which counted Davy Crockett (1786–1836) among its number—surprised a large party of Red Sticks at Tallahatchee, killing 186 of them. Later that month Jackson lifted the Red Stick siege of Talladega, a White Stick fort, killing almost 300 Red Sticks in the process and losing 15 of his own troops, with another 85 wounded.

Jackson and Louisiana governor William Claiborne (1775–1817) pursued Red Eagle fruitlessly for the next two months, as Jackson's militiamen began to desert him. In January 1814 Jackson received reinforcements—800 new troops—and launched a second offensive, fighting at Emuckfaw and at Enotachopco Creek as well as burning every Red Stick settlement he encountered. In March his militiamen were augmented by 600 regulars from the U.S. 39th Infantry. With this combined force Jackson fought the Battle of Horseshoe Bend on a peninsula on the Tallapoosa River. The daylong battle on March 27, 1814, killed 750 of the 900 Red Stick warriors engaged. Jackson lost 32 killed and 99 wounded; the Cherokees, 18 killed, 36 wounded; the White Stick Creeks, five dead, 11 wounded.

William Weatherford—Red Eagle—voluntarily appeared in Jackson's camp a few days after the battle and formally surrendered. Jackson regarded him as a military adversary and allowed him to depart. In many ways the general's White Stick and Cherokee allies were treated less generously. Tennessee militiamen stole their horses and took their food. Moreover, the Treaty of Horseshoe Bend, which formally ended the Creek War, extorted 23 million acres of Indian land—not from the Red Sticks alone, but also from the friendly White Stick Creeks. In sum, the Red Stick and White Stick Creeks ceded about two-thirds of their tribal lands, thereby pushing the tide of white American settlement from the Tennessee River to the Gulf of Mexico.

Further reading: Thomas Perkins Anthony, *The Formative Period in Alabama, 1815–1828* (Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama Press, 1965); Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Macmillan General Reference, 1993); Duane King, *The Cherokee Indian Nation: A Troubled History* (Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press, 1979).

Cresap's War (1774)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Virginia surveyors vs. Mingo chief John Logan and Shawnee allies
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ohio valley
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: White incursion into Indian lands
OUTCOME: No settlement; conflict became wrapped up in Lord Dunmore's War (1774).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Colonial, 13; Mingos, 13 women and children, including Logan's family
TREATIES: None

In 1773 the colonial governor of Virginia, John Murray (1732–1809), fourth earl of Dunmore, commissioned a survey of his colony's western territory, which he intended to open to British settlement despite the existence of a 1768 treaty guaranteeing Shawnee possession of the land. The survey party was led by Captain Michael Cresap (1742–75) and John Floyd. On April 30, 1774, one of Cresap's men, Daniel Greathouse (fl. late 18th century), leading a small party of surveyors, happened upon the village of a Mingo chief named John Logan (Tah-gah-jute; c. 1725–89). Greathouse and his men murdered 13 women and children in the village, including Logan's family. In retaliation Logan and eight Mingo and Shawnee warriors killed 13 Virginians, prompting Lord Dunmore to declare war on the Shawnees, Mingos, and other tribes on June 10, 1774. The so-called Cresap's War thus dissolved into LORD DUNMORE'S WAR.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); T. Harry Williams, *History of American Wars: From Colonial Times to World War I* (New York: Knopf, 1981).

Cretan Rebellion (1770)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Crete vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Crete
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Christians of Crete, with encouragement from the Russian navy, attempted to gain their independence from the Ottoman Empire.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown. When the Cretans surrendered, there were only 71 rebels to do so; all others had been killed.
TREATIES: None

Long the target of European invaders, the isle of Crete passed from one conquering empire to the next. In 1669 it was conquered by the predominantly Muslim Ottoman Empire. The theological differences between the Christian Greek island and the eastern European power caused

bitter hatred on both sides. The Christians resented the Muslim presence in their homeland, and the Turks treated the Cretans as second-class citizens of the empire. Occasional flare-ups of violence occurred, but they were savagely suppressed by the Turks.

After the ascension of Catherine the Great (1729–96) in 1765, Russia took a hostile view of the Ottoman Empire, which was already beginning to slip into decline as the "Sick Man of Europe" syndrome. Catherine hoped to push the burgeoning empire over the edge and lay claim to its choicest pieces. To that end Admiral Alexei G. Orlov (1737–1808) and Russia's Baltic Fleet sailed to the Mediterranean and captured Navarino in April. From there he incited the Cretan merchant and shipowner known only as Daskaloyiannis (d. 1770) to lead a Cretan insurrection. Daskaloyiannis began fomenting rebellion in the mountainous Sfakian region. After gathering forces and leading them onto the plains of Canea in late spring 1770, Daskaloyiannis's pleas for aid from Orlov were ignored.

The Turks assembled a sizable force of mostly Albanians and in June pushed the Cretans back off the plains and into the White Mountains. The Turks ordered Daskaloyiannis to surrender, but he refused, and the Turks all but wiped out the rebel force. When a second call for surrender was accepted, all that remained was Daskaloyiannis and 70 rebels. With the rebellion crushed, the Russian fleet retreated to the Baltic, and Daskaloyiannis was taken to Candia, the Turkish capital of Crete, where he was interrogated and then skinned alive by Ottoman authorities.

See also CRETAN REBELLION (1821–1822); CRETAN UPRISING (1866–1868); CRETAN UPRISING (1896); GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: David Brewer, *The Greek War of Independence* (New York: Penguin Putnam, 2003).

Cretan Rebellion (1821–1822)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Crete vs. the Ottoman Empire and Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Crete
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Amid a fervor of nationalist sentiment on Crete, Turkish soldiers panicked and began to attack Christians.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was essentially crushed; the Ottomans retained control of Crete.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

With the revitalization of nationalism in nearby Greece and the subsequent outbreak of conflict in the GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE, 1821–32, the Turks controlling the island of Crete became uneasy, as the province was the most notoriously misgoverned region in all of the Ottoman Empire. When signs of Cretan independence appeared, the elite Turkish corps, the Janissaries, panicked and ruthlessly and indiscriminately massacred Christians. What followed was total butchery: Armed bands, tacitly encouraged by the Janissaries, roamed the streets murdering, mutilating, and immolating thousands of Christians. When a marauding band broke in on the services of the archbishop of Candia, he was slaughtered along with his entire congregation.

When the Turks reached Sfakia, the site of the CRETAN REBELLION (1770), they exacted a harsh revenge, savaging the town and its inhabitants. After several months the Cretans struck back, capturing hundreds of Janissaries as well as rampaging through the Islamic sections of the island. Christian retaliation brought about a temporary cessation of hostilities, but it was quickly broken when Egyptian troops invaded in 1822 to rescue the captured Turks. The Egyptians were as brutal as the Turks, burning villages and forests and driving remaining Christians into the mountainous caves of Sfakia. The Egyptian raids ended any further uprisings on the part of the Cretans and temporarily satisfied the Islamic thirst for Christian destruction. The leader of the Egyptian forces, Pasha Muhammad Ali (c. 1769–1849), was made pasha of the island.

See also CRETAN UPRISING (1866–1868); CRETAN UPRISING (1896); GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: David Brewer, *The Greek War of Independence* (New York: Penguin Putnam, 2003).

Cretan Uprising (1866–1868)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cretan Christians vs. Ottoman overlords
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Crete
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Cretans wished to achieve independence from the Turks; the uprising was triggered by the failure of the Sublime Porte to implement reforms promised by the Organic Act of 1858.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was suppressed but not crushed, and Cretan independence remained an active cause, culminating in the Cretan Uprising of 1896.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Crete had long chafed under the rule of the Ottoman Empire (*see* CRETAN REBELLION [1821–1822]). A particular problem was the Ottoman attempt to suppress Christianity on the island. The region of Sfakia, in the White Moun-

tains, was a stronghold of Christian resistance and the focus of chronic anti-Ottoman rebellion. The anti-Ottoman agitation came to a head in 1858 with a spasm of violence that induced the Sublime Porte (the Ottoman government) to promise a series of reforms, the most important of which was the Organic Act, which would give Christianity legal parity with Islam. By 1866, however, it became apparent that the Porte had no intention of implementing the promised reforms, and the Sfakians as well as Christians living in urban areas rose up in rebellion. The panic-stricken pasha of Crete—the Ottoman governor of the island—hurriedly called for military reinforcements from the mainland. However, the insurgents were highly motivated and well skilled. In a showdown battle on the plain of Apokoronas in 1866, they forced the surrender of an entire Turkish army. Believing this had put an effective end to Turkish rule, the insurgents dispersed. At this other Turkish military units and civilians on the island took vengeance by attacking the monastery at Arkadi, which was a rebel repository of guns, ammunition, and gunpowder. In the midst of the attack, a powder magazine ignited and exploded, killing hundreds of civilians. From here the Turks invaded the White Mountains, ravaging large areas there before pulling out and returning to Turkey.

As Greece and the Western powers saw it, Crete was being oppressed by the Ottomans. Some military support was sent to the Cretan freedom fighters, whereupon Turkey threatened (December 11, 1868) to blockade Greece. Greece backed down in its support, but other Western powers met in Paris in 1869 and voted to recognize a degree of self-government for Crete. This, however, proved too little too late to forestall the CRETAN UPRISING (1896).

See also CRETAN REBELLION (1770); GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: David Brewer, *The Greek War of Independence* (New York: Penguin Putnam, 2003).

Cretan Uprising (1896)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cretan Christians (aided by Greeks and with diplomatic intervention by Western powers) vs. Ottoman overlords
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Crete
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Christians constituted 90 percent of Crete's population, but the Ottomans administered Crete largely for the benefit of the 10 percent Muslim minority; the Christians rose in rebellion, appealing to Greece and other nations for support.
OUTCOME: Crete won limited independence under the supervision of Prince George of Greece.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Crete had endured many years of Ottoman overlordship, and the island's Christian majority had frequently rebelled (*see* CRETAN REBELLION [1821–1822], CRETAN UPRISING [1866–1868]). By the end of the 19th century the Ottoman attitude toward Crete had become cynical, with Sultan Abdul-Hamid II (1842–1918) appointing a Christian governor for the island only to remove him and substitute a particularly repressive Muslim. In a spasm of violence all too familiar on the island, Christians suddenly rose up in 1896, killing a number of Muslims and touching off something approaching full-scale civil war.

Turkish forces already stationed on Crete rushed to suppress the rebellion, even as Greece dispatched troops to assist the Cretan freedom fighters. The major powers of Europe attempted various forms of intervention aimed at keeping the peace in the eastern Mediterranean. Though these meddlings were at first chiefly diplomatic, they were also disparate, with Germany and Russia pushing for a blockade of Greece while retaining the current Turkish forces and Great Britain promoting a liberal measure of Cretan autonomy, the withdrawal of Greek forces, and the maintenance of some of the Ottoman force for policing purposes. But that was before the Muslims helped engineer the death of the British vice consul and before the accelerating hostilities had caused the GRECO-TURKISH WAR (1897). Ultimately, the Great Powers not only landed troops on Crete and bombarded insurgent positions, they forced the Turks to accept Prince George of Greece (1863–1913) as high commissioner for the island. With both sides fighting hard on the mainland, they were forced to withdraw their troops and let Crete become something like an international protectorate. Crete may have been free from the Ottoman yoke, but the Turks gave bitter sway to their frustration in one final massacre as they retreated. They slaughtered some 500 Cretans and 14 British soldiers at Canea before they fully evacuated the island.

See also CRETAN REBELLION (1770); GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: David Brewer, *The Greek War of Independence* (New York: Penguin Putnam, 2003).

Cretan Uprising (1935)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Greek antiroyalist Liberal Party vs. the Greek royalist Populist Party
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Crete, Athens, Macedonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Cretan-born Eleuthérios Venizélos, former premier of Greece, led a rebellion against the restoration of the Greek monarchy.

OUTCOME: The royalists won, leading to the restoration of George II to the Greek throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No treaty; plebiscite of 1935 resulted in the restoration of George II and signaled the end of the uprising.

Cretan-born Eleuthérios Venizélos (1864–1936) had had a stormy career as a Greek politician, holding the premiership six times between 1910 and 1933. He was best known to the West for his opposition to Greek king Constantine I (1868–1923), who wanted to align Greece with the Central Powers during World War I. Venizélos manipulated the country into the camp of the Allies.

In 1933 Venizélos was replaced as premier by Panayoti Tsaldaris (1868–1936), leader of the royalist Populist Party. Venizélos's partisans, known as Venizélists, rebelled against the government of the new premier, inciting violence in Athens and Macedonia as well as Crete. They sought to prevent the restoration of the monarchy—Greece had been a republic since 1924—which would come under the Tsaldaris government. The uprising was quickly put down in Athens and Macedonia by government forces under General George Kondylis (1874–1936), but in Crete the rebellion was more strongly entrenched. Nevertheless, it yielded before the end of the year, and Venizélos was sent fleeing for his life to France. There he died in 1936. But before the end of 1935, General Kondylis turned against Premier Tsaldaris, staging a coup that made him premier. It was under Kondylis that Parliament voted to recall George II (1890–1947) from exile. By plebiscite George II was restored to the throne on November 25, 1935.

Further reading: C. M. Woodhouse, *Modern Greece: A Short History* (London: Faber and Faber, 2000).

Crete, Fall of (c. 1400 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Crete vs. the Achaeans and Mycenae
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Crete
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Achaean migration southward from Indo-Europe
OUTCOME: Annihilation of Cretan civilization
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Cretan civilization, as the center of the Mediterranean world, heavily influenced the surrounding settlements, none more so than Mycenae. As Mycenae began to emulate Crete more and more, the two eventually became rivals, and Mycenae challenged Crete as the preeminent Mediterranean civilization. At the same time, the Achaeans, a central Indo-European people, began their southward migration into the Mediterranean region. Near the dawn of the 15th century B.C.E., the Achaeans occupied all of the mainland cities and began raiding Crete. At the same time the Mycenaeans either joined the Achaeans in the invasion of Crete or supplanted them altogether in Cretan dominance. Regardless, by 1250 Cretan civilization was totally overrun, and Achaean-Mycenaean influence, a mix that would ultimately produce the civilization we have come to call Greek, completely occupied Crete.

Further reading: Rodney Castleden, *Minoans: Life in Bronze Age Crete* (London: Routledge, 1993); Barry Unsworth, *Crete* (Washington, D.C.: National Geographic, 2004); R. F. Willetts, *The Civilization of Ancient Crete* (London: Phoenix, 2004).

Crimean War (1854–1856)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ottoman Empire, Britain, France, Sardinia, Austria, and Prussia, vs. Russia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Crimea
DECLARATION: October 4, 1853, Ottoman Empire against Russia
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russia claimed an exclusive right to protect Orthodox Christians within the territory of the Ottoman Empire; the Ottomans rejected this, and the Russians responded by invading Moldavia and Wallachia, whereupon the Ottoman Empire declared war. Fearing Russian seizure of Constantinople and the Dardanelles, the Western powers, led by Britain and France, allied themselves with the Ottomans.
OUTCOME: Russia renounced its role as protector of the Orthodox; the autonomy of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Serbia was guaranteed; doctrines upholding the principle of freedom of the seas were affirmed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 888,000; France, 309,268; Britain, 97,864; Ottoman Empire, 165,000; Sardinia, 21,000
CASUALTIES: Russia, 73,125 battle deaths; France, 20,240 battle deaths; Britain, 4,602 battle deaths; Ottoman Empire, 20,900 battle deaths; Sardinia, 28 battle deaths; many more soldiers died of illness, for a total of 615,378 dead on all sides.
TREATIES: Treaty of Paris, March 30, 1856

The Crimean War is noteworthy on at least two counts: first, as the only European war Britain fought after the conclusion of the Napoleonic Wars in 1815 and before the opening of World War I in 1914, and second, as a

showcase of logistical incompetence and poor generalship on all sides.

The war began as a dispute between Russian Orthodox priests and French Catholics over who had precedence at the holy places in Jerusalem and Nazareth. After the dispute turned violent, Russia's czar, Nicholas I (1796–1855), asserted his nation's duty and right to protect Orthodox Christians as well as Christian shrines in the Holy Land and elsewhere within the Ottoman realm. To show that he meant business, Nicholas invaded Wallachia and Moldavia, which were then part of the Ottoman Empire. On November 5, 1853, a Russian naval squadron attacked and destroyed a Turkish flotilla off Sinope in the Black Sea. British newspapers reported—falsely—that the Russians had purposely fired on wounded Turkish sailors. Presumably, the news reports were planted by the British government, which wanted an excuse to declare war on the Russians in order to forestall their domination of Constantinople and the Dardanelles Strait. For his part, French emperor Napoleon III (1808–73) was eager for a war that would give him an opportunity to emulate the military prowess of his uncle, Napoleon I (1769–1821). Moreover, he felt an obligation to protect the French monks in Jerusalem. Thus, each for their own reasons, Britain and France allied themselves with the Ottoman Empire against Russia.

A combined British and French fleet sailed into the Black Sea and ordered the Russians to withdraw from Wallachia and Moldavia. When Russia refused, war was declared. Austria allied itself with Prussia and, securing Ottoman permission, invaded Moldavia and Wallachia, driving the Russians out by the summer of 1854. This should have brought an end to the war, but Britain and France decided that the major Russian naval base at Sevastopol was a threat to the region and to freedom of the seas. Accordingly, in September 1854 a combined expeditionary force of British, French, Sardinian, and Turkish soldiers landed on the Crimean Peninsula and moved against Sevastopol. The principal British commander was the superannuated Fitzroy James Henry Somerset, lord Raglan (1788–1855), who had not seen service since the Battle of Waterloo.

By the time the allies landed at Calamita Bay on September 13, 1854, many had fallen ill with cholera and dysentery; disease would prove the deadliest foe in this war. The landing was managed poorly, and the British were particularly disorganized. Fortunately for the allies, the landings were unopposed. Three rivers lay between Calamita Bay and Sevastopol. At the second of these, the Alma, a Russian army under Prince Aleksandr Mentschikoff (1787–1869) took its stand. Not only did the Russians enjoy superiority of numbers, they commanded a narrow pass and held ground that was well defended. It should have been an easy victory for them, but in the confusion of battle they misread the strength of the Highland Brigade. These superbly trained troops conducted a fighting advance, firing while advancing. It was a maneuver unknown to the Russians, who panicked and fell back. Thanks to the Highlanders, the Battle of the Alma became a Russian rout.

Defeated, the Russians retreated inland and, as the siege of Sevastopol began, they regrouped along the British flank. As the British and French laboriously prepared their siege works, the Russians struck against the British right flank. Once again, it was Colin Cambell's (1792–1863) Highlanders who drove off the first wave of Russian cavalry, but an even larger body of Russian cavalry advanced against the British headquarters. The British cavalry was led by General Sir James Scarlett (1799–1871), who ordered a charge into the much stronger Russians. Tactically, it approached being a suicide mission, yet its ferocity and execution overwhelmed the numerically superior Russians, who retreated.

The battlefield at Balaclava was extremely hilly, and Lord Raglan was anxious to gain the high ground. Accordingly, he ordered George Charles Bingham, lord Lucan (1800–88), the commander of the cavalry, to regain the heights at any cost. Because infantry support failed to materialize, Lucan refused to move. When the Russians began to remove the guns they had captured from British positions, Raglan demanded that Lucan prevent their removal—again at all costs. Lucan in turn ordered the Light Brigade, led by James Thomas Brudenell, lord Cardigan (1797–1868), to take the lead. The Light Brigade advanced into a trap of massed Russian infantry and cavalry on both sides of the valley and ahead of them. When Cardigan protested the folly of charging an unassailable position, Lucan reminded him that his orders came directly from Lord Raglan, the commander in chief. Without further protest, then, Cardigan ordered the bugler to sound the charge, and the Light Brigade advanced into what Alfred, lord Tennyson (1809–92), in his famous poem "The Charge of the Light Brigade," would call the "valley of death." Of the 673 men who advanced, fewer than 200 returned, and most of these were wounded.

The British claimed the Battle of Balaklava as a victory, but, in fact, they had failed to dislodge the Russians from the strategic position of the Causeway Heights. Nevertheless, the principal Russian forces had been flung back. The Russians counterattacked at the Battle of Inkerman, which was fought largely hand-to-hand in a thick fog. A slugfest, the battle resulted in yet another Russian retreat. From this point on the Allies advanced slowly upon Sevastopol, enduring, as they inched forward, a bitter winter. The great scandal of the war was the corruption, heartlessness, and general incompetence of the British commissary department, which failed properly to clothe, feed, and shelter the freezing troops. It was in this context that the British nurse Florence Nightingale (1820–1910) campaigned so vigorously for sanitary and

decent treatment of the sick and wounded at the hospital in Scutari.

In the meantime, Malakov and Redan, the two main Russian fortifications overlooking Sevastopol, fell on September 8 and 9, 1855. This led to the fall of Sevastopol itself, whereupon Czar Alexander II (1818–81), who had succeeded his father, Nicholas I, opened peace negotiations—even as the war continued to rage in the Caucasus. The Russian siege of Kars, an Ottoman fortress, proved successful, the Turks succumbing mostly to starvation and disease. However, British and French naval bombardment of Russia's Baltic fortresses continued unremittingly, and Alexander at last agreed to the Treaty of Paris, signed on March 30, 1856.

Russia relinquished its self-proclaimed role as protector of the Orthodox in the Ottoman realms, and the Russians as well as the Turks agreed to recognize self-government in Moldavia, Wallachia, and Serbia. Issues relating to domination of the Dardanelles were also resolved, with all sides agreeing to recognize a general principle of freedom of the seas.

Further reading: Deborah Bachrach, *Crimean War* (Detroit: Gale Research, 1997); Winfried Baumgart, *Crimean War, 1853–1856* (London: Hodder Arnold, 1999); Trevor Royle, *Crimea: The Great Crimean War, 1854–1856* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2000); Philip Warner, *The Crimean War: A Reappraisal* (London: Wordsworth Editions, 2000).

Cromwell's Irish Campaign (1649–1652)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Protestant forces of Oliver Cromwell (Parliamentary Army) vs. Royalist-Catholic Confederacy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ireland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Cromwell sought to suppress Catholic opposition in Ireland during the Second English Civil War.
OUTCOME: Submission of Catholic forces in Leinster Province in Ireland, followed by general submission to parliamentary government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Parliamentary Army, 12,000; Royalist-Catholic Confederacy, 8,700
CASUALTIES: Parliamentary Army, 1,900+ killed or wounded in battle, in addition to about 2,000 dead from disease; Royalist-Catholic Confederacy, 9,200 killed (some by execution) or wounded
TREATIES: Articles of Kilkenny, May 13, 1652

Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658) is usually given the lion's share of credit for the English Parliament's subjugation of Ireland between 1649 and 1652. His magnetic leadership, political determination, careful logistical preparation, and lightning military strokes played an unquestioned role in the ultimate victory. But it is sometimes forgotten that the groundwork for that victory had been laid over a period of several years by other commanders. Nor was the conquest ultimately secured until more than two years after the lord lieutenant himself had departed from Ireland.

The government of the English republic justified its invasion of Ireland on three grounds: 1) to reclaim it as an English possession; 2) to avenge the slaughter of 12,000 English settlers in the revolt of 1641; and 3) to prevent its becoming a royalist base of operations against the republican regime.

When the invasion was finally launched in 1649, Oliver Cromwell benefited from the political and military disunity of the Catholic Confederate forces. Their unwillingness to cooperate with Protestant royalist leaders such as Murrough O'Brien (1614–74), earl of Inchiquin, and James Butler (1610–88), earl of Ormond, combined with inept leadership by Owen Roe O'Neill (1582–1649), commander of the Catholic army in Ulster, James Tuchet (1614–84), earl of Castlehaven, commander in Munster, and Thomas Preston (1585–1655), viscount Tara, commander in Leinster, eventually gave Cromwell the opportunity to win his major triumphs. In August 1647 Colonel Michael Jones (fl. 1649–52), leading a force of 6,500 men supported by nine cannons, took the offensive against Thomas Preston's Leinster army and shattered it at the battle of Dungan's Hill. In November Inchiquin met and destroyed the 8,200-man Confederate army of Munster. Only Owen Roe O'Neill's army in Ulster remained intact. However, the Catholic cause briefly took on a new lease on life with the return of Ormond to Ireland in September 1648. Negotiating a peace with the Confederates (excluding O'Neill), he and Inchiquin combined with Theobald Taaffe (d. 1677) and Thomas Preston to raise a joint force of 16,000–20,000 men. Enjoying the protection of a small royalist navy of 12 warships under Prince Rupert (1619–82), they prepared to besiege Colonel Jones in Dublin. But Ormond's coalition did not move fast enough. Already in May and June the first wave of parliamentary reinforcements from England had arrived, raising Jones's field strength to more than 8,000 men. Unhampered by the excessive caution that characterized Ormond, Jones launched a surprise attack on August 3, 1649, against Ormond's outpost at Baggarath, less than a mile from Dublin. News of the rout of these 1,500 defenders demoralized Ormond's main force at Rathmines, already weakened by Inchiquin's withdrawal to defend Munster from a rumored English landing. About 600 royalist troops and six cannons were lost, as well as many prisoners taken. It was a stupendous reversal of royalist fortunes, carrying with it incalculable psychological and strategic consequences. Had Jones not won the battle at Rathmines,

Dublin would have been lost, Cromwell would have had nowhere to land his forces, and the invasion of Ireland might have been indefinitely postponed. None of Cromwell's later victories would equal Jones's in importance.

During the previous six months Cromwell and the Rump Parliament had carefully laid the groundwork that enabled them to exploit fully the opportunity now handed to them. Conscious that Ireland was a graveyard for English military reputations, Cromwell had refused to accept the leadership of the expedition and appointment as lord lieutenant until he was guaranteed the manpower, money, and supplies necessary for success. Nor did he set sail before he had accumulated a war chest of £100,000, 12,600 troops, vast quantities of food, supplies, horses, and oxen, and an awe-inspiring artillery train of 56 great guns. It took 130 ships to deliver this invasion force across the Irish Sea. Without the formidable parliamentary navy, Cromwell could not have contemplated the invasion in the first place. The navy would continue to play a critical role in the conquest, not only ferrying men and supplies from England during the next several years but also neutralizing the small royalist navy under Prince Rupert.

Initially it was thought that Ireland could be conquered quickly on a budget of £20,000 a month. In the event the price of subjugation came to £6.8 million for the seven years from 1649 to 1656. In line with the policy of making the country pay for its own conquest, close to half the sum spent in Ireland was raised there. Indeed, it was the impossibility of conquering Ireland out of existing sources of revenue that led the republic in 1652 to adopt the fateful policy of paying its military and civilian creditors in Irish land and transplanting most of the native population to Connacht, the poorest of the four provinces.

There was another dimension to Cromwell's preparation of the Irish project in 1649: diplomacy. During the spring and summer of that year he directed much of his energy to sabotaging the royalist coalition under the marquess of Ormond. With Cromwell's apparent approval, Colonel George Monk (1608–69) engineered a three-month cessation of hostilities with Owen Roe O'Neill in Ulster. Equally important was Cromwell's personal success in detaching Roger Boyle, lord Broghill (1621–79) from the royalist cause. Finally, Cromwell negotiated the desertion of a number of officers from the earl of Inchiquin's army in Munster but persuaded them to postpone announcing their desertions until he could squeeze the maximum tactical benefit from them.

Cromwell's military plan was to take as many ports on the east coast as possible, starting with Drogheda in the north and ending with Cork in the south, before moving inland. His first target, Drogheda, was in a pathetically weak condition after Ormond's recent defeat, but it was still not an easy target. Sitting athwart the deep channel of the River Boyne, it was girdled by ancient stone walls that on the south side were 20 feet high and four to six feet thick. Below the wall plunged a steep ravine. The key factor in Cromwell's success was his heavy artillery, with which, after two days of bombardment, he blasted two large holes in the south wall at its eastern extremity. The defenders had not been idle during the bombardment, but had dug three lines of earthworks arching back from the breaches that Cromwell was opening up. The first regiment that poured into the town was hurled back after a quarter hour of furious fighting. Not until Cromwell himself accompanied his men on foot for a second assault was the garrison overrun. Perhaps on account of this harrowing and perilous experience, Cromwell, once inside the battlements, ordered all the defenders put to the sword. Some of his men, having already offered quarter and accepted the surrender of the royalists, defied their commander's order and let their prisoners escape. Much of the massacre was actually perpetrated a day later in cold blood. The death toll was about 3,500 soldiers, civilians, and clergy.

There was a rational motivation for Cromwell's severity. He thought that the terrible fate of Drogheda would convince the Irish that further resistance was futile. Events would prove him wrong.

In the short term his next experience, at Wexford, seemed to vindicate the policy of terror. The news of Drogheda and of Cromwell's tremendous firepower demoralized the enemy before he even arrived. As soon as he had shattered the walls of the outlying castle, the town signalled its intention to surrender. But having taken the castle, the English troops lacked the patience to wait for the conclusion of negotiations. Without orders they at once launched an assault on the town itself and slew 2,000 soldiers, townsfolk, and priests.

After Wexford the victories came much more slowly. There were over 350 garrisons in Ireland, and many of them held out with great stubbornness against the invader. Every conquered garrison had to be occupied, which reduced the number of soldiers available to besiege the next garrison. A second factor continually drained the amount of manpower available to the invader: disease. The English soldiers were afflicted first by dysentery and then by bubonic plague. The "bloody flux," or "country sickness," as dysentery was variously known, had infected 4,000 soldiers by the end of September 1649 alone. Many died, whereas others were so weakened that they were good for little else than garrison duty. By its nature dysentery attacks violently and without warning. In November, for example, a large part of the army, under attack by Inchiquin's army, were forced to fight with their breeches down because of the "flux."

Owing to these combined factors Cromwell's field army declined to 5,600 men after Wexford. The ravages of dysentery, exacerbated by bitterly cold, wet weather, go far toward explaining Cromwell's first major setback, at Waterford in December. Waterford was the only Irish city

that successfully resisted a Cromwellian siege. Part of the credit went to the brilliant tactics of Colonel Edward Wogan (fl. 1650s), who successfully deceived Lieutenant General Jones's forces. More significant, however, was the fact that Waterford was the only city where Cromwell was deprived of his heavy artillery, the weather having made it impossible for him to haul his guns overland. Nevertheless, the resistance at Waterford showed that the terror of Drogheda and Wexford had already worn off. Far from preventing further bloodshed, the atrocities had sharpened the resolve of royalists and Catholics to resist the invader with every sinew.

The site of Cromwell's second major setback was Clonmel. In April 1650 he besieged the town and three weeks later unleashed his artillery. But the countermeasures taken by the defenders illustrate how quickly the Irish had learned to neutralize heavy siege guns. At the point where Cromwell opened a breach in the town's walls, the defending commander, Major General Hugh O'Neill (d. c. 1660), enlisted every available person within to build a twin set of makeshift walls out of rubbish, stones, timber, and mortar running back 80 yards from either side of the breach. At the end of the lane created by these two walls he dug a deep ditch and planted his own guns behind it.

Not suspecting these preparations, Cromwell ordered the storm to begin. It was May 16, 1650. The town was eerily silent, and there was no opposition as the men climbed through the gap in the wall singing a hymn. Before those at the front of the assault force realized that they were in a trap, the whole lane was crammed with troops. At that point O'Neill sent a small party to seal off the breach. His main force then fell on those trapped within with muskets, pikes, scythes, and stones. They also hurled long timber posts among the helpless invaders and let loose with their two artillery pieces from the end of the lane, cutting the English soldiers between the knees and the stomach with chained bullets. By the end of the day Cromwell had lost 1,500 men and still had not broken the town's resistance.

Later that night, however, O'Neill and his troops, their ammunition exhausted, slipped out of the town. At midnight the townsmen offered to treat for surrender. Ignorant of the fact that the defending soldiers had stolen away, Cromwell quickly granted the town easy terms. Only after he had made the agreement did he discover the deception. Angry as he was he stuck to his terms.

A week later Cromwell reluctantly left Ireland after a stay of barely nine months. The English Parliament required him at home to cope with the looming threat from Scotland. He had come to Ireland intending a sharp, quick conquest, but as his campaign wore on he found the Irish unexpectedly stubborn. Despite notable diplomatic successes in winning over the Munster towns under Inchiquin's control, and despite very able support from Sir Charles Coote (c. 1622–72) in Ulster, Lieutenant General Jones around Dublin, and Lord Broghill in Munster, his victories became ever more costly. His initially well-paid and well-supplied army shrank alarmingly from the dysentery that tore through its ranks and from the necessity to leave behind defenders in every garrison that was overrun. Recruits were slow to arrive from England. Had it not been for defections from the enemy he would have had almost no men left to put into the field by the end of 1649.

In principle the war should now have been no more than a mopping up operation, for the Irish resistance appeared to be in an advanced state of disintegration, while bubonic plague now raged across the breadth of the country. The royalist coalition had for all purposes flown apart, and Ormond's authority was nugatory. The final disaster was the loss of Owen Roe O'Neill's former army under the incompetent leadership of its new commander, Bishop Eamon McMahon (fl. 1650s), at the hands of Sir Charles Coote in June 1650 at the Battle of Scarrifhollis. A total of 3,000 Catholic soldiers were lost. By the end of the year Ormond had left the country.

With the royalist-Catholic cause in ruins, why did the Irish not see sense and capitulate? In reality their leaders would have been happy to bring an end to the killing and physical destruction of their country but for one stumbling block: Cromwell's and the English Parliament's refusal to let them practice the Catholic religion. Ireland consequently descended deeper into the maelstrom of violence.

At the end of 1651 the Confederate Irish adopted a classic pattern of guerrilla warfare against the occupying power. Control of the garrisons paradoxically weakened Parliament's grip on the country. Pinned down by their responsibilities, the soldiers found it less and less safe to venture outside the walls of their fortresses. The enemy, whose numbers never seemed to diminish, were by contrast free to roam at large, wreaking havoc when and where they chose. In order to cope with "the motions of a restless, desperate enemy" the English army swelled to more than 33,000 men in 1651, nearly three times the number Cromwell had brought over in 1649. Yet as late as the summer of 1652 the parliamentary commissioners reported that they were still occasionally engaging enemy armies larger than their own.

In this guerrilla phase the parliamentary commanders strove to deny food to their enemy and so render them hateful to the rural population. Houses and grain were burnt and cattle destroyed. By 1651 four-fifths of the fertile land lay wasted and uninhabited. In 1652 Parliament began implementing its policy of replacing the native population with Protestant settlers. More than half the landmass of Ireland was transferred to English investors, adventurers, and soldiers. Yet so great had the devastation been that the conquerors found themselves occupying a graveyard. Destroying the population through starvation, sickness, or deportation had the effect of reducing the value of the land almost to zero.

Irish resistance formally ended with the signing of the Articles of Kilkenny on May 12, 1652. All who had had a hand in the massacres of Protestants in 1641 and unarmed people thereafter were excepted from pardon. The rest who had borne arms against Parliament had the option of leaving the country or submitting to the parliamentary yoke. No member of the popish clergy was allowed to reside in the areas controlled by Parliament. Yet the dream of eradicating Roman Catholicism and planting a Protestant yeomanry proved to be a chimera: Most investors and soldiers refused to settle there.

The guerrilla war continued unabated, and as late as 1655 the three provinces reserved to the English—Leinster, Munster, and Ulster—still swarmed with Tories, as the Irish rebels were called. Staggering quantities of treasure and manpower had been poured into the formal subjugation of Ireland. Yet Cromwell, the ruler of the English republic, had come no closer than his Elizabethan and Jacobean predecessors to bending the country to his will.

See also CROMWELL'S SCOTTISH CAMPAIGN; ENGLISH CIVIL WAR, SECOND.

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Cromwell's Scottish Campaign (1650–1651)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland and northern England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Victory in the English Civil Wars
OUTCOME: The Scots forces were defeated, although Charles II and other Royalists refused to capitulate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the Battle of Dunbar, parliamentary forces, 16,000; Scots, 26,000; at the Battle of Worcester, parliamentary forces, 30,000; Scots, 16,000
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Dunbar, parliamentary forces, 30 killed; Scots, 3,000 killed, 9,000 captured; at the Battle of Worcester, most of the 16,000 Scots engaged were killed.
TREATIES: None

No sooner had Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658) begun to wind down CROMWELL'S IRISH CAMPAIGN than in 1650 Scottish Presbyterians proclaimed Charles II (1630–85), the son of England's king Charles I (1600–49), executed by Parliament, king of Great Britain. Charles II was crowned in Scotland on January 1, 1651.

In the meantime, in July 1650, seeking to put down the incipient uprising in Scotland, Cromwell led 16,000 (including 6,000 cavalry) Roundheads (parliamentary troops) across the border into Scotland and advanced on Edinburgh. He was opposed by 26,000 Scots (including 8,000 cavalry) led by David Leslie (1601–82). Instead of exploiting his overwhelming superiority of numbers, Leslie maneuvered defensively, instituting a scorched-earth policy to force the invading Roundheads to rely exclusively on the navy for supply. It became critical for Cromwell to force a battle as his army dwindled from hunger, exposure, and disease. By September his effective force was down to 11,000 men.

Cromwell withdrew his forces to Musselburgh and then to Dunbar. Leslie's Scots took up encircling positions on the surrounding hills in anticipation of a Roundhead evacuation. To Leslie's surprise, however, Cromwell attacked on September 3. The initial Roundhead cavalry charge at the Battle of Dunbar overwhelmed the Scottish right wing—a blow from which the Scots could not recover despite their superiority of number. A total of 3,000 Scots fell in battle, and another 9,000 were captured. The Roundheads lost no more than 30 men.

Leslie and the survivors retreated to Stirling, and Cromwell found himself in control of southern Scotland, including the route to Edinburgh. Cromwell's victory was followed by a lull in the campaign due to an attack of illness, which incapacitated Cromwell, and discord among the Scots, which prevented their attacking. In June 1651, however, Cromwell recovered sufficiently to lead his army to Perth. Here he lured Charles into a trap. Leading Leslie's army, Charles II marched south and then along the west coast by July 31. Cromwell dispatched his cavalry to follow the royalist forces, then sent his infantry from Newcastle to Warrington. The Midlands militia he ordered to march to the north. On August 2 Cromwell took Perth, then led the main Roundhead army on a forced march down the east coast, gathering militia reinforcements along the way. All four of Cromwell's forces converged on the Scots' position at Worcester, and Cromwell directed his engineers to throw bridges across the Teame and Severn Rivers. This done, Cromwell closed in to force the Battle of Worcester on September 3, 1651.

It was now the Scots who were outnumbered. Against 30,000 parliamentary troops, including 20,000 members of the powerful "New Model" army, the Scots fielded only 16,000. Most of the Scottish army was killed, although Charles II, having fought valiantly, escaped to Scotland.

Effectively, the Battle of Worcester brought an end to the Scottish campaign, although pockets of royalist resistance were active until the surrender of Dunettar Castle in May 1652 ended not only the war in Scotland, but the English Civil Wars.

See also ENGLISH CIVIL WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Frances Dow, *Cromwellian Scotland, 1651–1660* (Edinburgh: Berlinn, 2000); Ian Gentles, *The New Model Army in England, Ireland and Scotland, 1645–1653* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992).

Crusade, First (1095–1099)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: European crusaders, Venetian adventurers, and Byzantium vs. Seljuk Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Middle East and Asia Minor
DECLARATION: Called by Pope Urban II, 1095
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When Byzantium's holdings in Asia Minor fell to the Seljuks, the Byzantine emperor appealed to the West for help. Pope Urban II, seeking to distract the disputatious factions of feudal Europe, to recapture Jerusalem from the Muslims, and to promote the reunion of the splintered Christian Church, called for a crusade to the Holy Land. From then and throughout the next century, great armies from northern Europe made the hazardous journey to the east to fight in the name of Christ. A Muslim Middle East, which closed the 11th century rent by conflicts and incapable of joint defense, would over time become more united and effective in fighting their own jihad against these fanatical invaders.
OUTCOME: Answering the pope's call, the knights of Europe, the majority in this case French (thus they were "the Franks" to the Muslim world), were largely successful (without much help from the Byzantines) in defeating first the Seljuks and then the Fatimids and conquering the Holy Land, where they set up four Christian states ruled by some of the crusaders themselves. In the long run the Christian settlers who had accompanied the Crusades and occupied the lands they took in the Latin Kingdom (Outremer) lacked the forces to hold their gains securely in the Muslim world.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Crusader losses unknown; Seljuk battle deaths, more than 80,000.
TREATIES: None

The Crusades were inspired by the concept of pilgrimage, and in fact not until the 13th century would the word *crusade* be used to describe the venturings of European Christian soldiers into the Muslim-held Holy Land of the Middle East at the behest of the Byzantine Empire. Instead, they were called variously "the expedition of God," "the business of Christ," or just "the pilgrimage." But neither the First Crusade, conceived in 1095, nor any of those that followed, would ever be anything like an ordinary pilgrimage. These were military expeditions seeking by the might of the sword to expand the dominion of the Catholic Church and to bring an outpost in the east under the authority of the pope in Rome. Thanks to the efforts of Europe's military leaders, soldiers, and missionaries, Jerusalem and a 600-mile strip of Syrian coast would pass for a time from Muslim to Christian control.

On a broader scale these would be the first undertakings in which the European nations as a whole cooperated. Little wonder the goal that first drew them together was a religious one, because religion permeated 11th-century European society. The idea of rendering service to God by conquering the Holy Land was an idea that could take hold of the imagination of generations of Europeans and fire the energies of the contintent's warriors. These expeditions seemed of less consequence to the Muslim world. They were a mere complication in the vast stew of Middle Eastern society and politics. Ultimately, the continued attacks by a distant and alien world would drive the Muslim faithful, splintered into sects, more closely together and help ambitious Islamic leaders impose some unity and even orthodoxy on a divided area of the globe.

More than any of the religions and political orders of the day, it would be mundane pursuits that most benefited from the Crusades. They were especially stimulating for the commercial trading cities of Italy, foremost among them Venice. Because the ports of Byzantium and the Levant already served as key entrepôts in the trade between Europe and Asia, the arrival of Christian powers in the east would help spark worldwide commerce. As the financing grew to fund new trade, not only would exotic goods travel the world, but also new diseases and strange ideas. The world became a smaller but richer, better informed, less rigid, and less religious place.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

On the eve of the 12th century, the Muslim world was divided and disputatious. Since the prophet Mohammed's (570?–632) death in 632, his followers had swept through Arabia to make conquests as far west as Spain, beyond the Indus in the east, as far north as the Caspian Sea, and south of Egypt into Africa. In the process they had also split in two. Theoretically, the spiritual and political leader of all Islam was the caliph, which meant literally "the successor." But two rival dynasties—the Abbasids of Baghdad and the Fatimids of Cairo—claimed to be the true successors of the Prophet. The Abbasids were Sunni Muslims and in the majority; the Fatimids were Shi'ites. The Abbasid caliphate reached its peak in the ninth century, the Fatimid caliphate in the 10th, and by the 11th both dynasties had lost true power in the Middle East.

Nominally, the Abbasids ruled the huge stretch of land between the eastern Mediterranean and India, but they had lost much of their power to the Seljuk Turks, nomads from the steppes of Central Asia originally employed by the Muslims as mercenaries who had fought their way to control of Sunni lands by 1059. Recent converts to Sunni Islam, they had all the zeal of new converts

and, at least nominally, afforded the caliph great respect. But in worldly things the caliph had become the puppet of the sultan, which was the Seljuk term for war chieftain. And the sultan was gleefully planning the conquest of all Shiites and infidels.

Egypt's rich Fatimids had also fallen. Native Egyptians, as a rule, had no great love for combat, and as a result the Fatimid army employed as soldiers large numbers of slaves from diverse—usually pagan—origins. Egypt's slave-based military included Turks and Sudanese spearmen who fought in the Egyptian army alongside a mercenary cavalry made up of Berbers from North Africa. In 1060 a military spat sparked this volatile mix into 17 years of civil war. Joining the warring factions of the Fatimid army were Egypt's native Arabs, interfering Seljuks, and Sinai Desert Bedouins, who seemed always to be spoiling for a fight. When the war ended, Egypt was in the hands of an Armenian Muslim dynasty of slave origin, the Mamluks, who had slaughtered all other possible claimants. The Fatimid caliph Al-Mustansir (r. 1036–94) remained in office, but—as in Abbasid Arabia—he was a mere puppet. This caliph's strings were pulled by the Mamluks, who were the real power in Egypt.

Syria, which then included today's Syria, Jordan, Lebanon, and Israel, had been tossed back and forth by the Abbasids and the Fatimids for centuries. Among its dominant Arab-speaking peasants and townspeople there lived numerous Jews, Greek Orthodox Christians, and the members of heretical Christian sects such as the Armenians, Maronites, and Jacobites. The Muslim rulers generally tolerated Christians, though they had to pay heavy taxes and evidence outward respect for Islam. Outside the settled areas, in the vast Syrian desert, roamed the tribal Arabs.

The long civil war in Egypt and the Seljuks' intervention created chaos in Syria. Some cities were held by Seljuk warlords, others by local Arab families, Armenian (Mamluk) princes, former Fatimid governors now grown independent, and a mélange of adventurers. Along the coast a few strongholds remained loyal to Egypt, but Jerusalem changed hands three times before becoming a more or less permanent possession of the Seljuks. None of those creating this turmoil ever had a mind to harass or disrupt the lucrative Christian pilgrimages from Europe and Byzantium in the decades before the Crusades, though there was no question the instability in the region made such journeys more dangerous. Then, while engaged in Egypt's civil war and various conquests in Syria, the Seljuks struck a major blow to another great power in the region—the Byzantine Empire.

In 1071 the Byzantine emperor Michael VII Parapinates (r. 1071–78) marched eastward to face the increasingly troublesome Seljuks, and the two armies clashed at Manzikert in Armenia, which lay on the disputed eastern borderlands of Byzantium. The Seljuks shattered the Byzantine army and captured the emperor. The whole of Anatolia (Turkey), a broad stretch of land in Asia Minor, fell to the ravages of the Seljuks. Soon a new Seljuk dynasty established itself in the area and declared independence from Baghdad. Constantinople itself now felt imperiled from this new Muslim sultanate—the sultanate of Rum—and pilgrims traveling, as was customary, to Jerusalim from Constantinople faced a much greater threat.

The fall of Anatolia was a fearful blow to an already troubled Byzantium, which was the successor state to the eastern half of the old Roman Empire. Byzantine holdings embraced Greece, much of the Balkans, and remnants of Asia Minor. Though the very name Byzantium conjured in western Europe notions of immense splendor, a series of weak rulers had left it dependent on an army made up of foreign mercenaries. And though it was beleaguered by its Muslim neighbors, Byzantium could not count on the loyalty of the Christian west, for the Orthodox Church in Constantinople and the Catholic Church in Rome had been drifting apart for centuries, fighting over doctrines and converts and which had primacy, before a quarrel about the wording of the Nicene Creed in 1054 led to open schism. The Orthodox patriarch and the Catholic pope had declared each other anathema. So Emperor Alexius I Comnenus (r. 1081–1118) was truly desperate when he appealed to Pope Gregory VII (r. 1073–85) for help.

When the pope, caught up in events closer at hand and unable to send troops, declined to help, the Byzantines had to go it alone. But Alexius, perhaps the most subtle politician of the time, managed with a mix of bribery, bluff, and treachery to keep his enemies in a state of discord even as they surrounded him. When Malik Shah I (r. 1073–92), the last undisputed sultan, died in Baghdad leaving behind too many sons, the resulting civil war threatened to destabilize the sultanate of Rum as well. This was an opportunity too good to pass up, and Alexius wrote to Rome for a second time requesting aid from the Christian west. It was not so much a plea for rescue as an amicable request for a contingent of professional soldiers who the Byzantines would pay to help them get back some of their lost territories from the Muslims. Alexius was probably not thinking about Jerusalem, because the Holy City had not been part of the empire's holdings for centuries. That was not, however, the message from Alexius that the new pope in Rome, Urban II (r. 1088–99), imagined he heard, or—to be more precise—not the one he wished to hear.

CALL TO ARMS

Western Europe in the 11th century consisted of several feudal kingdoms, and although some were already developing into integrated monarchies, most of the problems associated with feudalism—widespread vassalage, draconian inheritance customs, endemic private warfare, brigandage—were still prevalent. Europe was not in any way unified outside its Catholicism, and conditions in some parts of western Europe prevented some kingdoms from

playing major roles in the First Crusade. England, for example, was still adjusting to the NORMAN CONQUEST of 1066, Spain was preoccupied with its own Muslim incursions from Africa, and Germany was in the throes of civil strife resulting from long-standing strife with the pope. Consequently, most of the support for a crusade had to come from France, and France just happened to be the most feudal of the European kingdoms. Thus, it was no accident that the Muslims would refer to the first crusaders—and by extension, all crusaders ever afterward—as Franks.

By then, too, Europe was feeling the effects of a population explosion that had begun in the 10th and would continue on to the 13th century, when plagues, picked up in part from the Crusades and the increased trade they encouraged, began to decimate a Europe grown dense with people. Younger sons of the nobility, unless they married well, either entered the religious life or turned to soldiering and adventure. At the same time an economic revival was in full swing, undercutting centuries of feudal stagnation. Europeans were clearing forests, expanding frontiers, and organizing markets. In the Mediterranean Italian shipping interests were challenging the Muslim hegemony over trade. Even more significant, the Catholic Church was undergoing a general overhaul of its ecclesiastical structure aimed at allowing the popes to play a more active role in society. Although the Holy Roman Emperor in Germany was opposing papal reforms, Urban II was in a strong enough position to invoke two important ecclesiastical councils in 1095, at one of which—the Council of Claremont—he made his soon-to-be famous sermon calling for a holy war to reclaim Jerusalem from the Muslims.

Urban, like many in Europe, had heard the horror stories about the grevious suffering of Christians in Syria at the hands of warring Muslims. Likewise, he knew the tales of danger on the annual pilgrimages to the Holy Land, and he no doubt truly wished to succor his suffering fellow Christians in the east and diminish the jeopardy to pilgrims from the west. Even so, as the scion of a noble French family, Urban also knew the evils bellicose western Christians inflicted on one another every day, and it seemed to him that if the knights of Europe could be somehow persuaded to direct their energies against infidels in the east, rather than against one another, peace throughout the land would follow. Finally, Urban seems to have reasoned that if Byzantium were to become dependent on western arms, the unity of Christendom, east and west, could be restored.

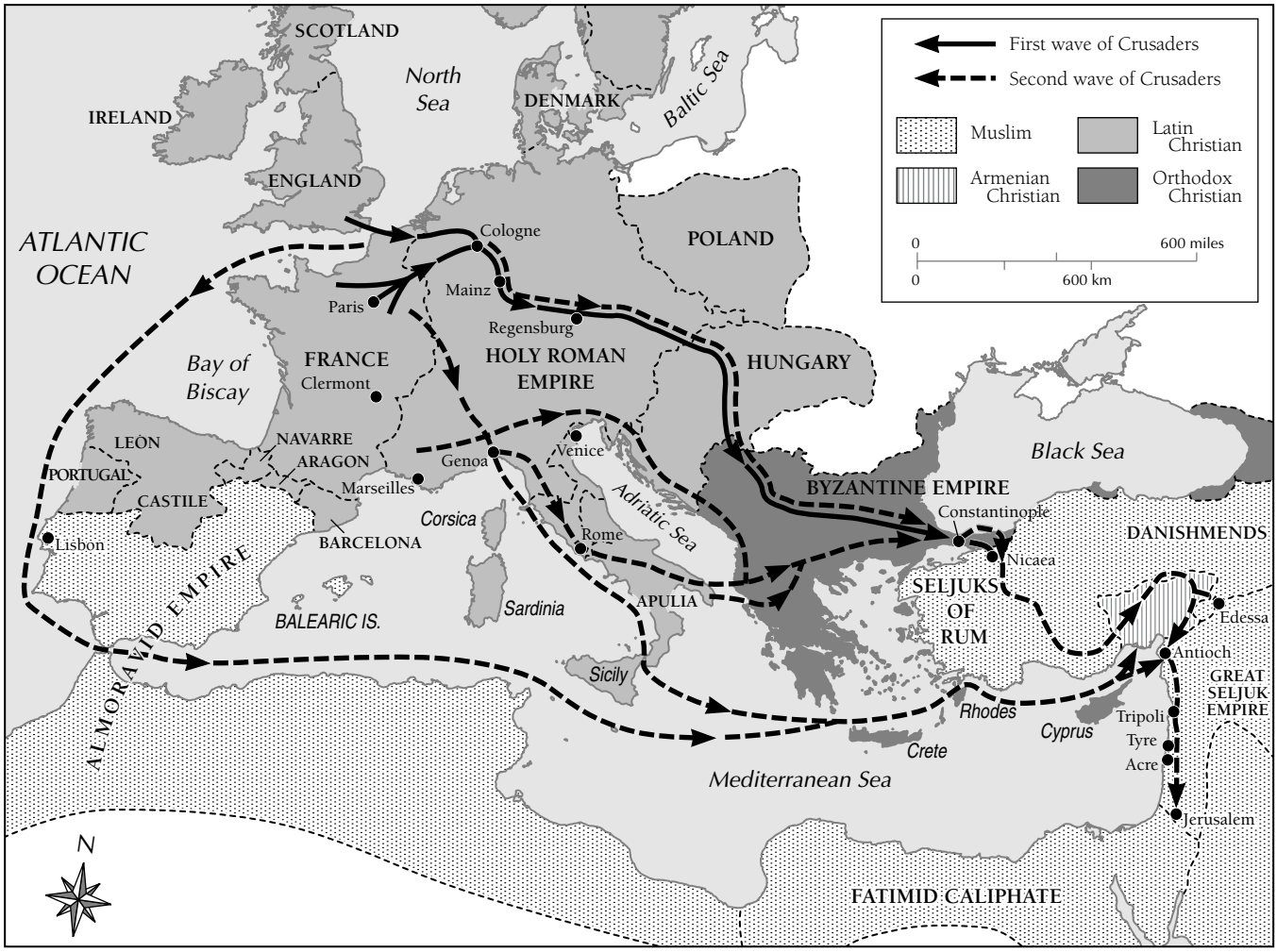
Urban had a model in the *reconquista* of Spain. From the start, after Arabs had overrun Spain in the eighth century, the Christian areas that survived in the north had cherished the notion of taking back the south from the Muslim Moors. Also, from the outset the struggle had drawn in Christians from elsewhere. In 1085 the *reconquista* had achieved its first major success by seizing Toledo, the old capital of the Spanish plateau. When he responded to Alexius's call to arms, Urban could rely on the Spanish tradition of a just war against Islam to legitimate his action. For that reason, Urban chose Jerusalem, the Holy City and the one Europeans knew best, by repute if not by pilgrimage, as the proper objective for a holy war, rather than the nearer Asian cities Alexius actually had in mind.

In his famous convocation at Clermont on November 18, 1095, Urban stressed the plight of eastern Christians, the molestation of pilgrims, and the desecration of holy places. He urged his listeners who were guilty of disturbing the peace to turn their warlike ways toward a holy cause. He emphasized the need for penance, for the acceptance of suffering, and for exalted motives. But he also promised that crusaders would be treated as pilgrims and become temporary churchmen, subject to church courts rather than the law of any land. He promised those who died a place in heaven and those who lived not only such salvation but also absolution for any sins they might commit.

The response was overwhelming, far greater probably than Urban had imagined. Everywhere in Europe could be heard cries of *"Deus Volte"* (God wills it), and those who joined up, came to wear a stylized cross on their tunics. As preparations began in both the east and the west, Alexius realized he was getting much more than the sort of auxiliary force he had imagined, and he would have somehow to provide for and police this new mass of Christian soldiery. In the West, leaders assembled their armies—such feudal lords as Raymond IV of Toulouse (c. 1038–1105), Robert II of Normandy (d. 1035), Hugh of Vermandois (1032–1120), Bohemond I (c. 1056–1111) and his nephew, Tancred of Normandy (d. 1148), and brothers Baldwin (1058–1118) and Godfrey of Bouillon (1058–1100). Those who took up the cross had to raise money, mostly by selling or mortgaging property, to buy equipment and fund the journey. And even then they would arrive in Byzantium woefully short of funds, dependant on Alexius to make up the shortfall. By August 1096 the main crusading force moved out under instructions from the pope.

COURSE OF THE CONFLICT

Meanwhile, a number of unruly bands of pilgrims, including some bearing arms and commonly called the People's Crusade, took off across Europe. The best known of these were led by a remarkable lay preacher called Peter the Hermit (c. 1050–1115) and his comrade at arms Walter the Penniless (d. 1096). It actually reached Constantinople ahead of the crowd after causing much mayhem in Hungary and Bulgaria on the way. Alexius was cordial enough, but he advised Peter to hold off on any fighting until the main force of crusaders arrived. However, Peter's rude following grew restless, and on August 6, 1096, the Byzantines ferried them across the strait. Soon Peter was back in the city begging for aid, and while he was there



First Crusade, 1095–1099

Turks ambushed and massacred his followers at Cibotus. Other disorderly bands of peasants, mostly from northwest Germany, committed a number of atrocities against Jewish communities on their way to Byzantium. These groups the Turks attacked and dispersed before they reached the Byzantine frontier, selling some into slavery and killing the others.

The main crusading force, perhaps 40,000 altogether, including knights, foot soldiers, and camp followers, began arriving in Constantinople in December 1096, and the last straggled in during April 1097. To the cultured and leisure-loving Byzantines it appeared as if the whole of barbarian Europe was descending on their city, and they worried about the true intentions of their not-quite-expected allies. Alexius exploited their staggered arrival with his usual skill, keeping them divided and dependent on the empire for supplies and using that leverage to exact homage from the majority of them. Most of the crusading lords swore fealty to him and pledged to turn over to him all the lands gained that once belonged to Byzantium. When Alexius excused himself from participating in the venture he had initiated, the surprised crusaders, manipulated into swearing loyalty to a man who refused leadership in battle, recoiled from the Byzantines. The antipathy between the two cultures festered for most of the 12th century.

In any event, the crusaders took Nicaea in 1097, routed the Turks at Doryleum, and seized Antioch in 1098. Meanwhile, the Byzantine force accompanying the crusaders dwindled to a mere token, as Alexius and the main Byzantine army were busy in the crusaders' wake reestablishing Constantinople's control over the coast of Asia Minor. In fact, before Antioch fell Alexius had met Stephen of Blois (c. 1045–1102), son-in-law of William I the Conqueror (1027?–87) in Asia Minor on his way to Antioch. Alexius, having set out to help in the siege as he had promised, now persuaded Stephen that Antioch's cause was hopeless and turned back. Alexius's move may well have been justified tactically at that point, but it was a huge diplomatic blunder. When the other crusaders learned of

his decision, they felt free from any obligation to return Antioch to him.

In August 1098 the Fatimids had occupied Jerusalem, taking it back from the Seljuks, and so the Christian army faced a different Arab foe during the final drive of the First Crusade. On June 7, 1099, the crusaders, reduced to around 1,500 cavalry and 12,000 foot soldiers and short of supplies, camped before the walls of Jerusalem, where the governor was well supplied and confident he could withstand a siege at least until reinforcements arrived from Egypt. Instead, a month later, on July 15, Godfrey's men took a sector of the walls and opened the gates to Tancred and Raymond. The Muslim governor surrendered to them in the Tower of David, and he along with his bodyguard was escorted out of the city. Tancred had promised him protection for Jerusalem's Muslims, but the crusader could not control his Christian soldiers. They murdered all Muslims, men, women, and children, as well as the city's Jews in a general massacre.

Three years after setting out, the crusaders had achieved their goal. Though some may have joined the pilgrimge for the potential loot, some for the sheer adventure, and some out of religious devotion alone, most probably sustained their dedication, which was extraordinary, with the crusade's ultimate objective, liberation of the Holy City.

CRUSADER STATES

After the crusaders attacked a surprised Egyptian relief army and decimated it, confirming their hold on Palestine, most of them—having fulfilled their pilgrimage vows—went home. A few remained behind to govern the conquered territory. Amid arguments over the nature of the government—secular or ecclesiastical—Godfrey was elected to rule in the interim. Declining the title of king, he opted for the more modest "defender of the Holy Sepulcher." Raymond, who had already turned down the crown, left immediately.

In December the confusion only grew worse when Bohemond showed up with Daimbert (d. 1109), the archbishop of Pisa, who was named patriarch of Jerusalem and probably had ambitions to rule the city. These ambitions, however, were effectively thwarted when Godfrey died, and his brother, Baldwin, was called back to Jerusalem from Edessa. Baldwin took the title of king in November 1100: Jerusalem would be no theocracy like Byzantium, but a feudal kingdom more like those in Europe.

The coming years would witness the formation of three other crusader states to the north of Jerusalem. The County of Edessa, a vaguely defined domain stretching to the upper Euphrates, was established by Godfrey's brother Baldwin before he left to become ruler of Jerusalem and was populated mostly by Armenians and Syrians. Baldwin bestowed Edessa, under his suzerainty, to his cousin Baldwin of Le Bourg (d. 1131).

Bohemond never returned Antioch to Byzantium as promised, but instead consolidated his hold over the city, which was predominantly Greek, though some Armenians and Syrians were in residence. Bohemond only intensified the latent Latin-Greek hostility when he replaced the Greek Orthodox patriarch with a Roman Catholic. When Baldwin fell captive to the Muslims in 1100, his nephew Tancred became regent. A fourth crusader fiefdom was created around Tripoli under Raymond of Saint-Giles, who had been outmaneuvered in Jerusalem but who had always remained, unlike many crusaders, loyal to Alexius.

These four crusader states made up a fragile ribbon stretching 600 miles from the Red Sea to the headwaters of the Euphrates—at its narrowest point the crusader's Christian real estate in the Middle East measured less than 10 miles across. A strange fusion of east and west, they came to be known in the west variously as Outremer (Beyond-the-Sea), the Latin Kingdom(s), and, more generically, the Holy Land.

See also CRUSADE, SECOND; CRUSADE, THIRD; CRUSADE, FOURTH; CRUSADE, FIFTH; CRUSADE, SIXTH; CRUSADE, SEVENTH; CRUSADE, EIGHTH; CRUSADE, NINTH.

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Crusade, Second (1147–1149)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French and German crusaders and Damascus vs. the Muslim forces of Zangi and his sons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Damascus
DECLARATION: First formal Crusade papal bull, 1145
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Shocked by the fall of Edessa to aggressive new Muslim leaders in the east, Europe mounted a second crusade to reclaim the northernmost Christian kingdom in the Holy Land.
See also First CRUSADE for overview of issues and objectives of the Crusades
OUTCOME: The Crusade failed when crusaders, squabbling among themselves, decided not to attack Edessa, whose recapture was the point of their Crusade, but friendly Damascus, a far richer prize. When Damascus failed to fall, the crusaders retreated in defeat, having only driven the Muslims closer together in common cause against the crusader states.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Crusaders, 50,000; Muslim strength unknown
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but very heavy among the crusaders
TREATIES: None

After the initial confusion of having not merely Christians, but also crusader states in its midst, the Muslim Middle East began to harden toward Outremer, as the crusader states were collectively called. At first some Sunnis imagined the crusaders had been summoned by the rival Fatimids to destroy them, the only true Muslims, but early in the 12th century Sunni scholars had come to understand that these Christian expeditions represented instead the mere expansion of "Frankish" (Muslims called all Europeans "Franks") power that began in Sicily and Spain. By 1105 learned Sunni teachers were arguing that the Islamic world should unite and destroy them. Within a few years Muslim rulers, too, had begun to dream of a holy war against the infidels—a jihad, which was a concept stretching back to Islam's early days of conquest but which had fallen into neglect since about the seventh century.

Clearly, to obliterate the crusader states any Islamic force that took up the call of jihad would need control of both Aleppo and Damascus, two Syrian cities of tremendous strategic importance, not least because they remained outside Christian control. But Damascus was in the hands of an independent ruler who had already allied himself with the crusader kingdoms, whereas Aleppo was in flux, a bone of contention disputed fiercely by various Muslim factions and by the crusaders themselves.

For years the Muslim world's desire to rid itself of the crusaders was stymied by this stalemate before a new champion appeared to unite and lead the armies of Islam: Zangi (r. 1127–46), regent of Mosul. Nominally a vassal of the sultan in Baghdad, he, like many local rulers, had gained a certain autonomy with the disintegration of the Seljuks' empire in Persia, and, like many other local rulers, he was determined to grab what he could. In 1128 he conquered beleaguered Aleppo. He would be the first of three celebrated in Islam for their jihads against the crusaders, the others being his son, Mahmud Nur al-Din (r. 1147–74) and his son's able and brilliant general, Saladin (c. 1137–93) (*see* CRUSADE, THIRD).

His fight against the Latin Kingdom was all but an afterthought. A fighter, not a fanatic, Zangi, as Mosul's ruler, was mostly preoccupied with Persian politics, and though for 20 years he harried Christians wherever he found them, his true goal was Damascus. In 1140 he besieged Damascus without success, but his reputation as a great champion of jihad led the Christians to recognize a common danger. This resulted in a Jerusalem-Damascus alliance, a kind of diplomacy by then typical of second-generation crusaders. Frustrated in Damascus, Zangi turned north, attacking a Muslim ally of Christian Edessa. When Joscelin III (1113–59), count of Edessa, and his army came to the rescue, Zangi switched his attention to this northernmost crusader state and quickly overran it.

The fall of Edessa, the first major city of Outremer to be lost, came as a shock to Christians both east and west, and urgent pleas for help soon reached Europe. In 1145 Pope Eugenius III (r. 1145–53) issued a formal crusade bull, the first of its kind, with carefully worded provisions aimed at protecting the families and property of potential crusaders. The next year French king Louis VII (c. 1120–80) answered the call and took the crusaders' oath, followed quickly by the even more influential Frenchman St. Bernard (1090–1153), abbot of Clairvaux, equally famous for his piety and his oratory. Summoning French nobles to Burgundy, the abbot inspired them with his eloquence to take up the cross before heading for Germany, where he recruited the emperor, Conrad III (c. 1093–1152), and his knights to join the fight alongside the French.

The two kings led their armies separately through the Balkans, where Byzantine emperor Manuel I Comnenus (c. 1122–80) waited to provide transport to Asia Minor. After the Germans were forced to retreat at Dorylaeum, the two armies merged at Acre. Meanwhile, Zangi had perished before the crusade arrived, murdered in his sleep by his slaves, and his sons—Saif al-Din (d. 1218) in Mosul and Nur al-Din in Aleppo—succeeded him. The Frankish count of Edessa had but briefly regained his capital, which Nur al-Din retook almost at once. By the time the crusaders regrouped at Acre in 1148, Edessa looked impregnable. They decided instead to go after the potentially richer prize of Damascus.

The ill-advised plan to assault Damascus set the crusaders to arguing among themselves. Especially to the knights of Outremer, residents who knew the region well, the idea seemed foolish, because the ruler of Damascus was the Christians' most reliable ally in the whole of Syria. Others argued the assault was necessary if the crusaders were determined to forestall a united Muslim Syria in the wake of Zangi's death. In any case, the knights of the Second Crusade, when they reached Damascus, took up positions and prepared to lay siege to the city. Inside the Muslims of Damascus, realizing their extreme peril, decided they preferred the son of Zangi to a Frankish prince, and they sent for Nur al-Din. Thus, the crusaders' actions and their greed promoted the very unity they argued they wished to forestall by attacking the city.

Occupied with his own troubles in the north, Nur al-Din nevertheless marched his army south to rescue Damascus. The crusaders, anxious to take the city before he could arrive, shifted their point of attack to a spot where the city's walls were weak but where there was no water. The walls held, and the crusaders, parched and despondent, fell back from Damascus after four days of frustration and inconclusive fighting. Somewhat bewildered by their failure, they fell to blaming each other, and once they reached Christian soil, the Second Crusade simply dissolved. Seeing that Damascus was safe, Nur al-Din hurried back north, leaving the Damascenes for the moment independent and free of danger from Christian crusade or Muslim jihad. The Second Crusade, from which Europe and the Holy Land had hoped for so much, had failed miserably.

See also CRUSADE, FOURTH; CRUSADE, FIFTH; CRUSADE, SIXTH; CRUSADE, SEVENTH; CRUSADE, EIGHTH; CRUSADE, NINTH.

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Crusade, Third (1189–1192)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Christian crusaders vs. the forces of Muslim leader Saladin
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The area around Jerusalem
DECLARATION: Papal bull, 1189
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When Saladin captured Jerusalem in a holy war against the Latin Kingdom, Pope Gregory VIII called for a crusade to regain the Holy City.
OUTCOME: Led by England's Richard I (the "Lion-Hearted"), the crusaders had much initial success but failed to reach Jerusalem. Instead, Richard and Saladin came to terms, concluding a five-year truce permitting Christians free access to holy places but reducing the Latin Kingdom to a coastal strip based at Acre.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but both sides suffered heavy losses.
TREATIES: Treaty of 1192 between Richard the Lion-Hearted and Saladin.

In 1188 the Kurdish general Salah a-Din Yusuf ibn Ayyub (1137–43), head of an Islamic army determined to retake land lost to Christian crusaders, engineered amid a string of victories the fall of Jerusalem (*see* SALADIN'S HOLY WAR). A distraught Pope Gregory VIII (r. 1187), with a great bull that linked the disaster in Palestine to the sins of Christians everywhere, summoned the Third Crusade, promising the remission of all sins to anyone who accepted the call in a repentant frame of mind. Ships from Brittany, France, Flanders, England, Germany, and Denmark, small squadrons of local volunteers, knights, and barons, and professional archers and spearmen all headed to fight the infidel who had become infamous in Christian Europe over the last decade under the name Saladin.

To crusaders already in the region who, supplemented by a trickle of early-arriving galleys from Norman Sicily, were now besieging the city of Acre in Tripoli—and in turn being besieged by Saladin's warriors—the news came that reinforcement was imminent. The 67-year-old emperor of Germany, Frederick Barbarossa (1123–90), it was said, was marching eastward. Rumor had it, too, that Philip II Augustus (1180–1223) and Richard I (the Lion-Hearted; 1157–99), the feuding kings of France and England, had patched up their differences and were on the high seas with a huge combined army. Richard, in particular, was known as a fierce warrior, one who led his knights into battle personally and wielded his great sword with skill and abandon.

For once the Christians had enough money. For nearly four generations prominent European families had been supporting the Crusades, and their coffers were depleted, or so they said. In any case, recognizing the strains their kingdoms had begun to feel by the last decade of the 10th century, monarchs—with the pope backing them—had begun to look for new ways to come up with the funds to subsidize crusades. Philip and Richard both levied immense taxes to pay for this latest outing, amounting to some 10 percent of all the movable property belonging to those choosing not to go on crusade. It was called the "Saladin tithe," and the funds went to supplement other levies and contributions.

Frederick Barbarossa discovered he would have to fight his way across the Byzantine Empire territories because the Byzantines—who had started the Crusades in the first place by calling on the western pope for help when Constantinople was threatened by infidel hordes—had, assuming Saladin invincible, allied themselves with the Muslims. Barbarossa crossed Anatolia (Turkey), slaughtering thousands of Seljuks as he went, and fought his way into Christian-held territory. But when he tried to swim an especially wide river, he drowned, probably after suffering a heart attack. His leaderless German armies fell apart and fell back on Antioch. The Christians clearly would have to wait for the French and English fleet to break out of the double siege still going on, with the Christian army surrounding Acre and Saladin surrounding them.

The two kings landed in summer 1191. On the way Richard had stopped to take Cyprus from Isaac Comnenus (1025–61), a Greek rebelling against Byzantium who had recently installed himself as the new king (and concluded an alliance with Saladin). Then Richard sold the island to the Knights Templar after exacting a 50 percent tax from the liberated Cypriots. Now he and Philip began to squabble over who would be king of the soon-to-be-restored Jerusalem. The crusaders stayed unified enough to crush Acre, which surrendered in July, and to force Saladin to withdraw, but Philip, disgruntled with Richard's dominance in the crusade, took the first opportunity to head back to France. Once there, he attacked (with some success) Richard's territories on the Continent. Left in sole command, Richard marched on to Jaffa, the gateway to the best route to Jerusalem. Saladin's Turkish cavalry skirmished with Richard all along the way, and when the latter reached Arsuf, Saladin—waiting in ambush with his entire host—attacked. At Arsuf Saladin learned just how good a

general he was up against. Richard, a careful and skilled tactician, absorbed the ambush, letting Saladin commit his main forces to the battle, and when the Muslim rearguard charged too soon, the Lion-Hearted struck.

Afterward Saladin could get no Muslim army to face Richard again, so he withdrew into the hills of Judaea, destroying the countryside, poisoning wells, damming springs, and in general creating an artificial wilderness in an already arid land. Richard understood what Saladin was doing, and the Englishman was astute enough at logistics to realize as well that even if he took Jerusalem, the Christians would never be able to hold it. During the course of their fighting and maneuvering, Saladin had been extremely courteous to the foreign king, and Richard, in his turn, had come to appreciate both Saladin's manner and his skill. Something like an understanding grew up between them, if not a friendship, and both began to seek some road short of bloodshed out of the impasse they had created. At one point Richard even suggested to the astonished Saladin that Richard's sister might marry Saladin's brother, who would then rule all Palestine, Christian and Muslim together. Saladin rejected the idea but continued to work with Richard until, sometime in the autumn of 1192, they agreed to a treaty.

Under the five-year truce the Christian Franks were left in their coastal cities of the Holy Land, and the True Cross, housed in Jerusalem, was returned to them. In addition, Christians were allowed free passage to the city, which nevertheless stayed in Muslim hands. The Latin Kingdom was thus reduced to a coastal strip based in Acre.

Five months into the peace Saladin died of a fever. Revered by enemy and foe alike, his story and personality became celebrated in songs and plays, and a century later Dante Alighieri (1265–1321) gave Saladin an honored spot in hell in his *Divine Comedy*. Richard returned to England after some travail—which included being held for ransom by Philip II—to find that his brother John, ruling in his absence, had managed to botch the job and upset much of the kingdom, which paved the way, after Richard's death, for the signing of the Magna Carta.

Most of the Christian powers knew that the 1192 settlement was the best they could hope for, but it was not what they had wanted. The crusaders had set out to save their souls by recapturing the city where Christ had suffered for them, and the peace seemed too much a compromise. In 1197 Barbarossa's son, Henry VI (1165–97), tried again. Although he had learned enough from his father's mistakes to travel to the Holy Land by sea, he nevertheless—like his father—died suddenly en route, and the Germans, once again leaderless, managed to recapture only Beirut.

If the Third Crusade failed to achieve its major goal and free Jerusalem from Muslim control, it nevertheless resulted, however incidentally, in Richard Lion-Hearted's historically significant capture of Cyprus. In the years to come, the island would serve first as a Christian outpost, then as a base of operations for new crusades, and ultimately as itself an important Christian kingdom.

See also CRUSADE, FIRST; CRUSADE, SECOND; CRUSADE, FOURTH; CRUSADE, FIFTH; CRUSADE, SIXTH; CRUSADE, SEVENTH; CRUSADE, EIGHTH; CRUSADE, NINTH.

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Crusade, Fourth (1202–1204)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: European crusaders, and Venetian adventurers, vs. Byzantium
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary and Constantinople
DECLARATION: Called by Pope Innocent III, 1202
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pope Innocent III promoted a new crusade to reclaim Jerusalem and the Holy Land; diverted by the Venetians to conquests in Hungary, the crusaders took up the cause of a pretender to the throne in Byzantium. *See* First CRUSADE for overview of issues and objectives of the Crusades.
OUTCOME: The Byzantine emperor was deposed, Constantinople sacked and looted, and Byzantium itself, whose salvation was the original impetus for the Crusades, all but destroyed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but losses heavy on both sides.
TREATIES: None

Despite growing tensions in Europe, Pope Innocent III (1160–1216) became the first to consider crusading on the magnitude imagined by Pope Urban II (1035–99) when he launched the movement with the First Crusade. Beginning in 1198 Innocent III approached the subject of a new expedition to the Holy Land through legates and encyclical letters floating about the West. In 1199 he levied a tax on all clerical incomes in order to support the campaign he was imagining, a precedent in both support for the Crusades and the establishment of systematic papal income taxes. He also commissioned Fulk of Neuilly (d. 1201) to declaim the praises of the operation. This, too, would become a tradition, as church-hired troubadours would travel about medieval Europe propagandizing the romance and adventure of crusading. At a tournament held by Thibault III (c. 1080–c. 1125) of Champagne,

several prominent French nobles would succumb to the romance and take up the cross. Several others would join later, among them Geoffrey de Villehardouin (1160–1213), who would go on to write a major account of the crusade.

Innocent then made contact with Venice to arrange for transportation, which proved a fateful step. The republic had long enjoyed special trading rights within the Byzantine Empire, and, not coincidentally, Venetian merchants, seen as shady and shrewd, had increasingly become the objects of Greek resentment and hostility. Byzantine emperor Manuel Comnenus (c. 1120–80) had ordered the arrest of all Venetians 30 years earlier, and a decade later an angry and aroused citizenry had massacred a large number of Latin traders in Constantinople and insulted a papal legate in the process. But it was not only that the Venetians were held in low esteem in Byzantium—they were also friendly with Egypt, now the central Muslim power in the Levant and the most likely target for a new crusade. Venice had close commercial ties to Cairo, which put the blind and ambitious doge, Enrico Dandolo (r. 1192–1205), potentially at odds with the pope. Nevertheless, Innocent III promised to pay, including an equal share in the conquests, and Venice promised to transport the crusaders to the Holy Land.

When the crusader army arrived in Venice during summer 1202, it was smaller than the pope had anticipated, in large measure because so many crusaders were traveling overland from France. But even given their reduced number, the crusaders did not have sufficient gold to cover the fare, so they agreed first to help Venice in laying siege to the Hungarian city of Zara. A number of the crusaders objected. Not only was this a diversion, it was a sin, because the city in question was Christian. Innocent III vetoed the plan as soon as he heard about it, but he was ignored. Frustrated but also fearful of jeopardizing the crusade itself, the pope offered the crusaders conditional absolution for the enterprise but refused to do the same for the Venetians.

Zara fell in November 1202, and the pope felt terrible about it. His worries about allowing a crusade to go forth with papal sanction but under secular leadership were borne out, and matters soon only grew worse. When Thibaut of Champagne died, leadership of the crusade went to Boniface of Montferrat (c. 1150–1207), a friend of Philip of Swabia (1176?–1208), a Hohenstaufen prince. Both men had married into the Byzantine imperial family, and before the crusaders had even departed Europe Alexius III (r. 1195–1203), Philip's brother-in-law and son of the blinded and deposed emperor Isaac Angelus (r. 1185–95 and 1203–04), arrived, making contact with the crusaders and seeking their aid in regaining the throne. When Innocent III became aware that Alexius was seeking to divert the crusade to Constantinople, he sent Boniface a letter excommunicating the Venetians and ordered him to publish it. Monteferrat refused to do so. The pope sent another missive, this one forbidding any attack on Constantinople. If it mattered, the letter arrived too late, after the fleet had left Zara.

Thus, in the summer of 1203 Constantinople fell to crusaders, who had originally come east to save Byzantium decades earlier from the infidels. Alexius III was deposed, and Alexius IV (r. 1203–04) was crowned coemperor with his sightless father. There was little the pope could do but rant and fume back in Rome, reprimand the crusade leaders by post, and order them to proceed directly to the Holy Land and get on with the crusade. Perhaps he hoped a union of the churches might come of this and hence shore up the crusade, but if so, he was to be disappointed. A few of the crusaders left, but most of them stayed on in the city.

If the pope was powerless, the Byzantines were not, and angry Greeks soon assassinated their new emperor. In response the Venetians and the crusaders then seized power directly, taking over the city and the empire. They appointed 12 electors, half of them from Venice, half of them crusaders, and declared these men would choose an emperor who would rule over a fourth of the empire. A new patriarch would be appointed and have Hagia Sophia—the great cathedral known as the Church of Holy Wisdom—and a small amount of property designated to support the clergy. The other three-fourths of Byzantium would be divided among themselves. On April 14, 1204, Constantinople fell to pirate traders and the crusaders, and the greatest city in the world was pillaged by the rank and file, who massacred its inhabitants. After three days of wanton destruction, Constantinople's vast riches, its icons and relics, disappeared, only to turn up later in Europe—especially in Venice.

An apoplectic Innocent III castigated the crusaders and the Venetians in the strongest language he could imagine, but events had gone beyond his control, especially after his legate, on his own initiative, absolved the crusaders from their vows to go to the Holy Land. Now there was no hope that a friendly Byzantium would aid the crusade, much less work toward a reunion of East and West. When the violence died down and order was restored, the Venetians and the crusaders implemented their agreement. Baldwin of Flanders (1172–1205) became emperor, and Venetian Thomas Morosini (r. 1204–61) was chosen patriarch. Remnants of the Byzantine Empire remained outside their control—in Nicaea and at the eastern end of the Black Sea—which lasted until 1461. But the rift between the two churches only widened, and the Greek Orthodox believers intensified their popular resistence to any reunion. Byzantium itself, once a bulwark for Europe against invasion from the east, was shattered and no longer subject to salvation by crusaders or any one else.

See also Crusade, Second; Crusade, Third; Crusade, Fifth; Crusade, Sixth; Crusade, Seventh; Crusade, Eighth; Crusade, Ninth.

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Crusade, Fifth (1217–1221)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: European crusaders vs. Egyptian Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Egypt
DECLARATION: Called by Pope Honorius, 1217
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Seeking to bolster the flagging energy of the crusading spirit, Popes Innocent III and Honorius III promoted a new crusade to retake Jerusalem, the last in which the church would become directly involved militarily. Supposed to lead the effort, Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II malingered, more worried about events at home than souls abroad.
OUTCOME: Coming close to success, the Fifth Crusade foundered because of the divided leadership of the crusaders between noblemen and churchmen. Both Frederick and the church came under harsh criticism. Meanwhile, a visit to the battle front by Francis of Assisi became the first step toward establishing monkish orders in the Holy Land.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but both sides took many prisoners.
TREATIES: Treaty of 1229

In Europe after the Fourth CRUSADE, the movement began to decline. The nobility grew disillusioned when the church promised the same religious indulgences for a Crusade against heretics in southern France or, a bit later, against secular opponents of the popes, such as infidels in the Holy Land. Regardless of the disenchantment of the high born, however, there remained in some sectors of medieval society, especially among the masses, at least some of the original spirit of the crusading enterprise. In 1212 even children fell victim to what, in effect, had always been a kind of mass hysteria. In the CHILDREN'S CRUSADE thousands of youngsters set out to free the Holy Land, only to be abused, lost, abandoned, or sold into slavery.

Citing the shame of that abortive crusade, Pope Innocent III (r. 1198–1216)—and after him Honorius III (r. 1216–27)—preached in favor of a new effort. In spite of—or perhaps as a diversion from—Innocent's other preoccupations, he revitalized efforts to organize yet another expedition. Setting aside his troubles with the kings of England and France, his worries about heresy in Europe and the advance of Islam in Spain, his concerns over a civil war in Germany, and his effort to promote widespread reforms in the church, Innocent assigned priests and troubadours to produce new propaganda for the crusade and authorized new levies on clerical incomes to pay for it. At the Fourth Lateran Council of 1215, the church promulgated a final canon that, once again, prohibited selling weapons or military supplies to Muslims.

The young Holy Roman Emperor, Frederick II (1194–1250), promised Innocent he would lead the expedition, but after Innocent's death, the new pope, Honorius, allowed Frederick repeated postponements of his departure in order to clear up the confused state of affairs in Germany. Thus, the first wave of crusaders set off without their leader. They got to the Holy Land with no notion of what to do and therefore accomplished little before a Frisian fleet brought more Germans crusaders in May 1218 and, under the leadership of John of Brienne (c. 1170–1237), marched on toward Egypt. The plan, in the works since the THIRD CRUSADE, was to use a conquered Egypt as leverage to regain Jerusalem.

By August the crusaders had captured a strategic tower in Damietta, which gave them a stronghold in their town. But then the troubles began. In September an expedition organized by the papacy and made up primarily of French crusaders arrived under the command of a papal legate. Cardinal Pelagius (fl. 13th century) was as imperious as he was ignorant of military affairs, and what was worse—because he considered all crusaders to be under the jurisdiction of the church, i.e., himself—he refused to accept the leadership of John of Brienne. When the Muslims, by February 1219 weary of the siege and seriously alarmed for their future, offered peace terms that included the cession of Jerusalem, King John (1167–1216) and many of his crusaders were anxious to accept. After all, that was why they were there, to retake Jerusalem. But Pelagius, backed by the religious-military orders—Templars, Hospitalliers, and Teutonic Knights—and by the Italians, refused and insisted on awaiting reinforcements from Frederick.

Although Damietta finally fell on November 5, 1219, no further progress was made for more than a year. Meanwhile, the cardinal remained eerily optimistic, still expecting the Holy Roman Emperor to arrive any day and convinced, as only fanatics can be, by a rumor going round of the imminent approach of a legendary oriental Christian named King David. In July 1221 Pelagius ordered the crusaders to advance up the Nile River toward Cairo, but the seasonal floods for which the Nile was famous swamped his forces and necessitated their retreat. That led in turn to a truce of eight years and an exchange of prisoners. The terms, far less favorable than the Muslims offered two years earlier, did not include the return of Jerusalem.

Frederick never arrived, and the fifth would prove the last crusade in which the papacy played a direct role.

Although it was an impressive effort against a divided Muslim world that nearly succeeded, it did not prevent both Frederick II and the pope, as well as Pelagius, from coming under serious attack from disillusioned critics back in Europe. Most considered it a dreary episode, though St. Francis of Assisi (1181/82–1226) did provide some relief when the story was told of his arrival at the front with a request to cross the lines into Muslim-held territory. Allowed to do so by a reluctant Pelagius, the future St. Francis was received with urbane courtesy by the sultan. His visit to the east was the first step in establishing a Franciscan province in the Holy Land, a step soon taken as well by the Dominicans.

See also CRUSADE, FIRST; CRUSADE, SECOND; CRUSADE, SIXTH; CRUSADE, SEVENTH; CRUSADE, EIGHTH; CRUSADE, NINTH.

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Crusade, Sixth (1228–1229)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: European crusaders vs. Egyptian Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Jerusalem
DECLARATION: Called by Frederick II, 1228
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Seeking to wash away the stain of failure of the Fifth Crusade, Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II, though excommunicated by the pope for his tardiness in doing so, launched a new crusade to recoup Jerusalem and other holy ground.
OUTCOME: Denied support of the crusader states' ruling houses, Frederick negotiated a settlement with the sultan of Egypt, much weakened by internecine plots against his rule. Winning Jerusalem by diplomacy rather than bloodshed, Frederick received the blessing of the church once more and became absentee king of the Holy Land.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1229

Blamed for the failure of the Fifth CRUSADE, Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II (1194–1250) felt compelled to lead another into the Holy Land. Always a controversial figure, struggling continually with the papacy, Frederick, like many of the Holy Land barons but unlike most crusade leaders, was intellectually fascinated by Islam. Related by marriage to the ruling house of Jerusalem (Acre), he had claims to suzerainty over Cyprus as well. Although he wished to make his son Conrad (1228–54) ruler of Acre, his eastern ambitions were inextricably tied up in his European plans for Sicily, Italy, the papacy, and Germany. Thus his crusade and his dealings with Cyprus and Jerusalem were part of a grander imperial design that failed to escape the notice of either the pope or the Holy Land barons.

After the Sixth Crusade was declared Frederick fell ill and failed to accompany the crusade's fleet when it left Italy in summer 1227. The new pope, Gregory IX (r. 1227–41), more suspicious and less patient than his predecessor, rejected the emperor's plea of illness, especially after he received envoys from Sultan al-Kamil (1180–1238) of Egypt. The sultan, threatened by the ambitions of his brothers, was disposed to negotiate, but the pope cut through the woolgathering by excommunicating Frederick for his failure to take up the crusader's sword with any alacrity. Thus, when Frederick finally departed a year later with the rest of his forces, he was in the awkward position of being a Christian crusader under the ban of the church.

He arrived in Cyprus on July 21, 1228. Although John of Ibelin (c. 1216–66), leading member of the influential clan of Ibelin, had already been named regent for the young Henry I (c. 1210–74), most of the other barons were willing to recognize the emperor as suzerain. The situation in Acre was potentially more difficult. The barons knew that Frederick's wife, Isabella (Yolande, 1212–28), daughter of the Acre noble John of Brienne (c. 1170–1237), had died, and they would only accept a regency for his infant son Conrad. Summoned by the emperor to Cyprus, John refused—despite Frederick's intimidations—to give up his lordship of Beirut and insisted the whole matter be brought before the high court of barons.

Setting the matter aside, Frederick headed for Acre, where he faced even more opposition. News of his excommunication had preceded him, and a number of the nobles refused to support his ambitions or his crusade. He was forced to rely on the Teutonic Knights—a German military-religious order that had remained in the east after an expedition in 1197—and his own small contingent of German crusaders. With little choice but to negotiate what he could not take by arms, Frederick began talks with Egypt's Sultan al-Kamil.

It was a unique moment in the history of the Crusades. Not by clash of arms, but by diplomacy alone did Frederick gain, under the treaty of 1229, Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and a corridor to the sea. These the sultan ceded to the Latin Kingdom for 10 years, making exception only for the Temple area, the Dome of the Rock, and the Aqsa Mosque, which remained in Muslim control.

The treaty was denounced by the more devout of both faiths, and when Frederick—still under excommunication—entered Jerusalem, the patriarch placed the city itself under interdict. No priest was present to crown

Frederick king of the Holy Land, so he placed the crown on his own head while one of the Teutonic Knights read the ceremony. Leaving his agents in charge, Frederick quickly returned to Europe to make peace with the pope. At San Germano the two met on July 23, 1230, and came to terms. The excommunication was lifted, and Frederick's position as sovereign of the Holy Land became legal and—once the patriarch, under orders by the pope, lifted the interdict—secure.

See also CRUSADE, FIRST; CRUSADE, SECOND; CRUSADE, THIRD; CRUSADE, FOURTH; CRUSADE, SEVENTH; CRUSADE, EIGHTH; CRUSADE, NINTH.

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Crusade, Seventh (1248–1254)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: European crusaders vs. Egyptian Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Egypt
DECLARATION: Called by King Louis IX, 1248
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When Jerusalem fell once again into Muslim hands, French king Louis IX called for a new crusade to protect the Holy Land, which a distracted Pope Innocent IV supported in part as good propaganda against the unruly Frederick II.
OUTCOME: The crusade was an utter failure, ending in the capture of Louis himself.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 15,000+ crusaders; Muslim numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: May 6, 1250

At the close of the Sixth CRUSADE, Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II (1194–1250) had crowned himself king of the Holy Land and concluded a 10-year peace with the Muslims in the region, but he had not dealt so successfully with the well-established and preeminent Jerusalem baronage, leaving agents in charge of the crusader states while he returned to Europe. The barons bridled under Frederick's imperial style, and what followed his departure was not orderly government by agents of the emperor but civil war in Cyprus and Jerusalem.

The barons of both domains allied themselves with the Genoese, who—like the Pisans and Venetians—had not only extensive trade interests in the Holy Land but also large population enclaves there and in Byzantium. They were joined by Acre's mayor, John of Ibelin (c. 1216–66), who had been elected by a community of bourgeois merchants. These factions resisted Frederick's imperial deputation, which had the support of the Pisans, Teutonic Knights, Bohemond V of Antioch (r. 1233–52), and a few other nobles. Standing aloof from the conflict were the clergy, the Templars and Hospitaliers, and the Venetians.

The baron's faction won the battle in Cyprus, and in 1233 Henry I became king there. But the resistance continued in Acre, even after the "Old Lord of Beirut," John of Ibelin, died in 1236. Refusing fealty to Frederick's son Conrad (1228–54) unless the man came to stay and rule in person, Acre's parliament named the queen dowager of Cyprus, Alice de Champagne (r. 1243–46), its regent. In the long run the barons triumphed, and their parliamentary rule replaced royal rule in the Levant. This failure of imperial administration only increased the growing divisions in the Holy Land.

These were exacerbated by changes in the Muslim world. Turkish tribes pushed west and south by the Mongols upset the balance of power in the region, and the Turks gained the support of Egypt. Despite the crusading efforts of Thibaut of Navarre (1201–53) and Richard of Cornwell (fl. 13th century), Jerusalem fell to Turkish and Egyptian Muslims in 1244, prompting a new crusade, the seventh, a year later in June 1245.

When cries for help began once again to reach Rome from the east, Pope Innocent IV (r. 1243–54) already had his hands full in Europe. He had just opened a great ecclesiastical council at Lyon, where he was dealing with a number of crises confronting the church—widespread protests against clerical abuses, the overweening ambitions of Frederick II in Italy, and the thunderous arrival of the Mongols in eastern Europe. Perhaps King Louis IX (1214–70) of France's declaration that he wished to lead a crusade proved a welcome distraction. In any case, unable to give the crusade his full attention, the pope gave it his official support and authorized Louis—devout, firm, and brave, the ideal crusader and probably in the pope's mind the antithesis of the troublesome Frederick—to collect the usual tax on clerical incomes.

Beloved by his people and respected by his peers abroad, Louis was a true believer, and he had no truck with the pope's attempt to use the crusade as a propaganda ploy against the emperor. He made careful preparations, establishing a peace with England, negotiating with Genoa and Marseille for transportation, and raising the money necessary from his own domains and from French towns, where many were growing weary of the constant drain on local resources. It took three years, but his fervor carried the day, and in August 1248, Louis embarked, trailing in his wake his queen, Margaret of Provence (1221–95), his brothers (Robert of Artois [1216–50] and Charles of Anjou [1246–85]), any number of distinguished French nobles, a small contingent of English crusaders, and a formidable army of 15,000 Frenchmen.

The Crusade reached Cyprus in September. Though Louis exchanged envoys with the Mongols, who might have helped in his campaign against Egypt, he decided against both a winter campaign and any fuller negotiations with the infidels. Not until May 1249 did he launch an expedition, and at first fortune favored his efforts. Crusaders recovered Damietta in June 1249, and reinforcements arrived in the form of Louis's third brother, Alphonse of Poitiers (1242–71). Meanwhile, the sultan of Egypt, Salih-Ayyub (r. 1240–49), had died, and Cairo had fallen into confusion and disarray. Because after some debate that city had become their objective, the crusaders went ahead, launching a poorly planned advance up the Nile.

In February 1250 Robert of Artois led a surprise attack on an Egyptian encampment two miles from Mansura. Defying more experienced advice, he rushed into the city and found himself trapped. A large number of knights had lost their lives before Louis arrived with his main army to win a costly victory on the city's outskirts, a victory that proved to be the crusaders' last, for the sultan's son, Turan-Shah (r. 1249–50), had arrived and taken control in Cairo, temporarily at least dominating the dissident factions and intercepting French supply ships from Damietta. Soon the crusaders were dying of hunger and disease, and Louis—reluctant to let go of his dreams of righteous glory—delayed a retreat. When he finally ordered one, he refused to lead it, despite the intense pleading of his advisers. Instead, he stayed behind to command the soldiers defending the rear, and he suffered their fate. Like them, he fell into Muslim hands as the Egyptian forces closed in.

The Muslims killed the captives, except for those nobles they held for ransom and the king. The queen, meanwhile, who had just given birth to a son, John Tristan (fl. 13th century), back in Damietta, pleaded with the Genoese and Pisan suppliers not to sail for home and leave the crusaders to starve before a treaty could be negotiated and the king's ransom arranged. They agreed, and on May 6, 1250, Louis was returned and Damietta given up. Once again ignoring his advisers, who urged him to return home immediately, Louis stayed behind for four years to negotiate the release of as many prisoners as possible and to oversee the strengthening of the kingdom's fortifications, trying to atone as best he could for the last true Crusade's utter failure.

See also Crusade, First; Crusade, Second; Crusade, Third; Crusade, Fourth; Crusade, Fifth; Crusade, Eighth; Crusade, Ninth.

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Crusade, Eighth (1270)

Principal combatants: European crusaders vs. Mamluk Muslims
Principal theater(s): North Africa
Declaration: Called by King Louis IX
Major issues and objectives: When the new Mamluk sultan of Egypt began crushing the crusader states called the Latin Kingdom, France's Louis IX launched his second Crusade against the Muslims.
Outcome: Louis succumbed to disease, and his crusade collapsed.
Approximate maximum number of men under arms: Unknown
Casualties: Unknown
Treaties: Indemnity, 1270

By the middle of the 13th century, Mongol hordes had overrun Mesopotamia, and in 1258 they took Baghdad, thus destroying the venerable Abbasid Caliphate. Two years later a new Muslim dynasty had arisen led by the bodyguards of the sultan. Former slaves, the Mamluks of Egypt defeated the Mongols in Syria and brought to a sudden stop their southward march. Caught between these two new powerful armies were the Muslim states of Syria and the crusader states of the Latin Kingdom. Some Christian kings such as Hethum of Armenia (r. 1226–69) and his son-in-law, Bohemond VI (1252–75) of Antioch-Tripoli, threw their lots in with the newly arrived pagan Mongols. Others, such as the barons of Acre, felt more inclined to pitch their tents with the Muslims, who they more-or-less knew and thought they understood, than with the warloving Mongols.

All of them misjudged the Mamluks, for Baybars (1223–77), the new Muslim sultan of Egypt who had come to power in 1260 by murdering his predecessor, was nothing like the chivalrous Saladin (*see* Crusade, Third) so admired by Richard I (the Lion-Hearted; 1157–99) and other crusaders. Ruthless and devoid of common decency, Baybars rounded off most of his conquests with massacres of Mongols and Christians, especially if they were in league. In 1265 he devastated Caesarea, Haifa, and Arsuf. The year after he swept into Galilee and destroyed Armenia. In 1268 he captured Antioch and slaughtered its inhabitants. Three years later came the fall of the Hospitallier fortress of Krak des Chevaliers.

Cries against these horrors and pleas for succor from the west had by then already reached Europe, and France's Louis IX (1214–70), already much troubled by his failures in the Seventh Crusade, began making new preparations for an expedition to the east in 1267. The Eighth Crusade never reached Baybars's domains. Most likely due to the political machinations of his brother Charles of Anjou (1246–85), Louis headed instead for Tunis. Charles,

recently named successor to the Hohenstaufens in Sicily, had forthwith defeated Conradin (1252–68), the last of that line, in 1268, and now he was involved in all kinds of intrigue along the Mediterranean and with grandiose schemes that included the taking of Byzantium.

In any case, there was precious little support in Europe for Louis's latest crusade. Nevertheless, he embarked from southern France in 1270 with his son John Tristan (r. 13th century) and headed for North Africa. There his army fell ill, and both he and his son were struck down by disease before Charles could arrive with his Sicilian fleet. Charles bargained for the remnants of Louis's army, offering an indemnity in exchange for being allowed to evacuate the troops, meanwhile leaving Prince Edward (1239–1307), on his way with reinforcements from England, in the lurch when he arrived too late to be of service to Charles's ambitions.

See also CRUSADE, FIRST; CRUSADE, SECOND; CRUSADE, FOURTH; CRUSADE, FIFTH; CRUSADE, SIXTH; CRUSADE, NINTH.

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Crusade, Ninth (1271–1272)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Christians vs. Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem
DECLARATION: Called by Prince Edward
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Prince Edward hoped to rescue Louis IX.
OUTCOME: England's Prince Edward, arriving too late to aid Louis IX of France in the Eighth Crusade, concluded a truce and returned home.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: A truce at Acre in 1272

England's prince Edward (1239–1307) arrived in North Africa too late to rescue France's Louis IX from his failed efforts in the Eighth CRUSADE. He concluded a truce at Acre and then returned home upon acceeding to the English throne in 1272. Soon the crusader cities began to fall to Muslim sieges: Antioch in 1268, Tripoli in 1289, and Acre—the last Christian outpost in the Holy Land—in 1291 (*see* CRUSADER-TURKISH WARS [1272–1291]), bringing the crusading era to a close.

It has long been recognized that the Crusades contributed to changes in the structure of European society in the 12th and 13th centuries. Even though the fighting did not deplete European populations so drastically as once believed, exotic diseases (whether brought back by returning crusaders or aboard the ships of a more widespread trade) certainly did. Sectors of cities in the east acquired by the burgeoning Italian city-states allowed them to vastly extend their trade with the Muslim world and led to trading posts beyond the crusader frontiers that lasted well beyond 1291. This in turn speeded the development of shipbuilding techniques and further trade, as well as the rise of banking houses, which became indespensible to popes and kings alike. The Crusades may not have been essential to Europe's economic growth, as was once argued, but they certainly encouraged it, both capital formation and trade in exotic goods. After the Crusades the world was no longer so small as it had once seemed to Europeans and society no longer so local, so theologically fixed, or so ideologically safe.

See also CRUSADE, FIRST; CRUSADE, SECOND; CRUSADE, THIRD; CRUSADE, FOURTH; CRUSADE, FIFTH; CRUSADE, SIXTH; CRUSADE, SEVENTH.

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Crusader-Turkish Wars (1100–1146)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Christian crusaders vs. the Seljuk Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aleppo, Anatolia, Ramla, and the Holy Land
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This conflict followed the First Crusade and began as an effort to recover Bohemond I, prince of Antioch, a crusader captured by the Seljuk Turks.
OUTCOME: Bohemond was released, but in other respects the wars were inconclusive and served only to induce the pope to call for a Second Crusade.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Bohemond I (c. 1056–1111), prince of Antioch, was returning from the First CRUSADE when his column was ambushed by Seljuk Turks near Aleppo. Captured, he was held prisoner at Sivas, Anatolia (central Turkey). Other major figures of the First Crusade, most notably Raymond IV of Toulouse (c. 1038–1105) and Stephen of Blois (1100–54), launched campaigns to secure the release of

Bohemond. Three major attempts were made during 1101–02, each resulting in defeat for the Europeans with considerable loss of life.

In the meantime, Baldwin I (c. 1058–1118), a crusader who now styled himself king of Jerusalem, took a different tack, confronting the Egyptians. Although he was outnumbered, Baldwin prevailed in the First Battle of Ramla in 1101, only to lose badly in the Second Battle of Ramla the following year. Undaunted, he re-formed a new army and with the help of Danish crusaders pushed the Egyptians out of Jaffa. By this time, 1103, Bohemond had gained release and returned to Antioch. In 1104 he mounted a new assault against the Muslims, engaging Turkish forces at the Battle of Harran, which he lost.

The next major engagement in the period between the First and the Second CRUSADE occurred in 1107, when King Sigurd I the Crusader (c. 1089–1130) of Norway led an army to the Holy Land to reinforce Baldwin and aid him in taking Sidon. From here Sigurd and Baldwin proceeded to Tyre, which they failed to wrest from Muslim hands by battle in 1109. Returning to his kingdom, Baldwin erected the crusader castle-fortress of Krad de Montréal, which was completed in 1115. From this stronghold he launched a new campaign into Egypt. It failed, Baldwin died, and he was succeeded as king of Jerusalem by his cousin Baldwin II (1217–73). This crusader repeatedly engaged Turkish forces in northern Syria without making any appreciable progress. In the meantime, Egyptian forces laid siege to Jerusalem in 1124 but were driven off. For the next two decades the situation in the Middle East and Holy Land was fairly stable, though punctuated by chronic fighting. Then in 1144 Edessa, long a crusader stronghold, fell to Muslim forces under Zangi. This defeat motivated the pope to call for the mounting of a Second Crusade.

See also CRUSADE, THIRD; CRUSADE, FOURTH; CRUSADE, FIFTH; CRUSADE, SIXTH; CRUSADE, SEVENTH; CRUSADE, EIGHTH; CRUSADE, NINTH.

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Crusader-Turkish Wars (1272–1291)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The crusader states of the Middle East's Latin Kingdom vs. Mamluk Egypt and Mongol nomads
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Holy Land, Palestine, and Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: With the defeat of the last Crusade, Muslim and Mongols in the Middle East sought to topple the crusader kingdoms and drive out, kill, or enslave their populations.
OUTCOME: The crusader states were destroyed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By the middle of the 13th century, both Muslims and Mongols were fighting not only each other in the Middle East but also regularly attacking the Christian crusader states of the Holy Land, Palestine, and Syria. Egypt's Mamluk sultan, Baybars (1223–77), took stronghold after stronghold from the crusaders. The Knights Templar surrendered Safed in 1268, Jaffa and Antioch in 1268, and the Knights Hospitaliers their great fortress near Tripoli in 1271, the year England's Prince Edward (1239–1307) arrived on the last European crusade to subdue the infidel Muslim Turks and pagan Mongols in the Holy Land—and failed (*see* CRUSADE, NINTH).

Europe was not unaware of the gravity of the situation in the east, but it had become unwilling, even unable, to give the kind of aid necessary to stop the reversals of fortune. As Pope Gregory X (1210–76) discovered when he made pleas for a new crusade at the Council of Lyon in 1274, the sense of common cause that so infused the First CRUSADE had simply vanished. Political tensions in Europe had increased, criticism of ecclesiastical politics—despite the reforms of the Fourth Lateran Council—had become more open, and crusading had grown prohibitively expensive as knights and foot soldiers alike sought service in royal armies for pay. Professional armies did not so willingly march behind the banner of the cross.

The crusader states were also falling prey to the same general malaise striking Europe. Quarrels among themselves were helping speed up their disintegration. Since the time of Frederick II (1194–1250) (*see* CRUSADE, EIGHTH), the holy kingdom had been ruled by absentee governors, and these successive regents failed to dominate the ever more powerful Jerusalem barons, resulting in the disintegration of the whole governing structure of the crusader states. Antioch-Tripoli, before its fall, grew increasingly estranged and through intermarriage ever closer to Armenia. In Acre, where lay the kingdom's seat of government, there was a commune of barons and bourgeois. Immigration had fallen off dramatically, and the old noble lineages were dying out or leaving, some residing in Cyprus, others serving as lords in name only in a Palestine actually under Muslim control. The military-religious orders, the Knights Templar, Hospitalier, and Teutonic, in constant conflict with one another, had also grown distinct from the local rulers, and they had extensive connections throughout Europe. Now criminals counted in high numbers among the bourgeois populations, and the growing crowds of Ital-

ians fought among themselves just as they did back in Italy. In Acre in 1256, the Genoese-Venetian rivalry, transposed beyond the Levant, broke into open warfare.

The pope tried his best to help, not only seeking renewed military aid but also taking an active diplomatic role, exchanging envoys with both the Mamluks and the Mongols and making the patriarchs of Jerusalem, appointed by him, papal legates. Neither absentee kings nor papal spokesmen could hold the Latin east together, and even the death of Baybars in 1277 only proved of temporary relief in staying the collapse of the crusader states. His successor, Sultan Qala'un (d. 1290), led Egypt to victory against the invading Mongols in 1281, all but ending the threat they posed to Muslim hegemony in his country. With the ineffectiveness of the Jerusalem administration becoming apparent even to the easterners, Il-Khan Abagha (1265–82) sent a deputy to the kings of Europe and the pope to seek a Christian-Mongol alliance, but his efforts proved in vain. Subsequently in 1289, Sultan Qala'un drove the crusaders from Tripoli. Acre, the last crusader stronghold in the Holy Land, was besieged by Mamluks in 1291 and after a desperate and heroic defense came to a disastrous end. On May 19 the city fell, and all its inhabitants were massacred or captured and sold into slavery. Afterward, every Christian castle along the Mediterranean was systematically destroyed.

See also CRUSADE, SECOND; CRUSADE, THIRD; CRUSADE, FOURTH; CRUSADE, FIFTH; CRUSADE, SIXTH; CRUSADE, SEVENTH; CRUSADER-TURKISH WARS (1100–1148).

Further reading: Thomas F. Madden, *A Concise History of the Crusades* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Crusades* (London: Osprey, 2001); Jonathan Riley-Smith, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the Crusades* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Steven Runciman, *A History of the Crusades,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1992).

Cuba, Black Uprising in (1912)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cuban blacks vs. Cuban government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cuba
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The blacks rose in revolt against the social conditions that kept them at the bottom of Cuba's social and economic structure.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quelled and many of the rebels killed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 10,000; Cuban army, 5,000
CASUALTIES: 3,000 to 6,000 rebels killed; government forces suffered far fewer casualties.
TREATIES: None

Slavery may have ended in Cuba and the island may have become independent, but the lot of its African-descended population was little improved from the days of bondage. Still at the absolute bottom of Cuban social, economic, and political life, Cuba's blacks could see little hope of improvement unless they forced some change in their status and conditions. On May 20, 1912, the island's black population rose up in revolt. As with most of Cuba's revolts, past and future, this one began in Oriente Province, to which President José Miguel Gómez (1854–1921) dispatched his 5,000-man army to quell the restless blacks, led by Evaristo Esteñoz (d. 1912). His 10,000 rebels were poorly armed, and they had no military training. They were easily defeated by the government's forces on June 26 near Nipe Bay. Gómez's troops, commanded by a ferocious general named José Monteagudo, followed the defeat with several punitive expeditions. In all, some 3,000 to 6,000 rebels were executed, and Cuban blacks would fail to taste even a sip of social justice before Fidel Castro (b. c. 1926/27) launched the CUBAN REVOLUTION of 1956–59.

Further reading: Aline Helg, *Our Rightful Share: The Afro-Cuban Struggle for Equality, 1886–1912* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1995).

Cuban Revolt (1917)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cuba's conservatives (with U.S. military aid) vs. Cuba's liberal opposition
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cuba
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The precipitating factor was a disputed election.
OUTCOME: The incumbent president, Mario Garcia Menocal, remained in office.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Mario García Menocal (1866–1941), Cuba's conservative incumbent president known for his friendliness toward foreign business interests, especially those in the United States, won a second term in an election that was marked by blatant fraud, including the presence of more votes cast than there were qualified voters and other irregularities. As a result partisans of the defeated liberal candidate, Alfredo Zayas (1861–1934), protested through legal channels, obtaining a judgment from the Cuban supreme court ordering new elections in certain provinces to be held in February 1917. This did not satisfy all the liberal protestors, who rose in armed rebellion before the new elections were held.

In Santa Clara José Miguel Gómez (1858–1921) prepared insurgent forces, which he planned to lead into

Havana and there overthrow the Menocal government. Menocal, however, appealed for volunteers and hurriedly purchased arms from the United States. With these forces and weapons he successfully intercepted and blocked the advance of the rebels. In the meantime, Menocal asked U.S. president Woodrow Wilson (1865–1924) for direct military aid, pledging to back the Allies in WORLD WAR I, in which the United States had joined. Accordingly, Wilson authorized a small detachment of marines to land at Santiago in Oriente Province, a nexus of liberal activity. The marines maintained order in this area while Menocal's troops dealt with the rebellion elsewhere. By March the rebellion had been suppressed. True to his word, Menocal declared war on Germany on April 7, 1917, and was inaugurated for his second term on May 20. To maintain order Menocal asked for—and received—a regular garrison of U.S. troops. They would remain on station in Cuba through 1923.

See also CUBAN REVOLTS; CUBAN REVOLUTION; CUBAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Jaime Suchlicki, *Cuba: From Columbus to Castro and Beyond* (New York: Brassey's, 2002); Robert Whitney, *State and Revolution in Cuba: Mass Mobilization and Political Change, 1920–1940* (Durham: University of North Carolina Press, 2001).

Cuban Revolts (1930–1933)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Students and other revolutionaries vs. the government of Gerardo Machado y Morales
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cuba
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: President Machado increasingly assumed dictatorial powers, which incited students and other revolutionaries to rebel.
OUTCOME: The Cuban situation became increasingly unstable, leading to the installation of Fulgencio Batista y Zaldivar as dictator of Cuba.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 40,000 hard-core revolutionaries; 100,000 Cuban government troops
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Gerardo Machado y Morales (1871–1939), who was elected president in 1924, secured a constitutional amendment extending the presidential term to six years, then achieved reelection in 1928. Having firmly ensconced himself in office, Machado assumed dictatorial powers, which provoked strident student agitation at the University of Havana beginning in 1930. The government responded harshly, imprisoning or shooting those students identified as ringleaders. At last, in August 1931, some 40 young revolutionaries landed at Gibara, marched on the police station, seized it, and then took over the town hall. From here the revolutionaries distributed small arms to the townspeople. Thus armed, this motley army marched on Holguín, where government forces engaged and routed them.

The defeat did not crush the movement against Machado. Revolutionary societies sprang up all over Cuba, most notably a secret organization comprised of middle-class revolutionaries known only as ABC, which made generous use of guerrilla warfare techniques, especially sabotage and terrorism. These, in turn, provoked extremely harsh government reprisals, which steadily escalated the level of violence throughout the island. At last, in June 1933 the revolutionary groups agreed to accept the mediation of U.S. ambassador Sumner Welles (1892–1961), who worked to quell the violence. When a general strike brought another violent confrontation between government forces and revolutionaries—who by now included large numbers of ordinary citizens—the army itself rebelled against Machado. In a military coup of August 12, 1933, he was driven from office and was replaced by Carlos Manuel de Céspedes y Quesada (1871–1939), who lasted less than a month. A new military coup expelled him from office on September 5. Its leader was an army sergeant, Fulgencio Batista y Zaldívar (1901–73), who backed the candidacy of Ramón Grau San Martín (1887–1969), a University of Havana professor.

After San Martín was proclaimed president, most of the Cuban officer corps continued to oppose the rebellion. Some 300 officers barricaded themselves in the Hotel National and were not ejected until October 2, 1933, after bombardment with land-based artillery and naval artillery. A total of 20 of the holdouts were killed, as were 80 of Batista's men. An American national, a bystander, also died.

The following month dissident army officers as well as members of ABC, which was as dissatisfied with Batista as it had been with Machado, appropriated three aircraft on November 8 and bombed Camp Colombia, the central military base in Havana. Some 2,000 anti-Batista insurgents were attacked at the Havana airport, however, and 20 were killed. Another 400 were captured, but the rest withdrew on November 9 to Atarés Castle, on a hill just outside Havana. After a hard-fought battle the insurgents surrendered. Although they left the castle under a flag of truce, perhaps 200 of the rebels were summarily executed by machine gun fire.

The successful assault on Atarés Castle ended the anti-Batista phase of the rebellion. While San Martín served as nominal president, Batista was the real power, wielding dictatorial authority that would not end until the CUBAN REVOLUTION of 1956–59 led by Fidel Castro (b. 1926/27).

See also CUBAN REVOLT; CUBAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Jaime Suchlicki, *Cuba: From Columbus to Castro and Beyond* (New York: Brassey's, 2002); Robert Whitney, *State and Revolution in Cuba: Mass Mobilization and Political Change, 1920–1940* (Durham: University of North Carolina Press, 2001).

Cuban Revolution (1956–1959)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebel bands led by Fidel Castro vs. the forces of Cuban dictator Fulgencio Batista
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cuba
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A revolutionary movement led by Fidel Castro sought to overthrow the tyrannical regime of Fulgencio Batista and bring a Marxist government to Cuba.
OUTCOME: On new year's eve 1959 Cuban guerrillas under the leadership of Fidel Castro marched toward Havana. As the populace of the island's capital rose up in support of the "Fidelistas," the brutal Cuban dictator Fulgencio Batista fled the country in the early morning hours of new year's day. The Cuban Revolution succeeded and became a model for third world Marxist regimes.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Maximum rebel army of 3,000; about 12,000 in the Cuban army loyal to Batista
CASUALTIES: Fewer than 100 rebels killed; probably about 500 Batistianos died in battle and another 800 may have been executed later.
TREATIES: None

The United States's intervention in the Cuban struggle for independence from Spain, which resulted in the SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR of 1898, was in large part motivated by a desire to protect U.S. business interests on the island. Although the United States officially guaranteed Cuban independence, it had also made itself the arbiter of that independence. In truth, of course, business ties and the United States's "interests" in the fate of Cuba continued to make the island a de facto dependency, and U.S. companies often exploited cheap Cuban labor, engaged in corrupt practices, and encouraged corruption among Cuban government officials.

Cuban leaders, seeking to maintain their profitable relationship with U.S. interests, were characteristically oppressive. Such was Gerardo Machado y Morales (1871–1939), who was overthrown in a coup led by Fulgencio Batista y Zaldívar (1901–73) and Carlos Manuel de Céspedes y Quesada (1871–1939). In 1933 Batista led another coup, which ousted Céspedes (*see* CUBAN REVOLTS.) In the manner of many Caribbean and Central American "strong men," Batista was elevated to high military command—he served as army chief of staff—rather than elective office. From his military position he governed by means of a series of civilian puppet presidents until 1940, when he was finally elected to the office himself. After serving a term Batista left Cuba to enjoy the fruits of his regime as a retiree in Florida but returned to Cuba in 1952 and, through a bloodless coup, once again became president.

Batista's second regime was even more repressive and corrupt than his first, making deals not only with U.S. business interests but with U.S.-based organized crime. Batista's depravity became so obvious that by the end of the 1950s President Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969) canceled scheduled arms sales to the regime. In the meantime, Cuban opposition to Batista was mounting, and Fidel Castro Ruz (b. 1926/27) emerged as a leader of the movement.

Castro had been born on August 13, 1926 (some sources report 1927) on a farm in Mayari municipality, Oriente Province, and received a rigorous Catholic education, including training at a Jesuit boarding school, which instilled in him a sense of spartan order and discipline. From the University of Havana he obtained a law degree in 1950 and became active in the social-democratic Ortodoxo Party, earning a reputation as an eloquent opponent of Batista. On July 26, 1953, Castro turned words into deeds and led an assault on the Moncada army barracks, a government armory. Captured, Castro was sentenced to 15 years of imprisonment but was granted amnesty in 1955 after serving only two years.

Castro went into self-exile in Mexico, where he founded the 26TH OF JULY MOVEMENT and prepared to carry out revolution in a Cuba already seething with insurrection. On November 30, 1956, Castro and 81 others, including the charismatic guerrilla leader Ernesto "Che" Guevara (1928–67), returned to Cuba loaded with arms and ammunition. Met by Batista's forces, the guerrillas were apparently routed, and Castro was reported dead. Actually, he and his followers had set up a secret base camp in the isolated Sierra Maestra Mountains. From there, where neither the army nor the police could find them, much less dislodge them, they conducted a successful guerrilla war between 1957 and October of 1958. In 1957 the guerrillas kidnapped 10 American civilians and 28 sailors, but they later released them without harm in response to angry protests from the U.S. government and the world press.

Meanwhile, Batista's tyranny grew more brutal throughout Cuba, and admiration at home and in the international press for the dashing and bearded revolutionaries who defied him increased at the same pace. By the time Castro emerged from hiding in fall 1958 to take the offensive and call for "total war" against Batista's regime, several hundred sympathizers had joined the initially tiny rebel band, and covert sympathy among Cuba's population was surprisingly widespread. Castro captured Santa Clara, the capital of Las Villas Province, on December 31, 1958. Realizing that all popular support for his government had vanished, Batista—his forces in disarray—fled

the country with his family on new year's eve, 1959, taking the loot he had hoarded and leaving the Cuban government in the inept hands of a three-man military junta. On January 8 Castro led his motley band—swelled by the celebrating crowds of a liberated people—into Havana and occupied the capital.

The day before the United States had declared its official recognition of Castro's government, and the Cuban army took no measures to stop the guerrilla heroes. To the contrary, most of the military had already switched sides, and the officers welcomed Castro with open arms. A provisional government was quickly formed, and Castro took the title "premier." Partly his warm reception came because at the time Castro was not an avowed communist. He had conducted the revolution in the name of anti-imperialism, nationalism, and general reform—all palatable enough to official Washington.

Yet, shortly after taking up the reins of government, Castro became defiant and bellicose, particularly concerning the United States and the degradations it had historically visited on his country. Without doubt, under Castro the living conditions of the masses dramatically improved, and the Cuban people supported Castro's nationalization of foreign-owned properties and industries, most of them American. Those who resisted Castro's new direction for Cuba found themselves subject to arrest, imprisonment, exile, or execution, and many of them followed Batista's example and fled, frequently to Florida. On May 7, 1960, Castro announced the resumption of diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union (which had been broken off by Batista), and by the middle of the year he explicitly aligned his nation with the USSR, at which point Soviet premier Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971) warned that he would defend Cuba against U.S. aggression, even to the point of thermonuclear war. Suddenly, an outpost of Soviet-style communism was only 90 miles from the city of Miami.

Castro menaced the U.S. naval base at Guantánamo Bay, and on November 1, 1960, President Eisenhower declared that the United States would take "whatever steps are necessary to defend" the base. On January 3, 1961, he severed diplomatic relations with Cuba. Eisenhower's successor, John F. Kennedy, authorized a covert invasion of Cuba by some 1,400 anti-Castro Cuban counterrevolutionaries supported by the Central Intelligence Agency. The BAY OF PIGS INVASION, April 15–20, 1961, was a total failure: ill-conceived, hastily staged, and based on the CIA-spawned fiction that large numbers of Cubans would rise up to support the invasion, though Cuban refugee leaders, Bay of Pig veterans, and U.S. security agencies excused their blunderings and miscalculation by insisting that they failed to recapture Cuba largely because the invaders did not receive the air support they had been promised.

The fiasco allowed Castro to consolidate his power further, and the very fact that an invasion—backed by the United States—had been attempted forced him further into the arms of the Soviets. In December 1961 he declared an outright alliance with the Soviet Union. To ensure that the United States thought twice before attacking Cuba again, Castro allowed the Soviets to build bomber and missile bases on the island. Because the Soviets intended to deploy nuclear weapons on the island, the building and arming of the bases were conducted in secret, but U.S. spy planes discovered the construction before the missiles were deployed, precipitating the Cuban missile crisis of October 22–November 2, 1962 (*see* COLD WAR). The world's two nuclear superpowers stood "eyeball to eyeball" in Secretary of State Dean Rusk's famous phrase, each waiting for the other to "blink."

In the end the Soviets agreed to remove their missiles in exchange for a U.S. promise not to invade—or back an invasion of—Cuba again, and Castro remained defiant. On February 6, 1964, he cut off the water supply to Guantanamo Naval Base—a gesture of harassment rather than a serious threat, because the base was equipped with its own self-contained desalinization plant. In July 1964, when the Organization of American States instituted sanctions against the island, Castro permitted refugees to leave for the United States in a series of what Cuban expatriates and some U.S. officials called "freedom flights" that continued from November 1965 until August 1971, bringing about a quarter of a million Cubans out of the country. When the United States continued to encourage Cubans to immigrate over the next two decades, despite Castro's reintroduced prohibitions, he threw open the gates of the island's jails and allowed not only Cuba's political internees but its hardened criminals to leave for Miami. Many blamed these "Mariels" (named after one of Cuba's toughest prisons), for increased violence in the streets of Miami and the renewed growth of its drug-trafficking underworld.

Castro regained a large measure of prestige when he was elected chairman of the Nonaligned Nations Movement in 1979, but he generally failed as an economic reformer at home, for which he blamed, with some justice, the U.S. economic boycott of the island. Despite its financial woes, Cuba became the model for revolutionary movements throughout Central and South America, often supplying ideological guidance and tactical advisers and occasionally supplying weapons and equipment, mostly Soviet-built, as well. The well-trained Cuban army offered the service of its troops to the socialist factions in third world hotspots of the cold war, most famously those fighting in the ANGOLAN CIVIL WAR of 1975 in Africa. With the decline of the Soviet Union in the 1980s and its collapse at the end of the decade, Castro lost his principal source of economic aid. Yet, perhaps through sheer force of personality, he has continued to hold sway over the island, a considerable accomplishment in the volatile world of Caribbean politics.

See also CUBAN REVOLT; CUBAN REVOLTS; CUBAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Marifeli Perez-Stable, *The Cuban Revolution: Origins, Course, and Legacy* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1998); Robert E. Quirk, *Fidel Castro* (New York: Norton, 1995); Jaime Suchlicki, *Cuba: From Columbus to Castro and Beyond* (New York: Brassey's, 2002); Robert Whitney, *State and Revolution in Cuba: Mass Mobilization and Political Change, 1920–1940* (Durham: University of North Carolina Press, 2001).

Cuban War of Independence (1895–1898)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cuban rebels vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cuba
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Cuban rebels wanted independence from Spain.
OUTCOME: The war brought liberal promises from Spain, but it also served to commit the United States to fighting on behalf of Cuban independence in the Spanish-American War, which created an independent Cuba.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 53,774; Spanish forces, 205,000
CASUALTIES: Rebel military casualties, 5,180 killed in action (3,437 died of disease); Cuban civilian deaths are estimated at 300,000, mostly in "reconcentration" camps; Spain, 9,413 killed in action or died of wounds (53,000 died of disease).
TREATIES: Treaty of Paris, December 10, 1898, ending the Spanish-American War

Spanish political and economic oppression of its colonial possession Cuba led to the TEN YEARS' WAR, fought from 1868 to 1878, which brought Spanish promises of reform. As these went unfulfilled, new cries for revolution arose. The focus of the Cuban revolutionary movement was the Partido Revolucionario Cubano, which was located in exile in New York City. The party orchestrated a powerful popular movement in Cuba, paving the way for the return of exiled revolutionary leaders, including, paramountly, José Julián Martí (1853–95), Antonio Maceo (1848–96), Máximo Gómez y Baez (1836–1905), and Claixto Garcia Iñiguez (1836?–98). Along with these men came a legion of exiled freedom fighters, who organized indigenous forces into a guerrilla movement that quickly proclaimed a new republic in eastern Cuba.

From their outposts in the east, the guerrillas conducted a war of attrition against the Spanish overlords. The guerrillas studiously avoided open or set battles but gradually pushed the guerrilla war westward, toward Havana. As the capital fell under threat, Spain put its forces under the command of the ruthless and aggressive general Valeriano Weyler y Nicolau (1838–1930), who had fought successfully against the rebels during the Ten Years' War. Weyler stopped fighting a holding action and instead took the offensive, penetrating deeply into the rebel-held east. He removed guerrilla influence by a policy of mass arrests and removal of civilians suspected of guerrilla sympathies. These persons were incarcerated in "reconcentration camps," which foreshadowed the concentration camps of WORLD WAR II Europe. They were crowded, filthy, and poorly supplied. In them thousands languished and died of disease, starvation, and general neglect. U.S. journalists covering this situation exposed the camps—and it was these, perhaps more than any other single factor, that began to stir war fever in the United States, which would culminate in 1898 in the SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

By the end of 1896, Weyler had succeeded in bottling up the rebels in the east. However, in the face of mounting international criticism, Spain not only closed the reconcentration camps, it also recalled Weyler (known in the United States as "Butcher Weyler"). Most important, it offered Cuba home rule. But all of this was too little too late.

By 1898 Cuban rebels had been fighting for independence from Spain for three years. American businessmen had been interested in the Cuban revolt from the start because of its commercial possibilities. They had already made substantial economic investment in the island, $50 million or so in sugar plantations, railroads, and mining. Throughout 1898 the opinion began to grow among major American businessmen, as it had been growing among opinion makers (such as newspaper publishers) and politicians, that it would be best to get Spain out of Cuba entirely. It would end the shameless mistreatment of the Cubans, and it would lead to more secure and therefore increased investments, but it could not be done without war. And the war could not be left to the Cuban rebels, since they would not necessarily protect American interest. That left intervention. The United States dispatched the battleship *Maine* to Havana harbor to "protect American interests" in Cuba. The subsequent sinking of the *Maine* in 1898—apparently an accident, but thought at the time to be the work of Spanish forces—triggered the Spanish-American War and brought about full independence for Cuba.

See also CUBAN REVOLT; CUBAN REVOLTS; CUBAN REVOLUTION.

Further reading: Donald M. Goldstein, *The Spanish-American War* (New York: Brassey's, 2000); Marifeli Perez-Stable, *The Cuban Revolution: Origins, Course, and Legacy* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1998); Robert E. Quirk, *Fidel Castro* (New York: Norton, 1995); Jaime Suchlicki, *Cuba: From Columbus to Castro and Beyond* (New York: Brassey's, 2002); Robert Whitney, *State and Revolution in Cuba: Mass Mobilization and Political Change, 1920–1940* (Durham: University of North Carolina Press, 2001).

Cuba, Spanish Conquest of

See SPANISH CONQUEST OF CUBA.

Cultural Revolution

See CHINESE CULTURAL REVOLUTION.

Cuman Invasion of Russia (1054–1136)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Cumans vs. Kiev (seat of central power in Russia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kiev and Ukraine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Cumans occupied and severely weakened but never conquered Kiev and Russia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Russia was largely a fragmented feudal realm during this period, but what unity the region achieved was by virtue of the vigorous rule of a prince of Kiev, Yaroslav the Wise (d. 1054), who reigned from 1019 to 1054. He defended his lands successfully against incursions by the Poles and Pechenegs, but at the end of his reign Russia was invaded by a new, fiercer people: the Cumans, a Turkish warrior tribe. Their coming in 1054 brought a plague upon Kiev that endured into the next century. The descendants of Yaroslav continuously fought the Cumans, whose depredations steadily degraded the economy and influence of Kiev. This caused the principalities of Novgorod and Suzdal, subject to Kiev, to rise and prosper, becoming effectively independent from their Kievan overlords.

In 1113 Vladimir II Monomakh (1053–1125) came to the throne of Kiev and mounted a determined war against the Cumans. He succeeded in keeping them from overrunning the principality, but the effort so weakened Kiev that in 1157 Andrei Bogoliubski (c. 1111–74), prince of Suzdal, was able to conquer Kiev from his cousin, Mstislav II the Daring.

Further reading: M. W. Thompson, *Novgorod the Great* (New York: Praeger, 1967); George Vernadsky, *Kievan Russia* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1943).

Cypriot War (1963–1964)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Greek Cypriots vs. Turkish Cypriots (with military aid from Turkey)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cyprus
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Turkish Cypriot minority rebelled against what they believed to be oppression by the Greek Cypriot majority.
OUTCOME: A Turkish uprising was quelled through UN diplomatic intervention and an effort by Cypriot lawmakers to guarantee and protect the rights of the Turkish Cypriot minority.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Greek Cypriots, 10,000; Turkish Cypriots, unknown
CASUALTIES: Greek Cypriots, 174 killed; Turkish Cypriots, 364 killed or missing
TREATIES: None

Cyprus was long the object of dispute between Greece and Turkey. On August 6, 1960, the independent Republic of Cyprus was created in an effort to resolve conflict by preventing annexation by either Turkey or Greece. Independence did not bring peace to the island itself, however, as conflict continued chronically between Cyprus's Greek majority and its Turkish minority. The president of Cyprus, a Greek Orthodox clergyman, Archbishop Makarios III (1913–77), pledged never to join Cyprus to Greece, but this did not placate the Turks on the island, who continually protested that they were being oppressed by the Greek majority. In the meantime, the governments of Greece as well as Turkey supported the Greek and Turkish Cypriots in various acts of protest, many violent. Great Britain intervened in an effort to extract from Greece and Turkey a noninterference pledge, but to no avail. At last, toward the end of 1963, Turkish Cypriots, outraged by Greek attempts to revise the Cypriot constitution, began a campaign of street fighting. As violence increased the United Nations dispatched a peacekeeping force to the island in March 1964. At this, Turkey threatened to invade Cyprus but was stopped by diplomatic pressure from the United States. In the meantime, the UN peacekeepers were proving ineffectual, and in August 1964 Turkish aircraft attacked Greek Cypriots. Makarios turned to the Soviet Union and Egypt for aid, but this was forestalled by UN diplomacy, which managed to broker an 11th-hour cease-fire.

During the period of the cease-fire, the Greek-dominated Cypriot government enacted laws to protect the rights of the Turkish Cypriot minority. The violence quickly faded, although an undercurrent of hostility persisted, creating a climate of uneasy peace.

See also CYPRIOT WAR (1974).

Further reading: Harry Anastasiou, *The Broken Olive Branch: Nationalism and the Cyprus Problem* (Portland, Ore.: Portland State University, 2004); Andrew Borowiec, *Cyprus: A Troubled Island* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); Thomas Streissguth, *Cyprus: Divided Island* (Minneapolis: Lerner Publications, 1998).

Cypriot War (1974)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Greek Cypriot National Guard vs. invading Turkish forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cyprus
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Growing from tensions unresolved by the Cypriot War of 1963–64, the 1974 war began with a coup against Cypriot president Archbishop Makarios III.
OUTCOME: An unsettled peace on an island now partitioned into Greek and Turkish regions
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Greek Cypriot forces, 12,950; Turkish forces, 40,000
CASUALTIES: Greek Cypriots, 4,500 killed, 1,614 missing; Turkish Cypriots, 1,000 killed; Turkish invaders, 300 killed, 1,200 wounded
TREATIES: Cease-fires, July 22, 1974, July 30, 1974, and August 16, 1974

Greek Orthodox archbishop Makarios III (1913–77) had become Cypriot president in the newly independent island's first general election in 1960, but his difficulties with both Turkey and Turkish Cypriots led to the CYPRIOT WAR (1963–1964). The war ended with an uneasy peace under a United Nations mandate that satisfied no faction.

In the new general election of 1968 an overwhelming majority reelected Makarios, and in 1973 he ran unopposed for a third term. Nevertheless, according to many Greek leaders in both Cyprus and on the mainland, this new president was not the same Makarios who in the early 1960s had led the call for "enosis," or union, with Greece. Angered by the perception that he became content with Cyprus's independence after his reelection, Greek dissidents—some of them members of the Athens-based terrorist organization EOKA (Ethnikí Orgánosis Kipriakoú Agónos, National Organization of Cypriot Struggle)—tried to assassinate him in 1970 and 1973.

Makarios survived these attacks only to find himself under siege by dissident Greek Orthodox bishops, who voted to deprive Makarios of his archbishop's robes but were subsequently overruled by higher church officials. Reeling from these assaults on his authority, Makarios was finally overthrown in July 1974 in a military coup carried out by the Greek Cypriot National Guard under the command of officers from the regular Greek army. The archbishop fled to London, where he set up a government in exile, and a former EOKA member was proclaimed president.

With Cyprus in profound crisis, the United Nations proved ineffectual, and an emergency conference held in London among the various Cypriot factions, Britain, Greece, and Turkey broke down. The result was an invasion of Cyprus by the Turkish army, which fought the Greek Cypriot National Guard and regular Greek forces and won from them control of northeastern Cyprus, the portion of the island on which most Turks lived. The inhabitants of this region voted to secede from Cyprus and form an independent state. At this point the United Nations successfully brokered a cease-fire (July 22, 1974), which brought a halt to the major fighting, although sporadic incidents continued, swelling into full-scale outbreaks when the military government of Greece fell. A new cease-fire was declared on July 30, by which the combatants pledged to hold their positions. With the war thus frozen, the United Nations established a buffer zone between the Greek and Turkish territories, and independently of the United Nations, Britain, Greece, and Turkey arranged a cease-fire on August 16, 1974, with the Cypriot Turks, who controlled the entire northeastern portion of Cyprus, about 40 percent of the island. Makarios was then readmitted to Cyprus and reestablished as the nation's president, acknowledging Cypriot Turkish autonomy in the northeast but opposing formal partition of Cyprus into two separate countries.

Further reading: Harry Anastasiou, *The Broken Olive Branch: Nationalism and the Cyprus Problem* (Portland, Ore.: Portland State University, 2004); Andrew Borowiec, *Cyprus: A Troubled Island* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); Thomas Streissguth, *Cyprus: Divided Island* (Minneapolis: Lerner Publications, 1998).

Czechoslovakia, Invasion of (1968)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Czech liberals vs. Soviet communist hard-liners
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Czechoslovakia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Czech leadership attempted to advance a series of liberal reforms and achieve a degree of autonomy from Soviet domination.
OUTCOME: Despite apparent initial Soviet acceptance of the Czech reforms, the USSR cracked down on the Czechs and militarily forced conformity with traditional Soviet communism.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 600,000 Soviet and Soviet-bloc invaders
CASUALTIES: 70 Czechs killed, several hundred wounded; 71 Soviets killed, 87 wounded, and 85 dead from other causes.
TREATIES: None

Since the end of WORLD WAR II Czechoslovakia had been tightly held within the orbit of the Soviet Union. During the 1960s a period of liberalization slowly began, which accel-

erated with the elevation of Alexander Dubček (1921–92) to the office of first secretary of the Czech Communist Party. Dubček rapidly introduced a series of democratic reforms to Czechoslovakia, including giving free reign to the press, inviting criticism of Czech society and government, establishing cultural and economic relations with the West, and generally attempting to establish a genuinely independent, albeit nominally communist, Czech state. Dubček further promised a new constitution in which individual liberties would figure paramountly. He called it "communism with a new face," and this period of so much promise was dubbed by participants the "Prague Spring."

The initial Soviet response to the liberal movement in Czechoslovakia was surprisingly open and amicable. Then, suddenly and without warning, Soviet troops with Soviet-bloc auxiliaries from Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, and East Germany invaded Czechoslovakia on the night of August 20, 1968, brushing aside the light resistance they met. Clearly, Soviet premier Leonid Brezhnev (1906–82) and the Kremlin saw the Prague Spring as a threat to their long season of domination over Eastern Europe. Some 600,000 troops, complete with heavy equipment—mostly tanks—rolled through Prague and occupied key points throughout Czechoslovakia. Dubček and the other liberals were arrested, compelled to confess the error of their ways, and forced to resign. The rollback of liberal reforms was completed by the early spring of 1969, and the following year more extensive purges, mass arrests, and even programs of religious persecution swept the country. Hard-line Soviet communism was restored throughout Czechoslovakia and was not lifted until the general collapse of the Soviet Union began in the late 1980s.

Further reading: Galia Golan, *Reform Rule in Czechoslovakia: The Dubcek Era, 1968–1969* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1973); William Shawcross, *Dubcek* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1971).

D

Dacian War, First (101–102)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Roman Empire vs. Dacia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dacia (Romania)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Emperor Trajan sought security for the Roman provinces around the Danube River.
OUTCOME: King Decebalus recognized Rome as overlord of the kingdom of Dacia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the reign of the Roman emperor Trajan (53–177), Decebalus (d. c. 107), king of Dacia, threatened the security of Rome's provinces near the Danube River. Emperor Trajan invaded Dacia (Romania) and captured the capital of Sarmizegethusa. Decebalus agreed to become a vassal of Rome. Trajan returned to Rome and ordered a permanent stone bridge to be built across the Danube.

See also DACIAN WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Dumitru Berciu and Bucar Mitrea, *Duco-Romania* (Geneva: Nagel, 1978).

Dacian War, Second (105–107)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Roman Empire vs. Dacia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dacia (Romania)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King Decebalus sought to drive Roman soldiers from Dacia.
OUTCOME: Emperor Trajan utterly defeated the Dacians and made the region a province of Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the First DACIAN WAR, in which Emperor Trajan (53–117) forced King Decebalus (d. c. 107) of Dacia to become a vassal of Rome, Decebalus rose against a Roman garrison and attacked an ally of the empire. Trajan again invaded the kingdom, seized the capital, and hunted down the Dacians who had supported the king. Decebalus then committed suicide. Trajan made Dacia a province of Rome and brought in settlers from Asia Minor and Syria. To commemorate his victory over Dacia, he ordered the building of a stone column with carved relief depicting the Dacian campaign.

Further reading: Dumitru Berciu and Bucar Mitrea, *Duco-Romania* (Geneva: Nagel, 1978).

Dacke's War (Dacke's Rebellion, Småland Uprising) (1542–1543)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catholic peasants in southern Sweden vs. forces of King Gustavus I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Småland, a southern province of Sweden
DECLARATION: No formal declaration

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The harsh taxation and anti-Catholic policies of Gustavus I
OUTCOME: Although the Swedish king's forces put down the rebellion, the king modified his autocratic rule.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: King Gustavus I organized a cease-fire in November 1543, but when the rebels disbanded the king regrouped and attacked the rebel holdings again in February 1544.

Dacke's War helped moderate the harsh policies of King Gustavus I (1496–1560). The Reformation in Sweden took an interesting turn in 1536, when the Swedish church officially broke with the Catholic Church to form an evangelical Swedish national church. The Swedish church was truly a reformed Catholicism, and the Swedish Reformation appeared to be truly aimed at reforming the policies of the Catholic Church. In 1538, however, Gustavus began to turn to German Lutheranism and its dogma of clerical subjugation to the king. Gustavus's conversion caused a rift between the Lutheran sect and the Swedish reform sect, swiftly degenerating into the violent Reformation tactics prevalent at the time in southern Europe.

Gustavus appointed George Norman superintendent of the Swedish church in 1539 in an attempt to meld the two churches together, but with an emphasis on Lutheranism. Norman imposed the "German period," so-called because of its doctrine and its Teutonic efficiency, ruthlessly enforcing the Reformation policy of the king, carrying out extensive visitations on Catholics, and plundering their churches of valuables. In southern Sweden, a predominantly Catholic region due to its proximity to the old Holy Roman Empire, the Reformation was yet another grievance against the king. Even before Norman's work in the border regions of Småland and Blekinge, the Catholic economy had been bleak because Gustavus's trade policies all but ruined the region's trade with neighboring Denmark.

Under the leadership of a fugitive named Nils Dacke (d. c. 1543) and fomented by the remaining Catholic clergy, Catholics and merchants from Småland rose up against the king and his policies in spring 1542. They murdered the tax collectors and attempted to seize power. To that end they offered their support to Svante Sture (1517–67), a powerful nobleman, to ascend the throne, but he refused, leaving the insurgents temporarily rudderless. They quickly rebounded, however, and defeated the king's forces in the fall. After the victory the rebellion began to spread to the north. Fearing a revolution, Gustavus organized a truce in November 1542. Under the agreement Gustavus would reform the tax code and ease the Catholic persecutions in exchange for a cessation by Dacke and his forces of their attempt to overthrow the monarchy.

As soon as the rebel forces disbanded, however, Gustavus reinforced his own troops in Smaland and sought to destroy the rebels. Dacke reorganized what he could of his army but was crushed in February 1544, presumably dying in action. Gustavus ordered the executions of all the rebel leaders and exacted a harsh punishment on Småland, ordering heavy monetary reparations. However, because of the spread of the uprising to the north, Gustavus was forced to abandon the German edicts and return to the evangelical Swedish church.

Further reading: Ingvar Andersson, *A History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1975); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2002); Michael Roberts, *The Early Vasas: A History of Sweden, 1523–1611* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1968); Franklin Daniel Scott, *Sweden: The Nation's History* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1988).

Dahomeyan-French War, First (1889–1890)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dahomey tribes vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Coast of West Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Dahomey attacked to forestall further French colonizing of their tribal lands.
OUTCOME: The Dahomey ceded two port cities in exchange for an annual tribute paid to their king.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: France, 31 killed, 106 wounded; Dahomey, unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1890

In the rush by the European powers to colonize Africa in the latter half of the 19th century, France and Great Britain—who for centuries had been imperial rivals—were in keen competition not only with each other but also with the newcomers, Germany and Italy. They, along with Spain, Portugal, and Belgium, also old hands at colonizing, each sought to carve themselves off a piece of what was then called the "Dark Continent" for exploitation and profit. Along the way they would occasionally have to fight one another as well as the native Africans, and a host of little wars flickered on the edges of Africa decade in and decade out.

Beginning in 1883 French expansion centered mainly in West Africa along the frontiers of Dahomey (Benin) and in the upper Niger River, where the French conquered the Tukulors and other tribes. In 1885 the British proclaimed control over the lower Niger River region to check further French advances, but by 1889 the two powers signed agreements whereby Britain ceded to France the city of

Cotonou on the coast of Dahomey. The native Dahomeyans, of course, had no say in the matter, and they responded by attacking a French force that landed at Cotonou. Fierce fighting, typical of the African conquests, ensued. The French were fascinated by one remarkable feature of the Dahomeyan army—its female soldiers. To the surprise of the French, these Amazons certainly fought as boldly and (even more surprisingly) as well as the men. However well they fought, neither the warrior women nor their fellow soldiers could forestall the inevitable. In 1890 the Dahomey signed a treaty that ceded Cotonou and another coastal port, Porto-Novo, to the French in exchange for an annual payment to King Behanzin (fl. 1889–94).

See also DAHOMEYAN-FRENCH WAR, SECOND; FRENCH CONQUEST OF CHAD.

Further reading: Archibald Dalzel, *History of Dahomey, Inland Kingdom of Africa* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); Patrick Manning, *Slavery, Colonialism, and Economic Growth in Dahomey, 1640–1690* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982).

Dahomeyan-French War, Second (1892)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dahomey "rebels" vs. colonial France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): West Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Launching a "punitive" war against the Dahomey king for slave-trading and attacking a French gunboat, the French aimed to annex Dahomey tribal lands.
OUTCOME: The Dahomey were overwhelmed, the king was deposed, Dahomey became a French colony, and sporadic uprisings continued.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 3,600; Dahomey, 10,000 warriors, including 800 Amazons
CASUALTIES: France, 81 killed, 436 wounded; Dahomey, 3,625 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None; Dahomey was annexed officially in 1894

As the European powers scrambled into Africa in the late 1890s and grabbed pieces of the "Dark Continent" to colonize and exploit the native populations, some of them—the British and the French in particular—salved their consciences (and placated their bleeding hearts back home) by abolishing the ages-old African slave trade, which allowed them to claim they were "civilizing" the blacks even as they took their lands, slaughtered native armies, and put them to work in European trades and industries. Such was the case in West Africa, where the French had gained a toehold in the First DAHOMEYAN-FRENCH WAR at two coastal ports in exchange for annual tribute to the Dahomey king.

The trouble was that King Behanzin (fl. 1889–94) was a slaver, and he saw no reason to suspend his business, grim and evil as it was, in favor of the kind of trade in which the French colonials wished him to engage. He continued to make slave raids into neighboring areas; when he was opposed, he also attacked a French gunboat. Both his nefarious trade and his attack provoked another war with France. In fall 1892 a French-Senegalese army under General Alfred-Amedée Doods (1842–1922) landed in Dahomey and engaged the "rebel" native forces. Doods's superior numbers and firepower made short work of the Dahomeyans. Behanzin raised and abandoned his capital at Abomey before the French entered it on November 17, 1892. He fled to the north where he held out for a little more than a year. When he surrendered in early 1894 Behanzin was exiled to Martinique in the West Indies while his kingdom was annexed. Though Dahomey became in name a French colony, native resistance would continue through 1899.

See also FRENCH CONQUEST OF CHAD; MADAGASCAR WARS WITH FRANCE; MANDINGO-FRENCH WARS.

Further reading: Archibald Dalzel, *History of Dahomey, Inland Kingdom of Africa* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); Patrick Manning, *Slavery, Colonialism, and Economic Growth in Dahomey, 1640–1690* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982).

Damascene War (280–279 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Egypt vs. Syria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Damascus
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ptolemy II Philadelphus, the second Macedonian king of Egypt, sought to extend his power into Syria.
OUTCOME: Egypt defeated Syria and captured a sizable stretch of territory, ensuring future strife between the Ptolemaic and Seleucid dynasties.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

The Damascene War was the first of a series of struggles between the Syrians and the Macedonian kings of Egypt. Ptolemy II Philadelphus (309–246 B.C.E.), the second Macedonian king of Egypt, did much to increase the power and beauty of his kingdom. He developed agriculture and commerce and made Alexandria a leading center of the arts and sciences. Some of his expansion he accomplished by skillful diplomacy, but he also took advantage

of rival kingdoms who were having political and military difficulties, such as the Seleucids and Antigonids, to extend his rule into Syria, Asia Minor, and the Aegean. He also asserted his influence in Ethiopia and Arabia. Long envious of the Seleucid kings of Syria, he attacked Damascus, their capital city, in 280 B.C.E., and all but destroyed the Syrians under King Antiochus I Soter (324–261 B.C.E.). The loss of a wide expanse of territory to the Egyptians virtually ensured the continuation of such wranglings in the First SYRIAN-EGYPTIAN WAR, which is also known as the Seleucid War.

Further reading: Jean Perrot, *Syria-Palestine* (Geneva: Nagel, 1979).

Danish Civil War (1137–1157)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The three pretenders to the throne of Denmark, Canute V, Sweyn III, and Waldemar I, and their various German allies, Conrad III and Frederick Barbarossa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Denmark
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When Erik II died without heirs, the path to power in Denmark lay open for the three major aspirants, who fought each other in various combinations.
OUTCOME: After a modus vivendi had been reached dividing the kingdom among the three, Sweyn had Canute assassinated only to fall to an attack from Waldemar, who became the uncontested king.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

At the beginning of the 11th century, Denmark had been one of the leading powers of northern and western Europe, and by the close of the 12th century it would be so again. In between, however, the country was much weakened by overextended conquests, wars with neighboring states, and dynastic struggles, which on occasion brought Denmark to the verge of disintegration. None of those events was more destructive than the dynastic struggles that followed the death of Danish king Erik II Emune (d. 1137).

The problem stemmed from the fact that Erik II died without heirs. As three princes laid claim to the throne, disunity threatened Denmark, and its political and social life became chaos. Canute V (d. 1157) and Sweyn III (d. 1157) were each elected king in different regions of the country, which spawned a civil war. The third claimant, Waldemar (1131–82), then allied himself with Sweyn, driving Canute to seek aid from German king Conrad III (1093–1152) in order to keep fighting the war. Conrad's nephew Frederick Barbarossa (c. 1123–90), who would later become the Holy Roman Emperor, intervened basically on Sweyn's side, granting him the crown and sending Canute off to rule Zealand (Sjaelland) under Sweyn's reign. The settlement that grew out of Barbarossa's meddling pleased none of the pretenders, but Waldemar preserved a precarious peace when he persuaded Canute to accept lands in Jutland and Skåne (in extreme southern Sweden) rather than Zealand. But Sweyn's subsequently harsh rule was something Waldemar could not mend, and the dynastic struggle began again, this time leading to a division of the Danish kingdom among all three claimants. When they met to celebrate the peace, Sweyn attempted to assassinate his co-rulers, and he succeeded in having Canute murdered. Waldemar escaped and took up arms against Sweyn, who he defeated and had put to death in Jutland near Viborg in 1157. As the now undisputed king of Denmark, Waldemar would lead the country once again to glory, earning for himself the title of Waldemar I the Great.

See also DANISH WAR AGAINST THE WENDS.

Further reading: John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Bent Ryng, *Danish in the South and North* (Copenhagen: Royal Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1981).

Danish Crusade *See* CRUSADER-TURKISH WARS (1100–1146).

Danish-Estonian War (1219–1227)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark vs. Estonia (with Russian allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Estonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Denmark wanted to gain sovereignty over Estonia and to enforce Catholic Christianity there.
OUTCOME: For seven years Denmark managed to maintain sovereignty over the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Religious divisions developed in Livonia (Estonia and part of Latvia) after the Christianization of the south. In response Denmark's King Waldemar II (1170–1241) consolidated the support of the Christian Livonian Knights of the Sword and the bishop of Riga to launch a holy war against Estonians whose allegiance was to Russia's Greek Christian Church.

The Danish monarch sailed his forces across the Baltic Sea to Reval (Tallinn). Seeing that they were greatly outnumbered, the Estonian-Russian forces entered into peace negotiations in an effort to stall for time until reinforcements could arrive. Once they had attained sufficient strength, the Estonians launched a surprise attack, driving the Danes back. Waldemar, in turn, gathered German reinforcements and launched a counteroffensive, crushing the Estonian-Russian forces in 1219. He took Reval and burned it, then built a fortress on the site, garrisoning it with troops whose mission was to enforce the conversion to Catholic Christianity.

In 1223 Waldemar was taken prisoner by one of his north German vassals and held for two years before buying his freedom with the promise to give up all his conquests but Estonia proper and nearby Rügen, only to lose these, too, in 1227 to the Germans when he was defeated at the Battle of Bornhoved. The following year he did regain sovereignty over the region through an agreement with the Brothers of the Sword (Livonian Knights).

Further reading: John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Toivo U. Raun, *Estonia and the Estonians,* 2nd ed. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Hoover Institution Press, 1991).

Danish-Lubeck War

See DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1501–1512).

Danish-Prussian War (Schleswig-Holstein War) (1864)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark (with Swedish and British military allies) vs. Prussia (with Austrian allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Schleswig-Holstein
DECLARATION: Prussia on Denmark, 1864
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Schleswig-Holstein
OUTCOME: The Prussians and Austrians gained possession of the duchies.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Danish forces, 47,389; Prussian forces, 63,500; Austrian forces, 20,000
CASUALTIES: Denmark, 1,435 killed, 808 missing and presumed dead, 690 died of disease, 3,159 wounded, 1,181 missing; Prussia, 738 killed, 310 died of disease, 1,581 wounded, 104 missing; Austria, 227 killed, 812 wounded, 61 missing
TREATIES: Treaty of Gastein, 1865

In the mid-19th century Denmark's national aspirations were aroused (and thwarted) by the conflict with Germany over what had become known as the Schleswig-Holstein question. Having lost Norway, the Danish monarchy held dearly to the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein as two of the three pillars of its kingdom of Denmark, this despite the fact that the majority of Holstein's people were German, both culturally and linguistically, and that Schleswig was divided between a Danish-speaking and a German-speaking population. It was when the German liberals in Schleswig began speaking out against autocratic rule and demanding a separate constitution and an affiliation to Holstein and the German Confederation that a Danish National Liberal movement also emerged. These Danish nationalists demanded that Schleswig be incorporated into Denmark. In 1848, when Denmark's National Liberal government officially adopted this policy (known as the Eider Policy after the Eider River that formed the southern boundary of Schleswig), the Schleswig-Holsteiners took up arms (*see* SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN REVOLT [1848]). Backed by the Prussian military, the rebellion proved too much for the Danish army, even with aid from Sweden. The negotiated end of the revolt, while reaffirming Danish rights to Schleswig-Holstein, also forced Denmark to pledge that it would not attempt to tie Schleswig closer to itself than to Holstein, which in effect meant that Denmark had to abandon the Eider Policy. Finally, Denmark agreed that the constitution adopted by the Danes in June 1849 was to apply only to itself, leaving the future of the two duchies in a political limbo the Prussians clearly hoped one day to change.

That day came early in 1864, when Prussian troops under Prince Frederick Charles (1828–85), in cooperation with an Austrian force, once again invaded Schleswig-Holstein. The Danes' position was hopeless. Though they mobilized some 70,000 men, only 48,000 were ever in the field at one time. Meanwhile, Prussia could commit nearly 64,000 and Austria 20,000. Thus, it was no surprise that the invasion force met with little resistance, nor that by August 1, 1864, Denmark had sued for peace, relinquishing its rights to the duchies. By the Treaty of Gastein, concluded in 1865, Schleswig and Holstein were put under joint Prussian-Austrian rule. Subsequently, Prussia's prime minister, Otto von Bismarck (1815–98), provoked the SEVEN WEEKS' WAR in order to wrest administration of Schleswig from Austria.

Further reading: John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Philip G. Dwyer, *Modern Prussian History: 1830–1947* (New York: Pearson Education, 2001); Bent Ryng, *Danish in the South and North* (Copenhagen: Royal Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1981).

Danish-Swedish War (1497–1500)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark vs. Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sweden
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Denmark's King John I attempted to assert his right to rule over Denmark, Norway, and Sweden in accordance with the Kalmar Union; he was opposed by Sweden under the Swedish elder Sten Sture.
OUTCOME: Sweden was defeated, John was crowned king of the three countries, and reconciliation was achieved with Sture.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Agreement with Sten Sture, 1500

The election of John I (1455–1513) as king of Denmark also made him king of Norway and Sweden in accordance with the terms of the Kalmar Union, by which the three countries combined their thrones. Norway readily accepted John, who wanted to reduce the power of the nobility and create a strong popular monarchy, but he was repudiated by the Swedish administrator Sten Sture the Elder (c. 1440–1503). In response, John invaded Sweden in 1497 and seized the union's capital, Kalmar. Sture besieged Uppsala, the city in which Swedish kings were traditionally crowned. His forces also checked John, who was moving against Stockholm.

In the meantime, the Danes fought and defeated Sture's Dalecarlian reinforcements before they could join his main force, and Sture surrendered. He accepted an offer of control of Finland and the Bothnias (territory surrounding the Gulf of Bothnia). The way was now clear for the coronation of John as king of the three countries. As an added diplomatic measure, the new king named Sture grand master of the kingdom.

See also DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1501–1512); KALMAR CIVIL WAR.

Further reading: Ingvar Andersson, *A History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1975); John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2002); Stewart P. Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Danish-Swedish War (1501–1512)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark vs. Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Denmark
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Swedish rebels allied with Lübeck and the Hanseatic League fought for Sweden's independence from the Kalmar Union and the rule of the Danish king John I.
OUTCOME: After 12 years of fighting, the "rebellion" was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty among Lübeck, the Hanseatic League, and Denmark, 1512

As Sweden's regent after 1470, Sten Sture the Elder (c. 1440–1503) had reduced the German influence over Swedish municipalities and strengthened Sweden's legal institutions. Though he had been unable to prevent Sweden's state council from accepting the Danish king John I (1455–1513) as king of Sweden (and thus the Kalmar Union, under which the thrones of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway were united), he had managed to delay it until 1483. Sten Sture's influence in Sweden continued when he became grand master of the kingdom following the DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1497–1500). To undermine his standing, John's son Christian (1481–1559) and others spread rumors of a scheme hatched by Sten Sture to topple John and usurp the Kalmar throne. King John summoned Sten Sture to explain the rumors, whereupon the wily grand master showed up with a large armed guard. This display sent John scurrying to his Swedish stronghold and thence to Denmark. John left 1,000 troops to guard the Swedish citadel and his queen.

Sten Sture assembled allies from Lübeck and other Hanseatic ports and gathered a substantial force of Swedish troops as well. He took the town of Örebro, then laid siege to Stockholm. With John's 1,000 troops outmatched, his queen surrendered, and Sten Sture's Swedish forces captured all the major Swedish cities except for Kalmar and Borgholm, which were still held by John.

Emboldened by Sture's actions, southern Norway allied itself with Sweden in 1502. However, Christian brutally punished the Norwegian rebels he captured, thereby intimidating all of Norway back into submission. This accomplished, Christian led a Danish force into Sweden and quickly captured two fortresses in Västergotland, ruthlessly killing their defenders. Before Christian could confront Sture, he died (1503), and his successor, Svante Nilsson Sture (c. 1460–1512), failed in his attempt to capture Kalmar and Borgholm. In the meantime, John convened a tribunal, which proclaimed the Swedish rebels traitors, whereupon Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian I (1459–1519) ruled that rendering aid to the Swedes was treason against the empire. This decree notwithstanding, the Hanseatic towns continued to aid Sweden in sporadic warfare against Denmark.

In large part due to dissension over aid to Sweden, the Hanseatic League became torn with internal dissension, and fitful warfare broke out during 1509–11 among Lübeck, various of the Hanseatic towns, and Denmark. At last, in 1512 Lübeck and the Hanseatic League signed a peace agreement that ended their support for Sweden. With this, the war ended.

See also DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1563–1570); KALMAR CIVIL WAR; KALMAR WAR WITH THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE.

Further reading: Ingvar Andersson, *A History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1975); John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2002); Stewart P. Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Danish-Swedish War (Scandinavian Seven Years' War) (1563–1570)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark vs. Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sweden and Danish Norway
DECLARATION: Sweden on Denmark, 1563
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: War was triggered over a series of Danish insults to Sweden, including Denmark's use of the Swedish coat of arms as part of its own coat of arms.
OUTCOME: The war produced few lasting gains for either side except for minor territorial gains on the part of Denmark and the right to incorporate the Swedish triple-crown device into its coat of arms.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Sweden, 1,263 killed, 608 wounded, 100 captured; Denmark, 2,600 killed or wounded, 500 captured
TREATIES: Treaty of Stettin, 1570

The cause of the war was the insistence of Denmark's King Frederick II (1534–88) on using Sweden's coat of arms on his shield. Defiantly, in response, the Swedish king Erik XIV (1533–77) took the Danish arms into his shield. Next, Frederick further provoked Sweden by arresting three of its ambassadors and harassing Swedish shipping.

The proverbial last straw came when Frederick intercepted a love letter Erik sent to Queen Elizabeth I (1533–1603) of England—who he had unsuccessfully sought to wed. Erik declared war. In what many military historians see as the first significant warfare between sailing fleets, the Baltic rivals fought seven major sea battles between 1563 and 1566. Off Bornholm on May 21, 1563, the Swedish squadron of 8 ships with some 500 guns, commanded by Admiral Jakob Bagge (1502–77), forced the surrender of Danish admiral Jacob Brokenhaus's (1521–77) 81-gun Danish flagship, *Hercules,* and two frigates after four hours of fighting. A year later off Öland on May 30, 1564, Bagge's 23-ship fleet ran across a combined Danish-Lübeck flotilla of 35, and in two days of fighting the Swedes lost their 173-gun flagship, *Mars,* a massive warship, and took on many casualties, while the Danish-Lübeck force faired better, losing one ship and suffering damage to six others but with lighter casualties. The greatest battle afloat, however, took place between Bornholm and Rügen on July 7, 1565, when Danish casualties under Admiral Otto Rud (1520–65) totaled some 2,200 killed and 500 captured on his 36 ships as opposed to Swedish losses of 762 crewmen killed and 608 wounded on the 49 warships of Admiral Klas Horn (c. 1518–66). The Danes lost their 90-gun flagship, *Jegermeister.* Sweden had one ship sunk and lost another, *Gyllende Lejon,* to fire, but Admiral Horn (who was killed later in the war) celebrated a major victory.

On land the war was by contrast unremarkable. To Frederick's side came the nobility of Holstein, Schleswig, and Lübeck. Their forces united at Halland in southwestern Sweden and laid siege against Elfsborg (Älvsborg). In the meantime, Erik's army moved into the Danish province of Skåne in southern Sweden. The Swedes also quickly captured territory in Norway, which was under Danish rule. However, they lost these lands in subsequent battles. The same held true of the Danes, who soon were forced to relinquish their acquisitions.

By 1568 both sides were exhausted, and when they concluded the Treaty of Stettin in 1570, the status quo ante bellum was, for the most part, restored (except that Sweden gave to Denmark Gotland and Elfsborg in addition to a reparation payment). They did, however, manage to settle the dispute over the royal insignia. Denmark was permitted to use Sweden's arms, at least for the time being, whereas Sweden was barred from incorporating the Danish or Norwegian arms in its crest.

Further reading: Ingvar Andersson, *A History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1975); John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2002); Stewart P. Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Danish-Swedish War (1643–1645)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark vs. Sweden (with Dutch allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Denmark
DECLARATION: Sweden on Denmark, 1643
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Denmark feared Swedish domination of the Baltic.
OUTCOME: Sweden made territorial and economic gains.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Bromsebro, 1645

Denmark's King Christian IV (1577–1648) had intervened in the THIRTY YEARS' WAR not only to support the Protestant

faith he practiced but also to secure a strong presence in Germany as a foil to Swedish expansion. Instead, he was soundly defeated in 1626 (*see* DANISH WAR [1625–1629]).

By contrast, Sweden continued to triumph during the course of the long and sporadic war, causing Christian much anxiety and no little envy. He concluded a hasty alliance with Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand III (1608–57), which in turn prompted the Swedes to send troops under Lennart Torstensson (1603–51) into the Baltic region, where they took Schleswig-Holstein and Jutland.

The Danes dispatched a naval force, defeating a Swedish and Dutch fleet on July 1, 1644, then bottling up the entire Swedish fleet in Kiel Bay. Within a short time, however, Dutch and Swedish vessels were able to sink 17 Danish ships near Lolland, Denmark, and the land invasion of Denmark proceeded rapidly. His country overrun, Christian had no choice but to sign the harsh Peace of Bromsebro in 1645, by which he ceded to Sweden the two Baltic islands of Gotland and Oesel as well as some Norwegian territory. Denmark also exempted Swedish-bound goods from shipping tolls through the Øresund.

See also DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1675–1679).

Further reading: Ingvar Andersson, *A History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1975); John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Paul Douglas Lockhart, *Denmark in the Thirty Years' War, 1618–1648* (Cranbury, N.J.: Associated University Presses, 1996); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2002); Stewart P. Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Danish-Swedish War (Scanian War) (1675–1679)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark (with Brandenburg allies) vs. Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Skåne, in southwest Sweden
DECLARATION: Denmark on Sweden, 1675
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Danes wanted to recover the province of Skåne, lost in the First Northern War.
OUTCOME: Despite brilliant naval victories, the Danes failed to recover Skåne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At sea, 6,500 Danes, 9,000 Swedes. On land, 11,000 Danes, 8,000 Swedes.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Lund, 1679

King Charles XI (1655–97) of Sweden fought alongside King Louis XIV (1638–1715) of France during the Third DUTCH WAR. Seeing an opportunity to recover Skåne, a former Danish province in southern Sweden, which had been lost in the First NORTHERN WAR, Denmark's king Christian V (1646–99) entered the ongoing war by allying with the Dutch and invading Skåne in 1675.

A Danish fleet commanded by Admiral Niels Juel (1629–97) dealt the Swedish navy a severe blow at the Battle of Jasmund, off Rügen, on May 25, 1676. He pitted his 15 Danish and 10 Dutch battleships and their 1,727 guns against Sweden's 27 battleships and 10 frigates mounting 2,184 cannons. Sweden lost three of its big ships (among them the 126-gun *Kronan* and 801 of its 842-man crew and the 94-gun *Svard* and 619 of its 670-man crew). On June 11, 1677, Juel, commanding 11 ships, captured five of seven ships sent against him by the Swedes, and on July 1 he won his greatest victory in Kioge Bay off Copenhagen when, commanding 19 capital ships, six frigates, and three fireships, he killed or wounded 1,500 Swedish sailors and captured 3,000 more along with the seven battleships he took and the three others he sank from a Swedish fleet of 25 capital ships, 11 frigates, and six fireships.

On land, however, it was the Swedes who triumphed. Charles repeatedly bested the Danes and their Brandenburg allies during 1676–78, including a battle at Skåne in 1676. At Lund in December Charles led 8,000 Swedes against the 11,000 Danes under Christian and won a bloody victory that cost Denmark 5,000 men and Sweden 3,000, half of them killed in action. At last, the Treaty of Lund was concluded, restoring the status quo ante bellum. Skåne remained a Swedish territory.

Further reading: Ingvar Andersson, *A History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1975); John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2002); Stewart P. Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Danish War (1625–1629)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark vs. Holy Roman Empire (Hapsburg, Austria)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Baltic coastal region
DECLARATION: Denmark on Holy Roman Empire
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Retaliation for the disruption of Danish toll collection
OUTCOME: Denmark was repeatedly defeated, resulting in its submission to the Holy Roman Empire in return for a guarantee of the sovereignty of its territories.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Battle of Lutter: Denmark, 18,000; Holy Roman Empire, 20,000
CASUALTIES: Battle of Lutter: 4,000 Danes killed, 2,000 captured; Hapsburg casualties much lower
TREATIES: Treaty of Lübeck, 1629

This conflict was spawned by the THIRTY YEARS' WAR, during which the Hapsburg Austrians disrupted Denmark's toll collection from ships passing to and from the Baltic Sea. Seeking to establish a foothold in Germany from which to check Swedish ambitions, Protestant King Christian IV (1577–1648) of Denmark decided to attack the forces of the Holy Roman Empire, which was dominated by the Hapsburgs. He attempted but failed to secure an alliance with Holland and Britain. Lacking allies, his army was badly beaten at the Battle of Lutter during August 24–27, 1626, by Holy Roman troops under the brilliant general Johan, count of Tilly (1559–1632). The disastrous battle resulted in the loss of half of Christian's men. The defeat, combined with one suffered at the Battle of Dessau on April 25, 1626, by Danish-German forces, combined with yet another rout at the hands of Count Albrecht von Wallenstein (1583–1634) in the Battle of Wolgast on September 8, 1628, forced Denmark to break off the war. The Danes did succeed in defending a siege against Stralsund on the Baltic coast in 1628, but by the Treaty of Lübeck (June 7, 1629), Christian pledged not to meddle in German affairs and was guaranteed the sovereignty of his lands in return.

Further reading: Paul Douglas Lockhart, *Denmark in the Thirty Years' War, 1618–1648* (Cranbury, N.J.: Associated University Presses, 1996); Stewart P. Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Danish War against the Wends (1160–1168)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark (with Brandenburg and Saxon allies) vs. the Wends
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rügen, an island in the Baltic Sea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Danes wanted to suppress the pagan Wends, who preyed as pirates upon Danish shipping.
OUTCOME: The Wends were defeated and forcibly converted to Christianity.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

With Denmark torn by the DANISH CIVIL WAR of 1137–1157, the country was vulnerable to the depredations of the Wends, pagan Slavs who inhabited the island of Rügen in the Baltic Sea, off the German coast. Their prey was Danish (and German) shipping, which they pirated.

Despite the demands of the civil war, King Waldemar I the Great (1131–82) of Denmark set out to subdue the Wends. Acknowledging the Hohenstaufen emperor Frederick I Barbarossa (c. 1125–90) as his overlord, Waldemar joined forces with Henry the Lion (1129–95), duke of Saxony, and Albert the Bear (c. 1100–70), margrave of Brandenburg, both of whom had been unsuccessfully battling the Wends since 1147. With the blessing of the church, an army was dispatched under Absalon (1128–1201), a famed Danish commander, and the bishop of Roskilde (later bishop of Lund). The Danes laid siege to the Wend fortress at Arkona on Rügen. In 1168 the fortress fell, and the Wends surrendered. The Danes immediately set about forcibly converting the Wends to Christianity, demolishing their pagan idols and temples.

Further reading: John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Stewart P. Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Bent Ryng, *Danish in the South and North* (Copenhagen: Royal Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1981).

Danish War with Holstein (1348)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark vs. Holstein
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Funen (Fyn) Island and the Jutland Peninsula
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Denmark wanted to gain control of Funen Island.
OUTCOME: The Danes prevailed, recovering Funen as well as gaining control of the Jutland Peninsula.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Nebbegaard, 1348

King Waldemar IV (c. 1320–75) of Denmark wanted to unite his fractious Danish kingdom and moved to regain control of Funen (Fyn) Island, which was held by Holstein (a duchy in northwestern Germany) as collateral on a Danish debt. Waldemar's initial assaults were legal in nature—and partly successful. In 1348 the Holstein courts offered Waldemar the Treaty of Nebbegaard, whereby he recovered half of Funen and was provided favorable terms for recovering the other half. However, the treaty soon fell into dispute, and Waldemar took up arms, capturing Gamborg Castle. Holstein yielded Funen to Denmark, which also gained control of the Jutland Peninsula. The unhappy nobility of Holstein, however, would aid the Jutland magnates in a revolt in 1350, marking the first in a series of uprisings against the formidable power wielded by Waldemar.

See also DANISH WAR WITH THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE, FIRST; DANISH WAR WITH THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE, SECOND.

Further reading: John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Stewart P. Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark*

(New York: Praeger, 1972); Bent Ryng, *Danish in the South and North* (Copenhagen: Royal Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1981).

Danish War with the Hanseatic League, First (1361–1363)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark vs. the Hanseatic League
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Skåne (in southern Sweden) and Denmark
DECLARATION: Hanseatic League on Denmark, 1361
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hanseatic League wanted Denmark to relinquish Skåne to Sweden.
OUTCOME: The league failed in its objective, and Denmark forced it to curtail its trade privileges.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1363

Intent on recovering Skåne, Danish lands lost to Sweden, King Waldemar IV (c. 1320–75) seized on Sweden's preoccupation with dissension in Norway (then under its control) to make an assault on Skåne in 1360. The Danes seized the territory and were attacked by a Swedish peasant army at Gotland in 1361. The Danes defeated the force and proceeded to conquer the important city of Wisby (Visby), a center of Swedish Hanseatic trade. In response the Hanseatic League—a coalition of European trading partners—joined Sweden as well as Mecklenburg and Holstein to oppose the Danish conquests. So began the First Danish War with the Hanseatic League.

The league typically used bribes to foreign leaders to protect its commercial interests, and when these proved inadequate, it might resort to embargoes or blockades. But only in extreme cases would it engage in organized warfare, and this was one. Hanseatic forces overran and sacked Copenhagen, but King Waldemar's artillery managed to turn back the Hanseatic fleet at the Battle of Helsingborg in 1362, and the league bowed to peace terms in 1363, sharply curtailing its trade privileges. Waldemar also took the diplomatic step of marrying his daughter to King Haakon VI (1339–80) of Norway in 1365 in order to cement relations between Denmark and Norway.

See also DANISH WAR WITH THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE; SECOND.

Further reading: John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Philippe Dollinger, *The German Hanse* (London: Macmillan, 1970); Stewart P. Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Bent Ryng, *Danish in the South and North* (Copenhagen: Royal Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1981).

Danish War with the Hanseatic League, Second (1367–1370)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark (with Brandenburg, Brunswick, and Pomerania) vs. Hanseatic League (with Sweden, Mecklenburg, Holstein, and Danish dissidents)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Denmark
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The league wanted to recover trading rights lost in the First Danish War with the Hanseatic League.
OUTCOME: The League recovered its rights.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Stralsund, 1370

Grown restive under the trade restrictions imposed after the FIRST DANISH WAR WITH THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE, the league in 1367 gathered as allies Sweden, Mecklenburg, Holstein, and even certain dissident Danish nobles. The alliance attacked while Denmark's King Waldemar IV (c. 1320–75) was preoccupied with internal civil strife. Waldemar precipitously fled to Germany, leaving his privy council in charge. He recruited a number of allies—Brunswick, Brandenburg, and Pomerania—and launched an attack on the league's forces from the rear. Despite this aid, Denmark suffered a series of defeats and signed the Peace of Stralsund in 1370, whereby the Hanseatic League recovered its broad trade rights and privileges, and, thus, its supremacy in the Baltic. Waldemar was given safe conduct back to Denmark, which he had to open to the Hanseatic League's trade. Over the next 30 years, the league would claim a membership of about 100 towns, most of them German, and though basically a mercantile association, it would attempt to maintain order at home among its members and security abroad for them.

Further reading: John Henry Stopford Birch, *Denmark in History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975); Philippe Dollinger, *The German Hanse* (London: Macmillan, 1970); Stewart P. Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Bent Ryng, *Danish in the South and North* (Copenhagen: Royal Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1981).

D'Annunzio's War (1919–1920)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Gabriele D'Annunzio vs. Italian government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Fiume (Rijeka)
DECLARATION: November 12, 1920, D'Annunzio on Italy
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: D'Annunzio sought to claim Fiume, in dispute between Yugoslavia and Italy, for Italy.

OUTCOME: D'Annunzio held Fiume for a year and a half but fled under Italian bombardment of the city.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: D'Annunzio led an army of 1,000 to Fiume; his occupation force numbered 8,000
CASUALTIES: D'Annunzio's forces, 53 killed
TREATIES: Two treaties bear on the war, the Treaty of London (1915) and the Treaty of Rapallo (1920), but no formal treaty ended D'Annunzio's occupation of Fiume.

Following the conclusion of WORLD WAR I, both Italy and Yugoslavia laid claim to the Dalmatian port city of Fiume (Rijeka), which the Treaty of London, concluded secretly in 1915, assigned to Yugoslavia. Negotiations over Fiume dragged on, wearing thin the patience of certain Italian nationalists, prominent among whom was the poet, novelist, and self-styled soldier Gabriele D'Annunzio (1863–1938). He gathered about him a band of filibusters, who marched against Fiume, "liberating" (that is, seizing) it on September 12, 1919.

D'Annunzio set himself up as dictator of the city-state, his rule enforced by a black-shirted army (whose uniforms inspired those of the Fascists under Benito Mussolini [1883–1945]). Although D'Annunzio claimed that he had taken Fiume on behalf of Italy, the Italian government opposed him and his action, as did the other European states. Ignoring his rule there, Italy and Yugoslavia concluded the Treaty of Rapallo (November 12, 1920), by which Fiume became a free state. At this, D'Annunzio declared war on Italy. The combat, however, was brief. His forces fled when Italian vessels bombarded the city on December 27, 1920.

Following D'Annunzio's departure, Fiume was rocked with dissent and violence. A 1922 fascist coup overthrew the government, and Italian troops were brought in to restore order. Mussolini, who originally embraced (if at a distance) the flamboyant but popular D'Annunzio, ultimately placed him under a kind of unofficial house arrest to keep him from causing more mischief. The Italians remained as occupiers through part of WORLD WAR II. In 1947 Fiume was at last awarded to Yugoslavia.

See also FASCIST MARCH ON ROME.

Further reading: Michael A. Ledeen, *First Duce: D' Annunzio at Fiume* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1987); John Woodhouse, *Gabriele D'Annunzio: Defiant Archangel* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001).

David's Wars of Conquest, King (1010–973 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: David vs. (variously) Philistines, Ammonites, rebels led by his son Absalom, and rebels led by the king of Seba
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Jerusalem, Syria, and environs
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: David sought to unite the Jews under his rule and to defeat and conquer all external enemies.
OUTCOME: David was remarkably successful in defeating external as well as internal enemies.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Little is known about King David's (d. c. 962 B.C.E.) successful wars of conquest beyond their general contours. He began by defeating the Philistines, then recruited from among their number sufficient soldiers to make up a sizable fraction of his own army. Backed by this augmented force, David reunited the fractious Jews, then went on to conquer Palestine. It is clear that he also came to dominate most of Syria.

David defeated all the Jews' external enemies, including the Ammonites. According to the Old Testament, it was during this war, while his army was in the field, that David committed adultery with Bethsabee (or Bathsheba) and brought about, indirectly, the assassination of Urias (or Uriah), her husband.

Although he prevailed against external enemies, David was assailed by his own rebellious son Absalom (fl. c. 1020 B.C.E.), who he exiled for three years, then recalled, but kept in disfavor for two more years before restoring him to his former dignity. Outraged by his father's treatment, Absalom spent the next four years undermining David's authority among the people, at last proclaiming himself king at Hebron. Taken by surprise, David fled Jerusalem. Absalom, however, made the strategically fatal error of delaying the pursuit of his retreating father. The delay made it possible for David to muster his forces and defeat the rebels at the Battle of Manahaim, where Absalom was slain. Although he returned to Jerusalem in triumph, David was soon confronted by another rebellion under the king of Seba at the Jordan River, which, however, he quickly suppressed.

Further reading: Gary Greenberg, *The Sins of King David: A New History of a Biblical Icon* (Naperville, Ill.: Sourcebooks, 2002); Jonathan Kirsch, *King David* (New York: Ballantine, 2001); Steven L. McKenzie, *King David: A Biography* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002).

Deccan Revolt *See* AURANGZEB, WARS OF; MOGUL CIVIL WAR (1657–1659).

Decembrists' Uprising (1825)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: A group of dissident military men (the "Decembrists") vs. the government of Czar Nicholas I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): St. Petersburg, Russia

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Decembrists sought to incite revolt by refusing to pledge allegiance to the new czar.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quickly crushed, though its symbolic significance survived to kindle a tradition of revolution in Russia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: About 80 revolutionary troops and civilians; five Decembrist leaders were subsequently executed.
TREATIES: None

The Decembrists, members of Russia's first significant revolutionary movement, attempted and failed to overthrow the government of Czar Nicholas I (1796–1855) in December 1825. Most of the revolutionaries were young upper-class army officers, a diverse group who sought varying degrees of representative government. The more extreme among them wanted to abolish serfdom as well. Some had participated in the Russian occupation of France after the NAPOLEONIC WARS or served elsewhere in Europe; a few had been Freemasons; others were members of secret patriotic and, later, revolutionary societies in Russia (the Union of Salvation, the Union of Welfare, the Northern Society, the Southern Society); all had been influenced by the radicalism of the Napoleonic era.

Following the death of Czar Alexander I (1777–1825) on December 1, 1825, a dispute arose over who would succeed him. The Decembrists (as they would now come to be known) pledged the troops garrisoned in St. Petersburg, troops they controlled, to Alexander's older brother, Constantine (1779–1831), who they felt favored a constitution. They were unaware, however, that Constantine had secretly renounced his rights to the throne in favor of his younger brother, Nicholas. But Constantine delayed a public announcement of the arrangement, and Nicholas, therefore, hesitated to take the throne. During the resulting confusion, an antigovernment plot of the Northern Society became known. It persuaded some troops in St. Petersburg to refuse to take a loyalty oath to Nicholas I when he at last ascended the throne. Without a real plan, three regiments of St. Petersburg troops gathered in Senate Square (renamed Decembrist Square after the BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION [1917]) on December 26 and defiantly refused to pledge allegiance to Nicholas.

The Decembrist rebels, however, had arrived too late in Senate Square to stop Russian government officials from taking the oath of allegiance to the new czar. Still, the Decembrists refused to disperse and refused to vow allegiance to Nicholas I. They were joined by civilians, who hurled stones at the loyal officials. Government forces fired on the Decembrists and their civilian adherents, using artillery loaded with grapeshot. After an hour of combat, the rebels dispersed. Colonel Prince Sergei Trubetsky, who was to be the provisional dictator, fled immediately.

The nation tottered on the brink of all-out revolution as a military uprising brewed in the south, where the Cherignigov regiment staged an insurrection. However, Paul Pestel (1794–1826), leader of an important Kievan rebel group, was quickly captured, and the military uprising was crushed by January 15, 1826. Without effective leadership or military coordination, civilian support for the Decembrists soon collapsed.

Czar Nicholas I launched an extensive investigation in which he personally participated that resulted in the trial of 289 Decembrists, the execution of five of them, the imprisonment of 31 others, and the banishment of the rest to the dreaded wastes of Siberia. Despite its lack of direction, quick suppression, and grim consequences for its leaders, the Decembrist Uprising became a significant symbol in Russian history. The Decembrists' martyrdom inspired generations of dissidents and gave rise to a strong revolutionary tradition in czarist Russia that would culminate in the revolutions of 1917 and the fall of the czars.

Further reading: Vladimir Fyodozov, *The First Breath of Freedom* (Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1988); Max Weber, *Russian Revolutions* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1995).

Delhi Massacre

See PERSIAN INVASION OF MOGUL INDIA.

Delhi Sultanate Raids in South India
(1307–1313)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Delhi vs. the Deccan region of India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Deccan region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The sultan of Delhi wanted to gain control of the riches in the Deccan.
OUTCOME: The sultan retained control of the Deccan until the middle of the 14th century.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Upon assuming power as the second Khalji dynasty sultan of Delhi in 1296, Ala-ud-Din (fl. 1296–1316) became increasingly interested in the riches of south India. The Muslim sultan and his slave-general Malik Kafur (d. 1316) entered the Deccan region in 1307 during a mission not only to collect tribute but to plunder the treasures of the

Yadavas. Successful in their conquest of Deogir, the pair made the ruler of the Deccan region a vassal of Delhi. Two years later, in 1309, the sultan undertook another raid and captured Warangal. From there the campaign proceeded to the south and took control of the Hoysala and Madurai. The sultan's army reached the coast opposite Ceylon. Only Orissa remained beyond the sultan's reach. More interested in collecting tribute and carting off treasures than in imposing a new regime on the local populace, the sultan did not depose local administrators. Instead, he installed tribute collectors, and when a locality refused to pay, retribution was swift. In 1313 the Devagiri ruler was deposed after the sultan's raiders swept through the area when tribute was not made. The sultan retained control of the Deccan until the middle of the 14th century.

See also BAHMANI-DELHI SULTANATE WAR; CHALUKYAN CIVIL WARS; MAHMUD OF GHAZNA, CONQUESTS OF; MUHAMMAD OF GHUR, CONQUESTS OF.

Further reading: Satish Chandra, *Medieval India from Sultanat to the Mughals: Delhi Sultanat, 1206–1526* (New Delhi: Har-Anand Publications, 1997); Abdul Halim, *History of the Lodi Sultans of Delhi and Agra* (Dacca: University of Dacca, 1961); Peter A. Jackson, *Delhi Sultanate: A Political and Military History* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998).

Delhi Sultanate Wars with Ghazna and Ghur (1208–1228)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Delhi vs. Ghazna and Ghur (Afghanistan)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Iltutmish sought to strengthen his control in northern India and to gain power over the Punjab region of southern India.
OUTCOME: Iltutmish gained control of the Punjab for the Delhi Sultanate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1206 Muhammad of Ghur (d. 1206), one of the founders of Muslim rule in India, was assassinated in Lahore. He was succeeded by his slave lieutenant, Qutb-ud-Din (d. 1210), founder of the so-called slave dynasty, who took the name Aibak. Upon Aibak's death in 1210, the Turkish general Iltutmish (fl. 1211–36) came to power. He extended the control of the sultanate to all of northern India. Delhi was the sultanate's primary capital. Ghur (Ghowr, Afghanistan) was the secondary capital. Although Iltutmish had been successful in gaining the throne and extending the reach of the sultanate, rivals continually challenged his succession. In 1208 he defeated a slave general at Ghazna in present-day Afghanistan. In addition to these rivalries, Iltutmish faced unrest between the Ghurids and the Khwārizm-shah dynasty over control of Khwārizm. In India he subjugated the Hindu chiefs. In 1215, when Tah-ud-din Yldiz (d. 1215) was driven from Ghazna by Khwārizm forces, Iltutmish defeated him at Tarain in the Punjab. War then broke out between the Mongols and Persia, and Khwārizm refugees poured into Iltutmish's sultanate. In 1221 the Mongol warrior Genghis Khan (c. 1167–1227) chased the Khwārizm prince Jalal-ad-Din (d. 1231) into the Punjab, but Iltutmish refused to offer him asylum. He pursued the prince through the Indus valley and then westward into Persia. Genghis Khan, still chasing Jalal-ad-Din, made forays into the Punjab, but through diplomacy Iltutmish forced him to withdraw. Iltutmish used to his advantage the chaos created by Jalal-ad-Din in Lahore and Multan and managed to wrest control of the Punjab from Nasir-ud-Din Qabacha (fl. 1220s) in 1228.

Further reading: Satish Chandra, *Medieval India from Sultanat to the Mughals: Delhi Sultanat, 1206–1526* (New Delhi: Har-Anand Publications, 1997); Abdul Halim, *History of the Lodi Sultans of Delhi and Agra* (Dacca: University of Dacca, 1961); Peter A. Jackson, *Delhi Sultanate: A Political and Military History* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998).

Delhi Sultanate Wars with Gujarat and Malwa (1299–1312)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Delhi vs. Gujarat and Malwa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gujarat and Malwa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Delhi sultan Ala-ud-Din sought to reestablished Delhi's dominance over Malwa and Gujarat.
OUTCOME: Ala-ud-Din regained control over Gujarat and Malwa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The death of Balban (d. 1287), Delhi's sultan, in 1287 sparked an intense struggle for power between the Afghans and the Turkish nobility. During this period of unrest, Gujarat and Malwa withdrew from their tributory relationship with Delhi. In 1290 the Turkish nobility won the power struggle and formed the Khalji dynasty, which ruled until 1320. When Ala-ud-Din (fl. 1296–1316) came to the throne as the second Khalji ruler, he set out on a

course to restore Delhi's finances by putting down the rebellion of the Hindu princes. In 1299 his forces attacked Gujarat and subdued it. He next turned to Malwa, and despite the invasions of the Mongols in 1305 and 1306, he captured Ranthambhor in 1301, Chitor in 1303, and Mandu in 1305 after a series of bloody sieges. At Chitor the defenders undertook the rite of *jauhor,* whereby they threw their wives and children upon a funeral pyre and then staged a suicidal charge against Ala-ud-Din's army. He also seized Malwa's fortresses of Siwana in 1308 and Jalor in 1312.

See also DELHI SULTANATE RAIDS IN SOUTH INDIA.

Further reading: Satish Chandra, *Medieval India from Sultanat to the Mughals: Delhi Sultanat, 1206–1526* (New Delhi: Har-Anand Publications, 1997); Abdul Halim, *History of the Lodi Sultans of Delhi and Agra* (Dacca: University of Dacca, 1961); Yusuf Husain, *Indo-Muslim Polity (Turko-Afghan Period)* (Simla: Indian Institute of Advanced Study, 1971); Peter A. Jackson, *Delhi Sultanate: A Political and Military History* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998).

Delhi Sultanate Wars with Jaunpur (1414–1493)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Delhi vs. Jaunpur
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Delhi
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Delhi sought to gain control over the Muslim kingdom of Jaunpur in the central Ganges valley.
OUTCOME: The Lodi sultanate of Delhi annexed Jaunpur in 1493.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following TAMERLANE'S INVASION OF INDIA in 1398, the power of Delhi decreased, and Malwa and Gujarat became separate Muslim kingdoms. In 1414 the last ruler from the Tughluk dynasty died, and the Sayyid dynasty was established, with Tamerlane's (1336–1405) viceroy, Khizur Khan (fl. 1440s), as ruler. Delhi had been diminished greatly from its former power, consisting only of the city of Delhi itself and a small region around it. Delhi struggled to maintain control of this small area, whereas the kingdom of Jaunpur flourished, practicing a degree of religious tolerance and justice unseen before in any Muslim state. In the Punjab, however, trouble for Jaunpur was brewing as a Timurid (Afghan) dynasty named Lodi consolidated its strength and began a push to the east to force the Sayyids out of power in 1451. In 1452 Jaunpur was drawn into a battle for its very existence. By 1479 part of the kingdom was annexed to Delhi, but the fighting continued. In 1493 Sikander Lodi (fl. 1489–1517) completed the full annexation of Jaunpur, and the Lodi holdings soon stretched across northern India from the Punjab to the border of Bengal.

Further reading: Satish Chandra, *Medieval India from Sultanat to the Mughals: Delhi Sultanat, 1206–1526* (New Delhi: Har-Anand Publications, 1997); Abdul Halim, *History of the Lodi Sultans of Delhi and Agra* (Dacca: University of Dacca, 1961); Peter A. Jackson, *Delhi Sultanate: A Political and Military History* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998).

Demetrius, War of (239–229 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macedonia vs. the Achaean and Aetolian Leagues of Greece
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Demetrius II sought to maintain control over Greece.
OUTCOME: By defeating the Aetolian and Achaean Leagues, Demetrius maintained power over Greece.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the deaths of the Diadochi, successors to Alexander the Great's (356–323 B.C.E.) vast Macedonian Empire (*see* DIADOCHI, WARS OF THE), Antigonus II (c. 319–239) became ruler of Macedonia. In 239 his son Demetrius II (c. 278–229) came to the throne of Macedonia. Maintaining control over Greece continued to be a primary objective of the kingdom. As a boy, Demetrius gained reknown by defeating and dethroning Alexander of Epirus (d. c. 263) and marrying a princess of Epirus, thereby cementing his hold over that portion of the empire and securing Macedonia from further threat there for the moment. The Achaean and Aetolian Leagues, however, posed a more difficult problem. On his accession, the two leagues allied themselves against Demetrius, and in 237 he invaded Boeotia, which split the alliance. In 229 Demetrius died, and his heir, the nine-year-old Philip V (238–179), and his regent continued to face troubles in Greece with the loss of Epirus and Athens in 229 and the beginning of the SOCIAL WAR (219–217 B.C.E.).

See also ILLYRIAN WAR, FIRST; ILLYRIAN WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Griffen, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of Greece and the Hellenistic World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991).

Desert Shield/Desert Storm, Operation

See PERSIAN GULF WAR.

Devolution, War of (1667–1668)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish Netherlands vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Netherlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France and Spain vied for ownership of the Spanish Netherlands.
OUTCOME: France gained several fortresses and towns in the Spanish Netherlands, and the Franche-Comté region reverted to Spanish control.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, May 2, 1668

Devolution was a local custom governing land inheritance in parts of the Spanish Netherlands. In some provinces daughters of a first marriage took precedence over sons of subsequent unions. Thus, when Spain's king Philip IV (1605–65) died, Louis XIV of France (1638–1715) claimed the Netherlands for Philip's first-born daughter (and, not incidentally, Louis's wife) Marie Therese (1638–83) as opposed to her younger half brother, the sickly epileptic Charles II of Spain (1661–1700). Even if Louis admitted that his queen had renounced her rights to the Netherlands when they were married, she did so only in exchange for a large dowry—and Spain had never delivered the promised dowry. In any case, he would have the Spanish Netherlands, even by force if necessary.

In Europe the parties affected by Louis's pronouncement reacted variously. The United Provinces (or independent Netherlands) remained uncommitted in the matter due to a previous treaty; Spain was unable to exert influence due to an ongoing war with Portugal; and England remained neutral due to the provisions of a secret treaty. French troops under Henri (1611–75), vicomte de Turenne, invaded the Spanish Netherlands in 1667 and easily captured Lille, the major city in Flanders. Other troops under Louis II de Condé (1621–86) occupied the Franche-Comté region in February 1668. When Spain granted independence to Portugal, and England, Sweden, and Holland allied themselves against an expanding France, Louis stopped the war and negotiated the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle on May 2, 1668, by whose terms France gained several fortresses and towns in the Spanish Netherlands and Spain regained possession of the Franche-Comté region.

See also DUTCH WAR, THIRD; GRAND ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE; SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1657–1668).

Further reading: Kenneth Harold Dobson Haley, *An English Diplomat in the Low Countries* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986).

Diadochi, Wars of the (323–275 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The successors of Alexander the Great; later, Celtic invaders vs. Macedonians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Macedonian Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At the death of Alexander, the Diadochi engaged in 40 years of war, murder, and intrigue to determine who would rule the vast Macedonian Empire; this was followed by a massive invasion of Celts.
OUTCOME: At the death of the last of the Diadochi, the Macedonian Empire was divided among three dynasties: the Ptolemies, the Seleucids, and the Antigonids.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

At the death of Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.) in 323 B.C.E., the highest-ranking leaders among his retinue vied for control of the vast Macedonian Empire. Known as the Diadochi, or "successors," the men included Perdiccas (d. 321), Alexander's prime minister named regent by the dying king; Antipater (d. 310), regent in Greece and Macedonia from 334 to 323; Eumenes, a staff secretary; Ptolemy I Soter (c. 364–c. 283) and Lysimachus (c. 355–281), Alexander's personal aides; Craterus (c. 370–321), Polyperchon (fl. c. 317–16), Antigonus (c. 382–301), and Cassander (358–297), infantry division commanders; and Demetrius (336–283), commander of a cavalry squadron. Although all of these men were well skilled in the arts of war, none had the administrative ability to manage the vast Macedonian Empire.

The first flare up of hostilities, the LAMIAN WAR, occurred in Greece, where Athens and many of the other cities rose in revolt in 322. Antipater and Craterus crushed the revolt at the Battle of Crannon, and the Macedonian navy annihilated the Athenian navy at Amorgos.

There followed a period of murder, intrigue, and bribery. Between 321 and 319 Perdiccas, Craterus, and Antipater died. Other Diadochi played roles in the deaths of Perdiccas and Craterus. Ptolemy bribed some of Perdiccas's troops to rise in mutiny against their leader and kill him; and Eumenes killed Craterus as he invaded Cappadocia. In 317 Antigonus and Eumenes faced off at the Battle of Paraetakena in Iran. This battle was indecisive, and the combatants engaged in another battle the following year. Eumenes was then killed by mutineers who had been bribed by Antigonus.

In 311 the surviving Diadochi arrived at a truce whereby Cassander was to serve as ruler of Macedonia until Alexander IV Aegeus (d. 311), the son of Roxana (d. 311) and Alexander the Great, came of age. According to the terms of the truce, Thrace and Chersonese went to Lysimachus; Egypt, Palestine, and Cyprus went to Ptolemy; Asia Minor and Greece went to Antigonus; and the huge territory east of the Euphrates River went to Seleucus I (c. 358–280). The truce did not last long. In 311 Cassander assassinated Roxana and Alexander IV, thereby ending the line of Alexander the Great.

The Battle of Salamis in Cyprus in 308 brought a decisive victory by Demetrius, the son of Antigonus, over Menelaeus, the brother of Ptolemy. The following year Demetrius built on this victory by invading Greece and Palestine. Capturing Athens and much of Greece, he moved against Palestine, but as he approached Egypt he was repelled by Ptolemy.

Demetrius then attacked Ptolemy's garrisons on the island of Rhodes in 305. After a two-year siege Demetrius was forced to withdraw to Greece.

In 301 Antigonus and Demetrius squared off against Seleucus and Lysimachus at the Battle of Ipsus. After Antigonus and some 22,000 of his Macedonian troops were killed in battle, Demetrius established a foothold in western Asia Minor. Cassander was then named king of Macedonia, but he died in 297.

In 294 Demetrius murdered the son of Cassander and seized the Macedonian throne, but his rule was short-lived. In 294, King Pyrrhus (319–272) of Epirus allied himself with Ptolemy and Lysimachus to drive Demetrius out of Macedonia. The deposed king fled to Asia Minor, and after his troops deserted him he surrendered to Seleucus.

Between 283 and 280 the struggles of the Diadochi ended as the few survivors died. Ptolomy died in 283, and Seleucus and Lysimachus went to war. At the Battle of Corus in 281, Seleucus killed Lysimachus in hand-to-hand combat and succeeded to the throne. In 280 Ptolemy Keraunos, the disinherited son of Ptolemy I Soter (c. 364–c. 283) (one of Alexander the Great's personal aides and the ruler of Egypt), murdered the king, thus ending the 40 years of struggle among Alexander's successors. By the time of Seleucus's death in 280. Alexander's vast empire was torn apart. The Seleucid dynasty controlled Syria, Mesopotamia, and Persia; the Ptolemies ruled Egypt and Asia Minor; and the Antigonids ruled Macedonia.

The following year, 279, the Diadochi were swamped by a wave of Celtic invaders. The army of Celts swept over Macedonia, Greece, Thrace, and Asia Minor. Establishing the kingdom of Galatia, the Celts faced Ptolemy Keraunos in battle. Ptolemy Keraunos was killed in the battle in 277. The son of Demetrius, Antigonus II Gonatus (c. 320–239), won back control of Macedonia and drove out the Celts in 276. The following year the Galatian-Celts were finally subdued by Antiochus I (c. 324–c. 261), the son of Seleucus.

Further reading: R. Malcolm Esrington, *A History of Macedonia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993); Janice J. Gabbert, *Antigonus II Gonatus* (London: Routledge, 1977); Graham Shipley, *The Greek World after Alexander, 323–30* B.C.E. (London: Routledge, 2000).

Diodotus's Revolt (255 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Diodotus vs. Antiochus II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bactria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence of Bactria from Syria
OUTCOME: Diodotus prevailed, and under his rule Bactria became independent from Syria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the death of Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.), Macedonian influence in the eastern provinces of the empire he had amassed rapidly declined. During 321–302 Seleucus (c. 358–280) reconquered much that had been lost to Alexander, and Syria once again came under Seleucid control. The Seleucid king of Syria, Antiochus II Theos (286–247), however, suffered rebellion led by the Seleucid satrap of Bactria, Diodotus I (fl. third century B.C.E.), in 255.

Diodotus successfully wrested Bactria from Antiochus's rule and established it as a kingdom independent from Syria. He then went on to expand his realm, conquering Sogdiana, then moving eastward toward the Indus and westward into Parthia.

Further reading: Frank Lee Holt, *Alexander the Great and Bactria: The Formation of a Greek Frontier in Central Asia* (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill Academic Books, 1993).

Dionysius War, First (398–397 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syracuse vs. Carthage
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dionysius the Elder wanted to rid Sicily of domination by Carthage.
OUTCOME: Carthage was forced to relinquish its outposts in eastern and central Sicily.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 398 B.C.E., Dionysius the Elder (c. 430–367 B.C.E.), tyrant of Syracuse, led 80,000 troops to sack Motya, a major stronghold of Carthage in Sicily. Under the leadership of Himilco (d. 396), the Carthaginians attacked the Syracusan fleet and laid siege to Syracuse. Dionysius, however, won support from the Spartans and utterly defeated the Carthaginians. Carthage then abandoned its outposts in eastern and central Sicily. Devastated by his loss to Dionysius, Himilco committed suicide in 396.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Criffen, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of Greece and the Hellenistic World* (New York: University Press, 1991); Alfred J. Church and Arthur Gilman, *The Story of Carthage* (Cheshire, Conn.: Biblo-Moser, 1998).

Dionysius War, Second (393–392 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syracuse vs. Carthage
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Carthage attempted to regain control of its outposts in Sicily relinquished to Syracuse after the First Dionysius War.
OUTCOME: Syracusan forces once again defeated the Carthaginians and forced them to relinquish more territory in Sicily.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the First Dionysius War in which Dionysius the Elder (c. 430–367 B.C.E.), tyrant of Syracuse, forced the Carthaginians to abandon their outposts in eastern and central Sicily, Carthage renewed war with the Syracusans in 393 but was no match for the overwhelming strength of Dionysius's forces. The tyrant forced Carthage to sign a treaty whereby Syracuse gained control of most of Sicily and the Carthaginian territories of Apulia and Calabria in southern Italy. Carthage was able to retain only a few small outposts in western Sicily, and 10 years of peace followed.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Criffen, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of Greece and the Hellenistic World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); Alfred J. Church and Arthur Gilman, *The Story of Carthage* (Cheshire, Conn.: Biblo-Moser, 1998).

Dionysius War, Third (382–376 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syracuse vs. Carthage
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dionysius sought to drive the Carthaginians out of their few remaining outposts in western Sicily.
OUTCOME: The Carthaginians defeated the Syracusans at Cronium and regained control of western Sicily.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the First and Second Dionysius Wars, in which the Syracusans defeated Carthage and gained control of most of Sicily, Dionysius the Elder (c. 430–367 B.C.E.) attacked the Carthaginians in western Sicily. Victory was not to be his in this engagement. The Carthaginians defeated him at Cronium near Palermo. Western Sicily once again became a Carthaginian territory, and the boundary between Syracusan and Carthaginian lands in Sicily was established at the Halycus, or Platani, River.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Criffen, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of Greece and the Hellenistic World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); Alfred J. Church and Arthur Gilman, *The Story of Carthage* (Cheshire, Conn.: Biblo-Moser, 1998).

Dionysius War, Fourth (368–367 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syracuse vs. Carthage
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dionysius sought to drive the Carthaginians out of the territories in western Sicily they had gained during the Third Dionysius War.
OUTCOME: The Carthaginians defeated the Syracusans during the blockade of Lilybaeum, or Marsala.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the First and Second Dionysius War, the Syracusans defeated Carthage and gained control of most of Sicily. The Third Dionysius War, however, brought defeat to the Syracusans, and Carthage once again gained much territory in central and western Sicily. In 368 B.C.E. Dionysius the Elder (c. 430–367), tyrant of Syracuse, attacked the Carthaginian outposts and blockaded Lilybaeum. He was killed during the blockade, however, and victory fell to the Carthaginians. Dionysius II (d. 344), who succeeded his father as leader of the Syracusans, halted the conflict between Syracuse and Carthage, and peace lasted until Timoleon's War in 344.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Criffen, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of Greece and the Hellenistic World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); Alfred J. Church and Arthur Gilman, *The Story of Carthage* (Cheshire, Conn.: Biblo-Moser, 1998).

Dipo Negoro's War

See JAVA WAR, GREAT.

Dominican Republic Civil War (1965–1966)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Socialist rebels vs. the rightist military junta
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dominican Republic
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Army dissidents aided by leftists sought to regain control of the Dominican Republic government.
OUTCOME: A centrist, Joaquin Balaguer, was elected president, and troops maintaining peace in the country were withdrawn.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the assassination of Dominican dictator Rafael Trujillo (1891–1961), his heirs and political followers tried but failed to hang on to power. After they were driven out, the country took a turn toward true democracy, and in 1963 the moderate reformist Democratic Revolutionary Party took power behind its leader, Juan Bosch (1909–2001), the first democratically elected president of the Dominican Republic. The country's military conservatives remained powerful, however, and army leaders deposed President Bosch after seven very unstable months on September 25, 1963, installing a civilian triumvirate. The following April army dissidents and leftists overthrew the triumvirate, and riots erupted in the capital city of Santo Domingo. Leaders of the navy and air force, aided by anti-Bosch army leaders, regained control of much of the capital and formed a junta to rule until free elections were held. Fighting between the leftists and rightists continued, and fearing a Cuba-style takeover, U.S. president Lyndon B. Johnson (1908–73) sent marines and paratroops to the country on April 28, 1965, to protect Americans and prevent a communist coup.

On May 5 a cease-fire was reached between the leftists led by Colonel Francisco Caamaño Deno and the junta led by Brigadier Antonio Imbert Barreras. The following day the Organization of American States (OAS) agreed to maintain a peacekeeping force made up of troops from Venezuela, Brazil, Guatemala, Costa Rica, Honduras, Paraguay, and the United States in the war-torn country. Hostilities broke out again when the military junta attacked rebel forces in Santo Domingo and drove them out of the city. By May 23 the United States began reducing its forces in the country as the OAS Inter-American Armed Force became operational. Toward the end of the summer of 1965, the OAS Peace Commission brokered an agreement between the rival factions to install a government under provisional president Hector García-Godoy. Peace was broken again by riots instigated by the leftists and a general strike in February 1966, but on June 3 elections were held. Centrist Joaquín Balaguer (1909–2002) was elected, and by the end of that month OAS forces began withdrawing from the country.

Further reading: Piero Gleijeses, *The Dominican Crisis: The 1965 Constitutional Revolution and American Intervention* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1978); Frank Moya Pons, *Dominican Republic: A National History* (Vienna: Wiener Publisher, 1998).

Dorian Invasions (1120–950 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dorians vs. Mycenaeans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Dorians sought domination over the Peloponnese.
OUTCOME: Through waves of invasions lasting about 170 years, the Dorians became the dominant culture on the Peloponnese.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Peloponnese bore witness to three major invasions in prehistory: the Mycenaeans who invaded in about 2000 B.C.E. and took the place of the Anatolian culture; the Achaeans who invaded between 1500 and 1400; and the Dorians. From their native lands in Epirus and southwestern Macedonia the Dorians came to present-day Greece in two waves, a minor one in about 1400 B.C.E. and a major one beginning in 1120 B.C.E., some 80 years after the TROJAN WAR. Entering the region by land or by sea, the Dorians forced residents east to the Aegean islands and to Asia Minor. By 950, the date by which the invasions were over, the Dorians had established colonies in Italy, Sicily, and Asia Minor. This group of people were known as Heraclids in Greek legend. Heracles' son Hyllus ruled the Hylleis, one of the three major tribes of the Dorians.

Further reading: Carl William Blegen, *The Mycenaean Age: The Trojan War, the Dorian Invasion, and Other Problems* (Cincinnati: University of Cincinnati, 1962).

Dorr's Rebellion (1842)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dorrites vs. the state of Rhode Island
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rhode Island
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A faction of Rhode Island citizens attempted to alter the state constitution to extend the franchise to all white males in the state.
OUTCOME: Rebellion was suppressed, Dorr imprisoned, and the state constitution ultimately changed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Well into the 19th century the state of Rhode Island was still using for its state constitution the original 1663 charter from the British Crown, that established the colony. Among other things, the charter restricted the franchise to white male landowners and their first-born sons. This provision kept more than half the adult male population disenfranchised. For years groups had been trying to have a new constitution drawn up or at least have the onerous provision changed.

One of the more vocal opponents of the provision was Thomas Wilson Dorr (1805–54), a Providence lawyer and member of the state legislature. Dorr organized the People's Party and called for a constitutional convention in October 1841. The People's Constitution was drawn up providing for white male suffrage regardless of property ownership.

This act caused the state legislature to take notice and call for a state convention to discuss the matter. In November delegates gathered in Providence to frame the Landholders' Constitution, which, although more expansive than before, stopped short of universal white male suffrage. Incensed, the People's Party took the People's Constitution to a vote in a statewide referendum in December, and it was ratified by an overwhelming margin. The state legislature submitted the Landholder's Constitution in March 1842, and it was narrowly defeated, meaning the government still operated under the 1663 charter.

Seeing no other recourse, the Dorrites set up a separate government under the People's Constitution with Dorr as governor. The legitimate governor, Samuel King, sensing violence, called upon President John Tyler (1790–1862) to send in federal troops. Tyler agreed to do so only if the confrontation turned violent and urged the two sides to reach a settlement peacefully. The Dorrites attempted to seize the state arsenal in Providence in the summer, and King called out the state militia, who defeated the Dorrites. The defeat quickly ended the revolt, and Dorr's government collapsed. Dorr was captured and sentenced to life in prison, but the sentence was later commuted to time served. In winter 1842 the state legislature finally submitted a constitution expanding the franchise to all white males.

Further reading: Joyce M. Botelho, *Right and Might: The Dorr Rebellion and the Struggle for Equal Rights* (Providence: Rhode Island Historical Society, 1992); Patrick T. Conley, *Dorr Rebellion: Rhode Island's Crisis in Constitutional Government* (Providence: Rhode Island Publications Society, 1976); George M. Dennison, *The Dorr War: Republicanism on Trial, 1831–1861* (Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1976); Marvin E. Gettleman, *The Dorr Rebellion: A Study in American Radicalism: 1833–1849* (Melbourne, Fla.: Krieger Publishing Company 1980).

Douglas Rebellion (1455)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: House of Douglas vs. forces of King James II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Attempts by the House of Douglas to control the Scottish Crown
OUTCOME: Eventually, Scotland's House of Douglas was destroyed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Resulting in the extinction of the House of Douglas and the subsequent strengthening of King James II (1430–60) of the House of Stuart, the Douglas Rebellion was the culmination of decades of Douglas family opposition to the Scottish Crown. Since the beginning of the 15th century, the House of Douglas made several haphazard attempts either to gain control of the Scottish throne outright or at least to manipulate it for its own ends. The latter was not always difficult because every Stuart king had ascended the throne as a minor. When James II ascended the throne at the age of seven in 1437, the fifth earl of Douglas (d. 1439) was named regent, establishing Douglas supremacy, but only for a while. The House of Stuart, wary of Douglas's continuing opposition to its rule and realizing that the struggle would end only with the ruin of one of the two houses, determined to take action against the Douglas forces.

With the fifth earl's death in 1439, Stuart supporters plotted the death of the primary Douglas descendants the following year. In fall 1440 William, the sixth earl of Douglas, and his brother David, the seventh earl, were invited to join the young king for dinner but instead were tried by a kangaroo court and quickly put to the scaffold. Much of the Douglas holdings were dispersed throughout the kingdom, and it appeared the Stuarts had sounded the Douglas death knell.

However, William (c. 1425–52), the eighth earl of Douglas, began to rebuild his family's fortunes. By his marriage with his cousin Margaret Douglas, the "Fair Maid of Galloway," he acquired Galloway and Wigtown. He acquired the estate of Bothwell from the king himself, with whom William at first stood in high favor. William, however, intent on revenge and power, aligned himself against the king with some of Scotland's most powerful nobles. These alliances and a stirring victory on the banks of the Sark River in 1448 revived the prestige of Douglas.

With the House of Douglas in order, William hoped to plot the downfall of the king. The king, however, hearing of William's alliances, had other plans. Not realizing that the king was aware of his alliances, William accepted an invitation to dine with the king in February 1452 at the king's castle in Stirling. Immediately James assailed William for his deviant diplomacy and demanded the entente be dissolved. William steadfastly refused, and James set upon him with a dagger. The earl lay dead. The House of Douglas demanded justice, but the confrontation quickly devolved into a challenge to royal authority in the courts. The royal magistrate sided with James in that an alliance against the Crown was a traitorous act and had to be dealt with by extreme measures.

William's brother James (1426–88), the ninth and last earl of Douglas, called on his brother's allies to move against the king's forces. The Douglas forces quickly seized Inverness and used it as a base of operations for its revolt. The king, however, had a substantial army and marched into the Douglas holdings in March 1455, laying waste to the territory and subjugating the residents. Two months later the king's forces intercepted the rebels and crushed them at the Battle of Arkenholm on May 12, 1455. James and his followers were driven into exile in England, ending the revolt. The king now claimed the Douglas lands for the Crown. With James's death in 1488, the House of Douglas was no more.

Further reading: W. Croft Dickinson, *Scotland from the Earliest Times to 1603,* 3rd rev. ed. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1977); Christine McGladdery, *James II* (Edinburgh: John Donald Publishers, 1990).

Dózsa's Rebellion (Hungarian Peasants' Revolt) (1514)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary's peasants vs. Hungarian lords and nobles
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Following an era in which Hungarian magistrates curtailed peasants' freedoms, the peasants, assembled in support of a Crusade that was cancelled, refused to disband and instead marched against their masters.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was suppressed, and the Hungarian Diet imposed even more restrictive laws on the peasant class.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Peasant forces, 100,000; nobles, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Under a weak King Vladislas II (fl. 1490–1516), the magistrates of Hungary laid on the peasant class a system of taxes and tithes that obliged them to deliver one-ninth of their produce to their lords. On April 16, 1515, when the cardinal Tamas Bakocz called for volunteers to join a Crusade against the Turks, some 100,000 discontented peasants answered the appeal. György Dózsa (1470–1514), who had distinguished himself for valor in wars against the Turks, was named the leader of the peasant army. When the Crusade was suspended on May 23, the peasants, without food or clothing, refused to disband and vowed not to reap their lords' fields at harvest time. They further announced their intention to overthrow the nobles and end the oppression of the lower classes.

The peasants attacked their lords as promised, destroying hundreds of manor houses and killing thousands of nobles. They attacked fortresses at Ards, Lippa, and Vilagos and laid seige to Temesvár. At Temesvár they were confronted by the lords' forces under the leadership of John Zapolya (1487–1540), governor of Transylvania and later king of Hungary. Zapolya's victory was thorough and brutal.

Dózsa was captured with his lieutenants, and on July 20 the peasants' leader was burned alive. By October the rebellion was thoroughly crushed, and the Hungarian Diet punished the peasants for their insurrection. The entire class of peasants were condemned to "real and perpetual servitude," bound permanently to their nobles' lands. The diet increased the number of days peasants had to work for their lords, raised peasant taxes paid to the state, and ordered them to pay for damages caused by the rebellion.

Further reading: Laszlo Kontler, *A History of Hungary: Millennium in Central Europe* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2002); Peter F. Sugar, Peter Harak, and Tiber Rank, eds., *A History of Hungary* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1990).

Drake's Caribbean Raids (1585–1586)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Drake's English fleet vs. Spanish colonists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Caribbean, a portion of the South American coast, and Florida
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: To harrass and extract treasure from colonial Spain
OUTCOME: The raids succeeded in their objectives.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Sir Francis Drake (c. 1540–96) had proven himself the greatest sailor in an age of great English men of the sea. He was knighted in 1580 for his daring raids on Spanish colonies and treasure ships as well as for his expeditions of exploration, which resulted in territorial acquisition. Not least of his many triumphs was his circumnavigation of the globe.

During 1585–86 Drake led an English fleet of 29 ships to attack Spanish colonies in the Caribbean, ordered by his queen, Elizabeth I (1553–1603), to wreak as much damage as he could on Spain's overseas empire. His bid to take the Spanish treasure fleet failed, but his brutal assault on Santo Domingo, Hispaniola, yielded a heavy ransom after Drake burned most of the settlement. From Santo Domingo Drake proceeded to the treasure city of Cartagena (in Colombia), which he sacked, extorting a heavy ransom from its inhabitants.

Having taken a good deal of valuable Spanish artillery and a great deal of money, Drake returned to England, stopping only to plunder the Florida coast and burn the city of St. Augustine. The effect of his triumphs in the West Indies were nothing short of cataclysmic for Spain. Not only did Spanish credit, morale, and war readiness suffer heavy blows, the losses nearly sank the Bank of Spain and the Bank of Venice, to whom Philip II (1527–98) was greatly in debt. The Augsburg Bank in Germany refused to extend Spain further credit. Two years later Drake would also play a major role in defeating the Spanish Armada (*see* ANGLO-SPANISH WAR [1586–1604]).

Further reading: K. R. Andrews, *Drake's Voyages: A Reassessment of Their Place in Elizabethan Maritime Expansion* (New York: Scribners, 1968); John Cummins, *Francis Drake: Lives of a Hero* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1997).

Druse-Ottoman Wars

See OTTOMAN-DRUSE WAR (1585); OTTOMAN-DRUSE WAR (1611–1613); OTTOMAN-DRUSE WAR (1631–1635).

Druse Rebellion (1925–1927)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Druse rebels and Syrian and Lebanese nationalists vs. French colonial governments in the Middle East
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria and southern Lebanon
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Druse, opposed to foreign control and angered by anti-Druse "tyranny" within Syria, launched a rebellion that spread to southern Lebanon.
OUTCOME: The French declared Lebanon a republic, and the Druse rebellion collapsed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 70,000; Druse forces, 3,000
CASUALTIES: Frances, 4,000 killed; Druse forces, 1,000 killed or wounded; 1,500 Syrian civilians killed
TREATIES: None

Born in Cairo nine centuries earlier, the small, close-knit, and mysterious religious sect known as the Druse (or Druze) had thrived despite the fact that they allowed no conversions to their religion, no lapses from it, and no intermarriage with those of other faiths. Based in Islam, Druse beliefs were as eclectic as they were closely guarded, involving a mixture of Jewish, Christian, Gnostic, and Neoplatonic teachings in a doctrine of fervent monotheism that gave the Druse a clear identity and made them fiercely loyal to one another. Throughout their turbulent history they had at times played politically crucial roles in the Middle East, as they would in 1925.

Those Druse living in Syria at the time were chafing under the French mandate by which the country was governed, essentially because the French colonials made no effort to restrain their puppet governor's tyrannical treatment of them. When they made attempts to approach the French high commissioner, General Maurice Sarrail, with their grievances he pointedly ignored them, perhaps because they made no secret of their opposition to foreign control of Syria as well. On July 18, 1925, they launched a rebellion under Sultan al-Atrash (fl. 1914–27) and soon controlled most of the countryside. Syrian nationalists joined the Druse, and together they forced the French to withdraw from Damascus on October 14. On October 18 the French launched a two-day bombardment of the city with tanks and airplanes that took the lives of 500 civilians, but the rebels held.

Over the course of the following year the rebellion spread into southern Lebanon, also under French control, and on July 18, 1926, the French were back in Damascus. French forces gathered in fortified encampments outside the city and launched a 48-hour artillery and aerial bombing attack that again inflicted great damage and loss of life (including 1,000 Syrian civilians) but again failed to crush the rebellion. The fighting dragged on for another year. On May 23, 1927, the French declared Lebanon a republic, and the following month the Druse rebellion collapsed. Despite an amazing display of bravery that saw Druse horsemen charge French tanks, the tribesmen were subdued, and Druse leaders fled to Transjordan as French

military officers, impressed by Druse bravery, tried to ensure conditions of harmony.

Further reading: Robert Brenton Betts, *The Druze* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1988).

Druse Rebellions (1600–1635)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Druse rebels vs. Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lebanon and Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Druse under Fakhr-al-Din II first revolted against the Ottoman vassal government of Tripoli and won back their rule over the Lebanon area; then they plotted with Europe's Christian powers to take back the Holy Land from the Turks; and finally they continued their expansions by conquering most of Syria.
OUTCOME: The Ottomans at length captured and executed Fakhr, ending Druse influence in the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: At the end of the first rebellion in 1607, the Ottomans and Druse agreed to a vassalage-tribute relationship; in the two renewed rebellions, from 1610–13 and 1631–35, there were no treaties.

In 1017 in Cairo a relatively small, tight-knit and mysterious religious sect appeared led by Hamzah ibn Ali (985–1021). The members called themselves *muwahhidun* ("monotheists") but were generally known as the Druse (or Druze), which was derived from the name of Hamzah's subordinate, Muhammid ad-Darazai. Based on Ismali teachings, Druse religious beliefs combine elements of Jewish, Christian, Gnostic, and Neoplatonic traditions in a doctrine of fierce monotheism that makes for remarkable group cohesion and amazing loyalty among the sect's members. Because the Druse permit no conversion, either away from or into their religion, and forbid intermarriage, perhaps only their strong sense of identity explains how they have managed to survive for nearly 1,000 years of turbulent and occasionally politically significant history. One of those points at which the Druse became just so significant was in the various Druse Rebellions of the 17th century.

During that period the Ottoman Empire continued its slow decline, the military strength on which it relied deteriorating rapidly as its army of Janissaries—originally slaves of the sultan, now a privileged social class recruited from the Muslim population—grew ever more lax and unruly. Before 1600 in present-day Lebanon, power rested with the Yamani party, traditionally headed by the ruler of Tripoli. But Fakhr-al-Din II (1572–1635), prince of the Druse, wished to change that and return power to his family. Toward that end the Druse prince cultivated friendships among *both* Sunnis and Shi'ites, seeking their support for his Kaysis party against the Yamanis, even as he built up his own private army. He also realized he could ill afford discord among the Christian sects and thus became the first to unite the Druse and Marionite districts of Beirut. By 1600 the Sublime Porte (Ottoman government) along with the Yamanis had become alarmed by Fakhr's ambitions, especially after he had taken control of Sidon and Beirut on the coast. Then the Druse leader joined in a revolutionary alliance with Janbulad, the Kurdish governor of Klis.

When Janbulad was defeated by the Ottomans, he fled to Fakhr in Lebanon, where fighting had begun between Fakhr's Kaysis party and the Yamanis. The Porte vacillated, favoring first one party and then the other, until Fakhr's victories began to mount and the Ottomans decided to back the probable winner. Despite Janbulad, the Turks threw in with Fakhr, who triumphed over the Yamanis in 1607. Ensconced in his mountain kingdom, Fakhr made a temporary truce with the Porte, and to prevent Ottoman interference in his emirate he regularly sent ambassadors and bribes to Constantinople (Istanbul).

In 1610 Fakhr renewed his revolt, this time plotting with European Christian princes, including the pope and the leaders of the Holy Roman Empire, Spain, and Tuscany, to help them recover the Holy Land. He had seized Baalbek and was threatening Damascus before the Ottoman Turks, launching a combined land and sea invasion, overthrew him and forced him to flee to Italy in 1613. A year later he was back, once again fomenting rebellion. When the Ottomans went to war with Persia in 1623 (*see* TURKO-PERSIAN WAR [1623–1638]), opportunity knocked for the inveterate insurgent.

During the Persian war Fakhr gained control of much of Syria, and in 1631 he defeated a Turkish army attempting to go to winter quarters in Syria between Persian campaigns. In 1633 the Turks again mounted a land and sea invasion, and at a decisive battle just north of Damascus Fakhr's son was defeated and killed. The Druse leader once again took refuge in the mountains, but two years later the Turks captured him, took him back to Constantinople, and beheaded him on April 3, 1635.

See also OTTOMAN-DRUSE WAR (1585); OTTOMAN-DRUSE WAR (1611–1613); OTTOMAN-DRUSE WAR (1631–1635).

Further reading: Patrick Balfour, Baron Kinross, *The Ottoman Centuries: The Rise and Fall of the Turkish Empire* (London: Cape, 1977); Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizons: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Picador USA, 2002); Stanford Jay Shaw, *History of the Ottoman Empire and Modern Turkey: Volume 1, Empire of the Gazis: The Rise and Decline of the Ottoman Empire 1280–1808* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1983).

Dummer's War *See* Abenaki War, Third.

Dutch Civil War (1785–1787)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Patriot Party vs. forces of William V
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Netherlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Wealthy Dutch citizens wished to align their country with France; the Dutch monarch did not.
OUTCOME: Although the rebellion was suppressed, seven years later Patriot reforms were embodied in the new Batavian Republic.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Essentially a revolt of the urban upper class, the Dutch Civil War failed because it did not appeal to either the urban lower classes or to the rural populations in the outlying areas. In light of the Dutch Republic's defeat at the hands of the British in 1784, the Patriot Party was formed to promulgate the best interests of the republic, essentially a "Dutch for the Dutch" movement. Members thought the best opportunity to resolidify Dutch influence was by aligning the republic with Britain's traditional rival, France. Stadholder William V (1748–1806) was adamantly opposed to such an alliance, and in fact, if any alliance were proffered, he would have liked to see it made with Germany.

The Patriot Party gained a footing in the States General in 1785, and when William continued to refuse a Dutch-French alliance, the urban elite who supported the Patriot Party revolted. William attempted to fight the rebels, but he soon lost control of the States General and had few resources available as a result. Fortunately for William, while he was unable immediately to suppress the rebels or gain any satisfaction from the States General, the insurgency did not spread.

In 1787 William made an alliance with Emperor Joseph II (1741–90) of Austria, and Prussian troops were sent in to defeat the rebels that same year. With the Patriots defeated, the republic, led by William, became increasingly hostile to France. In 1793, however, the French invaded, conquering the Dutch Republic, renaming it the Batavian Republic, and forcing William to flee.

Further reading: Jonathan Israel, *The Dutch Republic: Its Rise, Greatness, and Fall, 1477–1806* (Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 1995); Charles Wilson, *Dutch Republic* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1968).

Dutch-Indian Wars *See* Esopus War; Peach War.

Dutch Invasion of Belgium (1831)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Netherlands vs. Belgium
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Belgium
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Netherlands sought to retain control over Belgium, which had been unified with the Netherlands in 1815.
OUTCOME: Belgium gained its independence from the United Kingdom of the Netherlands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Forces of William I, 50,000; other combatants, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

On August 24, 1815, the United Kingdom of the Netherlands was established, and the Netherlands and Belgium were joined under one ruler, William I (1772–1843). The peace lasted only 15 years. On August 25, 1830, the Belgians rose against William I in Brussels, and fighting broke out between civilians and Dutch troops. On October 4, 1830, Belgium declared its independence from the Netherlands, and throughout the course of that month, the Dutch took up a position in the citadel of Antwerp and began a bombardment of the city. By November 4 an armistice was declared, and on December 20, 1830, the United Kingdom was dissolved. On August 2, 1831, 50,000 Dutch troops under William I invaded Belgium, but the French came to the aid of the Belgians. Troops under Etienne Maurice Gérard pushed the Dutch troops back, and by December of the following year they had forced the Dutch, led by David Hendryk Chassé at the Antwerp citadel, to surrender. The Dutch at last recognized Belgium's independence on April 19, 1839.

Further reading: Iso Schöffer, *A Short History of the Netherlands,* 2nd rev. ed. (New York: De Lange, 1973); Els Witte, Jan Craeybeckx, and Alain Meynen, *Political History of Belgium from 1830 Onwards* (Brussels: VU Boekhandel/Uitgeverij bv, 2001).

Dutch-Portuguese Brazilian War *See* Sugar War.

Dutch-Portuguese Wars in West Africa (c. 1620–1655)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dutch traders vs. Portuguese traders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): West coast of Africa (with some action in Brazil)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Supremacy of trade

OUTCOME: The Dutch broke the Portuguese trade monopoly in West Africa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Portuguese seafarers and traders established outposts along the western coast of Africa in search of gold, ivory, and slaves. Through much of the 15th and 16th centuries the Portuguese enjoyed a virtual monopoly on west coast trade, especially in slaves. By the early 17th century, however, Portugal was challenged by the Dutch, who built forts at Mouri, Gorée Island, and Rifisque. Frequently, Dutch and Portuguese traders came to blows, attacking one another at sea as well as on land.

During the period 1637–42 Dutch forces attacked the Portuguese fortifications at Elmina and Axim (on the coast of Ghana), the port of Luanda (in Angola), and even São Tomé and parts of Brazil. For their part, the Portuguese fought back effectively, managing to regain control along the Bakongo coast and in Guinea. They did not recover portions of Ghana and the Gold Coast, and they never restored their previous monopoly.

Further reading: C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415–1825* (New York: Knopf, 1969); James Duffy, *Portuguese Africa* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1968).

Dutch War, First (1652–1654)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Holland vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The English Channel and North Sea
DECLARATION: England on Holland, July 1652
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England wished to maintain superiority on the seas and in maritime trade.
OUTCOME: England defeated Holland in this war and forced Holland to abide by the Navigation Act of 1651.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: English: 118 warships (at Gabbard); Dutch: 116 (at Schvenigen)
CASUALTIES: In major sea battles: Dutch, 3,000 killed, 4,500 wounded, 2,000 captured; English figures, much lower: 2,000 killed and wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Westminster, 1654

This conflict, essentially a naval war, was caused by competition between England and Holland over maritime trade. The war began in the English Channel near Dover on May 19, 1652, when Admiral Robert Blake's (1599–1657) fleet of 20 ships engaged a Dutch fleet under Maarten Tromp (1597–1653) after the Dutch refused to allow Blake to search a Dutch East Indies convoy. The English claimed the right to conduct such searches due to the Navigation Act of 1651, which had decreed that imports were to be handled by English ships with predominantly English crews. After war was officially declared in July 1652, several naval engagements were fought. At the Battle of Kentish Knock on September 28, 1652, Blake's fleet of 60 ships defeated the Dutch under Cornelius Witte de Witt. On November 30 at the Battle of Dungeness, Maarten Tromp led a fleet of 80 ships to victory off England's southern coast. The following year battles occurred off Portland, at Beachy Head, and at Gabbard Bank. From June to July 1653 the English blockaded the Netherlands. To escape the blockade Maarten Tromp engaged the English admiral George Monck (1608–70) in a diversionary action and slipped away on July 25. The final engagement of the war was on July 31, 1653, at the Battle of Scheveningen. The Dutch fleet of 116 ships attempted to break through the blockade, but the English fleet of a similar number of ships was victorious in the 12-hour battle. Losses for the Dutch included Maarten Tromp, 1,600 sailors, and 30 men-of-war. After this last engagement there were no further significant battles, and the Dutch sued for peace. Peace was reached on April 5, 1654, with the signing of the Treaty of Westminster, by whose terms Holland agreed to indemnify English merchants who had been harmed and to respect the Navigation Act of 1651. Of particular note in this war was the issuance of English fighting instructions, which called for line-ahead formation of the ships in the fleet to make use of the broadside maneuver. It was a naval first.

See also Dutch War, Second; Dutch War, Third.

Further reading: Pieter Geyle, *The Netherlands in the Seventeenth Century* (London: E. Benn, 1961); Jan Glete, *War and the State in Early Modern Europe: Spain, the Dutch Republic and Sweden as Fiscal-Military States, 1500–1660* (London: Routledge, 2001); Paul Sonnino, *Louis XIV and the Origins of the Dutch War* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2003).

Dutch War, Second (1665–1667)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Holland vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): African coast, West Indies, England, the Netherlands, and Denmark
DECLARATION: English attacks on West African ports in 1663
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England and Holland competed for trade supremacy.
OUTCOME: Through the Treaty of Breda, England gained possession of New York, and the maritime laws were altered slightly in favor of the Dutch.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In the major sea battles: English, 22,000 sailors; Dutch, 22,000 sailors
CASUALTIES: In major sea battles: English, 3,200 killed or wounded, 2,000 captured; Dutch, 14,500 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Breda, July 21, 1667

Trade competition between the English and Dutch fostered this maritime war. In 1663 the English attacked the West African ports that were integral parts of the Dutch slave trade and the following year seized New Netherlands (New York). In May 1665 the Dutch recaptured the African ports and attacked Barbados. After a declaration of war, at the Battle of Lowestoft Lord Jacob van Wassenaar Opdam (d. 1665) led a fleet of 100 Dutch ships to seize English supply vessels en route from Hamburg. English prince James (later King James II) (1633–1701), Prince Rupert (1619–82), Earl Edward Montagu of Sandwich (1625–72), and Sir William Penn (1621–70) rushed to the area with a fleet of 150 ships and defeated Opdam, who died in the bloody battle. Opdam, Dutch admiral Eghert Meussen Kortenaer (1604–65) and English admiral John Lawson (d. 1665) were killed. The Dutch fleet (after losing 30 ships) slipped away under the cover of Cornelis Tromp (1629–91). Because of James's decision to refrain from pursuing the fleeing Dutch fleet, he was removed from command, and the earl of Sandwich succeeded him. In August 1665 at the Battle of Bergen, Sandwich was repulsed by Danish shoreline defenses after he had pursued a Dutch merchant convoy from the Indies into Bergen harbor. England then declared war on Denmark. France entered the war in January 1666, and about six months later, from June 1–6, Monck and Michiel de Ruyter (1607–76) were engaged in the Four Days' Battle. Monck sent Prince Rupert's squadron of 25 ships out to intercept a French force that was due to arrive soon from the Mediterranean. De Ruyter's 80 ships sailed to meet Prince Rupert. The English attacked off the North Foreland on June 1, but Dutch reinforcements arrived and Monck began to withdraw on June 2. The two forces engaged each other in a tremendous battle in which 20 English ships were lost. On June 4 Monck and Prince Rupert withdrew to the Thames, which de Ruyter quickly blockaded. On July 25, 1666, Monck broke through the blockade and defeated de Ruyter. Monck then sailed to the coast of the Netherlands, attacked Vlie Channel, and destroyed 160 Dutch vessels anchored there.

Over the course of the next 10 months, the Dutch and the English, both worn down from constant warring and from the disastrous effects of the Great Plague, began peace negotiations. This ended abruptly when de Ruyter in June 1667 led a Dutch fleet up the Thames and destroyed 16 English ships at Chatham. Again mindful of the need to end the expensive war, the parties negotiated the Treaty of Breda, signed on July 21, 1667. The terms of this treaty modified trade laws in favor of the Dutch and gave possession of New Amsterdam to the English. In addition, France received Acadia (in Nova Scotia) from England, and England received some islands in the West Indies from France. Despite this treaty, the English, Swedish, and Dutch began to fear the French aspirations of expansion in the Spanish Netherlands, and they entered into the Triple Alliance to prevent such an occurrence. Charles II (1630–85) then reversed the English policy by signing the Treaty of Dover with Louis XIV (1638–1715). By this treaty the English would provide naval support to France during its operations against the Netherlands in return for an annual pension to Charles.

See also DUTCH WAR, FIRST; DUTCH WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Pieter Geyle, *The Netherlands in the Seventeenth Century* (London: E. Benn, 1961); Jan Glete, *War and the State in Early Modern Europe: Spain, the Dutch Republic and Sweden as Fiscal-Military States, 1500–1660* (London: Routledge, 2001); Paul Sonnino, *Louis XIV and the Origins of the Dutch War* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2003).

Dutch War, Third (1672–1678)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France and England vs. Holland, Spain, Germany, Denmark, and Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Europe
DECLARATION: March 1672
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King Louis XIV wanted to expand France's territory.
OUTCOME: France continued its expansion throughout Europe.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At sea: French and English, 33,000+; Dutch, 21,000; Danes, 6,500; Swedes, 9,000. On land: Dutch/Allies, 200,000; French, 130,000
CASUALTIES: Major battles at sea: Dutch, 2,700 killed and wounded; Danes, 350 killed and wounded; Sweden, 1,500 killed and wounded; English, 950 killed, 1,100 wounded; French, 800 killed and wounded. Major battles on land: Dutch/Allies, 21,000 killed and wounded; French, 11,000 killed and wounded
TREATIES: Treaties of Nijmegen (August 10 and September 17, 1678) and the Treaty of St. Germain (June 29, 1679)

At the end of the Second DUTCH WAR, Louis XIV (1638–1715) of France was plotting to secure control of the Belgian Netherlands, but the Triple Alliance formed by England, Sweden, and Holland barred him from this

region. Undaunted, Louis bribed Swedish officials to secure Sweden's withdrawal from the alliance and offered an annual pension to Charles II (1630–85) of England if he would help the French gain the desired territory. In 1672 the French king attacked Holland, and England joined the fray. Holland's navy, under Michiel de Ruyter (1607–76), held the English and French fleets back while the Dutch opened the dikes, by causing massive flooding and saving Amsterdam from French invasion forces under Henri L. d'A. Rochefort. Meanwhile, the war was becoming increasingly unpopular in England, and the English navy failed at attempts to blockade and invade Holland.

The English withdrew from the war in 1674 at the urging of Parliament and turned against France. Holland, Spain, and Germany formed coalition armies and attempted to invade France, and in January 1674 Denmark joined the coalition. French troops defeated a Spanish army in Sicily in 1674, and from May to June of 1674 Louis recovered control of the Franche-Comté. The French were successful against the Dutch allied forces at the Battle of Seneffe in 1674 and against the Germans in the Rhineland, particularly at the Battles of Sinzheim (June 16, 1674), Enzhein (October 4, 1674), and Turckheim (January 5, 1675). In 1678, having overrun much of Holland and fearing a reentry of England into the war, Louis decided to negotiate for peace. On August 10, 1678, the Netherlands signed the Treaty of Nijmegen, pledging its neutrality in return for the restoration of its territories lost in the war. Spain signed another Treaty of Nijmegen on September 17, 1678, which stipulated that Spain would regain control of Charleroi, Binche, Oudenarde, Ath, Courtrai, Limburg, and Ghent, whereas France would rule Franche-Comté and other areas. The Treaty of St. Germain with Brandenburg called for the elector to surrender nearly all the territory he had conquered in Pomerania to Sweden. Louis XIV, pressing his advantage, then set up courts, called "chambers of reunion," to determine which dependencies were actually part of all the various towns and territories France had received according to the terms of the treaties. This process resulted in France's control of Strasbourg, the occupation of Luxembourg and Trier, and the permanent annexation of Lorraine.

See also DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1675–79); DEVOLUTION, WAR OF; GRAND ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE.

Further reading: Pieter Geyle, *The Netherlands in the Seventeenth Century* (London: E. Benn, 1961); Jan Glete, *War and the State in Early Modern Europe: Spain, the Dutch Republic and Sweden as Fiscal-Military States, 1500–1660* (London: Routledge, 2001); Paul Sonnino, *Louis XIV and the Origins of the Dutch War* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 2003).

Dutch War in Brazil

See SUGAR WAR.

Dutch War of Independence

See EIGHTY YEARS' WAR.

E

Easter Uprising (1916)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Irish nationalists vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dublin
DECLARATION: Patrick Pearse's declaration of independence, April 24, 1916
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: On Easter Sunday 1916 a handful of Irish nationalists staged a not very popular revolt in Dublin that the British responded to with a massive show of force.
OUTCOME: The British commander quashed the Easter Rebellion and, by summarily executing the participants, made it into a rallying point for Ireland's resistance to England's 300-year-old colonial occupation, provoking a crisis that lasted most of the 20th century.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 1,760 Irish rebels; 20,000 British troops
CASUALTIES: A total of 450 dead, mostly British, and 2,614 wounded
TREATIES: None

The so-called Irish Question rose to a boil when Britain's Liberal Party achieved a great electoral victory in 1906 and came to parliament under the leadership of H. H. Asquith (1852–1928). Throughout the previous century the issue of Irish Home Rule time and again divided the Liberal governments headed by William Gladstone (1809–98). Twice a bill was introduced; twice it was defeated; twice it cost the Liberals an election. In 1906 it surfaced yet again when Liberal David Lloyd-George (1863–1945) offered to withdraw his radical budget, which was provoking a showdown with the House of Lords, if Asquith would support a third Home Rule bill. When the 1911 Parliament Act reduced the power of the lords, it seemed as if Home Rule might indeed finally pass. That possibility led Irish Protestants to react by insisting that the Ulster provinces be excluded. Hot-blooded Irish Unionists formed the Ulster Volunteer Force to ensure that the Protestant north remained in the union by any means necessary.

Back in Ireland nationalist revolutionaries gained sympathy and support from those alienated by the pro-British Unionists' attitude. By the end of 1914 the Fenians of the Irish Republican Brotherhood (IRB), which in time would become the Irish Republican Army (IRA), had completed their plans for revolution. Sir Roger Casement (1864–1916) went to Germany seeking aid, but he managed to obtain only a few obsolete arms. His arrest on his return to Ireland in April 21, 1916, scuttled the nationwide uprising the IRB had scheduled, yet a handful of the faithful went ahead with the plan to seize Dublin three days after Casement's arrest.

That Easter Sunday (April 24, 1916) was quiet in Dublin. Because it was a holiday, many Dubliners were off at the races. With a 1,560-man contingent of Irish Volunteers and 200 more from the Irish Citizen Army, rebel leaders Patrick Pearse (1879–1916) and James Connolly (1870–1916) marched into town. Only a few curious passersby looked on with amazement as the rebels stormed the largely deserted General Post Office, and Pearse declaimed from the front steps: "Irishmen and Irishwomen: In the name of God and the dead generations from which she receives her old tradition of nationhood, Ireland, through us, summons her children to her flag and strikes for her freedom." In short, Ireland had just declared its independence from Great Britain.

The Easter Uprising lasted scarcely a week. Bitter fighting continued for five days, and although the Irish

made advances initially, reinforcements arrived and the British, within a week, had a force of more than 20,000 men. By Thursday the British army had captured strong positions in the city and shelled the post office. On Saturday, April 29, with more than 450 dead and 2,614 wounded, Pearce surrendered. The British commander, however, would accept no deals—only unconditional surrender from the Irish nationalists. Pearse, in order to avoid further slaughter of Dubliners, agreed. What little initial support there had been for the doomed revolt had by then evaporated, and Dubliners jeered as rebels were led off in chains. That was when, having quashed the rebellion, General Sir John Maxwell (1859–1929), commander of the British troops, made his big mistake. He summarily ordered the execution of 15 insurrectionists and ran to ground members of the tiny Sinn Féin, the nationalist organization he presumed was behind the uprising. By May 12 more than 2,000 "rebels" had been imprisoned, and many IRB leaders, including Pearse (May 3) and Connolly (May 12), had been executed.

It mattered less that Maxwell was wrong about Sinn Féin than that he was harsh. His brutality inspired a new patriotism, and Irish citizens joined Sinn Féin in droves, transforming it into Ireland's most powerful organization as the slain rebels became martyrs to the cause. In the wake of the uprising, a surviving IRB leader—Eamon de Valera (1882–1975)—came to prominence and demanded a republican government. A provisional government was set up, an Irish court system was established, and the IRA was organized to resist British administration and secure official recognition for the republic. THE ANGLO-IRISH CIVIL WAR was under way.

Further reading: Conor Cruise O'Brien, ed., *The Shaping of Modern Ireland* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1960); Dorothy Macardle, *The Irish Republic: A Documented Chronicle of the Anglo-Irish Conflict and the Partitioning of Ireland with a Detailed Account of the Period 1916–1923* (Dublin: Wolfhound Press, 1937); F. X. Martin, ed., *Leaders and Men of the Easter Rising* (London: Methuen, 1967); Carl Reeve, *James Connolly and the United States* (Atlantic Highlands, N.J.: Humanities Press, 1978).

Eastern Empire–Vandal War

See ROMAN WAR WITH THE VANDALS.

Ecuadoran Civil War (1830–1834)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Liberal rebels vs. conservative government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ecuador
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The liberals sought to overthrow the conservative government of General Juan José Flores in the newly independent Ecuador.
OUTCOME: Flores captured the liberal leader, Vicente Rocafuerte, then worked out a power-sharing arrangement with him.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Political deal between the two opposing leaders, 1834

In early fall 1830 Ecuador declared its independence from Greater Colombia and became a republic under the presidency of General Juan José Flores (1800–64). Flores was a Venezuelan who had been part of the army of liberation under Simón Bolívar (1783–1830). He now ruled as anything but a democrat, however, assuming dictatorial powers under the repressive constitution of 1830. He maintained his grip on the country with military force using an army composed mostly of foreigners.

Flores's capital was in Quito, a mountain town with a reactionary population isolated from the more dynamic liberalism of the coast. As conservative sentiment hardened at Quito, a liberal movement crystallized in the seaport city of Guayaquil. From 1830 to 1834 low-level armed confrontations between liberal and conservative forces were frequent. At last, in 1834 Vicente Rocafuerte (1783–1847) led a major liberal rebellion in a campaign that sought to sweep foreigners, especially Flores's foreign troops, out of Ecuador. Flores prevailed, however, and captured Rocafuerte. Realizing that to kill Rocafuerte would only intensify the liberal rebellion by creating a martyr to the cause, Flores, remarkably, struck a deal with the imprisoned rebel. The two decided to alternate in the presidency. In 1835 Rocafuerte began his term, with Flores serving as commander in chief of the army.

See also COLOMBIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Frank MacDonald Spindler, *Nineteenth Century Ecuador: A Historical Introduction* (Fairfax, Va.: George Mason University Press, 1987).

Ecuadoran-Colombian War (1863)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ecuador vs. New Granada (Colombia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ecuadoran–New Granadan border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ultimately at issue was the position of the border between the two nations.
OUTCOME: The New Granadan forces soundly defeated the Ecuadorans, who sued for peace, concluding a treaty that resolved the border dispute.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the culminating Battle of Cuaspad, Ecuador fielded 6,000 troops against 4,000 New Granadans.

CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Cuaspad, Ecuadoran losses were 1,500 killed and wounded, 2,000 captured; New Granadan losses were slight.
TREATIES: Treaty of 1863 ending the war and resolving the underlying boundary dispute

The border between Ecuador and New Granada (Colombia) was long in dispute. New Granada saw an opportunity to gain ground after 1861, when Gabriel García Moreno (1821–75) became Ecuadoran president. In an effort to bring unity and stability to the country, the new president embraced the Catholic Church, effectively investing it with much governmental authority. His reasoning was that the church was the closest approach available to a common denominator among the people of Ecuador and was therefore most likely to bring a rapid sense of unity. In fact, García Moreno's embrace of the church incited much popular opposition, and the liberal president of New Granada, Tomás Cipriano de Mosquera (1798–1878), sent military support to the Ecuadoran rebels in the hope of precipitating a coup, which would ultimately benefit New Granada.

To meet what amounted to an invasion, García Moreno dispatched a 6,000-man army under General Juan José Flores (1800–64) in a counterinvasion of New Granada. These troops were met by about 4,000 New Granadans at the Battle of Cuaspad on December 6, 1863, the only important battle of the brief war. The New Granadan army was personally led by President Mosquera, and it crushed the invaders. Losses to the Ecuadoran troops were at least 1,500 killed and wounded and 2,000 taken prisoner. In contrast, barely 300 Colombians died for their victory. Ecuador immediately sued for peace, and a treaty was drawn up to end the war and resolve the border dispute.

Further reading: David Bushnell, *Making of Modern Colombia: A Nation in Spite of Itself* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Jesus Maria Henao and Gerardo Arrubla, *History of Colombia* (Port Washington, N.Y.: Kennikat Press, 1972); Frank MacDonald Spindler, *Nineteenth Century Ecuador: A Historical Introduction* (Fairfax, Va.: George Mason University Press, 1987).

Ecuadoran War of Independence *See* COLOMBIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Edward the Black Prince, Raids of (1355–1356)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Languedoc region of France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The raids were an English attempt to bring about a rapid conclusion to the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.
OUTCOME: The raids were highly destructive and culminated in the great Battle of Poitiers.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: England, 8,000; throughout the raids the English faced inferior forces, only to meet 80,000 French troops at Poitiers.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This episode may be considered a phase of the Hundred Years' War. In 1355, having concluded a truce with France, Edward III (1312–77), king of England, sought definitive peace by proposing that France cede Aquitaine to England. France's king, John II (1319–64), rejected this proposal, an action that incited Edward III and, later, his son, Edward the Black Prince (1330–76), to lead a lightning invasion of France in the hope of forcing a quick resolution to the interminable conflict between France and England. The Black Prince was so-called because of his penchant for black armor. One of the original Knights of the Garter, he was sent to France with independent command when Edward III had to return to England to cope with an uprising in Scotland. The Black Prince led his 8,000 troops on a series of highly destructive raids in the Languedoc region. In 1356 he advanced up the Loire River, where he was confronted at Poitiers by 80,000 French troops under John II in what would be one of the great battles of the Hundred Years' War.

Further reading: Richard Barber, *Edward, Prince of Wales and Aquitaine* (London: Allen Lane, 1978); Richard Barber, *The Life and Campaigns of the Black Prince* (London: Boydell and Brewer, 1997).

Egyptian Revolt (273)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Egypt
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The pretender Firmus sought to capture the Egyptian throne.
OUTCOME: Roman emperor Aurelian quickly put down Firmus's revolt and executed him.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Late in the third century Syria, Egypt, Mesopotamia, and most of Asia Minor were ruled by the widow of Odaenathus (d. c. 267), Queen Zenobia (d. after 274). The Roman general Lucius Domitius Aurelianus (c. 212–275), who was proclaimed Emperor Aurelian of Rome, defeated Zenobia and her general, Zobdas, at the Battle of Immae in

271. Zenobia fled to Palmyra, her desert seat, and was there besieged by Aurelian. Zenobia surrendered in 272, and Aurelian granted her control of Palmyra and environs. No sooner did Aurelian and his army depart, however, than Zenobia declared her independence from Rome. Aurelian quickly returned to Palmyra, reestablished the siege, and stormed the city. Sacking the capital, he captured Zenobia and took her in chains back to Rome, where she was paraded in 274.

In the meantime, during the second siege of Palmyra, a pretender to Zenobia's Egyptian throne, Firmus, exploited the Roman siege and the queen's internal exile by proclaiming himself emperor of Egypt. He found ready followers, and a revolt developed. Aurelian took a force from siege duty in a march to the Nile valley, where he quickly extinguished the claims of the pretender and his adherents. Firmus was captured and summarily executed.

Further reading: Richard Alston, *Soldier and Society in Roman Egypt: A Social History* (London and New York, Routledge, 1995); Nephtali Lewis, *Life in Egypt under Roman Rule* (Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 1983).

Egyptian War against the Wahabis

See WAHABI WAR.

Eight Saints, War of the (1375–1378)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Florence (and a coalition of Italian city-states, paramountly Milan) vs. the Papal States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Florence and surrounding region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pope Gregory XI wanted to return the papal seat from Avignon, France, to Rome; he was compelled first to overcome an antipapal rebellion led by Florence.
OUTCOME: The papal forces crushed the rebellion, and Gregory XI restored the Holy See to Rome. Under a treaty with Florence the papacy rescinded Florentine excommunication in return for an indemnity payment.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Tivoli (July 1378)

This war between Florence (and a coalition of Italian city-states) and the papacy was incited by Pope Gregory XI's (1330–78) proposal to move the seat of the papacy from Avignon, France, back to Rome after almost 70 years of exile in the so-called Babylonian Captivity. Florence led an Italian revolt against the pope beginning in 1375, which moved Gregory to excommunicate all Florentines in 1376. In response Florence struck an alliance with Milan. The two powers conducted a war against the papacy. The Florentine high command consisted of an eight-member council known as the Otto di Guerra, nicknamed the "Eight Saints."

Cardinal Robert de Geneva (d. 1394) led a papal army in 1377 against the Italian city-states, soundly defeating the Otto di Guerra's army and laying waste to much of the countryside. After putting down the revolt Gregory returned the papacy to Rome and concluded a peace with Florence. In exchange for an indemnity of 200,000 florins, Gregory XI rescinded the order of excommunication he had imposed against Florence.

Further reading: Leonardo Bruni, *History of the Florentine People,* vol. 1 (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2001); Ferdinand Schevill, *History of Florence: From the Founding of the City through the Renaissance* (New York: Continuum International Publishing Group, 1961); Paul R. Thibault, *Pope Gregory XI: The Failure of Tradition* (Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 1986).

Eighty Years' War (Dutch War of Independence) (1568–1648)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. the Netherlands
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Netherlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Protestant northern provinces of the Netherlands sought independence from Catholic Spain.
OUTCOME: The southern provinces remained the Spanish Netherlands, while the northern provinces, known as the United Provinces, won independence after 80 years of sporadic warfare.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 86,000; Netherlands, 30,000
CASUALTIES: Spain, 70,000; the Netherlands, 30,000
TREATIES: Peace of Westphalia

In 1555 Holy Roman Emperor Charles V (1500–58) gave the Netherlands (including the present day Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, and the French provinces of Flanders and Artois) to his son Philip II (1527–98) of Spain. Philip remained in the Netherlands until 1559, when he withdrew and ruled his land from Spain. War, high taxes, and government centralization were Philip's policies in the region. Political and religious riots broke out in 1566 and spread throughout the Netherlands. William of Orange (1533–84), stadtholder of Holland and Zeeland, emerged in a prominent role at this time as a mediator between the people and the government.

In 1567 Philip sent Fernando Alvarez de Toledo y Pimentel, the duke of Alva (1507–82), and a Spanish army

to Brussels to take control of the territory. During a reign of terror 12,000 people died. In 1568 Holland and Zeeland rebelled, sparking a lengthy war for independence. Having fled to Germany during the reign of terror, William raised an army and sent it under the leadership of his brother Louis of Nassau (1538–74) to the northern Netherlands.

On May 23, 1568, Louis's army of 3,000 defeated a small German-Spanish force led by John, duke of Arenberg. About two months later the Duke of Alva lured Louis into battle in the northern Netherlands. The royalists carried the day, crushing Louis's army. The rebels lost about 6,000 to 7,000 men at the Battle of Jemmingen, while the royalists lost only 100.

In October 1568 William invaded the southern Netherlands with an army of 25,000 men. Alva, with 16,000 men, outmaneuvered William and wiped out his rear guard at Jodoigne on October 20. William retreated into France and then into Germany, unable to recruit Netherlanders along the way due to the ferocity of Alva's reign of terror.

Between 1569 and 1572 William commissioned Dutch privateers, known as the "Sea Beggars," to attack Spanish ships and raid the Netherlands seacoast. These raids culminated in the Sea Beggars' capture of Bril.

Throughout the Low Countries, except for Amsterdam and Middelburg, the rebel forces repulsed the Spanish. William and Louis turned toward the southern provinces. In control of Mons, Louis then faced a besieging force of Alva, which repelled William's attempts to provide relief.

In city after city Alva slowly regained control of the southern and eastern provinces. With a combination of military skill and atrocities, he captured garrisons and massacred civilians and military personnel alike. Haarlem fell after a seven-month siege, but at Alkmaar, 20 miles northwest of Amsterdam, in October 1573 his force of 16,000 men was unable to take the city. He laid siege to the city but soon found that the Dutch were willing to undermine the dikes rather than surrender. The citizens of Alkmaar opened the dikes and flooded the land. Comte Bossu attempted to bring his inland Spanish fleet to the aid of the besiegers but was defeated on the Zuyder Zee in October 1573. Alva then resigned, and Alkmaar became the first city in the Netherlands to successfully resist the rule of Philip II. Alva's successor, Luis de Requesens (1528–76), continued the Spanish strategy of attempting to cut off the interior cities from the coastline. Luis de Requesens sent General Valdez with a force of 80,000 men to Leiden on the Oude River. Valdez surrounded the city with 62 fortified strong points and then began the long wait for the inhabitants to be starved into submission. William of Orange ordered the dikes south of the city cut on August 4. The Sea Beggars then moved through the floodwaters toward the city. By October 2 the Dutch fleet was able to throw food to the starving citizens of Leiden, and the revolt moved to the south.

On October 3, 1576, members of the Spanish garrison at Antwerp mutinied against their officers because they had not been paid in some time. They sacked Antwerp for two days and nights with incredible ferocity. In the violence, known as the "Spanish Fury," about 8,000 people died. All the provinces of the Netherlands then united to sign the Pacification of Ghent on November 8, 1576. When negotiations broke down in 1577, the Netherlands States General raised an army of 20,000 men under Sieur Antoine de Goignies. The Spanish did not back down. Instead Don Juan of Austria (1547–78), aided by reinforcements under Alexander Farnese (1545–92), attacked the Dutch at Gembloux on January 31, 1578. The Dutch lost about 6,000 men; the Spanish, 20. Don Juan regained control of the south from February to September 1578. After Don Juan's death on October 1, Farnese became viceroy. The northern provinces then established a confederation, the Union of Utrecht, which signaled the beginning of the modern period of Holland's history.

Alexander Farnese then captured cities throughout the southern Netherlands, from Maastricht on the Maas River in March 1579 to Antwerp in August 1585. At Maastricht the citizens cut the dikes and flooded the approaches to the city, but the Spanish troops, numbering some 20,000 men, pressed on. They established 11 strong points around the city and four months later stormed the place. Farnese was furious that 4,000 Spanish troops had been lost during the siege, so he ordered the slaughter of 8,000 inhabitants of Maastricht. He was then named duke of Parma.

For the rebels a change in leadership came unexpectedly when William of Orange was assassinated on July 10, 1584. His son Maurice of Nassau (1567–1625) became stadtholder at the age of 17.

In 1585 the English intervened in the war, which to that point had spanned 17 years. Robert Dudley, earl of Leicester, came to the aid of the Netherlands with his army of 6,000 English troops. Although granted sweeping powers by the Netherlanders, Leicester was inept, and after the death of his lieutenant, Philip Sidney (1554–86), he withdrew. William's son Maurice was named captain and admiral-general.

In 1589 Philip II ordered the duke of Parma to the aid of the French Catholics battling Henry of Navarre (1553–1610). Taking advantage of Parma's absence, Maurice liberated Breda in a surprise attack. Maurice continued on to Zutphen and Deventer, where he won victories in June and July of 1591. He then faced Parma along the Waal River near Arnhem, but Philip again ordered Parma to France, this time to relieve Rouen, under siege by Henry of Navarre. Maurice now struck quickly by both water and road and captured Hulst and Nijmegen. His string of successes continued beyond the death of Parma in 1592 to the Battle of Turnhout on January 24, 1597. There the rebel forces, after making a 24-mile march in nine hours, routed the Spanish army under Count Jean de Rie of Varas. Over

the next few years the Spanish made no headway in their attempts to regain control of the Netherlands.

In 1600 Maurice, under orders from the States General, invaded Flanders. His army crossed the Scheldt River and routed the Spanish blockaders of Ostend. On July 2 Maurice sent a detachment to Leffingham Bridge over the Yser River with orders to halt the approach of Albert of Austria, the new Spanish viceroy and son-in-law of Philip II, on his way to try his hand at conquering the rebels. The Spanish reached the bridge first and destroyed the Dutch detachment. Later that day the two armies engaged. Albert ordered his reserves into that fray, but by then it was too late for the weary Spanish. Exhausted by their long march of several days, the Spanish force collapsed under a general attack by the Dutch.

Between 1601 and 1604 the Spanish besieged Ostend. The Dutch, losing 20,000 men during the siege, fared better than the Spanish, who lost as many as 60,000 men due to casualties or disease. While the siege was under way both England and France negotiated peace terms with the Spanish, thereby leaving the Dutch alone in their struggle against the Spanish. The States General ordered Ostend to surrender on September 20, 1604.

Over the next three years the Dutch managed to retain control of the sea. After the victory of Admiral Jacob van Heemskerck at the Battle of Gibraltar, the Spanish agreed to a truce.

War resumed in 1621 after a 12-year period of peace. While part of the Spanish military was involved in the THIRTY YEARS' WAR between the Hapsburg dynasty and France, Sweden, Denmark, and England, the Dutch army won victories at Breda and Maastricht, captured a Spanish fleet off Cuba, and destroyed another fleet at Downs. The Spanish sought peace, and in the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, which ended both the Thirty Years' War and the Eighty Years' War, Spain retained control of the southern states—the Spanish Netherlands—while the United Provinces of the north won their independence at last.

See also AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS CIVIL WAR.

Further reading: Pieter Geyle, *The Netherlands in the Seventeenth Century* (London: E. Benn, 1961); Herbert H. Rowan, *The Princes of Orange: The Stadtholders in the Dutch Republic* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1988).

Emboadas, War of the (1708–1709)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Two Brazilian groups, the Paulistas vs. the *emboadas*
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Minas Gerais region of Brazil
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The two groups contested possession of gold mines in Minas Gerais.
OUTCOME: The *emboadas* outnumbered the Paulistas and eventually forced them out of the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 100 killed
TREATIES: None

Late in the 17th century gold deposits were discovered in Brazil's Minas Gerais region. Predictably, this led to increasing conflicts between the original Portuguese-Indian settlers of the region, who were based in São Paulo and were therefore called Paulistas, and newcomers, chiefly European immigrants from Portugal, known as *emboadas,* meaning "feather legs," a euphemism for "trespassers." By the early 18th century the *emboadas* outnumbered the Paulistas, and a general civil war erupted with the sole object being possession of the gold mines. The *emboadas* enjoyed the support of the colonial government, which regarded the Paulistas as ungovernable at best and downright disloyal at worst. The *emboadas* more than held their own against the more established Paulistas in a series of clashes from December 1708 to December 1709 that cost about 100 people their lives. Outnumbered, the Paulistas relinquished control of the mines, left Minas Gerais, and migrated west to Mato Grosso.

Further reading: Bailey W. Diffie, *A History of Colonial Brazil, 1500–1792* (Malabar, Fla.: R. E. Krieger, 1987); Robert M. Levine, *The History of Brazil* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1999); Robert M. Levine and John J. Crocitti, eds., *The Brazil Reader: History, Culture, Politics* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1999).

Emmet's Insurrection (1803)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United Irishmen vs. British authorities in Ireland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dublin
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The United Irishmen wanted to overthrow the British in Ireland.
OUTCOME: Premature and uncoordinated, the insurrection was a failure, resulting in the capture and execution of Emmet.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: About 100 insurrectionists actually engaged.
CASUALTIES: Emmet and 21 other rebels were executed; 50 people were killed during the uprising.
TREATIES: None

Robert Emmet (1778–1803) was a leading light of the Society of United Irishmen, a radical revolutionary group founded in 1791 and inspired by the French Revolution. Its objective was to achieve parliamentary reform and legal equality for all Irish. Among its organizers were Belfast Presbyterian merchants and, preeminently, the Dublin

intellectual Wolfe Tone (1763–98). The United Irishmen garnered support among rural Presbyterians in Ulster and among Roman Catholic peasants. After war broke out in 1793 between Great Britain and revolutionary France, the society turned from advocating reform to urging violent insurrection. In response British authorities moved harshly against it—an action that served only to inflame passions all the more.

During 1800–02 Emmet traveled to France, where he and other United Irishmen leaders developed their plans for an uprising, which was to be aided by the French. Emmet returned to Ireland and stockpiled arms in secret caches, biding his time for the right moment to strike. Unfortunately, one of the caches blew up, alerting authorities to the revolutionary movement and therefore prompting Emmet to act prematurely. The insurrection began on July 23, 1803, but was plagued by confusion and a complete lack of coordination: One major rebel contingent never arrived, while a second dispersed, assuming that the revolution had been called off. A third contingent waited for the signal to act—but no one ever gave it.

Nevertheless, Emmet and about 100 followers futilely stormed Dublin Castle. Easily repulsed, they withdrew, and Emmet hid in the mountains of Wicklow. When he returned to Dublin to see his fiancée, he was captured, tried for treason, and hanged on September 20, 1803. Before the sentence was carried out Emmet made a stirring speech that inspired Irish nationalists of many generations.

Further reading: David George Boyce, *Nineteenth-Century Ireland: The Search for Stability* (Savage, Md.: Barnes and Noble, 1991); Patrick M. Geoghegan, *Robert Emmet: A Life* (Montreal: McGill-Queens University Press, 2003).

English Barons' Revolt (1387)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Supporters of King Richard II vs. English barons led by the duke of Gloucester
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the English throne
OUTCOME: Although the nobles asserted their control over King Richard II, eventually the king solidified his power and got rid of his most ardent opponents.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Ascending the English throne at the age of 10 in 1377, Richard II (1367–1400) reigned under the aegis of his uncle and regent, John of Gaunt (1342–99), duke of Lancaster. John's regency was not unduly harsh nor were there any apparent attempts to supplant Richard on the throne, but Richard was an able youth and chafed at having a regency over him. He had, for example, successfully negotiated the suppression of a terrorist uprising when he was only 14. When he reached the age of majority, Richard quickly replaced John and elevated his two brothers and friends to high positions in the government. Gaunt, lusting for power of his own, left for Spain in 1386.

The youthful Richard and his policies rankled the powerful English barons, led by Thomas of Woodstock (1355–c. 1397), duke of Gloucester. The group of lords appellant also included Thomas Arundel (1353–1414), Henry of Derby (1366–1413, also known as Henry Bolingbroke, later Henry IV), the son of John of Gaunt, Thomas II de Beauchamp (d. 1401), earl of Warwick, and Thomas Mowbray (c. 1366–99), earl of Nottingham. The lords openly challenged the king's authority in Parliament, and the situation came to a head in the session of 1386, when Richard sought a parliamentary grant to take the field against a suspected French invasion. Instead, Parliament rebuked the king and chastised him for his selection of ministers. Richard, incensed by its insolence, reminded Parliament that he could dissolve the body and bade members mind their own business. They refused and agreed to legislate funding only when Richard dismissed his chancellor, Michael de la Pole (fl. 1383), earl of Suffolk. Parliament also imposed an 11-member commission on the king to oversee his activities for one year. Richard called on the House of Commons to send him a delegation for an explanation of parliamentary behavior. In place of explanation, the House of Commons sent Gloucester and Arundel.

The two lords cited an obscure rule of English common law that required Parliament to review governmental administration on an annual basis. Richard acquiesced and dismissed Suffolk, naming Arundel's brother chancellor. However, the lords revealed their vindictive nature by impeaching Suffolk and pushing for a conviction. After receiving one they also imposed a royal commission to supervise Richard's actions in exchange for the military funding Richard sought. Richard, however, limited the commission's authority for one year, from November 1386 to November 1387. Richard promptly dismissed Parliament and left London. In the following months he refused to call Parliament and went about the countryside personally soliciting support against the lords. He successfully avoided the commission for the majority of its tenure. The lords, meanwhile, worried that the commission's term would run out before it could bend the king to its will.

The moderates on the commission appealed for a meeting between Richard and the hard-liners, led by Gloucester. The call went out for Parliament to convene on February 3, 1388, for the first time in more than a year. Meanwhile, Robert de Vere (1362–92), duke of Ireland, was in the west raising support for the king when he heard of the meeting. Attempting to make his way back to

London along the Severn River with the meager force he had raised, he was met by Gloucester, Derby, and the appellants' forces at the Battle of Radcot Bridge on December 20, 1387. The undermanned royalist troops were quickly overrun, and de Vere barely escaped.

With his army defeated Richard had no alternative but to give in to the lords. His position on the throne was tenuous. In fact, there is speculation that he might have been temporarily deposed only to be restored within days to avoid a protracted power struggle. When Parliament convened on February 3, it showed itself the willing agents of the appellants. In what would be called the "Merciless Parliament," four of Richard's ministers, including Suffolk and de Vere, were executed, while others were imprisoned or stripped of any position of nobility. The lords essentially ruled England for the next 11 months until Richard was able to break Gloucester's hold on Parliament. He would not gain total control again until 1397, but when he did he did so decisively: In that year Arundel was convicted of treason and executed, Gloucester was imprisoned and murdered, and Warwick was banished.

Further reading: Nigel Saul, *Richard II* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1997).

English Civil War (1215–1217)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of the English Crown and the English barons, vs. forces of the French dauphin, Louis
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central, southwestern, and southeastern England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The barons invited Louis to assume the English throne.
OUTCOME: After the death of King John, the barons deserted Louis, who withdrew from England.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Kingston-upon-Thames, September 12, 1217, in which the rebels were granted amnesty, and Louis agreed not to support any future rebellion. The moderate nature of the treaty helped place Henry III's reign on a firmer footing.

In 1215 the ongoing power struggle between King John (1167–1216) and the English barons culminated in John's grudging agreement to the Magna Carta, which ceded considerable power to the barons. Seeking to void the Magna Carta, John obtained from the pope a decree nullifying it. This enraged the barons, who with the support of many Englishmen invited Louis, dauphin of France (1187–1226; later Louis VIII), to assume the English throne in lieu of John. In the meantime, however, John had hired French mercenaries to fight the barons and made significant progress against them. He avoided major battles but was able to consolidate control of western and central England. During this time John also successfully repulsed an invasion by Scotland's king Alexander II (1198–1249).

In 1216 John died, and at this juncture the dauphin invaded England, swiftly overrunning the southeast, where English forces finally contained him. In the meantime, nine-year-old Henry III (1207–72) was crowned to rule under a regent, William Marshal (c. 1146–1219), who in 1217 led English forces in a naval victory against Louis at Dover, then attacked the French army that was laying siege to Lincoln. But Marshal's most significant victory was political. Unlike John, he voluntarily acceded to many of the barons' demands, prompting them to desert the French cause. Without the backing of the barons, Louis had no choice but to withdraw and conclude a peace with Marshal. The war was ended by the Treaty of Kingston-upon-Thames (September 12, 1217). On behalf of Henry III, Marshal granted the rebels amnesty, and Louis agreed not to support any future rebellion. The wise and moderate nature of the treaty was instrumental in placing the reign of Henry III on a sound footing.

See also ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1214–1216).

Further reading: F. M. Powicke, *The Thirteenth Century, 1216–1307* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1953); W. L. Warren, *The Governance of Norman and Angevin England, 1086–1272* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1987).

English Civil War (1263–1265)

See BARONS' WAR.

English Civil War, First (1642–1646)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The king's supporters in England, Ireland, and Scotland vs. Parliament's supporters in England and Scotland. Both sides received limited help from the continental powers—chiefly France, Germany, and the Low Countries.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England, but with important engagements in Wales, Scotland, and Ireland
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Parliamentary demands for an end to arbitrary government and taxation, the extirpation of the threat of Roman Catholicism ("popery"), and distrust of Charles I led to a quarrel over control of the sword and a declaration of war by the king against Parliament.
OUTCOME: After a slow beginning the forces of Parliament were ultimately victorious in the field, resulting in the king's surrender. His refusal to yield on key political and religious issues, however, led to a fresh outbreak of hostilities in 1648 and his execution the following year.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Parliament, 40,000+; Scots (parliamentary under Leven), 20,000; Scots (Covenanters under William Baillie), 7,000; Scots (royalists under Montrose), 5,000; Charles I, 30,000+.
CASUALTIES: England: Parliament, 28,000 killed including few noncombatants, widespread devastation in the Midlands, Yorkshire, and the West Country. Royalists, 34,000 killed. Scotland: Covenanters, 12,300; Royalists, 2,400. Deaths from disease must have been at least as high as the numbers killed on the battlefield.
TREATIES: None

The First Civil War was the costliest conflict ever waged on English soil in terms of casualties, devastation, and financial expense. To some historians the events of the 1640s, culminating in the execution of the king in 1649, may be regarded as the first major European revolution. Not only was there bitter conflict between the supporters of king and parliament, the events of the battlefield gave rise to intense debate on religion, constitutional sovereignty, and political thought.

CAUSES

The causes of the civil war were far reaching, although armed conflict could have been avoided almost until the beginning of 1642. Charles I (1600–49) had an exalted conception of his role as monarch. If not a thoroughgoing absolutist, he believed that his authority derived from God and denied that he was accountable to the people or their elected representatives. When Parliament proved uncooperative (1626–29), he resolved to govern without Parliament. He did this for 11 years (1629–40). He might have been able to continue indefinitely had not rebellion in Scotland against his attempt to impose an Anglican brand of worship on that nation depleted his treasury and revealed the unpopularity of his regime in both kingdoms (*see* BISHOPS' WAR, FIRST; BISHOPS' WAR, SECOND). Forced to summon Parliament once again, he found it unsupportive of his war against the Scots and determined to reform the abuses of prerogative government. Unparliamentary taxation was declared illegal; the Star Chamber and other prerogative courts were abolished, a Triennial Act was passed, and the present Parliament was declared indissoluble without its own consent.

Issues deeper still continued to divide king and Parliament. Charles's attempts to move the Church of England away from Calvinism toward a more Catholic worship and an Arminian theology (which upheld the doctrine of free will) alarmed many who saw in these efforts a "popish" conspiracy to return England to the Roman fold. Religious fear was compounded by growing mistrust of the king. Many were persuaded that Charles would retaliate against his opponents at the first opportunity. Distrust of the king was exacerbated by rebellion in Ireland, which flared up in October 1641 (*see* IRISH REBELLION, GREAT). In England it was widely believed that Charles had encouraged the Catholic-led rebellion and therefore could not be entrusted with the army that had to be raised to put it down. The struggle for the power of the sword together with Charles's refusal to countenance puritan reform of the church led directly to his declaration of war against Parliament in August 1642. The difficulty of governing a multiple kingdom was a root cause of the war. However, there could have been no war had Charles not gained a party between 1640 and 1642. The royalist party in 1642 consisted of those who wished to defend the established church and the *Book of Common Prayer,* resented the Scots presence in England, and feared the disintegration of the social order.

THE DISPOSITION OF FORCES

In January 1642, having failed to arrest the ringleaders of the parliamentary opposition, Charles fled the capital, leaving it in the hands of his enemies. Control of London, with its population approaching 400,000, its immense financial resources, its administrative importance, its vast arsenal, and its preeminence as England's largest port was crucial advantage to the parliamentary side throughout the war. London and its region responded quickly to the call for manpower, money, and weapons, as did the nearby "home" counties. Many other counties were divided and tried to keep out of the war, but Parliament quickly asserted its control over East Anglia, which, with its rich agriculture, was a storehouse of provisions and money at all times. Parliament was also successful in taking control of Hull, the second greatest fortress in the kingdom. Most ports and cloth towns threw their support behind Parliament. For his part, the king drew support from Wales, the counties of the west Midlands, Lancashire, Yorkshire, and Cornwall. Having lost the administrative levers of power, he had to depend to a much greater extent on voluntary contributions of men, money, and matériel. Recruitment was sluggish at first, but by October 1642 he had mustered about 24,000 men. The main parliamentary army under Robert Devereux, earl of Essex (1591–1646), was close to 26,000.

Through a combination of bad luck and poor judgment Charles lost control of the navy several months before he fought his first battle on land. The consequences of Parliament's command of the sea were momentous. Vice Admiral Robert Rich (1587–1658), earl of Warwick, was able to block the flow of munitions from abroad. Parliamentary naval supremacy diminished the king's prestige and also made European powers reluctant to intervene in English affairs.

THE BATTLE OF EDGEHILL

In early October the king left his stronghold in the west Midlands to march on London. Essex's move to block his

Major battles of the First English Civil War

path led the two armies to a confrontation on a gently sloping field below the village of Edgehill in Warwickshire. Both armies arranged themselves with brigades of foot soldiers in the middle, flanked by cavalry and dragoons on the wings. Reserves of foot and horse stood in the rear. After an ineffective artillery duel Prince Rupert (1619–82) ordered his cavalry on the right wing to advance. He soon drove the parliamentary cavalry under Sir James Ramsey off the field. A critical blunder was committed by Sir John Byron's (c. 1600–52) two regiments, which formed the second line of Rupert's wing. Ignoring their commander, they joined in the chase when they should have stayed to attack the undefended flank of parliamentary infantry. Much the same happened on the royalist left wing: Henry Lord Wilmot's (d. 1658) charge swept away Basil Lord Fielding's regiment, and George Lord Digby (c. 1611–76), commanding Wilmot's second line, joined in the pursuit. When Sir Jacob Astley led the advance of royalist infantry, he was virtually without cavalry support. A bitter struggle raged between the infantries of the two armies, but the advantage lay with Essex, who still had two cavalry regiments left to throw into the fray. With the help of his reserves he was now able to push the whole royalist army back. Nightfall brought fighting to a standstill. The next day neither side had any stomach for a renewal of the action, so the king ordered his men back to quarters, while Essex retreated to Warwick. Losses on both sides were almost equal—about 1,500 men in all. The king had lost his former commander in chief, the earl of Lindsey, and Sir Edmund Verney, knight marshall of England, and several other officers had been wounded. Essex had lost his kinsman Colonel Charles Essex and his page, Colonel Lord St. John.

The battle of Edgehill was a strategic victory for the king, because the road to London was now clear. But the king chose to proceed cautiously, which allowed Essex's army to enter the city from the north, where it was joined by 6,000 well-armed soldiers of the London militia. On the morning of November 13 a parliamentary army of some 24,000 men was drawn up on the common at Turnham Green, a few miles west of the city, to face the royalist invader. All day long the armies faced each other without engaging. In the end Charles wisely pulled his men back and returned to Oxford for the winter.

In 1643 signs appeared of a comprehensive royalist strategy to approach London from the southwest, the center, and the north. While the king consolidated his position around Oxford, Sir Ralph Hopton (1596–1652) recruited a formidable little army in Cornwall. He and Sir Henry Wilmot won a number of victories of steadily increasing scale: at Braddock Down (January 19, 1643) against Colonel William Ruthin (c. 1598–1668), and again at Saltash on the 22nd; against the Earl of Stamford at Stratton (16 May); and against Sir William Waller (c. 1598–1668) at Lansdown Hill and Roundway Down (July 5 and 13). In the latter battle Waller lost his entire army in one conclusive encounter, as Wilmot drove his cavalry to plunge headlong over a concealed escarpment, breaking their own and their horses' necks. Essex, with his army stationed only a few miles away, had failed to come to Waller's aid.

This was the low point of the war for Parliament. With its grip on the Severn valley broken, Bristol and Gloucester were imperiled. In the south Essex's army had wasted away to 5,500, while the earl of Newcastle dominated the north with his army of 8,000, 6,000 of whom were crack infantry. His cavalry were an elite force led by Sir Marmaduke Langdale and George Goring. The northern parliamentary army, never more than 6,000 strong under Ferdinando Lord Fairfax (1584–1648) and his son Sir Thomas (1612–71), were always dangerous, but after a number of lesser engagements, Newcastle beat them decisively at Adwalton Moor near Bradford (June 30) and drove them back to Hull.

The arrival of the queen in Oxford the next month with 3,000 troops and supplies at last gave Charles numerical superiority over Essex. This infusion of strength enabled Prince Rupert to take 12,000 men and storm Bristol, the second port of the kingdom. Nathaniel Fiennes (son of Lord Say and Sele), with only 1,800 men, put up a valiant defense but was later court-martialled for losing the city.

At this juncture a concerted royalist pincer movement against the center might have won the war, but Charles chose instead to protect his rear by turning and besieging Gloucester. When Essex came to the relief of the city, Charles abandoned the siege and blocked Essex's way back to London. The two armies, about equal at 14,000 men each, fought a pitched battle at Newbury, where many royalist cavalry were lost, and Essex's reputation was temporarily restored. Parliament recovered more ground in the north and south. At Winceby in Lincolnshire combined forces from the northern parliamentary army under Sir Thomas Fairfax and the Eastern Association under Edward Montagu (1602–71), earl of Manchester—7,500 in all—destroyed and dispersed between 2,300 and 2,800 horse cavalry and dragoons under Sir William Widdrington. This first major victory of Roundhead cavalry over their royalist opponents boosted the morale of the parliamentarian cavalry and obliged Newcastle to abandon his march on London. In the south Hopton's 5,000 horse and foot soldiers suffered a series of defeats at the hands of Sir William Waller. This put an end to the royalist three-pronged strategy to occupy London. By the close of 1643 the armies of both sides were nearly at the end of their tether. The following year, however, would see the arrival of outside help.

In December 1643 the Scots undertook to bring an army of 20,000 to England in exchange for a parliamentary promise to establish a Presbyterian Church on the Scottish model. Although an acceptably Presbyterian church never came into being, the Scots were prompt in fulfilling their side of the bargain. On January 19 Alexander Leslie (c. 1580–1661), earl of Leven, crossed the Tweed with 21,500 troops. In six months they would take part in the second most critical battle of the civil war.

In the meantime James Butler (1610–88), earl of Ormonde, had concluded a truce, or "cessation," with the Roman Catholic Confederates in Ireland. This enabled the king to bring in 17,600 troops, mainly infantry, from that kingdom. Contrary to Parliament's allegation that they were papists, the great majority were Protestant Englishmen. Nevertheless, whatever military advantage the king may have gained by this access of strength was offset by the propaganda loss he suffered for his apparent appeasement of Roman Catholicism and Irish nationalism.

Some of the Irish recruits went to strengthen Hopton's army, which rose to 6,000 by early March 1644. On March 29 he met Sir William Waller's substantially larger army of 8,600 at Cheriton near Winchester, where it was annihilated. The effect on royalist morale was profound, for the parliamentary cavalry demonstrated a second time that they could take on and beat the king's cavalry.

THE BATTLE OF MARSTON MOOR

The next crisis point was York, where Parliament was massing three armies against William Cavendish, earl of Newcastle-on-Tyne (c. 1593–1676): Leven's Scots (now down to 16,000), Ferdinando Lord Fairfax's northern army (5,000), and the Earl of Manchester's Eastern Association Army (9,000), for a total allied force approaching 30,000. Lord Newcastle had to retreat behind the walls of York on April 18, with 6,000 foot soldiers. His 6,000 horse soldiers he sent south to Newark, where they were reunited with George Goring. Rupert now set out from Oxford once again, criss-crossing the country in search of troops. On June 14 his uncle Charles wrote instructing him "immediately [to] march . . . with all your force, to the relief of York." At this point the prince had 7,000 top-quality horse soldiers and at least 7,000 foot soldiers. Together with Newcastle's 5,000 cavalry men he had a force well fewer than 20,000, less than two-thirds as big as the allied force. Given the disparity in numbers, Newcastle was reluctant to fight, and on the day of battle he did not muster his troops until several hours after Rupert's men were on the move. The allies had their own problems: They were divided both ethnically and in their leadership. Hearing of Rupert's approach and knowing the terror of his name, they abandoned the siege of York on July 2. Rupert then pursued them with his cavalry, on the understanding that Lord Eythin would bring up the infantry later that day. Spying Rupert's approach, Leven turned the allied armies around and drew them up on Marston Ridge. At about 6 P.M. he ordered his huge army down the hill. Soon the foot soldiers in the center were engaged, neither making much headway. On the allied left wing Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658), heading the Eastern Association cavalry, bore down on Lord Byron's regiments, swept them away, and then turned to break down the adjacent infantry. However, he was forced to leave the battle early with a wound to the neck. On the allied left the fortunes were reversed. Sir Thomas Fairfax, leading the Northern Association cavalry, became tangled in a maze of hedges and was vanquished by Goring at the head of the Northern cavalry. Goring also disposed of the second line under John Lambert (1619–84), and even a reserve brigade of Scots under the earl of Eglinton. One regiment, that of Sir Charles Lucas, resisted the temptation to attack the Scots baggage train and instead began to hack away at the flank of the Scots infantry on the right side of the allied line. At this point Newcastle threw in the last royalist cavalry reserve under Sir William Blakiston against the allied center, which was held by Lord Fairfax's Yorkshire foot soldiers, with the Scots forming the second and third lines. Blakiston smashed through all three lines, spreading panic among the allied infantry.

By now smoke shrouded the field, and the daylight was almost gone. Concluding that they had lost the battle, Lords Leven and Fairfax fled. But Rupert and Lord Eythin were nowhere to be seen, either; Newcastle appears to have been the only senior royalist commander on the battlefield. Suddenly the situation was transformed. Sir Thomas Fairfax had led his men around to the back of the royalist army, where he found a bandaged Cromwell at the head of a virtually intact cavalry brigade. In combination they took on Goring once again, this time besting him. This disposed of the last of the royalist cavalry, for Sir Charles Lucas's troopers had been badly mauled by Sir William Baillie's well-drilled pikemen.

Night had fallen, but the fight continued. Under a harvest moon the royalist infantry stood their ground, refusing quarter. For a while neither cavalry nor infantry could break their ranks, so unshakeable were the pikemen. Even when their square formation was broken they fought on, the wounded lying on their backs, goring with their swords or pikes the bellies of the horses who rode over them. At the end of the day the grim toll was 4,150 royalist dead to only 300 on the allied side. Remarkably, the victory had hung in the balance for much of the day. Newcastle's failure to cooperate allowed Leven to seize the initiative. Both Cromwell and Sir Thomas Fairfax played a special role, as the Eastern Association cavalry became the chief instrument of allied victory. With the royalist infantry shattered, the war in the north was over.

LOSTWITHIEL

On the other hand, Parliament was in danger of losing the south. While the earl of Manchester dawdled around Lincoln, Waller failed to come to the help of Essex, who was recklessly plunging deep into royalist territory in Cornwall. Charles had decided to pursue him and by now had an army equal to Essex's 10,000. The Cornish were hostile, and Hopton's and Sir Richard Grenville's local forces brought the king's strength up to 16,000. All through August the royalists skillfully closed the net around the dispirited parliamentarians. At Lostwithiel, Essex reached the end of the road. With defeat staring him in the face, he ordered his cavalry to cut their way through the enemy lines and escape to Plymouth. The earl slipped away by

boat, leaving Major-General Skippon to surrender the 6,000 infantry. It was the most resounding royalist victory of the war.

THE CREATION OF THE NEW MODEL ARMY

The seething discontent on the parliamentary side with Essex, Manchester, and Waller now boiled over in a torrent of scathing abuse. Public contempt was only deepened when their combined forces failed to crush the much inferior royalist army at Newbury in October and when Manchester failed to stop Charles from relieving Donnington Castle with a force half the size of his own. In self-exculpation Manchester had declared to his council of war: "If we beat the king ninety-nine times he would be king still, and his posterity; and we subjects still. But if he beat us once we should be hanged and our posterity undone."

At the beginning of December the war party in the Commons threw its energy into a "Self-Denying" resolution that would have excluded all members of either house from military or civil appointments for the duration of the war. Thwarted by the House of Lords, where Essex and Manchester commanded a majority, the war party outflanked aristocratic opposition by creating a new force under the command of Sir Thomas Fairfax—the New Model Army—from which all members of Parliament were excluded. With their own armies now starved of resources, the discredited leaders had no alternatives but to resign. In February the lords swallowed their pride and permitted the ordinance for the New Model to become law. At the beginning of June the commons voted to exempt Oliver Cromwell from the provisions of the Self-Denying Ordinance, which had finally been passed in April.

NASEBY

His last-minute readmission to the army allowed Cromwell to play a leading role in the battle of Naseby on June 14th, 1645. Commanding barely 9,000 troops, Charles faced an enemy force that at nearly 17,000 was almost twice the size of his. The opposing armies faced each other on two low hills. The parliamentary left wing comprised five-and-a-half regiments of cavalry arranged two deep under the leadership of Commissary General Henry Ireton (1611–51). The right wing under Cromwell was a trifle heavier and was drawn up three lines deep instead of the usual two. The left wing's slight inferiority in numbers was more than compensated for by the stationing of Okey's crack regiment of dragoons behind the hedges on the far left at right angles to the line of battle. Between the two wings of cavalry were eight infantry regiments drawn up in two lines, with a "forlorn hope" of 300 musketeers in front. The royalist forces were drawn up in similar fashion but without the dragoons. Prince Rupert commanded the cavalry on the right; Langdale, whose numbers were distressingly thin, the northern cavalry on the left. The infantry under Astley occupied the middle; behind it was the reserve, consisting of the king's lifeguards and Rupert's Bluecoats. The absence of Goring's 5,000 men was to prove a fatal weakness to the royalists.

After a brief artillery exchange the battle commenced about 11 A.M. The battlefield, unimpeded by hedges, was about a mile wide. Taking advantage of a terrain favorable to cavalry, Rupert led his right wing against Ireton and soon swept him off the field in spite of his nearly two-to-one superiority in numbers. Instead of halting his men then and throwing them against the exposed flank of Skippon's infantry, he permitted them to carry on their pursuit for a mile until they came upon Fairfax's baggage train. A valuable hour was wasted before Rupert could bring his men back to the battlefield. Meanwhile, the parliamentary center was losing ground to Astley's infantry. Though outnumbering their adversaries, they were demoralized by the wounding of Skippon and Ireton. Events on the royalist left, however, proved crucial. As Langdale's men joined the battle, they came up against the superior weight of Cromwell's regiments. It was now that Cromwell demonstrated his greater ability as a cavalry commander. Having pushed Langdale back as far as Rupert's Bluecoats, he permitted only two regiments to pursue and scatter them. He then crossed the field with part of his remaining forces and attempted to rally Ireton's fragmented divisions, summoning Okey's dragoons to help. He and Fairfax then charged from opposite sides into the main body of the royalist infantry. Having restored order to the parliamentary line, Fairfax next coordinated a general charge by his whole army, being careful to ensure that the cavalry did not leave the flanks of the infantry exposed by too impetuous an advance. Facing the monolithic approach of the New Model, the remnant of the king's army now turned tail and fled. To Cromwell belongs the credit for choosing the ground, setting the troops in order, and decisively breaking Langdale's cavalry. But contemporary accounts agree that Fairfax, by taking over the right wing after Cromwell's first charge, by synchronizing the advance of horse and foot, and by seeing to the "timely coming on" of the reserves, clinched the victory. It was a relatively cheap one: only 150 men lost in comparison to nearly 1,000 for the king in addition to 4,500 prisoners from the infantry, 2,000 cavalry, and the king's file of secret letters. The publication of excerpts from these letters, with their evidence of his dealings with the Irish rebels, would do irreparable damage to Charles's reputation in England. The one consolation for the royalists was that their cavalry had got away virtually intact.

The events of the next year were little more than a mopping up operation for the New Model Army. After recapturing Leicester Fairfax set out on forced marches for the southwest. He chased Goring away from Taunton, and then, helped by the 2,200 cavalry men and dragoons of Massey's Western Brigade, Fairfax encircled and routed Goring at Langport on July 10. The cost in lives was not high: about 300 royalists and a tenth that number of parliamentarians. But by knocking out Goring's cavalry before they could be reinforced from Wales, Fairfax had effectively

won the war in less than four weeks. The royalist stronghold at Bridgwater fell to him 12 days later, and the retreating royalists were quarantined in Devon and Cornwall. Before tightening the noose in the southwest it was decided to invade Bristol, the king's chief port and principal magazine. Even though Rupert only disposed of 1,500 defenders, against 9,000 to 10,000 under Fairfax, the lengthy outworks and high walls made the city a hard nut to crack. Six days of bombardment failed to dent the walls, and in the end the infantry had to scale them, open the gates from the inside, and let the cavalry enter. A measure of the royalists' despair at the loss of Bristol was Charles's dismissal of Rupert afterward. Cromwell, for his part, exploited the victory to address an impassioned appeal to Parliament for liberty of conscience for religious dissenters.

Over the next several months royalist strongholds tumbled like ripe fruit into the laps of the parliamentary commanders: Bath, Sherborne, Basing House, Tiverton, Dartmouth, Torrington, Plymouth, Exeter, Launceston, Bodmin. The civilian population welcomed an army that scrupulously paid for everything it took. By April 1646 the west was sewn up, and Fairfax turned his attention to the king's headquarters at Oxford. Seeking to avoid bloodshed and also to spare the city's intellectual and aesthetic treasures, Fairfax allowed the governor, Sir Thomas Glemham, to surrender on easy terms. Before this last humiliation was played out, Charles had slipped away and ridden to Newark, where he delivered himself into the hands of the Scottish army. Refusing to accept the overwhelming verdict of the battlefield, he would spend the next year and a half negotiating and plotting at various times with the English Presbyterians, their rivals the Independents, the Scots, and hoped-for friends in Rome, France, Holland, Denmark, and Ireland. Thanks to the king's stubbornness civil war would erupt once again in the spring of 1648.

Further reading: Charles Carlton, *Going to the Wars* (London and New York: Routledge, 1992); Ian Gentles, *The New Model Army in England, Ireland and Scotland, 1645–1653* (Oxford and Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1992); John Kenyon, *The Civil Wars of England* (New York: Knopf, 1988); Peter Young and Richard Holmes, *The English Civil Wars: A Military History of the Three Civil Wars, 1641–1651* (London: Eyre Methuen, 1974).

English Civil War, Second (1648–1651)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: English royalists (with Scots allies) vs. Parliament
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland and northern England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Parliament and the forces of the monarchy struggled over control of England.
OUTCOME: Parliament prevailed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Royalists and Scots, 24,000; Parliamentary forces, 8,000
CASUALTIES: Royalists and Scots, 3,909 killed; parliamentary forces, 2,045 killed
TREATIES: None

After suffering defeat at the Battle of Oxford in 1646, Charles I (1600–49) fled to Scotland, thereby ending the First English Civil War. With Charles gone, the so-called Long Parliament set about attempting to reform the English government and church. When Charles, in Scotland, declined to respond to Parliament's attempt to introduce a Presbyterian system into the Church of England, the Presbyterian Scots became alienated from the king and ransomed him to Parliament. Charles was held at Holmby House while Parliament continued to debate. In the meantime, the army reacted against Parliament's Presbyterian proposals, and in response Parliament took steps to disband the army. Parliament offered Charles a limited monarchy, but the army, led by Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658), resisted this as well and kidnapped the king. Charles managed to escape, however, and took refuge on the Isle of Wight while he continued to negotiate with foreign powers, with Parliament, and with Scotland, again promising the Scots church reform in an agreement of December 28, 1647. It was this agreement that triggered full-scale renewal of warfare, or the Second English Civil War.

Kent, Essex, and Wales each saw royalist uprisings, which Cromwell's army put down. The Scots also invaded at Preston in northern England. Cromwell successfully repulsed the invasion here in 1648 and followed this victory with Pride's Purge, which rid Parliament of Presbyterians—on the grounds that Presbyterians were all royalists. What was left of Parliament, the so-called Rump Parliament, brought Charles I to trial for treason, and he was executed on January 30, 1649. This made Parliament the ruling body of England, with Oliver Cromwell as lord protector.

Operating from Scotland, Charles II (1630–85) directed Scottish rebellion against England. Cromwell led the parliamentary army to the outskirts of Edinburgh in 1650 and was confronted by royalist forces under Sir David Leslie (1601–82). Cromwell was held outside Edinburgh and ultimately retreated to Dunbar for supplies. He marched on Edinburgh again but was outmaneuvered by Leslie and once again forced back to Dunbar. Leslie seized the initiative and marched to a position south of Dunbar to block Cromwell's route back to England. Leslie wanted to hold Cromwell at Dunbar, where his army was suffering from a lack of food and an abundance of inclement weather. The ministers of the Scottish Kirk, however, feared that Cromwell might escape by sea, and they ordered Leslie to attack. Cromwell saw Leslie's movement and by night redeployed his army. On his right a force of dragoons and artillery were deployed to hold the flank. The majority of his troops were then concentrated on the right flank. This enabled him to surprise Leslie by the

nature of his defense. Cromwell then took the offensive and drove the royalists back in disarray.

The Battle of Dunbar, September 3, 1650, resulted in the destruction of the Scots army, with some 3,000 Scots killed and 10,000 captured in a little more than an hour of fighting. Cromwell completed his march on Edinburgh and took the city.

Following this defeat Charles II overcame the objections of Sir David Leslie and led a new mostly Scots army in an invasion of England in 1651. Cromwell dispatched forces under John Lambert (1619–84) to harass the Scots on their march, while he led an army on a parallel route south. Charles Fleetwood (c. 1618–92) assembled a new parliamentarian force, which joined those of Cromwell and Lambert at Warwick on August 24, 1651. Charles and his army arrived in Worcester the day before. Here he resupplied his forces and built hasty fortifications.

Cromwell now enjoyed a two-to-one advantage over the royalists. Fleetwood and Lambert crossed the Severn River to the south of Worcester, while Cromwell drew the rest of his forces up to the east of the city. From this position he began an artillery bombardment, which prompted Charles to sally out against Cromwell's artillery battery. Charles was quickly driven back. For their part, however, Fleetwood and Lambert were having difficulty approaching the city and were repeatedly prevented from crossing the bridges over the Severn. Cromwell responded by building a bridge of boats. He led his infantry across, attacked the royalist forces, then, in concert with Lambert, at last pushed the royalists back from their bridges.

Seeing that Cromwell had badly mauled his northern troops, Charles attacked to the east. At first his attack drove the parliamentarians back, and Cromwell was forced to recross the Severn, but after three hours of fighting Cromwell drove the royalists back into the city, which he surrounded. The royalist army was defeated, but Charles II managed to escape—and would spend six weeks wandering through England before he found a boat that would evacuate him to France. Still, the defeat had been decisive, and the Second English Civil War was ended.

See also CROMWELL'S IRISH CAMPAIGN; CROMWELL'S SCOTTISH CAMPAIGN.

Further reading: Charles Carlton, *Going to the Wars* (London and New York: Routledge, 1992); Ian Gentles, *The New Model Army in England, Ireland and Scotland, 1645–1653* (Oxford and Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1992); John Kenyon, *The Civil Wars of England* (New York: Knopf, 1988); Peter Young and Richard Holmes, *The English Civil Wars: A Military History of the Three Civil Wars, 1641–1651* (London: Eyre Methuen, 1974).

English Conquest of Wales (1282–1284)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. Wales
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Wales
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England's Edward I sought to reconquer Wales from Prince Llewellyn ab Gruffyd and bring it back into the English fold.
OUTCOME: Edward succeeded but faced continual rebellion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

England's Edward I (1239–1307) resolved to reconquer Wales, which under the leadership of Prince Llewellyn ab Gruffyd (d. 1282) had achieved virtual independence from English rule. Once independent, the Welsh frequently raided the border country. It was these provocations that Edward found intolerable, and he fought Llewellyn at the Battle of Radnor in May 1282. Although Llewellyn fell at this battle, his longbowmen inflicted many casualties on the forces of Edward. Nevertheless, this victory brought Wales under nominal English rule—with emphasis on the word *nominal,* for Edward was compelled to campaign for the next two years throughout Wales to suppress ongoing rebellion. In the course of these campaigns, he adopted the potent Welsh longbow and thus brought the English forces to rapid parity with the Welsh.

See also HENRY II'S CAMPAIGNS IN WALES.

Further reading: John Davies, *A History of Wales* (New York: Penguin, 1995); R. R. Davies, *Conquest, Coexistence, and Change: Wales, 1063–1415* (Cardiff: University of Wales Press, 1987).

English Dynastic War (1135–1154)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Matilda, daughter of Henry I vs. Stephen of Blois, nephew of Henry I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of the throne following the death of Henry I
OUTCOME: A compromise was reached whereby Stephen would rule until his death and would be succeeded by Matilda's son, Henry II.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Winchester, 1154 (ratified at Westminster)

Henry I (1068–1135) of England died in 1135, having previously arranged with the barons for the succession of his daughter Matilda (1102–67) to the throne. Henry had thus sought to block the ascension of his nephew Stephen of Blois (c. 1097–1154). After Henry's death, however, the

barons together with the clergy offered the throne to Stephen, who immediately proved weak and indecisive. England was wracked with violent anarchy, and by 1138 the barons, who had elevated Stephen to the throne, were in full revolt against him. Their objective was to replace him with Matilda.

In 1139 forces loyal to Matilda under the command of her half brother Robert (d. 1147), earl of Gloucester, joined the fray. The result, for the most part, was a series of violent but inconclusive battles until the Battle of Lincoln (1141), at which Stephen was taken prisoner. Matilda, though uncrowned, assumed the throne—and immediately proved herself even less palatable than Stephen had been. Rebellion of an anarchical nature intensified. Matilda ordered an attack on Wolvesey Castle in Winchester, which was still held by Stephen's forces. While laying siege to the castle, Matilda's troops were attacked by another force loyal to Stephen. Taken by surprise, the besieging force was routed on September 14, 1141, and Robert, earl of Gloucester, was taken prisoner as he fled through Stockbridge. Matilda obtained his release by freeing Stephen, thereby losing what little advantage she had gained in the seesaw conflict. Within a year Matilda was driven from the throne and, indeed, driven from England. Stephen resumed his ineffectual rule.

Beginning in 1148 warfare was renewed by supporters of Matilda's son Henry Plantagenet (1133–89), duke of Normandy. Again, combat was chronic and indecisive during a period known as the "English Anarchy." In January 1153 Henry Plantagenet landed in England and marched against Wallingford, where Stephen's troops held the north bank of the Thames. The Battle of Wallingford commenced but soon ended in a draw, as neither side could make significant headway in the January ice and snow. Exhausted by this battle and years of war, the two sides concluded a truce whereby Stephen would continue to reign until his death, upon which he would be succeeded, without dispute, by Henry Plantagenet (who would reign as Henry II).

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1159–1189).

Further reading: John Beeler, *Warfare in England: 1066–1189* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1996); W. L. Warren, *Henry II* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2000).

English Invasions of Ireland (1394–1399)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. the Irish clans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ireland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Richard II sought to subdue the unruly Irish chieftains.
OUTCOME: A short-lived peace on terms favorable to Richard was established but quickly broken.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The throne Richard II (1367–1400) inherited at age 10 was beset by multiple rebellions, including revolts in Ireland. In 1394 Richard II invaded Ireland in an effort to put down warfare among rival clans. Richard handled this problem chiefly through a show of arms. Little fighting took place before 50 Irish chieftains acknowledged their submission to Richard II, who also bestowed knighthood on five Irish kings. The Irish peace was short-lived. In 1398 Richard's chief Irish administrator, the lord lieutenant, was killed in battle against rebellious clans. Once again, Richard led an army into Ireland, but the invasion proved abortive. The outbreak of HENRY OF BOLINGBROKE'S REVOLT back in England demanded his immediate attention. He withdrew from Ireland, leaving that country in a state of chronic rebellion and the death of his lord lieutenant unavenged.

Further reading: Robin Frame, *Ireland and Britain, 1170–1450* (London: Hambledon and London, 2003); G. A. Hayes-McCoy, *Irish Battles: A Military History of Ireland* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1997); Nigel Saul, *Richard II* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1997).

English Peasants' Revolt (Wat Tyler's Rebellion) (1381)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: English peasant "army" vs. Richard II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England, especially Kent, Essex, and London
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The oppressed peasantry sought tax relief and other economic reforms.
OUTCOME: After much violence the rebellion was put down.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebel strength was at least 100,000.
CASUALTIES: "Battle" deaths unknown; various government officials were assassinated; 1,500 rebels were hanged.
TREATIES: None

Also known as Wat Tyler's Rebellion, the revolt of the English peasants was one of many spasms of violence that threatened the troubled reign of Richard II (1367–1400). By the later years of the 14th century, England had been swept by plague and severe economic depression, its resources drained by the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR. As usual, those hardest hit could least afford to endure hardship. The English peasantry languished in great want and suffering, and English journeymen demanded higher wages.

In response the government attempted to institute wage controls, which angered and alienated the journeymen. When they did receive higher wages, the villein class (peasant serfs associated with the English villages) rose in anger, for they received no wages at all. To make matters worse, John of Gaunt (1340–99), regent to the youthful Richard II, imposed poll taxes in an effort to finance the ongoing Hundred Years' War.

In 1381 one of John's tax collectors decided to make a determination as to whether the daughter of a Kentish man, Wat Tyler (d. 1381), was of the taxable age of 15. He publicly stripped her naked and roughed her up. Hearing her screams, Tyler came to her aid and bashed in the tax collector's skull with a hammer. The crowd that had gathered around the commotion cheered, and Tyler soon found himself the leader of a disorderly "army" of rebellious west Kent men. Tyler's group joined another led by two itinerant priests, John Ball (d. 1381) and Jack Straw (fl. 1381). Now a mob army of about 100,000 men marched on London. Along the way and in the town, they broke open prisons and summarily beheaded every judge and lawyer unfortunate enough to fall into their hands. Tyler, Ball, and Straw had decreed that none of their peasant army be allowed to loot. However, they were given free rein to destroy whatever valuables they found.

After the rebels attacked and burned John of Gaunt's castle, Richard II met with the leaders, promising them reform and granting to them and their followers full pardons, but emotions were running high. The presence of the rebels from Essex and Kent had ignited the passions of London's peasantry. A mob stormed the Tower of London, assassinated Simon Sudbury (fl. 1375–81), the archbishop of Canterbury, and other government officials, and thereby succeeded in reversing the positive steps Richard had taken with Tyler and Straw. Richard called another meeting with Wat Tyler. He then ordered the lord mayor of London to "set hands on" the rebel, and Tyler was assassinated, stabbed through the throat and stomach in full view of the crowd. Richard immediately confronted the mob and declared Wat Tyler a traitor. "I'll be your leader," legend has it that he told them. Remarkably, the peasants fell in line behind the king and were dispersed by his army.

Leaderless, the peasants began drifting back to their homes. Richard, immediately reneged on his pardons. He took a large number of rebels prisoner and subjected them to sham trials presided over by Judge John Tresilian, who threatened jurors with death if they failed to return convictions. Approximately 1,500 rebels were hanged, and the rebellion was crushed.

See also JACQUERIE.

Further reading: Mark O'Brien, *When Adam Delved and Eve Span: A History of the Peasants' Revolt of 1381* (Cheltenham, U.K.: New Clarion Press, 2004); Nigel Saul, *Richard II* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1997).

English Revolution *See* GLORIOUS REVOLUTION.

Esopus War (Dutch-Indian Wars) (c. 1655–1664)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dutch colonists and Mohawk Indians vs. Esopus and Minisink Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lower Hudson River valley of New York
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Dutch with their Mohawk allies tried to establish a trade monopoly over the Hudson valley tribes, who resisted what would amount to tribal conquest.
OUTCOME: The Esopus and others were forced to come to terms with the Dutch.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: 1664

The Esopus War was an extended conflict between the Dutch settlers of New Netherland and the Esopus Indians of the lower Hudson valley begun during the mid-1650s and ending in 1664. The source of the conflict was principally the Dutch desire to assert absolute control over the Esopus, particularly in matters of trade, which the Indians resisted. In the so-called PEACH WAR of 1655, the New Netherlanders fell into a dispute with Indians on Manhattan while Governor Peter Stuyvesant (1592–1672) was absent from the colony. A war broke out that spread to Esopus (present-day Kingston, New York), before Stuyvesant could return to make peace, ransom hostages, and set down laws restricting the actions of mostly Algonquian Indian tribes (*see* ALGONQUIAN-DUTCH WAR).

Though Manhattan itself was never again subjected to Indian attack, the Esopus in the Hudson valley continued their raiding, and in May 1658 Dutch settlers there appealed to Stuyvesant for aid. Once again the governor managed to subdue the raids and make peace with the Indians, supervising the building of a palisade around the village of Esopus much like the one the Dutch had already erected in Manhattan (hence the name "Wall Street"). But in August the Indians resumed their attacks, this time along the Hudson, and Stuyvesant once again was called on for help. By October 1658 the Dutch were seeking an alliance with the powerful Susquehannock Indians, who agreed to intervene in the Esopus War.

To be sure, the Susquehannock were not overly fond of the Dutch, but in order to achieve favored trading status with them, they joined forces with their own traditional enemy, the Mohawk, to pressure the Esopus into coming to terms with the Dutch. The new peace lasted until 1663, when the Esopus—unhappy with the harsh terms

Stuyvesant and his Mohawk and Susquehannock allies had imposed on them—renewed their raiding. This time the Dutch not only completely defeated the Esopus, they confiscated their tribal lands, forcing them to sign a treaty in 1664 that gave the settlers the entire Esopus valley.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Paul Otto, "Esopus Wars," in *Colonial Wars of North America, 1512–1763,* edited by Alan Gallay (New York: Garland, 1996).

Estonian Revolt (St. George's Day Revolt) (1343–1345)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Estonian peasants vs. Danish and German nobles and the Teutonic Knights of Prussia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Estonia, especially in and around Reval (Tallinn)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Oppressed Estonian peasants wanted to overthrow their overlords.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed by the intervention of the Teutonic Knights.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Totals unknown; in initial violence rebels killed more than 1,800 nobles.
TREATIES: None

On April 23, 1343 (St. George's Day), Estonian peasants staged a major revolt against their Danish and German overlords. For this reason the Estonian Revolt is sometimes called the St. George's Day Revolt. The uprising was the culmination of years of chronic violence between the Estonian peasantry and the German and Danish nobles who held Estonia as a fiefdom and who had long abused the peasants, despite treaties and agreements guaranteeing their rights. The St. George's Day Revolt began in the Harjumaa district of Estonia and spread rapidly to surrounding areas and to Oesel (Saaremaa) Island. At least 1,800 nobles were quickly slain, and the peasant army laid siege to the city of Reval (Tallinn). The besiegers called on the Swedish forts in Finland for aid in taking the city, whereas Reval's defenders secured assistance from the Teutonic Knights of Prussia. The intervention of the Knights brought a truce, during which the Knights called for a peace conference. At the conference they treacherously murdered the peasant leaders in the hope of dealing the revolt a decapitating blow. The Knights then routed the leaderless peasant army before Swedish reinforcements could arrive from Finland.

The major part of the rebellion had been crushed, but King Waldemar IV (c. 1320–75) of Denmark had lost his state for attempting to govern Estonia. Because the Teutonic Knights were still occupying the region, Waldemar sold them northern Estonia in August 1346. The Teutonic Knights, in turn, bestowed the administration of the region to a related order, the Livonian Knights.

Further reading: Johan Kahk, *Peasant and Lord in the Process of Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism on the Baltic* (Tallinn: Esti Raamat Publishers, 1982).

Estonian War of Independence (1917–1920)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Estonia vs. Soviet Russia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Estonia and Soviet-Estonian border region
DECLARATION: Estonian independence declared on November 28, 1917
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Estonia fought for its independence from Soviet Russia.
OUTCOME: The Soviets recognized Estonian independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Estonian army, 75,000; Estonian Defense League, 119,000; Soviet Red Army, 160,000
CASUALTIES: Estonia, 3,588 dead, 13,775 wounded; no figures available for the Red Army
TREATIES: Treaty of Dorpat (Tartu), concluded on February 2, 1920

Before World War I Estonia was controlled by Russia. During the war, on November 28, 1917, Estonia declared its independence. The newly established Bolshevik government responded by invading the country, to which the Germans, in turn, responded by sending an army of occupation. Backed by the Germans, Estonia declared its independence a second time on February 24, 1918. By this time the Bolshevik government had concluded a"separate peace" with Germany in World War I by signing the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, which required the cession to German control of the Baltic states, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. The cession proved short-lived, however. With Germany's defeat in World War I on November 11, 1918, the Bolsheviks renounced the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk and on November 28, 1918, invaded Estonia. The Estonian army had been formed just a few days earlier, on November 16, 1918, and was small, largely untrained, and equipped only with weapons sent by Great Britain and Finland or captured from the enemy. At the beginning of the war, the Estonian army fielded a mere 2,200 men against an invading force of 9,000. While the Estonians built up their forces, the defenders conducted a general strategic retreat into the interior. Within the first six weeks of the war, the defenders had yielded almost half the country to the Soviet invaders. By January 1919 the disparity in strength between the two armies had been greatly reduced, and the advance of the Soviets was checked. Beginning on January

7 the Estonian forces, assisted by Finnish volunteers and a British squadron, commenced a general counteroffensive, which pushed the invaders out of the country by the end of the month.

By the fall of 1919, Estonian forces had grown to a regular army of 75,000 men and a Defense League of 119,000. The Soviets eventually committed 160,000 men to the war. In October 1919 Estonian general Nikolai N. Yudenich (1862–1933) turned the tables on the Soviets by launching an invasion against Petrograd (St. Petersburg). Under Soviet leader Leon Trotsky (1879–1940), a defense force was hastily assembled to repel the invasion, and Yudenich withdrew into Estonia. The point, however, had been made, and the Soviets, in the throes of their own RUSSIAN CIVIL WAR (1917–1922), realized they could no longer afford to devote military resources against Estonia. By the Treaty of Dorpat (Tartu), concluded on February 2, 1920, the Soviet government recognized Estonian independence.

Further reading: Andres Kasekamp, *The Radical Right in Interwar Estonia* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2000); Igor Sedykh, comp., *Estonia: Choice of a Path, 1917–1940* (Moscow: Novosti Press Agency Publishing House, 1987).

Ethiopia, British Expedition in (British-Abyssinian War) (1867–1868)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British and Indian troops and dissident tribes vs. forces of Emperor Tewodros II of Ethiopia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ethiopia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: An Anglo-Indian force sought to liberate British consular officials imprisoned by Ethiopian emperor Tewodros.
OUTCOME: The Anglo-Indian force fought its way to the city of Magdala, and in the face of impending capture Tewodros committed suicide.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anglo-Indian, 13,088; Tewodros II's forces, unknown
CASUALTIES: Anglo-Indian forces, 845 killed or wounded; Tewodros II's forces, 700+ killed
TREATIES: None

The petty Ethiopian chieftain named Kasa (1818–68) seized control of the country and crowned himself emperor Tewodros II in 1855. The early years of his reign were peaceful and beneficial to the country, but in his later years his behavior became erratic. In 1867 he imprisoned British consular officials at Magdala because he was angry that Queen Victoria (1819–1901) had not responded to a request for British aid. In retaliation an expeditionary force made up of about 13,088 British and Indian soldiers landed at Zula on the Red Sea coast. Under the leadership of Robert C. Napier (1810–90), this army moved inland across the mountains, gathering support from tribal enemies of the emperor along the way.

Napier led his forces against those of Tewodros II at Arogee on April 10, 1868. In a one-sided battle some 700 of the emperor's troops were killed, while the British and their auxiliaries lost 2 killed and 18 wounded. In a frenzy of despair and outrage over this defeat, Tewodros ordered the deaths of several hundred Abyssinian members of rival clans. These individuals were pushed off a 300-foot precipice from the fortress of Magdala. When Magdala itself was taken by the British on April 13, 1868, Tewodros shot himself to avoid capture. Napier freed the British consular prisoners and sacked the city. The country immediately fell into a civil war over the issue of succession to the throne.

See also SUDANESE WAR OF 1896–1899.

Further reading: Carol Ann Gillespie, *Ethiopia* (New York: Chelsea House, 2002); Harold G. Marcus, *A History of Ethiopia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001).

Ethiopian Civil War (1868–1872)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chieftains seeking to succeed Tewodros II to the Ethiopian throne
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ethiopia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Three rivals sought succession to the throne of Tewodros II: Tekla Giorgis, Kasa Mercha, and Menelik.
OUTCOME: Kasa Mercha was crowned emperor as Yohannis IV but was continually opposed by Menelik.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Ethiopian emperor Tewodros II (1818–68) sought to reestablish a strong monarchy to create a cohesive Ethiopian state. Toward this end he conducted a successful military campaign against the rebellious Shewa region but soon found himself confronted by rebellions in other provinces as well. During the first six years of his reign, Tewodros was able to put down these rebellions, and from roughly 1861 to 1863 Ethiopia was relatively peaceful. Yet it remained vulnerable, and by 1865 a new crop of rebels, including the Shewan leader, Menelik (1844–1913), emerged. To bolster his rule Tewodros sought aid from the British government, proposing a joint expedition for the conquest of Jerusalem. The would-be allies fell out,

however, and Tewodros took a number of British representatives hostage. In response in 1868 a British expeditionary force was dispatched from India to secure release of the hostages. When the British force stormed Tewodros's stronghold, the emperor committed suicide. (*See* ETHIOPIA, BRITISH EXPEDITION IN.)

His death threw Ethiopia into chaos and opened the door to widespread rebellion and civil war. In particular, Tewodros's clumsy attempt to reform the church by taxing or confiscating church lands had earned him many powerful enemies in the church while gaining little support outside it. A number of leaders rushed in to fill the power vacuum left by the emperor's death. Tekla Giorgis took over the central part of the highlands, whereas Kasa Mercha (1831–89), governor of Tigray and covetous of the throne himself, refused to recognize his authority. Menelik of Shewa, however, came to terms with Tekla Giorgis in return for his promise to respect the independence of Shewa. This settled for the time being, Tekla Giorgis attacked Kasa Mercha, hoping to subjugate him. However, his small army, equipped with modern European weapons, defeated Tekla Giorgis, and in 1872 Kasa Mercha was crowned emperor at the ancient capital of Aksum. He assumed the throne name of Yohannis IV.

Despite his pledge to Menelik to respect Shewan independence, Yohannis struggled to bring the region under his control. He succeeded some six years later. Nevertheless, Menelik, who proclaimed himself king of Shewa, consolidated his power in the region and extended his rule over the neighboring Oromo to the south and west. Menelik would successfully claim the throne after the death of Yohannis in 1889.

Further reading: Carol Ann Gillespie, *Ethiopia* (New York: Chelsea House, 2002); Harold G. Marcus, *A History of Ethiopia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Harold G. Marcus, *The Life and Times of Menelik II: Ethiopia 1844–1913* (Lawrenceville, N.J.: Red Sea Press, 1995).

Ethiopian-Egyptian War (1875–1877)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ethiopia vs. Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ethiopia's Red Sea coast
DECLARATION: Ethiopia on Egypt, 1875
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Egypt sought to establish colonies along Ethiopia's Red Sea coast.
OUTCOME: Egypt held some coastal cities for a time (and the inland city of Harar until 1887) but was generally pushed out of Ethiopia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Toward the end of the 19th century, as the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire steadily accelerated, Ismail Pasha (1830–95), khedive of Egypt and only nominally an Ottoman vassal, embarked on a campaign of Egyptian colonization along Ethiopia's Red Sea coast. By 1875 Ismail Pasha had taken a number of Ethiopian ports as well as the inland city of Harar. To counter the Egyptian incursions, Ethiopian emperor Yohannis IV (1831–89), although beset by internal conflict (*see* ETHIOPIAN CIVIL WAR), declared war on Egypt. Yohannis attacked and retook Aussa during the first year of the war, then in 1876 was victorious in a battle fought near Gura. Ismail Pasha counterattacked in 1877 at Gura and Gondar but was successfully repulsed by Yohannis. After this defeat the Egyptians withdrew from Ethiopia.

Further reading: Carol Ann Gillespie, *Ethiopia* (New York: Chelsea House, 2002); Harold G. Marcus, *A History of Ethiopia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Harold G. Marcus, *The Life and Times of Menelik II: Ethiopia 1844–1913* (Lawrenceville, N.J.: Red Sea Press, 1995).

Ethiopian-Eritrean Guerrilla War (1961–ongoing)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Eritrea vs. Ethiopia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eritrea and the Ethiopian-Eritrean border region (especially Badame)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In the first phase of the conflict (1961–91), the issue was Eritrea's bid for independence from Ethiopia; in the second phase (beginning in 1998), the issue was control of the Badame region, hotly contested between Eritrea and Ethiopia.
OUTCOME: Eritrea achieved its independence, but the border war between Ethiopia and Eritrea continued.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Totals unknown; the largest single Eritrean guerrilla organization fielded 10,000 men.
CASUALTIES: More than 250,000 (mostly civilians) during the first phase of the war
TREATIES: None

The British seized Eritrea from Italian control early in WORLD WAR II and governed the region as a protectorate until 1952, when it was given the status of an autonomous province of Ethiopia. Possession of Eritrea was important to Ethiopia because it afforded that country access to the Red Sea. Eritrea soon chafed under its subjugation to Ethiopia, which imposed itself culturally and politically on the region. Amharic, the language of Ethiopia, was decreed the official language of Eritrea, and all government administrators were Ethiopian. Friction increased

steadily until in 1961 the Cairo-based Eritrean Liberation Front (ELF) directed an armed struggle against Ethiopian authority. For almost a decade rebellion was chronic yet ineffectual, largely because the Eritrean nationalists disputed among themselves. Finally, in 1970 a new nationalist force made its appearance, the Eritrean People's Liberation Front (EPLF), which mustered about 10,000 guerrillas. Yet another party soon materialized, the ELF/PLF. All three parties were mutually hostile, expending much of their resources fighting one another rather than the Ethiopian government.

In 1967 the Ethiopian government staged a massive operation against Eritrean dissidents, forcing many Eritreans out of the country and into Sudan. In 1971 Ethiopia declared martial law in Eritrea, but resistance continued. All sides were hampered by famine (especially in 1973 and 1975) and by the demise of the imperial government of Ethiopia, which led to widespread rebellion within Ethiopia proper throughout the later 1970s. When neighboring Somalia invaded the Ogaden region of Ethiopia in 1978 (*see* ETHIOPIAN-SOMALI BORDER WAR), Ethiopia called on the Soviet Union and the Cuban government for military aid to drive the Somalis out. This accomplished, the Ethiopian government next returned its attention to Eritrea, launching major offensives against the guerrillas in 1978 through 1979. Still, Eritrea resisted.

In the meantime, with the fall of Haile Selassie (1892–1975), the latest dictator, Mengistu Haile Mariam (b. 1937), transformed Ethiopia into a brutal totalitarian communist regime. He unleashed a campaign of great ferocity against the guerrillas in Eritrea as well as Ogaden and Tigre. Instead of diminishing resistance, however, the campaign served only to harden and augment the guerrilla movement. In 1990 Mengistu lost Soviet support, and the guerrillas made significant inroads. The important port town of Massawa fell into rebel hands, and the EPLF menaced the capital, Addis Ababa, with invasion. It was, however, yet another nationalist guerrilla group, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF), that, in league with the Tigre People's Liberation Front (TPLF) and the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF), succeeded in overthrowing Mengistu in 1991. The EPLF then took control of Eritrea, which attained full independence on May 3, 1993. At least a quarter million people had died in the three-decade struggle, which was renewed beginning in 1998, when Eritrea and Ethiopia fell to disputing over Badame, a border region in northern Ethiopia.

The conflict quickly flared in Badame. Instead of guerrilla action, both sides relied heavily on tanks, artillery, and air power. Eritrea brought the war to the civilian population by bombing towns in northern Ethiopia, and Ethiopia retaliated with air raids on Asmara, capital of Eritrea. In June both sides accepted a partial cease-fire—a moratorium on air raids—brokered by Rwanda and the United States, but by fall 1998 and spring 1999, full-scale fighting resumed. Even some years in to the 21st century, the issue remained unresolved.

Further reading: Carol Ann Gillespie, *Ethiopia* (New York: Chelsea House, 2002); Harold G. Marcus, *A History of Ethiopia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Bahru Zewele, *A History of Modern Ethiopia, 1855–1974* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 2001).

Ethiopian-Somali Border War (1963–1988)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ethiopia vs. Somalia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Ogaden region of Ethiopia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ethiopia and Somalia contested possession of Ogaden, a border region.
OUTCOME: Ethiopia withdrew from the disputed area.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown; however, famine, brought on by years of war, created casualties in the hundreds of thousands. Some 1.3 million residents of Ogaden were made refugees in the course of the war.
TREATIES: A peace agreement concluded on April 3, 1988, brought an end to most of the fighting.

The Republic of Somalia was formed in 1960 by the union and independence of the former Italian Somaliland and British Somaliland. Almost immediately, the new republic sought expansion into the former French Somaliland (Djibouti) as well as Kenya and a region known as the Haud, much of which was located in the Ogaden region of Ethiopia. The Somali claim on the Haud was tenuous at best. When Somalia had been a British protectorate, administrators had granted the Somalis the right to graze their livestock in the region. Based on this Somalia now asserted its claim, and armed clashes in Ogaden became increasingly frequent beginning in 1963. The struggle heated up in the 1970s, which were especially turbulent times for Ethiopia, struggling not only against Somalia but against nationalist guerrillas in Eritrea (*see* ETHIOPIAN-ERITREAN GUERRILLA WAR). The discovery of oil in Ogaden made the disputed region that much more valuable, and the fall of Haile Selassie's (1892–1975) government in 1974 brought great instability, which led to a short-lived Somali revolt in Ogaden.

In 1978 Ethiopia called on the Soviets and Cubans for assistance in ejecting the Somalis from Ogaden. After a temporary withdrawal the Somalis returned, and the Ethiopians responded with bombing raids on Somali towns along the border. For the next 10 years a low-level guerrilla conflict was fought within the disputed borderland. In 1980 the United States gave Somalia modern weapons in exchange for the use of certain military bases.

The escalation of the war resulted in a massive influx of refugees from war-torn Ogaden into Somalia, which was quicky overwhelmed by some 1.3 million starving persons. The United States rushed in food and other supplies. In the meantime, however, two major Somali guerrilla factions together with a host of smaller units continued to fight for possession of Ogaden.

In 1988 the Somali National Movement (SNM), a faction opposed to the Somali government, incited a major rebellion in Hargeysa, a regional capital, and laid siege to the port of Berbera. Somali government forces put down this rebellion by the end of the year. With both the governments of Somalia and Ethiopia beleaguered by rebellion, the two sides hammered out a peace agreement on April 3, 1988, whereby Ethiopia withdrew from the disputed region and Somalia, in turn, pledged to withdraw all support from antigovernment organizations in Ethiopia.

Further reading: Christopher Clapham, *Haile Selassie's Government* (New York, Praeger, 1969); Carol Ann Gillespie, *Ethiopia* (New York: Chelsea House, 2002); John W. Harbeson, *The Ethiopian Transformation: The Quest for the Post-Imperial State* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1988); Harold G. Marcus, *A History of Ethiopia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Bahru Zewele, *A History of Modern Ethiopia, 1855–1974* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 2001).

Ethiopian Unification (1854–1856)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Lij Kassa (subsequently Emperor Theodore II) vs. Ras Ali and Ras Ubie, and, separately, Emperor John III
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Abyssinia (Ethiopia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Unification of Ethiopia under Lij Kassa
OUTCOME: Lij Kassa emerged victorious to become Emperor Theodore II.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Ethiopia—more commonly known as Abyssinia during the 19th century—was a collection of warring tribal chieftains until the emergence of Lij Kassa (c. 1818–68), who defeated the combined forces of rival chieftains Ras Ali and Ras Ubie at the Battle of Gorgora on the shores of Lake Tana in 1854. This victory gave Lij Kassa complete control over all of Ethiopia's northern and central districts. In 1855 Lij Kassa defeated and overthrew John (or Yohannes) III, nominal emperor of Abyssinia and then conquered the heart of Ethiopia, Shewa (Shoa) Province. With this conquest completed Lij Kassa crowned himself emperor as Theodore II.

The new ruler made dynamic moves to modernize Ethiopia and to reform the government. His removal of the capital from Gondar to Magdala in 1856 symbolized the unification of the kingdom. Theodore II drew heavily on the counsel of two British advisers. Their deaths, together with the death of his wife, undermined the emperor's mental health, and he degenerated into a paranoia that prompted extreme and arbitrary acts of cruelty.

Further reading: Carol Ann Gillespie, *Ethiopia* (New York: Chelsea House, 2002); Harold G. Marcus, *A History of Ethiopia* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); Bahru Zewele, *A History of Modern Ethiopia, 1855–1974* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 2001).

Etruscan-Roman Wars, Early (c. 509–308 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Etruscan city-states vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought the conquest of Etruscan Italy.
OUTCOME: Etruria steadily lost ground, becoming confined to a corridor between the Apennine Mountains and the forest of Cumae.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents exist

The influx into Italy of the Anatolian (Turkish) people we know as the Etruscans brought conflict with the Latin peoples of the region. Etruscan settlers founded Rome by consolidating a number of Latin villages and established in this city-state the Tarquin dynasty. A coup in 509 B.C.E. replaced the last Tarquin king with the Roman republic and initiated warfare between the new forces of Rome and the Etruscans, who held sway over about 40 percent of Italy.

The Etruscan military leader Tarquinius Superbus (d. c. 503 B.C.E.) attacked Rome in an effort to retake the city. The forces of an Etruscan ally, Clusium (Chiusi), overran Rome, but then Lars Porsena, the king of Clusium, claimed the prize for himself. To dislodge his erstwhile ally, Tarquinius joined forces with the Sabines, some Latins, and the Greeks of Cumae to attack the Clusian army in Rome. This effort failed, and Tarquinius withdrew to Cumae, where he died, defeated and broken.

Roman forces then emanated from their central city-state to conquer the Etruscan city-states. Veii (Veio) became the object of a decade-long war from 483 to 474. Veiian counteroffensives nearly toppled Rome, which concluded a 40-year truce. The war was renewed in 438 as the

First Roman War with Veii. This was followed by a second truce period, which was broken in 405 by the Second Roman War with Veii.

The ultimate loss of Veii—whose citizens were sold into mass slavery—greatly eroded the Etruscan grip on Italy. Sutrium and Nepi fell to the Romans in 387, followed in 384 by Caere and Pyrgi. The city-state of Tarquinii resisted Roman conquest fiercely from 358 to 351, extracted a truce from Rome, then made a desperate alliance with Sutrium, which together rose up against the Romans. This rebellion was put down by 309, the same year in which Perusia (Perugia) fell into Roman hands. At this point Rome came to displace most of Etruria save for territory between the Apennines and forest of Cumae.

See also ROME, CELTIC SACK OF; ROMAN WARS WITH VEII.

Further reading: Graeme Barker and Tom Rasmussen, *Etruscans* (London: Blackwell, 1998); Morgan Llywelyn and Michael Scott, *Etruscans* (New York: Tom Doherty Associates, 2000); Massimo Pallottino, *Etruscans* (London: Allen Lane, 1974).

Etruscan-Roman Wars, Later (c. 302–264 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Etruscans (with Gallic and Epirean allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to complete its conquest of Etruria; Etruria resisted.
OUTCOME: Despite a long guerrilla war, the Etruscan city-states fell under Roman domination and relinquished all independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Etruscan-Gallic forces lost 25,000 at the Battle of Sentium; civilian losses late in these wars were much higher.
TREATIES: No documents exist.

The long series of Early ETRUSCAN-ROMAN WARS (c. 509–308 B.C.E.) was ended by a truce, which was quickly broken. The first new outbreak came at Arrentium (Arezzo) about 302 B.C.E. when citizens rose up against the Cilnii family, Etruscan rulers who were allied with the Romans. A Roman force was sent to intervene but was ambushed and defeated. After regrouping the Romans outflanked a would-be ambush at the Battle of Rusellae (Roselle) and defeated the rebels by overwhelming them with skillfully deployed cavalry units. This resulted in a two-year truce, which, however, was not taken as binding by many of the rebels. These diehards recruited allies among the Gauls and others. A major battle was fought near Volterra in 298, resulting in an Etruscan-Gallic loss, and an even bigger disaster followed at Sentium in 295, when the rebels lost 25,000 men. This shook loose the towns of Rusellae, Perusia, and Volsinii (Bolsena) by 294.

The devastating defeat of the Etruscans and their allies ushered in a 40-year truce and extracted for Rome punishing indemnities. Yet again, despite the formal truce, a new Etruscan-Gallic counteroffensive was mounted in 283. Two battles were fought at Lake Vadimo, both resulting in defeat for the Etruscans and the Gauls. Epirus came to the aid of the Etruscans in the form of a force led by the able King Pyrrhus (319–272), who attacked Rome. While Epirus made headway, the Etruscans buckled at Vulci and Volsinii, which left Pyrrhus no choice but to abandon Rome and retreat to Tarentum (Taranto) on the coast of southern Italy. This resulted in the ROMAN WAR AGAINST PYRRHUS OF EPIRUS.

As a result of their defeat, both Vulci and Volsinii lost their independence from Rome. Vulci submitted, but Volsinii rebelled against the Roman conquerors in 264. This proved a disastrous mistake, as Roman forces overwhelmed and devastated the city.

From this point on Etruria was at least nominally a Roman possession. In actuality, throughout the region a low-level guerrilla war ensued during which Etruscan rebels sabotaged Roman war efforts elsewhere. Continual Etruscan provocation incited the Roman commander Lucius Cornelius Sulla (138–78) to embark on a punitive campaign throughout Etruria. Devastated, the Etruscans lost their grip on the last free cities, Valathrii (Volterra), in 80, and Perusia (Perugia) 40 years later.

See also PUNIC WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: Graeme Barker and Tom Rasmussen, *Etruscans* (London: Blackwell, 1998); Morgan Llywelyn and Michael Scott, *Etruscans* (New York: Tom Doherty Associates, 2000); Massimo Pallottino, *Etruscans* (London: Allen Lane, 1974).

Eucratides Revolt

See BACTRIAN-PARTHIAN WAR.

Eureka Stockade Miners' Rebellion (1854)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Australian immigrant miners vs. government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Australian gold fields, principally the Eureka gold field
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Miners protested government overregulation and oppressive taxation and sought the right to vote.
OUTCOME: The "rebellion" at Eureka was put down, but the social movement with which it was associated flourished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Eureka, 400 government troops vs. about 150 miners

CASUALTIES: 30 killed at the Eureka stockade; many other casualties in the surrounding area
TREATIES: None

This incident was more in the nature of a riot than a full-scale rebellion. Gold was discovered in Australia in 1851, triggering an influx of immigrants similar to the California Gold Rush of 1849. To regulate immigration and the management of the mines, the British government passed a series of restrictive laws, the most hated of which was the licensing of mines. Prospectors were required to purchase costly government licenses before beginning to work a claim. This barred many prospectors from the gold fields, and, even for those who could ante up the fee, it posed a great financial risk if the mine did not pan out. In addition to the licensing fees, miners were subjected to frequent and arbitrary government inspections that were intended to do nothing more or less than exercise control over the miners.

As mostly new immigrants, the miners had no vote and, therefore, no legal means of protesting the laws. Instead, they launched a series of spontaneous demonstrations, one of which in 1854 grew sufficiently violent that the government dispatched troops to put it down. The confrontation incited a movement for universal suffrage throughout Australia. With emotions running high and much of the country in turmoil, the government stayed its hand until irate miners began publicly burning licenses to show their contempt for government authority. At this, more troops were deployed. In response to the deployment, the miners of the Eureka gold field formed themselves into military-style units, hastily built a stockaded fort, and stockpiled whatever weapons they could find. In December 1854, 400 government troops stormed the stockade, which was manned by 150 miners. The stockade was overrun, the defenders routed, and 30 miners killed. The troops did not stop with the taking of the Eureka stockade but next rode through the mining camp, killing a few miners and wounding many more. Although while the Eureka incident ended armed rebellion among the miners, it served only to strengthen and perpetuate the general movement throughout the Australian working class for universal extension of the franchise.

Further reading: Geoffrey Blainey, *The Rush That Never Ended: A History of Australian Mining* (Melbourne, Australia: Melbourne University Press, 1993); Robert Hughes, *The Fatal Shore: The Epic of Australia's Founding* (New York: Random House, 1986).

Euthydemus's Revolt (230 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Euthydemus vs. Diodotus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bactria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Euthydemus sought control of Bactria.
OUTCOME: Euthydemus achieved a successful coup and became king of Bactria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the death of Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.), the Macedonian Empire he had amassed began to disintegrate, especially in Bactria and Parthia (*see* DIADOCHI, WARS OF THE). In 255 Diodotus II (fl. Third century B.C.E.), Seleucid satrap of Bactria, rebelled against his Seleucid overlord, Antiochus II Theos (286–247) and created an independent kingdom. This he expanded by first conquering neighboring Sogdiana and then expanded to the east, approaching the Indus River, and to the west, penetrating Parthia.

Under Seleucus II (d. 226), an army attempted to retake Bactria and the other territories from Diodotus, but in league with Arsaces II, Diodotus defeated Seleucus—who was forced to abort his campaign to defend against a revolt by his brother. Diodotus was thus left to rule over Bactria, but years of battling had strained his resources, and he fell victim in 230 to the Greco-Macedonian warlord Euthydemus (fl. late Third century B.C.E.). In a coup, Euthydemus killed Diodotus and instantly assumed control of the expanded kingdom of Bactria.

Further reading: H. G. Rawlinson, *Bactria: From the Earliest Times to the Extinction of Bactrio-Greek Rule in the Punjab* (Delhi: Bharatiya Publishing House, 1978); William W. Tarn, *Greeks in Bactria and India* (Golden, Colo.: Ares Publishers, 1984).

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Falkland Islands War (Islas Malvinas War) (1982)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Argentina vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Falkland Islands and associated islands
DECLARATION: No declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Argentina wanted to assert sovereignty over the British-held Falkland Islands and associated islands.
OUTCOME: Argentina suffered a decisive loss and yielded sovereignty to Britain.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: British, 25,000; Argentina, 166,000
CASUALTIES: British, 235 killed, 777 wounded; Argentina, at least 655 killed
TREATIES: Cease-fire, June 14, 1982

The Falkland Islands, off the coast of Argentina in the South Atlantic, called by the Argentines the Islas Malvinas, were disputed territory since the 17th century. Britain formally occupied the Falklands in 1833 and expelled Argentines living there; however, Argentina persisted in asserting its claims to the islands—even as the population of British nationals and their descendants grew. On February 27, 1982, negotiations between Argentina and Great Britain over Falklands sovereignty broke down, eliciting a threat from Argentina to settle the matter "by other means." At this time, Argentina was governed by the bellicose Leopoldo Fortunato Galtieri (1926–2003), who was spoiling for a war he believed would greatly bolster his flagging support from a nation in deep economic and political distress. Inflation had soared to more than 600 percent, while production and wages plummeted. The military dictatorship ruling the country had cracked down on dissent by means of "disappearances"—the abduction and murder of dissidents. Unrest was growing.

On March 19, 1982, a group of Argentine scrap metal salvagers working on South Georgia Island, one of the islands in the Falklands group and escorted by Argentine troops, raised the Argentine flag. Britain's call on Argentina to remove the military personnel received no response. A few days later, on March 26, 1982, the Argentine government decided to invade the islands by launching Operación Rosario. Argentine admiral Jorge Anaya had planned the invasion to coincide with a key national political holiday, either the revolution anniversary on May 25 or Independence Day, July 9, but the eruption of mass union demonstrations in late March prompted Galtieri to move D-Day up to April 2, 1982. On this day, the Argentine navy landed thousands of troops on the islands, which were defended by a severely outnumbered detachment of Royal Marines. After a brief resistance, the marines withdrew, on orders of Governor Rex Hunt (b. 1921), and were evacuated, with the governor, by air to Montevideo, Uruguay.

On April 3, Argentine troops seized the South Georgia and South Sandwich islands after a brief battle in which an Argentine helicopter was forced down and four Argentine troops killed. Next, General Mario Menéndez (b. 1924) was proclaimed military governor of the Falklands and associated islands. Although the invasion and occupation were immediately popular in Argentina, as Galtieri had hoped, the United Nations Security Council passed

Resolution 502 calling for the withdrawal of Argentine troops from the islands and the immediate cessation of hostilities. Backed by the resolution, British prime minister Margaret Thatcher (b. 1925) dispatched the First Royal Air Force to Ascension Island.

While the British built up forces in the area, Argentina drafted young men into the army and, without training them, sent some 10,000 to the islands. In the meantime, on April 8, 1982, U.S. secretary of state Alexander Haig (b. 1924) began a mediation effort. Two days later, the European Economic Community (EEC) levied trade sanctions against Argentina, and Haig flew from London to Buenos Aires for talks with the Argentine government. By April 19, talks had broken down, and on April 23, the British Foreign Office advised British nationals in Argentina to leave. Two days later, a small British commando force landed on South Georgia Island and retook it. Royal Navy forces attacked and disabled the Argentine submarine *Santa Fe,* and the commander of the Argentine forces on South Georgia signed an unconditional surrender. Argentine forces on the island did not fire a single shot.

While the action on South Georgia Island was taking place, the main British task force approached the Falklands. On May 1, British carrier-based aircraft attacked the Port Stanley airfield and shot down three Argentine aircraft. The next day, Galtieri responded positively to a peace proposal submitted by Fernando Belaúnde Terry (1912–2002), president of Peru. The British, however, kept up the pressure. The submarine HMS *Conqueror* sank the Argentine cruiser *General Belgrano,* which was outside the war zone and sailing away from the islands. Almost 400 Argentine sailors died, prompting Galtieri to reject the proposal. The war continued.

On May 4, Argentina launched air attacks with French-built Exocet air-to-surface missiles, one of which sank the British destroyer HMS *Sheffield,* with the loss of 20 men. A single British Harrier jet was also shot down. By May 7, the United Nations entered peace negotiations, but, on May 9, the British escalated the war by bombarding the islands from the sea as well as the air. The Argentine trawler *Narwal* was sunk, and, on May 11, the Argentine supply ship *Isla de los Estados* was also sunk. Three days later, three Argentine Skyhawk fighters were shot down amid warnings from Prime Minister Thatcher that a peaceful settlement "may not be possible." That night, a British Special Forces unit raided Pebble Island, destroying 11 Argentine aircraft on the ground, and, on May 18, the Thatcher government rejected a United Nations peace proposal. Three days after this, the British landed a major force near Port San Carlos, on the northern coast of East Falkland. From this beachhead, British infantry advanced south to capture Darwin and Goose Green, turning here toward the principal city of Port Stanley. Yet even while these British triumphs were being achieved, HMS *Ardent* was sunk by an Argentine air attack, although nine Argentine aircraft were also lost in the attack. Another British warship, HMS *Antelope,* was sunk on May 23, and yet again the cost to Argentina was high, at 10 aircraft and seven more the following day.

HMS *Coventry* was attacked from the air and badly damaged on May 25, and a British commercial vessel, MV *Atlantic Conveyor,* was damaged by an Exocet missile. It sank three days later, with the loss of 12 British seamen. On May 28, against a backdrop of more air raids on Port Stanley, the British 2nd Battalion, Parachute Regiment, secured Darwin and Goose Green in the war's major land battle. The British fielded 600 men against 1,400 Argentines in well-prepared positions, but nevertheless won the battle. British losses were 17 killed, whereas approximately 200 Argentine soldiers fell in battle and 1,400 surrendered. The following day, British warships and Harrier fighters bombarded Argentine positions, preparatory to a new British advance on May 30. The town of Douglas fell to British troops, as did Teal Inlet. On the 31st, Mount Kent was taken, and Port Stanley was now surrounded.

With a clear advantage, Britain held firm on its cease-fire demand for unconditional surrender, vetoing a Panamanian-Spanish cease-fire resolution in the UN Security Council on June 4. On June 8, Argentine aircraft attacked the British landing craft *Sir Galahad* and *Sir Tristam* at Port Pleasant, killing 50 men. Undaunted, British troops attacked Mount Longdon on June 12 in a battle against well-prepared positions that concluded with hand-to-hand combat. Twenty-three British troops were killed and 47 wounded. Argentine losses were 50 dead and many more wounded. With victory at Mount Longdon, other positions soon fell to the British; however, the cruiser HMS *Glamorgan* was badly damaged by an Exocet missile, with the loss of 13 British lives.

On June 14, the major Argentine garrison at Port Stanley was defeated in the culminating battle of the war, prompting Argentine commander Mario Menendez to agree to "an unnegotiated cease-fire . . . with no other condition than the deletion of the word unconditional" from the surrender document. Six days later, after reoccupying the South Sandwich Islands, Britain formally declared an end to hostilities. The 72-day war had cost 235 British killed and 777 wounded; the number of Argentine casualties is unknown, but at least 655 were killed. British sovereignty over the Falklands was affirmed, Margaret Thatcher was propelled to great popularity among the British, and Galtieri was forced to resign. Although Argentina decisively lost the war, the Argentine people ultimately benefited. With the resignation of Galtieri and the disintegration of his military junta, Argentina was started toward the restoration of democratic government.

Further reading: Duncan Anderson, *The Falklands War* (London: Osprey, 2002); Max Hastings and Simon Jenkins, *The Battle for the Falklands* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1984).

Fascist March on Rome (1922)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Fascist Blackshirts vs. the Italian government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy and Rome
DECLARATION: March was announced on October 26, 1922.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Despite Benito Mussolini's efforts to mythologize the March on Rome as one of the most momentous events in history, it was a brief and relatively peaceful show of Fascist power, which nevertheless propelled Mussolini to the position of prime minister, from which he ultimately became absolute dictator of Italy. Brief as it was, the March on Rome was, in effect, Italy's Fascist revolution.
OUTCOME: Mussolini was named Italy's prime minister.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Blackshirt marchers, 26,000 (more arrived later); government troops defending Rome, 12,000
CASUALTIES: Very few in northern Italy; none in Rome itself
TREATIES: None; Mussolini's appointment as prime minister ended the action.

The summer of 1922 saw an escalation in the turbulence that had beset Italy following World War I. Among the welter of political factions, the Fascists, led by Benito Mussolini (1883–1945), emerged as strongest. Mussolini, an autodidactic blacksmith's son and a former schoolteacher, had pursued a career as a socialist journalist, in which capacity he argued strongly against Italy's entry into World War I. But, in the single most momentous decision of his life, he suddenly broke with the Socialists and urged Italy's entry into the war on the side of the Allies. Expelled by the Socialist Party for this reversal, Mussolini started his own newspaper in Milan, *Il popolo d'Italia,* and in its pages propounded the message of what became the Fascist movement. After service as a private in the Italian army during World War I, he resumed publication of his newspaper, and on March 23, 1919, with poet, novelist, romantic patriot, and glamorous adventurer Gabriele d'Annunzio (1863–1938), he and other war veterans founded a new party, the Fasci di combattimento. The Italian word *fascio* ("bundle" or "bunch") suggested union, and the fasces, a bundle of rods bound together around an ax with the blade protruding, was the ancient Roman symbol of power.

Fascism may have originated with the socialist Left, but it was almost immediately transformed into radical right-wing nationalism—a vision of re-creating in modern Italy the imperial grandeur of ancient Rome. Intoxicated by this vision, powerful landowners in the lower Po valley, important industrialists, and senior army officers joined Mussolini, who formed squads of thugs, the Blackshirts, whom he deployed in a street-level civil war against Socialists, Communists, the Catholic political party, and Liberals. Acting against a weak and inept government, Mussolini's black-shirted followers seized power on March 26 in Bologna, Milan, and other major cities. Emboldened, Mussolini called for the resignation of Italy's Liberal premier Luigi Facta (1861–1930) and the formation of a new, Fascist-dominated government. His demand was shrill, and he threatened civil war if Facta failed to step down.

By October 28, 1922, the Fascists felt powerful enough to stage the march on Rome they had announced two days earlier. The plan called for them to begin at midnight. The Blackshirts already held the key industrial cities of northern Italy. Now they would assemble on October 28 at three rallying points north of Rome: at Santa Marinella near Civitavecchia, at Monterotondo, and at Tivoli. Once assembled, the three columns were to advance on Rome itself. Prior to the advance, one of Mussolini's lieutenants, Italo Balbo (1896–1940), sent a secret squad into Rome to plant bombs that could be set off in an emergency to discourage any government resistance.

Meanwhile, the ineffectual Facta had announced on October 27 that the nation was in a state of insurrection and authorized the army to maintain law and order. He ordered General Emanuele Pugliese, commanding 12,000 troops in Rome, to prepare the city for an invasion. In Milan, Bologna, Turin, and Genoa, the army also took control. But although the army obeyed government orders to deploy, it was clear that most of the troops and their commanders were sympathetic to the Fascists and, once in place, the army did very little to interfere with Fascist insurrectionists. In some places, the army stood by as Blackshirts commandeered rifles and machine guns, and at least in one instance, in Siena, soldiers actually delivered guns to Blackshirts occupying that city.

Facta responded by persuading Italy's king Victor Emmanuel III (1869–1947) to proclaim a state of siege, which would allow the government to declare martial law and deal summarily with the Fascists. At the last minute, however, the king refused to sign the proclamation, and, on October 28, Facta resigned. The king had been led to believe that as many as 100,000 Fascists were on the march, when, in fact, there were only 26,000. Pugliese's well-equipped and well-positioned 12,000 troops could easily have crushed the march and ended the rise of Mussolini and fascism. Not only did the king mistake the size of the march, he also doubted the loyalty of the army—and rightly so.

In truth Mussolini did not so much lead this march as follow it. During the deployment, Mussolini himself remained in Milan, awaiting the outcome of the operation. Hailing the March on Rome as a revolution, Mussolini demanded that King Victor Emmanuel III form a coalition government with his party, granting Mussolini himself dictatorial powers for one year. Upon Facta's resignation, the king had asked Antonio Salandra (1853–1931) to form a government and to offer Mussolini and other key Fascists

appointments in the cabinet. Mussolini declined, announcing he would accept nothing less than the position of prime minister. On October 29, with many more Fascist units arriving in Rome, the king offered him that post. Mussolini arrived in Rome aboard a railroad sleeping car on October 30, 1922. By the time he got off the train, tens of thousands of Blackshirts occupied the city. They surrounded the royal palace and hailed Mussolini as their leader.

During that first year, Mussolini radically reshaped Italy's economy, slashed government expenses for public services, reduced taxes on industry to encourage production, and streamlined the rickety government bureaucracy. For many observers, the single most symbolic evidence of Mussolini's reforms was the fact that he introduced a new discipline into the notoriously undependable Italian railroad system, and "Mussolini made the trains run on time" became a cliché that characterized the early years of his regime. (The claim, incidently, happened to be untrue: Mussolini merely made sure the trains *ran,* by crushing the railroad labor unions, but their schedules remained as unpredictable as ever). Mussolini replaced the king's guard with his own Fascist *squadristi* and a secret police force, the Ovra. He made bellicose moves against Greece and Yugoslavia, and brutally suppressed the strikes that, in the past, had continually crippled industry. In 1924, Mussolini publicly relinquished his dictatorial powers and called for new elections—but rigged the outcome by obtaining legislation that guaranteed a two-thirds parliamentary majority for his party regardless of the popular vote.

When the popular Socialist leader Giacomo Matteotti (1885–1924) dared to voice opposition, exposing Fascist criminality, he was murdered. The opposition press attacked fascism, and Mussolini responded by summarily establishing single-party rule, imposing strict censorship, and dispatching thugs to silence all opponents by whatever means were necessary. To consolidate his power base among Italian capitalists, he abolished free trade unions and secured the support of the Catholic Church by the Lateran Treaty of 1929, which established the Vatican under the absolute temporal sovereignty of the pope. Now called *Il Duce* (the Leader), Mussolini began flexing his foreign policy muscle and placed Italy in the center of the prewar turmoil that had begun to plague Europe. Weakened by years of failing diplomacy, the European foreign policy establishment allowed Mussolini, with a mixture of bombast and caution, to play a leading role in the League of Nations (before he abruptly withdrew in 1937), to influence the Lausanne Conference (which set the boundaries of postwar Turkey and gave Italy several islands); guarantee the Locarno Pact (which allowed Germany into the League of Nations), and recognize the Bolsheviks (just as ostracized Germany would). Indeed, it was Italian diplomatic attempts to counter French influence in the successor states of the old Austro-Hungarian Empire that led in part to the creation of the Little Entente.

As a result, by the end of the 1920s fascism had become stylish and attractive to the rich, especially to the decadent aristocracy of *Mittel Europa*. The old-line "nobles" were on the defensive: they had led the world to war and in the process nearly destroyed themselves as a class, along with millions of common people. With the collapse of the four great empires of the ancien régime—the Hohenzollern, Hapsburg, Romanov, and Ottoman—they were left with very few countries in Europe to rule any longer, and even their money was not safe in a Europe gone mad with postwar stock-market speculation. Lacking real power, the best they could imagine was pleasure (which they called beauty), lots of it, and they chased it with real abandon, concentrating on clothes, on bearing, and on style. Fascism, according to Janet Flanner (1892–1978), who covered high culture in Paris for the *New Yorker* under the pen name Genêt, seemed to them an exciting political innovation.

Run-of-the-mill Fascists were more directly involved in the party and took to the movement with a deadly seriousness. Its growing popularity would recommend it to one Adolf Hitler (1889–1945), who saw in Mussolini a precedent-setting role model, perhaps a future ally, though Mussolini was the one striding across Europe as the future führer languished in jail (*see* "BEER HALL PUTSCH"), writing a premature memoir about the struggles in his life and the life of his adopted country since the end of the Great War.

Mussolini would remain head of state for two decades and indeed would lead Italy into an alliance with Hitler—then, into defeat in WORLD WAR II.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Benito Mussolini* (New York: Alpha Books, 2002); Mabel Berezin, *Making the Fascist Self: The Political Culture of Interwar Italy* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1997); John Whittam, *Fascist Italy* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995).

Fatimid Conquest of Egypt, Palestine, and Syria (969)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Fatimids vs. Abbasids, Ikhshidites, and Carmathians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Egypt, Palestine, Syria region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest and control of the region
OUTCOME: The Fatimids took and successfully defended Egypt, Palestine, and Syria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Fatimid dynasty dominated North Africa and, later, the Middle East from about 909 to 1171. Taking its name

from Fatima (c. 605–633), the daughter of the prophet Muhammad—from whom the Fatimids claimed descent—rulers of the dynasty tried unsuccessfully to displace the Abbasid caliphs as leaders of the Islamic world. In contrast to earlier rulers and would-be rulers, the Fatimids refused to acknowledge the Abbasid caliphs in any way whatsoever. The Fatimids denounced them as usurpers, saying they, the Fatimids, were the true descendants of the Prophet. Thus their goal was not merely to create another regional sovereignty, but to found a new caliphate.

Ja'far (fl. 10th century), one of the leading Fatimid generals, led a force against the dynasty's Ikhshidite forces in Syria and in Palestine between Jerusalem and Jaffa. In a major battle at Ramleh, in 969, Ja'far defeated these forces and thus took Egypt. The Fatimids also defeated the Ikhshidites at the Battle of Gizeh (also 969). During 970–971 and, again, between 974 and 975, the Carmathians (a Muslim sect similar to the Assassin sect) invaded Egypt and Palestine, but were repulsed by the Fatimid armies.

See also FATIMID CONQUEST OF MOROCCO.

Further reading: M. Bonner and Heinz Halm, *Empire of the Mahdi: The Rise of the Fatimids* (Boston: Brill Academic, 1997); Michael Brett, *The Rise of the Fatimids: The World of the Mediterranean and the Middle East in the Fourth Century of the Hijra, Tenth Century CE* (Boston: Brill, 2001); Charles C. Torrey, ed., *History of the Conquest of Egypt, North Africa, and Spain* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1922).

Fatimid Conquest of Morocco (922)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Fatimids vs. Idrisid dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morocco
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of Morocco
OUTCOME: The Fatimids defeated the Idrisid dynasty and gained control of Morocco; they were not seriously challenged until 975.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

By the end of the eighth century, Idris ibn Abdulla (d. 820), a descendant of the prophet Muhammad, established an independent emirate encompassing Morocco and western Algeria. This became the basis of the Idrisid dynasty, which reigned in the region from about 800 to 922. In that year, the Fatimids (*see* FATIMID CONQUEST OF EGYPT, PALESTINE, AND SYRIA for Fatimid background information), under the military leadership of 'Obaidallah (c. 846–c. 934), defeated the Idrisids in Morocco. The people of this region readily accepted Fatimid suzerainty. However, the Omayyads of Spain and other factions (Berbers and Idrisid remnants) challenged Fatimid control beginning about 975. For the last quarter of the century, Morocco was in civil turmoil as a result.

Further reading: M. Bonner and Heinz Halm, *Empire of the Mahdi: The Rise of the Fatimids* (Boston: Brill Academic, 1997); Michael Brett, *The Rise of the Fatimids: The World of the Mediterranean and the Middle East in the Fourth Century of the Hijra, Tenth Century CE* (Boston: Brill, 2001); Weston F. Cook, Jr. *The Hundred Years War for Morocco: Gunpowder and the Military Revolution in the Early Muslim World* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1994).

Fatimid Shi'ite Revolt (902–909)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Fatimid Shi'ites vs. Aghlabids
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Region of modern Tunisia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Overthrow of the Aghlabids and replacement by the Fatimids, as true descendants of the line of Muhammad
OUTCOME: The Shi'ite Fatimids prevailed, and the Fatimid dynasty was established in the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown; presumably none

The Fatimid dynasty (for Fatimid background, see FATIMID CONQUEST OF EGYPT, PALESTINE, AND SYRIA) was established at Kairouan (in modern Tunisia) during 902–909 when Abu Abdullah al-Husain (fl. 10th century), known as al-Shi'i, led Fatimid Shi'ites in a revolt against the ruling Aghlabids. The Fatimid Shi'ites claimed sole descent from Fatima, daughter of the prophet Muhammad, and condemned the Aghlabids (among many others) as usurpers without right to rule. Following the defeat of the Aghlabids, 'Obaidallah al-Mahdi was elevated to caliph. It was he who formally established the Fatimid dynasty in the region.

Further reading: M. Bonner and Heinz Halm, *Empire of the Mahdi: The Rise of the Fatimids* (Boston: Brill Academic, 1997); Michael Brett, *The Rise of the Fatimids: The World of the Mediterranean and the Middle East in the Fourth Century of the Hijra, Tenth Century CE* (Boston: Brill, 2001); Muhammad-Husagh al-Tuba-Tabai, *Shiite Islam* (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1975).

February (March) Revolution (1917)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Workers, students, and others vs. forces loyal to Czar Nicholas II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Petrograd (modern St. Petersburg) and Moscow

DECLARATION: The revolution began spontaneously.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ultimately, an end to czarist rule in Russia
OUTCOME: The czar abdicated in favor of a provisional government headed by Prince Lvov.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The violence that broke out in Petrograd (modern St. Petersburg) on February 23, 1917 (by the Old Style, Julian calendar then used in Russia), or March 8, 1917 (by the New Style, Gregorian calendar), may be considered the first phase of the BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION (1917) or as a separate conflict.

The violence erupted in an outbreak of strikes and riots in protest over low (or no) wages, hunger, the disastrous conduct of WORLD WAR I, corruption, and general oppression. Over hours and days, the strikes spread and the rioting increased, spreading to the universities, where students took up the chant of "Bread, peace, and freedom." In response to the outbreak, Czar Nicholas II (1868–1918) ordered troops to act against the rioters and strikers, but the Petrograd garrison refused to fire on their own countrymen. Word of this act of mutiny soon spread to Moscow, where soldiers mutinied and rebelled on March 10. Outnumbered police attempted to restore order, only to be beaten back and killed. Believing that the Duma, Russia's parliament, was responsible for the outbreak, Nicholas ordered its prorogation on March 11. However, the members of the Duma defied his order and remained in session.

Faced with a full-scale revolt, Nicholas withdrew troops from the World War I front and ordered them to advance into Petrograd. However, front-line commanders refused to send the troops.

In the meantime, in Petrograd, the striking workers elected a council—a soviet—of representatives, who organized militant resistance to the czar. The Duma did not want the revolution to proceed in such a radical direction, so, on March 15 (March 2, Old Style), members created a provisional government under the leadership of Georgy Yevgenyevich, prince Lvov (1861–1925). Czar Nicholas now abdicated, stepping down from a throne the Romanov dynasty had occupied for more than 300 years.

Further reading: Marc Ferro, *The Russian Revolution of February 1917,* translated by J. L. Richards (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1972); Sheila Fitzpatrick, *The Russian Revolution* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1982); Tsuyoshi Hasegawa, *The February Revolution, Petrograd, 1917* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1981); Richard Pipes, *The Russian Revolution* (New York: Vintage, 1991); Donald S. Raleigh and E. N. Burdzhalov, *Russia's Second Revolution: The February 1917 Uprising in Petrograd* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987); Robert Service, *The Russian Revolution, 1900–1927,* 3rd ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1999).

February Revolution *See* FRENCH REVOLUTION (1848).

Fenian Raids (1866, 1870)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Irish Americans vs. British Canadians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Niagara border region between the United States and Canada
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In an effort to depose British rule in Ireland, the Fenian Brotherhood of New York, an organization of Irish immigrants, hoped to instigate a war between the United States and Canada, a British dominion, thereby siphoning off the British forces stationed in Ireland.
OUTCOME: Fenians were unsuccessful in precipitating a war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: June 1, 1866, attack, Fenians, 1,500; Canadians, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No formal treaty

Although a direct precursor to the 20th-century Irish independence movements, the Fenian Raids failed miserably and essentially ended the organization in the United States. Beginning in 1858 with the secret formation of the Irish Republican Brotherhood (IRB) in Ireland by James Stephen (fl. 19th century), the Irish independence movement took a new direction in its fight against Great Britain and its Protestant occupation of Ireland. Stephen, along with John O'Mahony (1816–77), was a veteran of the 1848 Young Ireland Revolt, and the two hoped to enlist aid from the United States. O'Mahony was sent to New York to establish the Fenian Brotherhood, a name from Irish mythology, in an attempt to send recent Irish immigrants back to Ireland along with guns and money. The plan was to foment civil insurrection, and at the same time encourage a mutiny of Irish troops in the British army. The plan, however, was stymied in both 1865 and 1866 when the Irish Americans failed to provide the necessary men and equipment.

Meanwhile, in the United States, O'Mahony had trouble convincing the Irish Americans to back his plan. Many Irish Americans felt it would be better to involve the United States by allying their new homeland with the Irish in an open war with Great Britain. They proposed precipi-

tating a war by raiding British-held Canada, on the assumption the United States would intervene only if the British Canadians attempted to attack the Fenians, who would then claim they were American citizens and demand support from their government. It was a thin supposition and, ultimately, an inaccurate one.

The radical Fenians gained control, deposing O'Mahony in October 1865 and establishing the "Irish Republic" in New York. The Irish Republic declared itself a government in exile, although it had no consent from the IRB in Ireland. James Stephen hastily sailed for America in April 1866. When he tried to denounce the proposed Canadian expedition and to reassert a policy of insurrection on Irish soil alone he was himself deposed.

The Fenian forces launched an attack against the Canadian island of Campobello in the Bay of Fundy on April 12, 1866. In a joint expedition between the British and American navies, the Fenians were easily defeated at Eastport, Maine. The British intercepted a shipment of arms intended for the Fenians, while the Americans, under General George G. Meade (1815–72), dispersed the Fenians in Eastport. Two months later, the Fenians attempted another invasion, this one more successful. A Fenian brigade of 1,500 under Colonel John O'Neill (1838–74), embarking from Buffalo, New York, on the U.S. side of the Niagara River, defeated a Canadian militia company at Fort Erie on the night of June 1, 1866, and ravaged the town for three days before the invaders were finally driven back to Buffalo. The following week, secondary raids departed from St. Albans, Vermont, and Malone, New Hampshire, aimed at taking Quebec. The campaigns were quashed when American troops heard of the plan.

Rather than come to the aid of the Fenians, the U.S. government worked in concert with British officials to suppress the Fenian plan. In March 1867, the Fenians finally sent the sought-after supplies to the IRB aboard *Erin's Hope,* but the British government was tipped off, and the ship was captured, along with IRB leaders. Outraged by the fate of *Erin's Hope,* Irish in five counties in the homeland staged an impulsive uprising, but it was easily crushed by the Royal Irish—later Ulster—Constabulary. However, the Irish American troops captured in Canada and in Ireland by the British were treated as British subjects, something that angered the American government and intensified already strained relations between the two nations. The tension between the United States and Britain buoyed the hopes of the Fenians, and they planned another Canadian invasion.

The Fenians, again led by O'Neill, crossed the border at Frankfort, Vermont, and again at Malone, New Hampshire on May 25, 1870. The raid lasted two days but was no more successful than the first. The Fenians were all rounded up by May 27. Opposed by both the Catholic Church and the federal government, the Fenians disbanded in January 1876 to join the Land League and its Home Rule movement, which eventually led to the creation of the Irish Republican Army. The Fenian Brotherhood died with O'Mahony in 1877.

See also EASTER UPRISING.

Further reading: Wilfried Neidhardt, *Fenianism in North America* (State College: Pennsylvania University, 1975); Hereford Senior, *The Last Invasion of Canada: The Fenian Raids, 1866–1870* (Toronto: Dundrun Press, 1991).

Ferrarese War (1482–1484)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice vs. Ferrara (and allied cities)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Milanese and Ferrarese territory, Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Venetians sought to compel Ferrara to comply with Venetian convention rights.
OUTCOME: Militarily, Venice suffered a number of defeats, but nevertheless concluded an alliance with Milan, which allowed it to extend its territory inland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Bagnolo, 1484

The policy of Renaissance Venice was aggressively to expand and defend its trading rights, which were often secured by various conventions with other Italian states. When Ferrara reclaimed certain rights it had conceded to Venice, the Venetian government secured sanction from Pope Sixtus IV (r. 1471–84) to take military action. Ferrara found allies in Genoa, Florence, Siena, Naples, and Milan. This made a formidable alliance, and the Venetian position deteriorated precipitously when papal troops, going up against Florence, were defeated at Castello and then at Rimini. Deciding to cut his losses, Sixtus concluded a five-year treaty with Florence and its allies.

Venice thus lost its papal army, and the pope further commanded Venice to break off the war. However, Venice refused and took the initiative at the Battle of Argenta, defeating the Ferrarese force. In response, the allies of Ferrara took concerted action, dispersing the Venetian fleet on the Po River. On land, Venice suffered defeat in Milan as well as on Ferrarese territory.

By 1483, Ferrara managed to regain most of its lost territory, but the alliance with the other Italian states was clearly dissolving. Capitalizing on the developing weakness of its rival, Venice offered peace terms. By the Treaty of Bagnolo, Venice secured its convention rights over Ferrara, thereby regaining the territories of Rovigo and Polesine. Venice had certainly not won the war in any military sense, yet it managed to negotiate a peace that extended its territory as far inland as it would ever reach.

See also VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1404–1406); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1426); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1427–1428); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1429–1433); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1448–1454).

Further reading: John Jefrees Martin and Dennis Romano, eds., *Venice Reconsidered: The History and Civilization of an Italian City State* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2003); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Vintage, 1989).

Ferrarese War against the Papal States (1512)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ferrara vs. the Papal States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ravenna and vicinity
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Alfonso I of Ferrara sought papal territory as a means of avenging himself on the pope, who had excommunicated him.
OUTCOME: Ferrara lost the war, but was able to make peace with the popes who succeeded Julius II.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Pope Julius II (r. 1503–13) excommunicated the d'Este duke of Ferrara, Alfonso I (1486–1534), because he had opposed the papal alliance in the War of the HOLY LEAGUE. Alfonso responded to excommunication by striking an alliance with France and against the papal forces as well as its Venetian and Spanish allies. Alfonso seized Ravenna, but Swiss forces attacked Milan, defeating the French there and pushing them out of the territory. With the French neutralized, the armies of the Holy League attacked Ferrara and defeated the army of Alfonso. This returned the Medici to power in Florence, but the death of Pope Julius II in 1513 ensured the continuance of d'Este rule in Ferrara. However, Alfonso I and his successors took great pains to maintain cordial relations with the papacy.

See also FERRARESE WAR.

Further reading: Thomas Arnold, *The Renaissance at War* (London: Cassell Academic, 2001); John Jefrees Martin and Dennis Romano, eds., *Venice Reconsidered: The History and Civilization of an Italian City State* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2003); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Vintage, 1989).

Fetterman Massacre (1866)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States vs. Sioux and Arapaho Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Wyoming
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: As part of the force sent to Fort Phil Kearney to protect the Bozeman Trail against Sioux attack, the brash Captain Fetterman was decoyed into an ambush.
OUTCOME: Fetterman's small force was destroyed and parts of the Bozeman Trail were closed as a result.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 1,500 Sioux and Arapaho; Fetterman, 79 U.S. troops, and 2 civilians
CASUALTIES: U.S.: 82 dead; Sioux and Arapaho casualties were minimal.
TREATIES: None

Largely because of public fascination with the personality of "General" George Armstrong Custer (1839–76), his famed "massacre" in 1876 at the Battle of Little Bighorn (*see* UNITED STATES–SIOUX WAR [1876–1877]) all but obliterated memory of a similar defeat of the U.S. Army by Plains Indians 10 years earlier. On December 21, 1866, at the foot of the Bighorn Mountains near present-day Story, Wyoming, more than 1,500 Sioux, Cheyenne, and Arapaho warriors decoyed 79 soldiers and two civilians under the command of Captain William Judd Fetterman (c. 1833–66) into an ambush that none survived. The Fetterman Massacre, remembered by Indians as the battle of "100 in the Hand," was the high point of Red Cloud's War (*see* BOZEMAN TRAIL, WAR FOR THE), a campaign by Sioux groups and their allies to protect shrinking hunting grounds from destruction by growing numbers of wagon trains traveling over the Bozeman Trail through present-day Wyoming to Virginia City, Montana, where gold had been discovered in 1862. Red Cloud (c. 1822–1909), an extraordinary Oglala Sioux leader, joined with others to organize sustained resistance.

In the spring of 1866, the U.S. Army ordered units of the 18th Infantry Regiment to secure the trail by maintaining Fort Reno on the Powder River and establishing two additional posts at intervals to the northwest. Political connections brought command of the expedition to Colonel Henry Beebe Carrington (1824–1912), a lawyer who had organized the regiment in Ohio at the outset of the Civil War, but who had remained behind to continue with recruiting and administrative work while the regiment fought through Tennessee and Georgia. Reaching the Powder River country, Carrington divided his troops among the fort sites on the trail and personally and meticulously directed construction of an elaborate central stockade called Fort Phil Kearney. The Indians continued their traditional hit-and-run attacks against soldiers and travelers alike, while Carrington complained that he had neither adequate manpower nor weapons to do more than fend them off.

Historians today debate Carrington's conduct as did the battle-seasoned officers under his command at the

time. None of them felt more frustrated than Captain Fetterman, who had been commended for gallantry in the Civil War. Urging Carrington to take the offensive, Fetterman allegedly boasted that "with 80 men I could ride through the Sioux nation." Given command of a unit assigned to drive Indians away from a wood-hauling detachment, Fetterman apparently disobeyed orders not to pursue them. He died with all his men in an ambush long planned by the Indians.

In a celebrated ride of 236 miles through snow, John "Portugee" Phillips brought word from the fort of the "massacre," which generated a national outcry. Official investigators recorded criticism of Carrington but did not blame him for the disaster.

Wagon travel and Indian attacks resumed while the United States, recognizing that railroads would likely make the trail obsolete, sought new treaties with the Indians. But Red Cloud accepted no peace terms until the United States in 1868 closed traffic on the Bozeman Trail, abandoned the forts, and agreed to recognize the Powder River country as "unceded Indian territory," completing the Indians' victory.

Further reading: Dee Brown, *The Fetterman Massacre* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1984); Gerald George, "Fetterman Massacre," in *Encyclopedia of American West,* vol. 2, ed. Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod (Macmillan Reference USA, 1996); John D. McDermott, "Price of Arrogance: The Short and Controversial Life of William Judd Fetterman," in *Annals of Wyoming* 63 (spring 1991): 42–53; James C. Olsob, *Red Cloud and the Sioux Problem* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1965).

"Fifteen, The"

See JACOBITE REBELLION (1715–1716).

Fifteen, Years' War

See AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1591–1606).

Finnish War of Independence (1918–1920)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: White faction (with German allies) vs. Red faction (with Bolshevik support)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Finland, especially Karelia
DECLARATION: Finnish independence declared December 6, 1917.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Finland declared independence from Russia.
OUTCOME: Finland won its independence, and the White faction defeated the Red.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Whites, 80,000 (plus 12,000 Germans); Reds, 130,000 (plus 10,000 Russians)
CASUALTIES: Whites, 5,300 killed, 7,300 wounded; Germans, 950 killed or wounded; Reds (including Russians), 5,500 killed in combat, and 8,380 executed, 69,400 taken prisoner
TREATIES: Treaty of Dorpat (Tartu), concluded on October 14, 1920

Finland had been under Russian control since 1809, but, in the chaos of the conclusion of World War I (*see* WORLD WAR I: BALKANS) combined with the disruption wrought by the FEBRUARY (MARCH) REVOLUTION in Russia, Finland declared its independence.

Immediately, the nation shattered into two factions, The Reds (or Red Guards) sought independence, but on communist terms. This group fielded an army of some 140,000, including 10,000 Russian Bolsheviks. The Red cause was strongly supported by the Russian communists. The Conservative Party—the Whites—also favored independence, but sought to defeat the Reds. Numbering about 80,000 and brilliantly led by Baron Carl Gustaf von Mannerheim (1867–1951), the White forces were augmented by 12,000 German troops. Although the German government was desperately engaged in the final stages of World War I, the kaiser was resolutely anticommunist.

The Whites, though numerically inferior, were better equipped and better led. Between January 28 and May 15, 1918, the White forces were consistently victorious, enjoying their greatest triumph at the Battle of Tampere on April 6. Incurring only 600 killed, the Whites inflicted 5,500 battle deaths among the Red Guards and their Bolshevik auxiliaries. Additionally, 3,000 Reds were summarily executed after the battle, and some 9,500 were destined to die in White P.O.W. camps, which, by the end of the war, held 69,400 prisoners.

Following Tampere and the Battle of Vyborg (April 29), the Whites instituted a reign of terror in Finland, in which perhaps another 5,000 Reds were rounded up and executed.

A Finnish republic was proclaimed on June 17, 1919, which triggered sporadic combat between Finland and Russia over western Karelia. This was ended by the Treaty of Dorpat (Tartu), concluded on October 14, 1920. Finland's independence was reaffirmed, and the nation gained the disputed Arctic port of Pechenga.

Further reading: Wendy Hall, *The Finns and Their Country* (New York: P. S. Eriksson, 1968); David Hinshaw, *Heroic Finland* (New York: Putnam, 1952).

Firmus's Revolt (371–372)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Moors vs. Romans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mauretania (now part of Morocco and Western Algeria)
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rebellion against Roman rule over the Moors
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Firmus (fl. c. 372–c. 375) was a leader of the Moors who rose up in rebellion against the Romans. For almost two years, he led resistance that very nearly drove the Romans out of Mauretania. The arrival of a Roman legion under Theodosius (346–395) put a decisive end to the revolt. Firmus evaded capture, then killed himself rather than fall into Roman hands.

See also ROMAN WAR WITH THE QUADI AND SARMATIANS.

Further reading: Susan Raven, *Rome in Africa,* 3rd ed. (London: Routledge, 1993).

"Five Days" Revolt (1848)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Milanese citizens vs. Austrian army
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Milan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Milan rebelled against Austrian rule.
OUTCOME: Milan gained a brief period of independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Austrian troops, 12,900; unknown number of Milanese
CASUALTIES: Austrian, 600 killed or wounded; Milanese, 430 killed
TREATIES: None

During the revolutionary year of 1848, when rebellion tore at the Hapsburg Empire, Italy was in the forefront and, shortly after violence broke out in Sicily (January 12, 1848), Milan also rose up against its Austrian masters.

On March 18, 1848, Milanese citizens erected no fewer than 1,650 barricades in the streets of the city and, in the course of five days of fighting, drove a 12,000-man Austrian garrison—under command of the illustrious Josef Radetzky (1766–1858)—in addition to 900 gendarmes, out of the city. This triumph came at the cost of 430 citizen casualties, among them 28 pro-independence women; however, it inspired rebellion elsewhere in Italy.

The Austrians regained control of Milan before the end of the year.

See also AUSTRIAN REVOLUTION; GERMAN REVOLUTION; ITALIAN REVOLUTION.

Further reading: Priscilla Robertson, *Revolutions of 1848* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1968).

Five Pecks of Rice (190–215)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Followers of the Way of Five Pecks of Rice vs. emperors of the Han
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sichuan (Szechuan) region of China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Han wanted to end the autonomous existence of a cult-state known as the Way of Five Pecks of Rice.
OUTCOME: After 25 years of warfare, the "rebel" leader Zhang Lu (Chang Lu) was persuaded by a grant of property and titles to surrender.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

A popular uprising inspired by Taoist thought, Wu-tou-mi (The Five Pecks of Rice) swept through China at the end of the Han dynasty (206 B.C.E.–220 C.E.), undermining the government.

The movement was begun by Zhang Ling (Chang Ling c. 34–c. 156), the figure generally identified as the founder and first patriarch of the Taoist church in China. Zhang earned his early renown as a spiritual healer. His patients paid him five pecks (a peck equals one-fourth a bushel, about eight quarts) of rice annually (this may have been dues paid to his cult), and the name of the movement his religion inspired took its name from this fee. Zhang's grandson, Zhang Heng (fl. second century), carried on his grandfather's work. Zhang Heng's son, Zhang Lu (fl. third century), continued. By this time, poverty was general across China and had created a climate of social and political discontent. Seeing the opportunity to create a popular movement, Zhang Lu created an army and proclaimed an independent theocracy, which introduced a host of enlightened institutions, including free wayside inns for travelers and humane treatment for criminals. Additionally, the new state promoted Taoism.

Operating with another Taoist leader, Zhang Xiu (Chang Hsiu; fl. third century), Zhang Lu expanded his sphere of influence, spreading rebellion throughout the vast Sichuan Province. The two leaders fell to disputing, however, and Zhang Lu killed Zhang Xiu. This signaled the disintegration of the Five Pecks movement, and in 215 Zhang Lu capitulated to the Han's most important military commander, Cao Cao (Tsao Tsao; 155–220). Cao Cao possessed sufficient wisdom to control Zhang Lu not through intimidation or punishment, but by coopting him with lofty rank and a substantial fiefdom.

The Five Pecks of Rice continued to loom importantly in Chinese history, and Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung; 1893–1976) took inspiration from it.

See also CHINESE CIVIL WAR (1945–1949); CHINESE CULTURAL REVOLUTION.

Further reading: Pan Ku, *History of the Former Han Dynasty,* trans. Homer H. Dubs, 3 vols. (Baltimore: Waverly Press, 1938–1955); Joseph Richmond Levenson and Franz Schurmann, *China: An Interpretive History from the Beginnings to the Fall of the Han* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969).

Flammock's Rebellion (1497)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cornish rebels vs. Henry VII of England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Taunton and London, England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Cornish followers of Thomas Flammock protested a royal tax.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quickly crushed, and its leaders executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Thomas Flammock (d. 1497), a Cornish lawyer and landowner, led a rebellion in response to a tax King Henry VII (1457–1509) levied to finance a military campaign against Scotland (*see* WARBECK'S REBELLION). Flammock held that the northern barons were exclusively responsible for defending the Scots frontier and that, therefore, the tax on all England was unjust. With Michael Joseph (d. 1497), Flammock led a protest to London. Whether by accident or design, the protesters became a violent mob as they made their way to the capital. At Taunton, they killed the local provost, then marched to Wells, where they persuaded a local nobleman, Lord Audley (d. 1497), to join their ranks. From Wells, they proceeded to London, where, on June 22, 1497, at Deptford Strand, they were met by royal troops. Henry's soldiers quickly crushed the rebels, and Flammock, along with the other leaders, was arrested, tried, convicted of treason, and executed.

Further reading: Francis Bacon, *History of the Reign of Henry VII and Selected Writings* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998); Bryan Beaver, *Henry VII: The First Tudor* (Portland, Ore.: Rubicon Press, 2000).

Florentine-Milanese War (1351)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Florentine Guelfs vs. Milanese-allied Ghibellines
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tuscany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Milan sought to acquire Florentine territory.
OUTCOME: Florence suppressed Milanese expansionism and purged Ghibelline officeholders throughout much of Tuscany.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Giovanni Visconti (1290–1354), ruler of Milan, sought to acquire control of Bologna. After taking the city in 1350, he leagued with the Ghibelline Party of Tuscany to invade territory controlled by Florence. This assault was resisted, and the Milanese advance was halted at Scarperia. Florentine forces took the initiatives and pushed the invaders back into Bologna.

Determined to recover, Visconti regrouped for a new assault, but succumbed to illness before the attack was launched. The Florentines exploited the disruption in Milanese leadership to purge Ghibelline officeholders in territories controlled by the rival Florentine Guelfs. The result was the promotion of papal interests, which the Guelf supported, over those of the Holy Roman Empire, which the Ghibellines favored.

See also FLORENTINE-MILANESE WAR (1397–1402).

Further reading: Gene Adam Brucker, *Florence: The Golden Age, 1138–1737* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1998); John Larner, *Italy in the Age of Dante and Petrarch, 1216–1380* (New York: Longman, 1980); Giovanni Tabacco, *The Struggle for Power in Medieval Italy: Structures of Political Rule,* trans. Rosalind Brown Jensen (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1989).

Florentine-Milanese War (1397–1402)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Milan vs. cities of northern and central Italy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tuscany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Milan fought an undeclared war of expansion.
OUTCOME: Milan acquired much territory in northern and central Italy, but the sudden death of the rapacious Gian Galeazzo Visconti caused the abandonment of the assault on Florence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Gian Galeazzo Visconti (1351–1402), ruler of Milan, seized Verona, Padua, Pisa, Siena, Perugia, and other cities in northern and central Italy. Having put much of Tuscany under his personal control, Visconti prepared to

take Florence. Fortunately for the city, Visconti succumbed to plague just as he was about to attack in September 1402. The territory Visconti had taken in northern and central Italy was carved up among his heirs. Instead of increasing Visconti family power, this had the effect of diluting it, and Florence made no further attempts against Milan.

See also FLORENTINE-MILANESE WAR (1351).

Florentine Revolt (1343)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Florentine citizens vs. Signore Walter of Brienne
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Florence
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Florentines wanted to overthrow Walter, whose government and economic policies were oppressive.
OUTCOME: Walter was driven out of Florence, and a commercial republic established in place of his dictatorship.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Signore Walter of Brienne (d. 1353), ruler of Florence, imposed a tyrannical regime of heavy taxes. Resentment within the city developed against Walter, who responded by allying himself with Tuscany and Bologna to conduct a campaign of intimidation and terror. Walter's agents arrested 300 prominent Florentines suspected of plotting the overthrow of Walter. The arrests incited a general revolt, and Florentines laid siege to Walter in his palazzo. The siege stretched into weeks and months. Walter's Tuscan and Bolognese allies deserted him. In desperation, Walter grudgingly directed the bishop of Florence to make certain reforms, but these concessions were too little too late. The Florentine mob stormed the palazzo, killing many of Walter's retainers. Walter himself escaped, fleeing the city, never to return. Remarkably, released from Walter's political and economic repression, Florence became a prosperous commercial republic and a center of art and culture.

See also FLORENTINE WAR AGAINST THE GREAT COMPANY.

Further reading: Gene Adam Brucker, *Florence: The Golden Age, 1138–1737* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1998); John Larner, *Italy in the Age of Dante and Petrarch, 1216–1380* (New York: Longman, 1980); Giovanni Tabacco, *The Struggle for Power in Medieval Italy: Structures of Political Rule,* trans. Rosalind Brown Jensen (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1989).

Florentine War against the Great Company (1358–1359)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: German mercenaries (the Great Company) vs. Florentine defenders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tuscany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A mercenary band raided Italy and threatened Tuscany and Florence; Florence resisted.
OUTCOME: Blocked from entering Tuscany, the Great Company withdrew.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

It was common practice in the 14th century to use mercenary troops. While this reduced the pain and expense of warfare for many Italian states, there was always the risk of mercenaries turning against their clients. The Great Company, German mercenaries hired by an alliance of Italian princes to fight Milan, rebelled when, in 1358, the alliance could no longer afford to pay the troops. The Great Company raided and plundered much of Italy. Florence set up blockades on the mountain passes into Tuscany, and an army of mountain peasants fought the Great Company to a standstill at the Battle of Scalella Pass, July 24, 1358. Although the Great Company continued to loom near Florentine territory, as if preparing an invasion, the mercenaries withdrew by 1359.

Further reading: Gene Adam Brucker, *Florence: The Golden Age, 1138–1737* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1998); John Larner, *Italy in the Age of Dante and Petrarch, 1216–1380* (New York: Longman, 1980); Giovanni Tabacco, *The Struggle for Power in Medieval Italy: Structures of Political Rule,* trans. Rosalind Brown Jensen (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1989).

Florentine Wars against Pisa (1313–1406)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Florence vs. Pisa and its defenders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pisa and vicinity
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Florence wanted to annex Pisa to acquire an outlet to the sea.
OUTCOME: After almost 100 years of chronic warfare, Pisa fell to a Florentine siege.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Throughout most of the 14th century and into the 15th, a chronic state of warfare existed between Florence and Pisa. The issue was simple: Florence sought to annex Pisa as a means of gaining access to the sea via its port. The fighting was indecisive, reaching its greatest level of intensity during 1362–64.

During this period, Pisa hired the celebrated English mercenary, Sir John Hawkwood (1320–94), known in Italy as Giovanni Acuto, to lead its defense. Certainly one of the most skilled commanders of the Middle Ages, Hawkwood was a veteran of service with Edward III (1312–77) in the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR and probably saw action at Crécy and Poitiers. After the peace of Bretigny, he formed his own free company of soldiers, including many Englishmen and Gascons. He took part in the Siege of Avignon (1361) and the Battle of Brignais (1362), then led his army to Italy to serve in the city states' wars there. The defense of Pisa was his first major commission; he would later serve Milan, Rome, Naples, Padua, and finally Florence, where he was captain-general for 14 years.

Through Hawkwood's efforts, Pisan independence was preserved for years. Seeking a more permanent solution, Pisa negotiated the protection of French king Charles VI (1368–1422), but in 1405, Florence struck a bargain with Charles in which he handed over Pisa in exchange for Florentine support of Benedict XIII (r. 1394–1423), the antipope backed by France. Thus Pisa's protector betrayed the city.

The wars were not quite ended, however, as Pisans rebelled against Florentine rule. This provoked Florence to lay siege against Pisa by land and sea, an action that starved the city into submission on October 9, 1406. Florence thereby acquired the seaport it had long sought.

See also FLORENTINE WAR AGAINST THE GREAT COMPANY.

Further reading: Thomas Arnold, *The Renaissance at War* (London: Cassell Academic, 2001); Gene Adam Brucker, *Florence: The Golden Age, 1138–1737* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1998); Denys Hay, *The Italian Renaissance in Its Historical Background* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1961); John Larner, *Italy in the Age of Dante and Petrarch, 1216–1380* (New York: Longman, 1980).

Florentine War with the Papal States (1485–1486)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Florence (in aid of Ferdinand I of Naples) vs. the Papal States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Florence and Naples
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Lorenzo de' Medici of Florence supported Ferdinand I of Naples against a rebellion, which was backed by Pope Innocent VIII.
OUTCOME: Lorenzo prevailed, and Ferdinand I remained on the Neapolitan throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Neapolitan barons, with the support of Pope Innocent VIII (r. 1484–92), rebelled against Ferdinand I (1423–94), king of Naples, in the NEAPOLITAN REVOLT. Lorenzo de' Medici (1449–92), ruler of Florence, sent troops to aid Ferdinand in suppressing the rebellion. In response, papal forces invaded Florentine territory. Lorenzo's army not only repulsed the invasion, but also advanced into Naples and drove the invaders from there as well.

By the end of the revolt in 1486, Lorenzo had served his ally Ferdinand well and, in the process, recovered the city of Sarzana, lost to Genoa in 1478.

Further reading: Thomas Arnold, *The Renaissance at War* (London: Cassell Academic, 2001); Gene Adam Brucker, *Florence: The Golden Age, 1138–1737* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1998), Denys Hay, *The Italian Renaissance in Its Historical Background* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1961).

"Forty-five, The" *See* JACOBITE REBELLION (1745–1746).

Fox Resistance (1712–1733)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The French-allied Ojibwa and the English-allied Fox
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western shore of Lake Michigan in the modern states of Illinois and Wisconsin
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ojibwa wanted to eliminate Fox trading competition.
OUTCOME: The Fox were badly beaten and the tribe greatly diminished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but heavy among the Fox
TREATIES: None

In 1722 New York's governor William Burnet (1688–1729) approached the Senecas, westernmost of the Iroquois tribes, in an attempt to wrest profitable Iroquois trade from the French. In response, Louis-Thomas Chabert de Joncaire (1707–c. 1766), Indian agent for the French, persuaded the Senecas to permit enlargement of the French fortifications at Niagara. Burnet, in turn, obtained authorization from the

British Crown to build Fort Oswego on the eastern shore of Lake Ontario to check the French trade expansion. To this development, Marquis de Vaudreuil (1698–1778), governor of New France, responded by once again approaching the Senecas with a request to allow him to further strengthen the French fort at Niagara, replacing its wooden palisades with walls of stone. Although the Senecas again acquiesced, they struggled to maintain neutrality in the growing conflicts between the French and English, an increasingly difficult posture. Already, the Mohawk, easternmost of the Iroquois tribes, had openly allied themselves with the English and had thereby gained a trade advantage. Throughout the 1720s, the Iroquois tribes began actively playing the French against the English in an effort to achieve a balance of power they perceived as beneficial. Suddenly the Iroquois tribes moved closer to the English side when, in 1729, a combination of French and Indians, chiefly Ojibwa, attacked the Fox, whose territory was the western shore of Lake Michigan in the present states of Illinois and Wisconsin. The Fox Indians were far-western allies of the Iroquois—and the Iroquois, in their ongoing but imperiled effort to monopolize inland trade, needed all the western allies they could get. (*See* BEAVER WARS.)

Since at least the late 17th century, the Fox had been sporadically at war with the Ojibwa tribe, also called Chippewa, who were concentrated in present-day northwestern Wisconsin. The French, who established profitable trading relations with the Ojibwa, aided that tribe in its ongoing contest with the Fox. In response, the Fox repeatedly harassed French traders and raided their frontier outposts.

In 1712, the Fox assaulted the French fort at Detroit. The attack was destructive, but not decisive. Detroit held out against the Indians. Historians label the period of sporadic combat between the French and Fox that spanned 1712 to 1733 the "Fox Resistance." It was not, however, a single long war, marked by a more or less orderly progress of battles and campaigns, but rather a period of raiding by the Indians and counterraiding by the French and their allies. The Fox raids reached their height during the 1720s and greatly disrupted trade between New France and the Ojibwa. Indeed, the very lifeline connecting New France in the north with Louisiana in the south—Lake Michigan, the upper Mississippi, and the portages connecting them—was attacked and threatened.

Realizing that the survival of French settlements in North America was in jeopardy, French colonial authorities met with Ojibwa allies in a series of councils to determine an overall strategy. The most ambitious solution suggested was outright extermination of the Fox tribe. The French leaders deemed this impractical and decided instead to round up the Fox and "relocate" them to Detroit, where the well-armed garrison of the fort could monitor and control their activities.

To effect the concentration of Fox, combined French and Ojibwa forces mounted several campaigns, which had little success. Nevertheless, the French-Ojibwa initiative became increasingly powerful, and by 1729 attacks against the Fox became more fierce. Fox casualties were so heavy that, in 1730, French-Ojibwa policy turned from the objective of concentration back to the original objective of tribal extermination. Despite aid from the Sac tribe (with which, over the years, the Fox would become increasingly identified), the Fox were forced to flee east, to territory controlled by the English-allied Iroquois, where they hoped to find safe harbor. A large number of Fox were captured and killed in flight in the great Fox massacre of 1730. The Fox resistance quickly diminished and petered out entirely by 1733.

The collapse of the Fox tribe left only a single Algonquian tribe unallied with the French west of Iroquois territory. Without the Fox to serve as a buffer, the Iroquois's most formidable trading opponent, the Potawatomi of the Michigan-Chicago-Green Bay region, were positioned to end Iroquois efforts to achieve a trade monopoly in the west, in essence to defeat the Iroquois and bring an end to the long series of Iroquoian Beaver Wars.

For the English, the defeat of the Fox tribe was a blow, but it was not without benefit. With the Fox neutralized, the Iroquois were now motivated to cement a frank alliance with the English.

See also CHICKASAW RESISTANCE; KING GEORGE'S WAR.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); William T. Hagan, *The Sac and the Fox Indians* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1958).

Franco-Austrian War (1477–1493)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria vs. France and the Netherlands
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burgundy and Flanders
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Maximilian of Austria sought to maintain and then recover control of Burgundy and other territories.
OUTCOME: Although Maximilian gained much for Austria, Burgundy remained in French hands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Arras of 1482; Peace of Senlis of 1493

The death of Charles the Bold (1433–77), duke of Burgundy, in the BURGUNDIAN-SWISS WAR (1474–1477) presented King Louis XI (1423–83) of France the opportunity

to lay claim to Burgundy. He was about to do so when Mary of Burgundy (1457–82), the daughter of Charles the Bold, married Archduke Maximilian (1460–1519) of Austria, thereby securing her succession to the Burgundian throne. Unwilling to renounce Burgundy, Louis XI invaded Burgundy, but was defeated at the Battle of Tournai in 1477.

Two years after Tournai, the forces of Louis and Maximilian met at the Battle of Guinegate on August 7, 1479. The French cavalry trounced Maximilian's mounted forces, but the Flemish infantry under Maximilian's command held the field against the French. The French Free Archers, an important militia adjunct to Louis's army, fled the field and brought about the defeat of the French. The wily Louis turned his defeat to some advantage, however. He successfully sued for a cease-fire and then secretly used the time to conspire with the Flemish city-states under the nominal control of Maximilian. Louis incited rebellion, which prompted Maximilian to conclude the Peace of Arras of 1482, whereby Maximilian sought to placate France by betrothing his infant daughter to the French dauphin. The dauphin received a dowry consisting of Burgundy in addition to Artois and Franche-Comté.

Maximilian's agreement effectively undercut the power of his own son, Philip. Nominally ruler of Burgundy, he now had to rule through agents from the Netherlands while Burgundy paid heed to French advisers. In an attempt to reclaim Burgundy for his son, Maximilian waged war against the Netherlands, then, named Holy Roman Emperor, occupied St. Omer in Flanders. He led two minor invasions of Burgundy in 1486 and 1487, but made peace with France in 1489, just in time to fight the rebels in Flanders.

The Flanders revolt was put down by 1492, which freed Maximilian to renew his war with France. He triumphed at the Battle of Dournon in 1493, prompting the Peace of Senlis, by which France ceded Artois and Franche-Comté to Austria. Because the French dauphin had jilted his daughter, Maximilian also recovered her. However, Burgundy remained in French hands.

Further reading: Paul Murray Kendall, *Louis XI: The Universal Spider* (London: Phoenix Press, 2002).

Franco-Austrian War (1809)

See NAPOLEON'S WAR WITH AUSTRIA.

Franco–Barbary Pirates War (1664–1669)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (with Venetian alliance) vs. the Barbary pirates
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Waters off the Algerian coast
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France's Louis XIV sought to suppress Barbary predation against his commercial fleet.
OUTCOME: The pirates were largely suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France sent some 7,000 land troops in addition to a small fleet; Barbary numbers are unknown.
CASUALTIES: France lost 400 sailors as POWs; losses of other belligerents are unknown.
TREATIES: Treaty between France and Algiers, 1666; alliance with Venice, 1664

The state-sanctioned Muslim pirates of the Barbary Coast routinely preyed on Christian commerce vessels, including those of France. In 1664, Louis XIV (1638–1715) decided to take action against the pirates and sent a naval squadron to bombard Djidjelli, Algeria. This assault was repulsed, and 400 French sailors were taken prisoner. Louis made repeated naval assaults on Algiers, finally forcing the dey to agree to cease piracy.

When piracy resumed, Louis XIV entered into an alliance with Venice against the Ottoman Empire, of which the Barbary pirates were an instrument. He dispatched a fleet together with a land force of 7,000 men to Candia (Crete) in operations that more thoroughly suppressed the pirates.

Further reading: John A. Lynn, *The Wars of Louis XIV* (London: Longman, 1999).

Franco-Burgundian Wars (1464–1465, 1467–1477)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Burgundy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burgundy and Lorraine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Charles the Bold wanted to achieve independence for Burgundy and, ultimately, to overthrow Louis XI of France.
OUTCOME: Burgundian independence was achieved for a time.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Conflans, 1465; Peace of Arras, 1482

When King Louis XI (1423–83) moved to transform feudal France into a modern nation-state by strengthening his central authority at the expense of the nobility, he met with much resistance. The leader of the opposition was Charles the Bold (1433–77) of Burgundy, principal organizer of the League of Public Weal (Ligue du bien public) in 1464, an alliance among the nobles to resist Louis. As Charles organized the upper nobility, Louis garnered the support of the lesser gentry and the bourgeoisie. France prepared for war with Burgundy.

Louis pitted his army against that of Burgundy at the Battle of Montlhéry on July 13, 1465. Under the comte de Charolais (1433–77), the Burgundians achieved a narrow victory, and Louis grudgingly signed the Treaty of Conflans, by which he returned territory he had seized from various nobles. Additionally, Charles received lands along the Somme River.

Louis never reconciled himself to the terms of the treaty. Having ceded the Somme territories, he stirred the region to revolt against Burgundy. Charles responded with a new campaign against Louis, intending to achieve outright independence for Burgundy. Louis countered with skilled diplomacy to disband the League of Public Weal. This accomplished, he attempted negotiations with Charles at Péronne in 1468. However, the king's timing was particularly poor. At this moment, a revolt, instigated by the king's own agents, had broken out in Liège, and Charles took Louis captive. To ransom himself, Louis made concessions that extended Charles the Bold's hegemony all the way to the Rhine.

Not satisfied with all that he had gained, Charles was determined to end the threat Louis posed once and for all. He schemed with England and other states to destroy Louis and divide France among them. The French king discovered the plot and checked it, again through adroit diplomacy, by making favorable peace treaties or, failing that, bribing Burgundy's allies. At last, in 1473, Holy Roman Emperor Frederick III (1415–93) refused to crown Charles king of Burgundy, thereby decisively denying Burgundy the status of an autonomous kingdom. By this time, however, Charles had conquered vast territories, including Lorraine in 1475, and, despite the decree of the Holy Roman Emperor, had effectively freed Burgundy from French control. It required a combined French, Swiss, and German (Holy Roman Empire) army to invade Burgundy in 1477. In a battle outside Nancy, fought on January 5, 1477, principally by the formidable pikemen and halberders of the Swiss infantry, Charles fell. Without their leader, the Burgundians yielded to Louis. This submission was formalized in 1482 by the Peace of Arras, which formally returned Burgundy to France. Burgundy thus ceased to be an independent power.

See also BURGUNDIAN-SWISS WAR (1447–1477).

Further reading: Paul Murray Kendall, *Louis XI: The Universal Spider* (London: Phoenix Press, 2002); Richard Vaughan, *Charles the Bold: The Last Valois Duke of Burgundy* (Rochester, N.Y.: Boydell and Brewer, 2002).

Franco-Chinese War

See SINO-FRENCH WAR.

Franco-English Wars

See ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1109–1113); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1116–1119); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1123–1135); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1159–1189); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1202–1204); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1213–1214); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1242–1243); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1294–1298); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1300–1303); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1475); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1542–1546); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1549–1550); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1557–1560); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1627–1628).

Franco-Flemish War

See ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1300–1303).

Franco-German War (942)

See OTTO THE GREAT, CONQUESTS OF.

Franco-German War (978–980)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Germany
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lotharingia (Lorraine)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Lothair of France sought to recover Lotharingia from Otto II, German king and Holy Roman Emperor.
OUTCOME: Lothair aborted the campaign and renounced his claims to Lotharingia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but certainly few or none due directly to combat
TREATIES: None

In 925, France lost Lotharingia (modern Lorraine) to Germany. In 978, Lothair (941–986), the Carolingian king of France, launched an invasion of Lotharingia to reclaim the territory, despite the fact that Otto II (955–83), king of Germany and the Holy Roman Emperor, was his liege lord.

Otto regarded the invasion as an act of rebellion by his vassal, and he responded swiftly after Lothair successfully assaulted Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), in whose cathedral no less a figure than Charlemagne (c. 742–814) was buried. Otto scorned a defensive posture and instead seized the initiative with an invasion of France. His aggression apparently induced Lothair to reconsider his action. No sooner did Otto invade than the Carolingian sought reconciliation with his liege. In 980, therefore, before the war began in earnest, Lothair unilaterally repudiated his claims.

Peace was restored, but it failed to outlive Otto II. When the Holy Roman Emperor died in 983, three-year-old Otto III (980–1002) assumed the throne. His right to succession was disputed and triggered a civil war. Seeing

the weakness of disunity in his German adversary, Lothair was quick to launch a second invasion of Lotharingia in 985, only to die before the year was out. Under his inept successor, Louis V (c. 967–987), known as "Louis the Sluggard," the invasion simply collapsed.

See also OTTO THE GREAT, CONQUESTS OF.

Further reading: Rosamond McKitterick, *The Frankish Kingdom under the Carolingians, 751–987* (New York: Addison-Wesley, 1989); Jonathan W. Zophy, *The Holy Roman Empire* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1981).

Franco-Norman War (1087)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Normandy vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: William I the Conqueror on Philip I, 1087
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: William I sought vengeance for an insult delivered by Philip I.
OUTCOME: The war was aborted after William I died in a horseback riding accident at the siege front.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

William I the Conqueror (1027–87) commenced a war against Philip I (1052–1108) of France, largely to avenge an insult Philip had delivered against him. The abortive war was cut short when William met with an accident while riding on horseback as his troops laid siege to the town of Mantes. Morbidly obese, William never recovered from his injuries and died on September 9, 1087.

Further reading: David Bates, *William the Conqueror* (London: G. Philip, 1989); Hillaire Belloc, *William the Conqueror* (Rockford, Ill.: Tan Books, 1994).

Franco-Prussian War (1870–1871)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Prussia (with allied German states)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: France on Germany, July 19, 1870
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The nominal cause of the war was the Prussian-backed, French-opposed candidacy of a Hohenzollern prince for the Spanish throne. The deeper issue, however, was Prussia's growing power in Germany, which Emperor Napoleon III correctly saw as a threat to French security. Prussia's extraordinarily astute prime minister, Otto von Bismarck, deliberately exploited the issue of the Spanish succession to goad France into an act of war designed to frighten the south German states into joining the North German Confederation organized in 1867, with Prussia as the dominant member.
OUTCOME: The Franco-Prussian War was momentous for European civilization, bringing about the fall of the Second French Empire and marking the end of French hegemony in continental Europe, providing the impetus for the creation of the German Empire, and figuring as the first modern European war, in which both combatant nations used railroads, the telegraph, modern rifles, and modern rifled, breech-loading artillery. The very unstable postwar peace in Europe would last until the outbreak of WORLD WAR I.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Germany: 380,000 men in three armies, with 95,000 held in reserve; France: 224,000 in eight army corps
CASUALTIES: France, 60,000 killed, 140,000 wounded; Prussia (and allies), 28,400 killed, 88,600 wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Versailles, February 26, 1871; Treaty of Frankfurt, May 10, 1871

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

By the middle of the 19th century a Pax Britannica among the Great Powers had been established due to the indisputable supremacy of the British navy. With no country in a position to challenge Great Britain's dominance of the seas, the period between the NAPOLEONIC WARS and the 1870s saw an evident reduction in conflicts among European powers. They did not disappear entirely: There were wars against colonial peoples by the colonizing nations; there was some revolutionary turmoil on the Continent. In France such turmoil led to the rise of Napoleon III (1808–73). On the whole, however, Europe was relatively calm compared to the constant fighting for colonial possessions back in the 18th century, or the rise again of intense rivalry between the Great Powers in the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

During the Pax Britannica, the British Empire became the world's champion of free trade and took the lead in such progressive matters as abolishing slavery. But these very measures opened the Continent to greater industrial development and sparked the move toward national unification, especially in Italy and Prussia, that shattered the peace.

The new Prussian premier Otto von Bismarck (1815–98), one of the more remarkable diplomats in European history, was inspired by the diplomatic and bellicose successes of Italy's able chief minister, Camillo di Cavour (1810–61), in creating a new Italian state under his Piedmontese king (*see* ITALIAN REVOLUTION; ITALIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE). The Prussian minister was determined to copy those triumphs. Reforming Prussia's politics when necessary, engaging in aggressive warfare if need be, willing to aggrandize his country through negotiations when possible, Bismarck would in the end not only unite Germany

under Prussia and defuse liberal and radical agitation almost completely within his new state, but he would also launch a whole new era in international relations.

In 1866, ignoring the express objections of his king, Wilhelm I (1797–1888), Bismarck provoked a war within the aging German Confederation—the SEVEN WEEKS' WAR—in order to destroy Austria's dominance of the league and thus unite the German states under Prussian hegemony. As a result, the old league was replaced by Bismarck's new North German Confederation. Bismarck then seduced the still independent southern German states into joining the North German Confederation, playing off their hatred of Napoleon III, who would come to regret his role in giving birth to the confederacy. In 1870, when Bismarck tried to place one of Kaiser Wilhelm's Hohenzollern relatives on the Spanish throne, Napoleon panicked. The last thing he wanted was Germans on both sides of him, giving rise to the potential for a Prussian-Spanish two-front war against France. The result was another short and brutal but even more momentous conflict, the Franco-Prussian War.

COURSE OF THE WAR

On July 13, 1870, the Prussian king sent a message to Napoleon III reporting an innocuous meeting with the French ambassador. Bismarck, edited this—the so-called Ems Telegram—to imply an exchange of insults. In receipt of the telegram, the French course seemed either to accept a diplomatic defeat or go to war. With his government's prestige faltering at home, Napoleon III judged that he could ill afford to suffer an insult at the hands of Prussia, and he declared war on July 19, 1870.

Unfortunately, Napoleon III had failed to consider that a military defeat was far worse than a diplomatic one. His armies were badly outnumbered and, even worse, outgeneraled. There was no comparison between the efficient German offensive, planned and executed by General Helmuth von Moltke (1800–91), and the haphazard French mobilization.

The Prussians concentrated three superbly equipped armies totaling 380,000 men on the Rhine River frontier: one with 60,000 men under General Karl von Steinmetz (1796–1877), between Trier and Saarbrücken; one with 175,000 men under Prince Friedrich Karl (1828–85), between Bingen and Mannheim; and one with 145,000 men under Crown Prince Friedrich Wilhelm (1831–88), between Landau and Germerscheim. Officially commanded by Wilhelm I, these armies were actually run by Moltke and his soon-to-be-legendary general staff, who had predicted—based on excellent intelligence—the entire French order of battle and whose objective was the utter destruction of the French armies in the field followed by the fall of Paris. The Prussians' one concern was the possibility that Austria might intervene on behalf of the French, so they held 95,000 troops in reserve to face that potential threat.

The French, on the other hand, had some 224,000 men in eight separate army corps that lay stretched out behind the frontier (from Thionville to Strasbourg) back to the fortresses at Metz, Nancy, and Belfort. The individual units were below full fighting strength and scantily armed. Actually transporting these men to battle was something of an afterthought to Napoleon and his generals, who improvised. Lacking any intelligence whatsoever about the enemy, Marshal Edmond Leboeuf (1809–88), France's less than competent war minister, sent the armies under his command into the field with no real plan of battle. Napoleon ordered a general advance and the French people shouted "On to Berlin!" as the soldiers marched by.

Not until the first skirmish between the French and Germans occurred on August 2, 1870, at Saarbrücken did Napoleon group his troops into real armies—the Army of Alsace (the three southernmost corps), commanded by Marshal Patrice Mac-Mahon (1808–93) and the Army of Lorraine (the remaining five corps) under Marshal Archille F. Bazaine (1811–88). Even then, no staffs were created for the armies and both generals had to make do with their individual corps staffs.

Bazaine led his army east, but withered before the German onslaught, losing the battle of Mars-la-Tour on August 16, before taking a misguided stand on August 18 at the battle of Gravelotte. There Moltke's armies blocked the French march toward Verdun and attacked, suffering heavy losses before the French, failing to counterattack, were defeated. The French retreated to the fortress at Metz, where the Germans bottled them up some four weeks after the war had begun.

When the main French army under Mac-Mahon (accompanied by Napoleon) tried to relieve Bazaine, it too was surrounded and trapped by the Germans at Sedan on August 31. The next day, the French tried in vain to break out of Sedan. On September 2, Napoleon III, invited to lead the last charge, refused to sacrifice any more men to the superior German firepower (the French had lost 17,000; the Germans 9,000 men). He drove out under a white flag to surrender as an individual to the king of Prussia. The French commanders then surrendered their army of 83,000 men.

News of the humiliation of Sedan reached Paris two days later, and the Third Republic was proclaimed. In its name, the Government of National Defense deposed Napoleon and sent its new foreign minister, Jules Favre (1809–80), to negotiate with Bismarck. Favre quickly broke off the talks when the Germans demanded Alsace and Lorraine. On September 23, the Prussians besieged Paris. Léon Gambetta (1838–82), the leading figure in the new French government, escaped the city in a balloon and fled to the countryside, where he organized new French armies. But these could no more defeat the Germans than had the armies under Mac-Mahon. On October 27,

Bazaine finally capitulated at Metz. On January 28, the provisional French government sued for peace, and the siege was lifted.

The armistice allowed France three weeks in which to elect a national assembly with authority to negotiate a peace in the republic's name. When the elections created an assembly overwhelmingly in favor of peace, the Treaty of Versailles was negotiated, signed by Adolphe Thiers (1797–1877) and Favre on February 26, and ratified on March 1. Between that date and the conclusion of the formal Treaty of Frankfurt on May 10, 1871, the new republican government was threatened by a radical insurrection that briefly placed the Paris Commune in power (*see* FRENCH CIVIL WAR). When the Commune was suppressed, the draconian Treaty of Frankfurt went into effect.

Germany annexed Alsace and Lorraine; France was saddled with a $1 billion indemnity; Germany occupied northern France till the money was paid; and Kaiser Wilhelm I was proclaimed emperor of the new German Empire at the Hall of Mirrors in the Palace of Versailles (where the French once crowned their kings) on January 18, 1871. The treaty marked not only the creation of the empire but also the birth of the French Third Republic and signaled the coming to prominence of one of the greatest diplomats in European history.

THE WAR'S LEGACY

After 1871, Otto von Bismarck made it clear that his new empire was satisfied with its position as far as the continent of Europe was concerned. Still, he would loom over continental affairs for three decades—from 1862 to 1890—and determine the course of European history. During his 19 years as Germany's imperial chancellor, Bismarck employed a clear-eyed if sometimes ruthless diplomacy to install a network of interlocking alliances aimed at isolating Russia and keeping a defeated France weak and demoralized. By the 1878 Congress of Berlin, the "Iron Chancellor" had, in effect, moved the capital of continental Europe from Paris, or perhaps Vienna, to Berlin, where it was more comfortable for him to maintain single-handedly Europe's balance of power.

Bismarck's "system" came to work so well, in fact, that world politics seemed, for a while, to enjoy something like an equilibrium reminiscent of the recent Pax Britannica. Indeed, Europe seemed to be entering an age of political and social progress. Germany and Italy were unified countries, instead of the old patchwork of central European principalities that had been engaged in internecine warfare since the days of the Holy Roman Empire. The venerable empires of Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Ottoman Turkey still prevailed, and the budding breakup of eastern and southeastern Europe into small disputatious states had yet to threaten the general stability of these ancient regimes. The industrial age, with its demands for large-scale capital investment and economies of scale, had rendered inconsequential many formerly powerful European states, such as the Netherland and Sweden, which were too small, or Spain, which was—in today's economic jargon—underdeveloped. Unless their own interests were directly involved, these lesser powers had little or no say in the affairs of the Great Powers, who were the sole arbiters of European politics.

Nothing like Europe's diplomatic system existed in the rest of the world, and it managed to keep Europe at peace, very dangerously at peace as it turned out, till the whole continent broke into flames during World War I.

Further reading: Arden Bucholz, *Moltke and the German Wars, 1864–1871* (London: Palgrave, 2001); Michael Eliot Howard: *Franco-Prussian War: The German Invasion of France, 1870–1871,* 2nd revised ed. (London: Routledge, 2001); Geoffrey Wawro, *Franco-Prussian War: The German Conquest of France, 1870–1871* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2003).

Franco-Russian War

See NAPOLEON'S INVASION OF RUSSIA.

Franco-Spanish Gulf Coast War

See QUADRUPLE ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE.

Franco-Spanish War (1648–1659)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern France
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of regions in northern France
OUTCOME: Spain was defeated, resulting in the elevation of France as the dominant power in Europe and the establishment of a permanent French-Spanish border at the Pyrenees Mountains.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The French and Spanish each fielded 20,000+ troops in any given engagement.
CASUALTIES: It is believed that the war cost a total of 200,000 lives.
TREATIES: Peace of the Pyrenees, November 7, 1659

The Treaty of Westphalia ended the THIRTY YEARS' WAR in 1648—except in the case of France and Spain, which prolonged the conflict until 1659.

The first phase of the Franco-Spanish War, from 1648 to 1653, overlapped with the Wars of the FRONDE, then continued as an independent conflict until 1659. The principal commanders were the two greatest military figures of the Thirty Years' War, Henri Turenne (1611–75) for

France and Louis II de Bourbon, prince de Condé (1621–86)—the "Great Condé"—for Spain.

Although fighting was general during the early phase of the war (for this, see the Wars of the Fronde), the first great campaign of the conflict did not come until 1654, when Turenne relieved the Spanish siege of Arras by defeating Condé in battle on August 24. The Spanish lost 3,000 killed or wounded. Two years later, on July 16, 1656, at Valenciennes, held under French siege, Condé avenged himself on Turenne by routing the French siege army, killing or wounding 4,400 French troops.

The culminating battle of the war, however, was a victory for Turenne. The Battle of the Dunes, fought on June 14, 1658, took place at Dunkirk, northern France. Turenne, in command of an army of 21,000 (including 3,000 English Parliamentary troops sent by Oliver Cromwell [1599–1658]) laid siege to the 3,000-man garrison of the Dunkirk fortress. Condé mustered a force of 16,000 (which included 2,000 British Royalists opposed to Cromwell) to relieve the siege. In four hours of battle, however, Turenne inflicted 4,000 casualties at a cost of 400 killed and wounded. Dunkirk surrendered 10 days later, and the Peace of the Pyrenees was concluded on November 7, 1659.

See also ANGLO-SPANISH WAR (1655–1659); DUTCH WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: A. Lloyd Moote, *The Revolt of the Judges: The Parlement of Paris and the Fronde, 1643–1652* (1972); Geoffrey Parker, *Success Is Never Final: Empire, War, and Faith in Early Modern Europe* (New York: Basic Books, 2001); Orest Ranum, *The Fronde: A French Revolution, 1648–1652* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1993).

Franco-Spanish War (1727)

See ANGLO-SPANISH WAR (1727–1729).

Franco-Spanish War (1823)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Spanish rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: Action authorized by the Congress of Verona, October 1822
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The restoration of King Ferdinand VII, who had been overthrown by Spanish revolutionaries
OUTCOME: The rebels were defeated and Ferdinand restored.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 100,000; Spain, unknown
CASUALTIES: France, 3,000 killed or wounded; Spain, 3,500 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

During the 1820s, Spain was torn by revolutionary and civil strife in the SPANISH CIVIL WAR (1820–1823). The Congress of Verona, created in the post-Napoleonic period to stabilize European affairs, watched with increasing alarm. Finally, in October 1822, after Spain's King Ferdinand VII (1784–1833) was captured by revolutionaries, the Congress authorized France to intervene in order to restore Ferdinand to his throne.

On April 17, 1823, when Louis Antoine de Bourbon, duc d'Angoulême (1775–1844), crossed the Pyrenees into Spain, his army of 100,000 was greeted warmly by the Basques and Catalonians. He sent one force to besiege San Sebastian, while, with the main part of his army, he attacked Madrid, which was the seat of the revolutionaries. Under fire, the rebel government fled to Seville while the military fell back on Cadiz and the commander in Madrid secretly surrendered to the duke, who gave him safe conduct to France. Without their leader, the garrison at Madrid was powerless to halt the advancing French, who took the city and set up a Spanish regent, who would rule until Ferdinand's return.

With this conquest behind them, the French forces marched south to lay siege against the revolutionary forces commanded by Colonel Rafael del Riego y Nuñez (1785–1823), who was holed up with the remaining rebel forces at Cadiz. The French defeated Riego at the Battle of Trocadero on August 31, 1823, taking the twin forts there, and Cadiz fell on September 23, 1823. Liberated, King Ferdinand was restored to the throne. At the behest of the French, he pledged amnesty for the revolutionaries, but no sooner was he restored than he ordered a round of summary executions.

Further reading: José Alvarez Junco and Adrian Shubert, eds., *Spanish History since 1808* (London: Edward Arnold, 2000); J. B. Trend, *Origins of Modern Spain* (London: Russell and Russell, 1965).

Franco-Spanish Wars

See HAPSBURG-VALOIS WAR; ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V and FRANCIS, FIRST; ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V and FRANCIS, SECOND; ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V and FRANCIS, THIRD; ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V and FRANCIS, FOURTH; ITALIAN WAR OF CHARLES VIII.

Frankish-Alemannic War (496)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ripuarian and Salian Franks vs. Alemanni
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vicinity of Cologne, on the Rhine River
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Franks wanted to expel the Alemanni from the kingdom of Cologne.

OUTCOME: Frankish King Clovis was successful in expelling the Alemanni.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Germanic Alemanni tribe invaded the Ripuarian Franks' kingdom of Cologne on the Rhine in 496. The Ripuarians secured aid from the Salian Franks led by King Clovis (c. 466–511). As the Alemanni advanced across the Rhine toward Lorraine, Clovis met them at Tolbiacum (Zülpich, near Cologne), where the Alemanni at first seized the initiative. Clovis personally rallied his troops, however, leading a gallant charge that routed the invaders and ensured that the Alemanni would never cross the Rhine again. Legend has it that Clovis prayed to his wife's god, promising to convert to Roman Catholicism if God granted him victory. Whether the legend is true or not, Clovis did convert in 496.

Further reading: Patrick J. Geary, *Before France and Germany: The Creation and Transformation of the Merovingian World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1988).

Frankish-Avarian War (791–796)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Franks vs. Avars
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Danube River valley
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Franks under Charlemagne and Pepin wanted to expel the Avars from the central Danube region.
OUTCOME: After much fruitless pursuit and evasion, the Avars were defeated; they submitted to Charlemagne's rule.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Avars had built an empire between the Adriatic and the Baltic Seas and between the Elbe and Dnieper Rivers from the sixth through eighth centuries, but by the end of this period internal discord had weakened them. When the Mongolian branch of the Avar people invaded the central Danube River valley and supported themselves by raiding nearby settlements, Charlemagne (742–814) and his son Pepin (d. 810) led an assault on them. Repeatedly, the Avars managed to avoid a showdown battle by eluding Frankish pursuit. Exhausted, Charlemagne finally decided that it was prudent to return home to develop the defenses of his eastern borderlands. It fell to Pepin to engage and defeat the Avars. In 796 he led an army across the Hungarian Plain, surprising the tribe and driving it across the Tisza (or Theiss) River. The attack had come so swiftly and with such deliberate force that the Avars abandoned a vast treasure of loot, which the Frankish commander Eric of Friuli (fl. eighth century) discovered and shipped back to Charlemagne.

Having suffered military rout, dispossession, and impoverishment, the Mongolian Avars began to submit to Charlemagne's authority at the end of the war in 796. By 805, the last of the Avars had sworn fealty to Charlemagne.

Further reading: Patrick J. Geary, *Before France and Germany: The Creation and Transformation of the Morovingian World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1988); Pál Lipták, *Avars and Ancient Hungarians* (Budapest: Akadâemiai Kiadâo, 1983).

Frankish-Burgundian War

See BURGUNDIAN-FRANKISH WAR (500).

Frankish-Byzantine War (803–810)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Franks vs. Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Venetia and Dalmatia, on the Adriatic coast
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Charlemagne, king of the Franks, wanted possession of Venetia and Dalmatia.
OUTCOME: Charlemagne decided to forgo conquest of Venetia and Dalmatia in return for Byzantine recognition of him as emperor of the West.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unrecorded agreement between Nicephorus I and Charlemagne, 810

Charlemagne (742–814), the great king of the Franks, led a war scholars characterize as a "desultory" series of campaigns against the Byzantines for possession of Venetia and Dalmatia, territories on the Adriatic coast. Charlemagne intermittently fought on land and on sea. At last, in 809 Byzantine emperor Nicephorus I (d. 811) was faced with a threat from the Bulgars (in the BULGARIAN-BYZANTINE WAR [808–817]) and could no longer afford to wage even a desultory war to defend against the assaults of Charlemagne. In 810, therefore, Nicephorus sought terms, and Charlemagne negotiated Byzantine recognition of him as emperor of the West. In return, Charlemagne restored most of what he had conquered, except for Istria, a peninsula on the Adriatic.

Further reading: Donald A. Bullough, *The Age of Charlemagne* (New York: Exeter Books, 1980); Heinrich Fichtenau, *The Carolingian Empire,* trans. Peter Munz (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1978); Friederich Heer, *Charlemagne and His World* (New York: Macmillan, 1975); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2001).

Frankish Civil War, First (670–679)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Frankish kingdom of Neustria vs. Frankish kingdoms of Austrasia and Burgundy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Neustria (France, north of the Loire River)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Neustria wanted to consolidate and dominate the three Frankish kingdoms.
OUTCOME: Neustria briefly dominated the Frankish kingdoms during a period of chronic internecine warfare, which ended with the assassination of the Neustrian leader Ebroin.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Two tribes, the Salians and the Ripuarians, dominated the Franks, whose lands were divided into three kingdoms: Neustria (western Gaul—modern France, north of the Loire), Austrasia (eastern Gaul, the region north of the Loire and west of the Rhine), and Burgundy. Neustria and Austrasia were largely Salian, and Burgundy had been conquered by the Ripuarians. Each kingdom had its own king as well as a "mayor of the palace," effectively prime minister. Toward the end of the fifth century, the Austrasians set up a hereditary kingship under the Merovingian dynasty, named after its founder Merovee (fl. 448–458). In contrast, kings of the other two kingdoms were subject to election.

In 670, a Neustrian, Ebroin (d. 681), sought to unite the kingdoms under a single mayorship. He was opposed by Leodegar (Leger) (d. 679), a Burgundian, who took him prisoner. Ebroin managed to escape, however, and, in turn, captured Leodegar. He then ordered the assassination of Leodegar, and he proclaimed himself mayor of both Neustria and Burgundy. This touched off sporadic civil war, which had no set battles but was, rather, a series of low-level combats. The bloodshed petered out by 679, but hostilities prevailed until the assassination of Ebroin in 681.

Further reading: Patrick J. Geary, *Before France and Germany: The Creation and Transformation of the Merovingian World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1988).

Frankish Civil War, Second (687)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The three Frankish kingdoms, Austrasia, Neustria, and Burgundy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Neustria
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dominance and union of the three Frankish kingdoms
OUTCOME: The Frankish kingdoms were united under Pepin II of Neustria, laying the foundation of the Carolingian dynasty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

An interval of peace followed the First Frankish Civil War. In the Frankish kingdom of Austrasia, Pepin II of Heristal (d. 714) acted as mayor of the palace (the equivalent of prime minister) from 680 to 714. With considerable diplomatic aplomb, he managed to fend off the renewed ambitions of Neustria for dominance over his kingdom and Burgundy, the third of the Frankish realms. However, in 714, a new king, an infant of the Merovingian dynasty, was enthroned for Austrasia. Seeing an opportunity to dominate Austrasia, the mayor of Neustria's palace and its king rallied the nobility of Neustria as well as Burgundy to make war on Austrasia.

The war's single important battle, at Tetry (in the Somme region of northern France) in 687, resulted in Austrasian control of Thierry. It was by no means a titanic military engagement, but it had consequences far greater than its relatively limited scope and intensity. As a result of the battle, Pepin II effectively unified the three Frankish kingdoms and founded the Carolingian line, elevating himself from the status of mayor to king. Thus, the battle was an important step in the rise of France.

Further reading: Patrick J. Geary, *Before France and Germany: The Creation and Transformation of the Merovingian World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1988).

Frankish Civil War, Third (714–719)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Charles Martel vs. the grandsons (and successors) of Pepin II of Heristal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Austrasia
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Frankish throne and dominance of the three Frankish kingdoms
OUTCOME: Charles Martel effectively united the Frankish kingdoms under himself, adding Aquitaine to the Frankish holdings.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Under Pepin II (d. 714), as a result of the Second FRANKISH CIVIL WAR, the three Frankish kingdoms were united. Following his death, the realm was again divided among three grandsons (his sons having died before him), with his widow serving as regent for all three. To eliminate any claims on her authority, she ordered Pepin II's illegitimate son, Charles Martel (688–741), imprisoned; however, he escaped to become mayor of the Austrasian palace (in effect, prime minister of the Frankish kingdom of Austrasia).

Charles Martel held Austrasia against Neustria. He defeated Neustrian forces at the Battle of Amblève (near Liège, Belgium) in 716, then scored an even more decisive victory at the Battle of Vincy (near Cambrai) in 717. This put him in position to install a compliant puppet as king of Neustria.

The impressive rise of Martel awed the Burgundians, who chose not to oppose him, but, rather, voluntarily submitted to his suzerainty. Aquitaine—which, unlike Burgundy, was never one of the Frankish kingdoms—also bowed to Martel in 719 rather than face a fight. Aquitaine sought protection from Muslim raids (*see* FRANKISH-MOORISH WAR, FIRST).

Although the dynasty is named for him, Charles Martel was not the first Carolingian (that was Pepin of Landen). Indeed, he was the last Carolingian to serve only as mayor. His son Pepin the Short (c. 714–768) became the first Carolingian king (he also functioned as mayor).

Further reading: Paul Fouracre, *The Age of Charles Martel* (New York: Addison-Wesley, 2000).

Frankish Invasion of Italy

See GOTHIC (ITALIAN) WAR.

Frankish-Moorish War, First (718–732)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Franks vs. Moors
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern and west-central France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Moors invaded France; France acted to repel them.
OUTCOME: Despite deep Moorish incursions, Frankish forces under Charles Martel pushed the invaders out of France.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 718 the Moors of Spain invaded Aquitaine, capturing Narbonne in 719. Eudo (Eudes, fl. eighth century), ruler of Aquitaine, ceased his opposition to Charles Martel (688–741) and accepted his suzerainty to secure assistance in repelling the Moors (*see* FRANKISH CIVIL WAR, THIRD). Thus Eudo acquired a substantial Frankish army and engaged the invaders at the Battle of Toulouse in 721. Here Eudo defeated the Moors and killed Samah (d. 721), the Muslim governor of Spain. Leaderless, the invading force became fragmented, and Eudo pushed the Moors back across the Pyrenees. The Moors returned, however, in 725–726, to invade Septimania (southern France). This was quickly followed by a major Moorish offensive under Abd-al-Rahman (d. 788) against Eudo. Eudo suffered defeat at the Battle of Garonne, which was followed by the burning of Bordeaux. The Moors penetrated into west-central France, laying waste to large tracts of Aquitaine. Raiding reached up the Rhône Valley as far as Besançon and the Vosges.

Eudo once again appealed to Charles Martel for aid. Martel invaded northeastern Aquitaine in 731 and routed the Moors, pushing them, once again, back into Spain. This action concluded the First Frankish-Moorish War by the following year and earned Charles his sobriquet "Martel"—Charles Martel, or Charles "the Hammer."

Further reading: Paul Fouracre, *The Age of Charles Martel* (New York: Addison-Wesley, 2000).

Frankish-Moorish War, Second (734–759)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Franks vs. Moors
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Franks needed to repel frequent Moorish incursions and raids.
OUTCOME: Raiding continued until Charles Martel succeeded in driving the Moors out of Septimania.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After suffering defeat at the hands of Charles Martel (688–741) in the First FRANKISH-MOORISH WAR, the Moors refrained from major invasions, but persisted in making hit-and-run raids into southern France, which Frankish forces under Eudo (Eudes, fl. eighth century) repelled. The death of Eudo in 735, however, prompted his sons, Hatto and Hunold, to rebel against Charles Martel, who had rushed in to fill the power vacuum created by that death. Martel invaded Aquitaine and compelled Hatto and Hunold to acknowledge his suzerainty. While this power struggle played out, Moorish raiding intensified. Moors

seized Arles temporarily, then raided up the valley of the Rhône. Martel campaigned in the Rhône valley beginning in 734. It was not until 737, however, that he faced two decisive battles. Martel defeated the Moors at Valence and, two years later, at the Battle of Lyon.

Charles Martel died in 741, leaving his sons Carloman (716–54) and Pepin the Short (714–68) to serve jointly as mayor. They had principal responsibility for defending the Frankish kingdom, but, after 747, when Carloman took holy orders, Pepin was left to preside over—and defend—the kingdom alone. He seized the initiative against the Moors, driving them out of Septimania and across the Pyrenees into Spain. He then annexed Septimania to France.

Pepin the Short's campaign in Septimania proved decisive. The Moors did not invade again. By this time, too, Navarre and Asturias, firmly established as Christian kingdoms in northern Spain, blocked passage of any would-be Muslim invaders.

See also FRANKISH CIVIL WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Paul Fouracre, *The Age of Charles Martel* (New York: Addison-Wesley, 2000).

Frankish-Visigothic War

See VISIGOTHIC-FRANKISH WAR.

Fredonian Rebellion (1826–1827)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Followers of land agent Hayden Edwards vs. Mexico
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): East Texas
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: American immigrants into the Nacogdoches area of East Texas revolted against the Mexican government in late 1826 and early 1827 when Mexico City revoked the land grant on which they had settled.
OUTCOME: After proclaiming the region to be an independent republic named Fredonia, the insurrectionists fled back to the United States in the face of advancing Mexican troops.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 200; Mexico, unknown, but far superior
CASUALTIES: No battle deaths
TREATIES: None

Empresarios were land agents appointed by Mexico to promote settlement of Anglo-American families in the Southwest. Mexico instituted the empresario system shortly after winning its independence from Spain in 1819, and it proved popular in the province of Coahilia y Texas throughout the 1820s, especially after the Mexican government enacted a new Mexican Colonization Act in 1824, which legitimized what had been the informal role of the land agent and provided for his compensation. In all this, Mexico was following an ages-old Spanish policy of preempting the westward expansion of the United States into its territories by rewarding westering Americans with land in exchange for becoming loyal citizens of the territories into which they wandered.

Hayden Edwards (1771–1849), a native of Virginia, obtained his empresario license in 1825 from the Mexican government. Edwards's grant, like those of Missouri's Stephen Austin (1793–1836), another famous empresario, allowed him to settle Anglo-Americans in eastern Texas and provided him with a large tract of land. Edwards's holdings lay around the Nacogdoches area partially bordering the Neutral Ground, an area whose ownership had been disputed by the United States and Mexico since the Louisiana Purchase—and tensions over this area increased after Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) claimed Florida in the First SEMINOLE WAR. Within Edwards's grant were squatters, descendants of Spanish colonists who had settled in the region in 1779, members of various Indian tribes, as well as a motley crew—including slave runners and pirates. Edwards ordered all residents to produce proof of ownership or pay him for the value of the land they claimed. Stephen Austin, aware from his own experiences of the sensitive nature of the issue, wrote to Edwards on a number of occasions warning him to proceed with caution.

Ignoring that advice, Edwards soon found himself facing stiff opposition, mostly from long-time Mexican residents of the region. What was more, his adversaries petitioned Mexico City for protection. In May 1826, a beleaguered Edwards left his brother Benjamin (c. 1780–1837) in charge of his affairs in Texas and took off for Louisiana to recruit more settlers and, thus, more allies. The following month, when Mexican relations with the empresario deteriorated over the unresolved and increasingly angry land-title disputes, the government revoked his grant and banished Hayden Edwards from Texas.

In response, Benjamin Edwards began recruiting volunteers to his brother's cause and, in December 1826, led a band of 30 in an attack on the Old Stone Fort. They took the fort, raised a flag bearing the words "Independence, Liberty, and Justice," and declared the area to be the Republic of Fredonia. The ranks of the insurrectionary army, allied with some Cherokee Indians, swelled to 200, and occupied Nacogdoches as the rebellion's leaders produced a constitution, which was adopted on December 31, 1826. In January 1827, when a large contingent of Mexican troops approached Nacogdoches, Benjamin Edwards and his followers fled to Louisiana. Hardly six weeks old, the Fredonia Rebellion came to an abrupt and inglorious end.

The rebellion was an indication of the trouble the empresarios were bringing to Texas along with thousands of Anglo-American families. Because the empresarios were

so successful at the very task Mexico had set for them—providing favorable opportunities for immigrant settlers—they began to upset the political balance in the province. The Mexican government had been growing gradually to distrust the land agents and their settlers, and the Fredonia fracas only confirmed their fears. Thus the rebellion was an important landmark in the growing political volatility that eventually led to the TEXAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: James O. Pattie, *The Personal Narrative of James O. Pattie,* ed. Timothy Flint (New York: Arno Press, 1976); Andres V. Reichstein, *Rise of the Lone Star: The Making of Texas* (College Station: Texas A&M University Press, 1989).

French and Indian War (1754–1763)

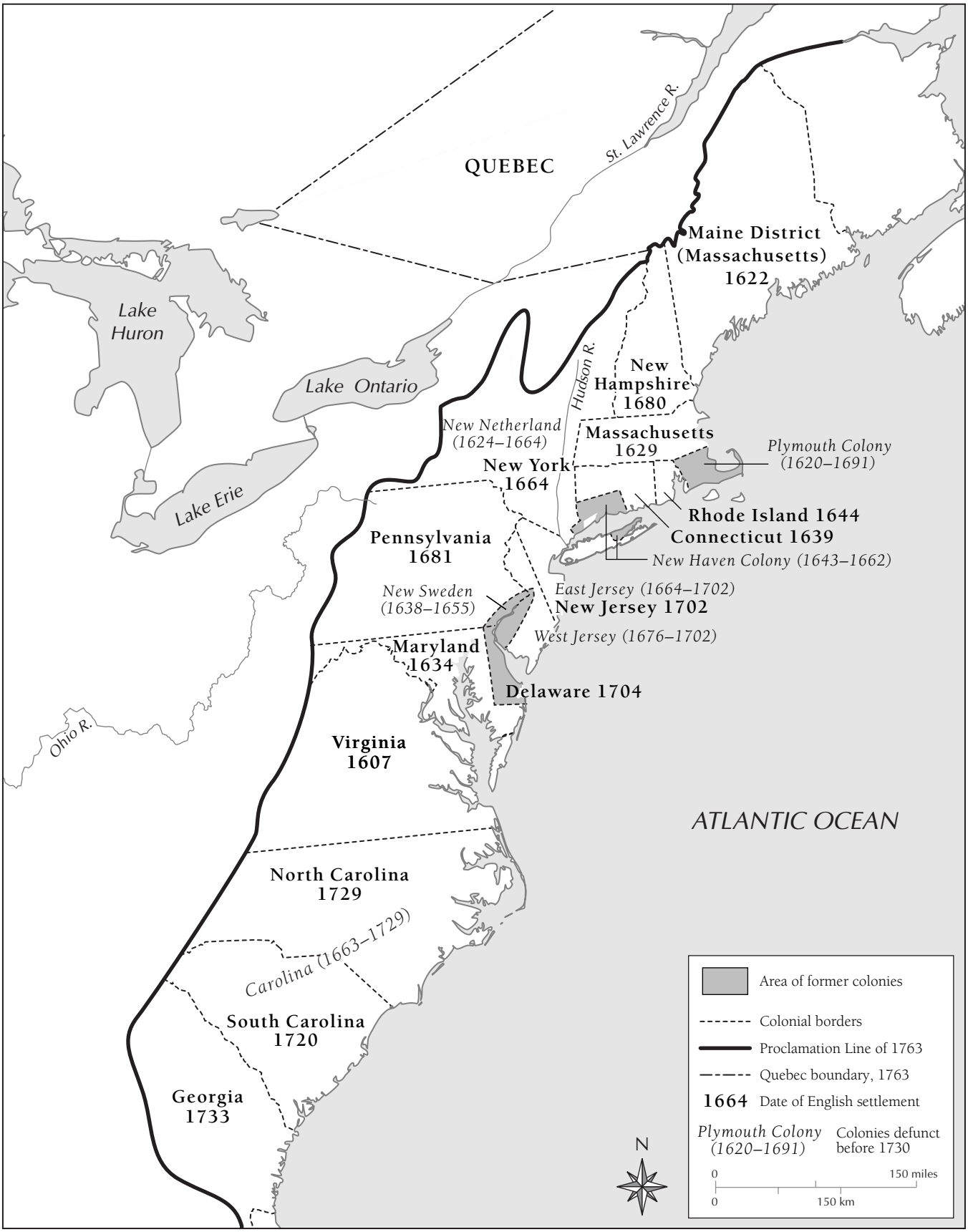
PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British and British-American colonists, and some Indian tribes vs. French and French-Canadian colonists, and numerous Indian societies including the Abenaki, Cherokee, Delaware, and the mission Indians of New France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Ohio Valley, New York, Nova Scotia, Canada, Carolinas
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Anglo-French colonial border disputes provoked imperial intervention and coalesced with a European and global conflict over territory and trade. Indian societies allied with New France sought to reverse and avenge British colonial encroachment on their lands.
OUTCOME: Britain conquered New France; Europe accepted British claims to all of North America east of the Mississippi River, bringing an Indian war of resistance, 1763–65; British colonists resisted and revolted, because of imperial taxation to cover some costs associated with this war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: British: more than 25,000 British-American volunteers and militia, 34,000 British regulars, and fewer than 1,000 Amerindian allies. French: 8,000 Canadian militia, 5,600 French regulars, fewer than 3,000 *troupes de la marine,* and more than 4,000 Amerindian allies
CASUALTIES: British imperial and colonial, 5,758; French imperial and colonial, 2,025; Amerindian, 317
TREATIES: Treaty of Paris (February 10, 1763)

As the climactic resolution to an Anglo-French struggle for dominance in North America, the French and Indian War was rooted in a century and a half of intercolonial rivalry that extended from the fur outposts of Hudson Bay to the plantations of Louisiana and the West Indies. This war was also part of two other, even longer struggles that would not be resolved in 1763. One was between Amerindian societies and the European colonists who invaded their hunting and farm lands. With widespread Amerindian adoption of the flintlock musket in hunting and warfare, sustained Amerindian resistance came to require a reliable European supplier of guns and gunpowder. New France, less populated and more dependent upon the fur trade than the British colonies, was widely preferred as an ally. Strengthening this weaker European contender helped continue a struggle that Amerindians had every reason to prolong. The other epic struggle in which this war was a major episode was the Anglo-French contest in Europe and overseas. Unprecedented British and French imperial commitment of ships, troops, and money drew the North American conflict into a European (SEVEN YEARS' WAR) and global clash as never before. The "French and Indian War" was a British colonial term still used to describe the North American theater of that conflict. The war that began at the forks of the Ohio River came to include battles and sieges as far apart as Prague, Quebec, Havana, and Manila, followed by elaborate peace negotiations in Paris.

OHIO ORIGINS

The upper Ohio Valley had been marginal in the half-century of intense Anglo-French commercial rivalry before 1740. Denuded of valuable furs and far from major Canadian routes to the Mississippi Valley, this intertribal hunting ground had become home to Shawnee, Delaware, and Mingo migrants from farther east. During the War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION (called "KING GEORGE'S WAR" by British colonists), Pennsylvania traders began exploiting the wartime shortage of French trade goods in this area, and supporting an anti-French "Indian Conspiracy of 1747." That same year, Virginia land speculators organized the Ohio Company of Virginia, the first of several competing companies eager to appropriate land.

New France responded with an armed diplomatic tour of the upper Ohio Valley in 1749 under Pierre-Joseph Céleron de Blainville (1693–1759), who expelled British traders and left lead plates proclaiming French sovereignty. However, he met open hostility in councils held with Seneca, Delaware, Mingo, Shawnee, and Miami leaders. Miami chief Memeskia of Pickawillany, a new and well-positioned Miami trading town that was pro-English, was particularly outspoken. Blainville lacked the troops to disrupt Pickawillany, but in June of 1752 some 240 Ottawa and Ojibwa looted the storehouses, captured three British traders, and killed and ate chief Memeskia. Amerindians noticed that the distraught Miami received no help from their Six Nations or Pennsylvanian allies. The next year Canadian governor Michel-Ange Duquesne de Menneville (1702–78) sent 1,500 men to construct three forts between Lake Erie and the forks of the Ohio River. Veteran Canadian explorer, interpreter, and soldier Jacques le Gardeur de Saint-Pierre (1701–55) commanded new Fort



British colonies at the time of the French and Indian War, 1754–1763

Le Boeuf that fall and politely refused a request by the Ohio Company to leave. The message was delivered by George Washington (1732–99), a young Virginia militia officer, surveyor, planter, and Ohio Company stockholder.

The Ohio contest became bloody early in the summer of 1754. Having secured formal British permission to use force to oust the French, Lieutenant Governor Robert Dinwiddie (1693–1770) of Virginia raised a new 159-man Virginia Regiment of the destitute and the drafted whom Washington led toward the forks of the Ohio River. On May 28 they ambushed a Canadian reconnaissance party, capturing 21 and killing 10, including ensign Joseph Coulon de Villiers de Jumonville. This peacetime "assassination of Jumonville" eventually became a European diplomatic incident; more immediately it prompted retaliation by some 500 French, Canadians, and mission Amerindians led by Jumonville's brother.

Aside from the ambush, Washington's tactics were conventional. He took his recruits back to a small improvised stockade, aptly named Fort Necessity, which they attempted to strengthen with trenches and firepits. This venturesome defense was abandoned as soon as war whoops were heard from the woods. Defense from within the palisade also proved hopeless, and Washington surrendered on July 3, 1754, on honorable terms. There was, and is, dispute over whether Washington understood the clause in the French surrender terms by which he acknowledged assassinating Jumonville. Aside from two hostages who were supposed to ensure the return of prisoners taken in the Jumonville incident, the Virginians were released. The "conquest" of a pathetic little "fort" was seen by the British as an act of war.

The Virginians, who had long been geographically insulated from intercolonial war, had instigated a conflict they could not sustain alone. South Carolinians resented Virginian attempts to recruit Creek and Catawba warriors; Pennsylvanians were opposed to the Virginian initiative that immediately put their own traders and frontier settlers at risk and alienated the Delaware friends of the Quaker-led colony. That summer, seven British colonies north of Virginia had legates at the Albany Conference, called to organize intercolonial defense and to placate disgruntled Six Nations allies, though it is best remembered for theoretical discussions of colonial unity that masked a failure to agree on defense quotas.

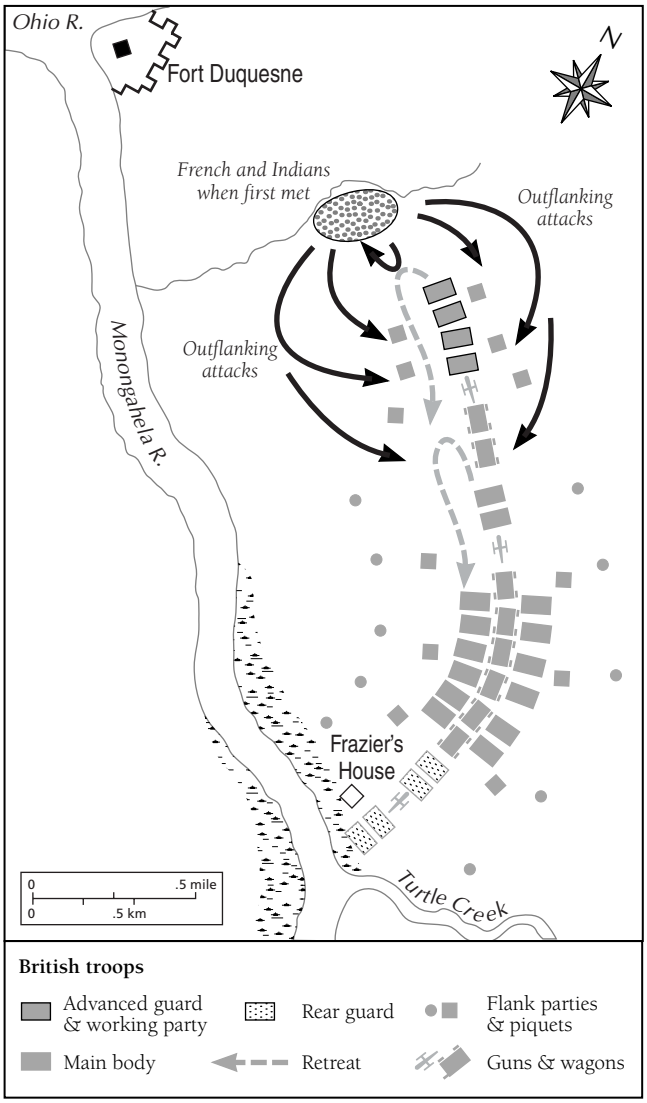
It was the British government that responded in support of Virginia, backing its most valued and populous North American colony. The duke of Newcastle was central to a British ministry that did not want war and believed, rightly, that the French felt the same. With the arrival of news of the fall of Fort Necessity and the French building of Fort Duquesne, British commitment escalated. What had been a promise of £13,000 and the use of three companies of regulars already in America grew into a more ambitious proposal, supported by William Augustus, duke of Cumberland (1721–63), favorite son of King George II (1683–1760) and captain-general of the British army. By the end of 1754, two understrength Irish regiments had been sent to America commanded by Major General Edward Braddock (1695–1755) of Cumberland's own elite regiment, the Coldstream Guards.

The French government was not ready for war and, with 10 times Britain's army but only half its navy, would have preferred to fight in Europe. Nonetheless, France sent six regular regiments to reinforce Louisbourg and Canada in 1755. Despite the peace, a 19-vessel British naval squadron was instructed to intercept this troop convoy off Newfoundland; they captured only two unsuspecting French ships containing 10 companies of regulars.

BRADDOCK'S CAMPAIGN, 1755

The British government intended to use Braddock's regulars and colonial support to counter four French "encroachments" on British-claimed territory along the disputed borderlands in North America. Braddock was to proceed against Fort Duquesne, then take Forts Niagara, St. Frédéric, and Beauséjour, with the possibility of a negotiated settlement between sieges. This ambitious and rather disparate strategy, designed for an undeclared war, would be imprinted upon subsequent British planning. Meeting with colonial governors in Alexandria, Virginia, in April 1755, Braddock learned of military preparations in New England, under Massachusetts governor William Shirley, that were impressive enough to warrant a change of plans; simultaneous attacks were to be made on all four targets. Four armies, each of different composition but each assigned to take one fort, set off on what could have been an experiment in methods of fighting and funding war in North America.

Braddock personally commanded the Fort Duquesne expedition in the face of major transport shortages, minimal Amerindian support, and mountainous terrain that should have prevented movement of his heavy artillery. However, his army moved efficiently over the 150 miles from Alexandria to Little Meadows. Braddock than led an advance force of 1,450 that marched without incident for three weeks, reaching the Monongahela River on July 8. The vanguards apparently lulled into overlooking routine precautions, failed to detect an approaching force of 783 French, Canadians, and Indians. The equally surprised company of *troupes de la marine,* recruited in France and officered by Canadians, blocked the 12-foot-wide forest roadway with effective conventional musketry. Braddock's column either did not receive, or did not hear, the order to halt: infantry, artillery, and baggage train telescoped into each other in confusion. Amerindians and Canadians immediately used Amerindian tactics of "moving fire" along both flanks of the disrupted column. The British lost 977 wounded and killed, including Braddock, whereas their opponents sustained only 39 casualties. There is dispute over Braddock's personal responsibility, but he came



Battle of the Wilderness (Braddock's assault on Fort Duquesne), July 9, 1755

to bear the opprobrium accompanying a stunning defeat, one that encouraged Amerindians to join the French.

William Shirley, the lawyer and politician who had prepared thoroughly for a New England campaign in Acadia and against Fort St. Frédéric, took personal charge of an attack on Fort Niagara instead. This campaign, launched from Albany by a governor of Massachusetts, met predictable political interference from New York's lieutenant governor James De Lancey (1703–60), whose connections were bypassed in awarding supply contracts. Because a second army, bound for Fort St. Frédéric, was also in Albany competing for supplies, cannon, wagons, whaleboats, workmen, and Six-Nation support, there were severe delays even before Shirley faced the tasks of navigating the Oswego River and building a fleet on Lake Ontario. The revived Shirley and Pepperrell regiments of British regulars recruited 2,500 colonists, joined by 500 New Jersey volunteers and 100 Iroquois, who all set out on this venture that stalled at Fort Oswego. Shirley, who became commander in chief after Braddock's death, was easily discredited by his political opponents.

The attack on Fort St. Frédéric was even more colonial, consisting of 3,500 volunteers who were paid, supplied, and ultimately controlled by colonial assemblies. William Johnson (1715–74), Irish pioneer, adopted Mohawk chief, and former fur trader, was in charge of a force supplemented by 300 members of the Six Nations. Although the force's composition might suggest irregular warfare, the conventional assignment was to cut a road and haul 16 heavy cannon to besiege a stone fort. By early September they were still 50 miles from their objective, but had built Fort Edward on the upper Hudson and had cut a 16-mile road to Lac St. Sacrament, which they prematurely renamed Lake George.

A force of 700 French regulars, 300 *troupes de la marine,* 1,300 Canadian militia, and 700 Amerindians had been sent in mid-August to stop Johnson. Newly arrived Jean-Armand, Baron de Dieskau (1701–67), who had fought with irregulars in Europe even before becoming a protégé of Maréchal de Saxe (1696–1750), led them boldly. With an advance force of Amerindians and selected regulars and militia, Dieskau intended to surprise still-unfinished Fort Edward, isolating Johnson's army from its supplies and its retreat route. However, the Caughnawaga Iroquois with him flatly refused to attack Fort Edward. Adapting his strategy effectively, Dieskau led his force along Johnson's new road to attack his camp at the other end. Learning that a contingent of Johnson's army was coming down that road, Dieskau agreed to an elaborate ambush that killed 90, including 40 Mohawk, and sent the survivors racing for Johnson's camp. Dieskau wanted his troops to give chase, but the Amerindians declined to attack a camp fortified with four functional cannon behind a barricade of overturned wagons and whaleboats. Foiled again, Dieskau organized what proved an impressive, though futile, display of conventional valor. His regular grenadiers, arranged in a narrow column, attempted a bayonet charge to take the guns. They failed against massive musket fire from barricaded British-American militia and cannon fire supervised well by Johnson's only regular officer, Captain William Eyre. However, the successful defenders were severely shaken and showed little interest in pursuing the defeated French. Johnson's army had won the Battle of Lake George and captured the injured Dieskau, but were shocked by the level of casualties on both sides and refused to proceed to Fort St. Frédéric. Instead, they built Fort William Henry, a substantial fort necessary to challenge French access to a road that could now lead French invaders south more rapidly than it had allowed its English builders to go north.

The most successful part of Braddock's general plan was the capture of Forts Beauséjour and Gaspereau, con-

trolling the isthmus of Chignecto as well as land access to Nova Scotia, and supporting the discontented among the 20,000 French Acadians who had been British subjects since 1714 but had never been required to take an unqualified oath of allegiance. British colonel Robert Monckton led 2,000 New England volunteers, raised by Governor Shirley of Massachusetts, and 270 British regulars from the Halifax garrison against stone Fort Beauséjour. Their flotilla landed without opposition and received traitorous assistance from within the garrison. The fort surrendered quickly; Fort Gaspereau capitulated without a shot being fired. This most successful part of the British offensive of 1755, and the only one that avoided wilderness marches, had been financed and led by the British, and manned largely by New England volunteers. Nova Scotia's lieutenant governor Charles Lawrence (1709–60) added a cruel sequel to this easy victory. With an army at his disposal he decided to impose an unconditional oath of allegiance on the Acadians; Monckton's forces supervised the expulsion of those who refused, constituting the majority of those Acadians who had not already fled to French protection.

The British offensive of 1755 had failed. Braddock's army had been slaughtered, and Shirley and Johnson had not even reached the forts they were to besiege. The success in Nova Scotia might have suggested that colonial governors organize colonial armies to be led and paid for by the British. Instead, planners focused on explanations offered for the failures. Their response was to send more regulars, and to empower the new commander in chief, the earl of Loudoun (1705–82), with authority to override colonial political interference. They sentenced Loudoun and the British colonial war effort to two more years of wrangling and failure.

VAUDREUIL'S OFFENSIVE, 1755–1757

In 1755, governorship of New France came to Pierre-François de Rigaud, marquis de Vaudreuil (1698–1778), a Canadian born to an earlier governor, an officer in the *troupes de la marine,* and the former wartime governor of undersupplied Louisiana. Although addicted to reporting the successes of both Amerindians and French regulars as accomplishments of the Canadians, Vaudreuil understood how to mesh these three military traditions effectively. He took the initiative despite New France's manpower disadvantage compared with the British North American colonies, which was in the neighborhood of 20 to 1. Vaudreuil used two methods: he supported Amerindian raids on the western frontiers of Pennsylvania and Virginia; and he captured major British colonial strongholds by a combination of guerrilla and regular warfare.

Fort Duquesne became the center from which dozens of raids were launched against the frontier settlements of the middle colonies. The French capitalized on Amerindian support that grew from the destruction of Braddock's army, as warriors seized the opportunity to use the French in their own fight against encroaching British colonial settlement. The raids ensured that Virginia and Pennsylvania were preoccupied with building frontier forts, and contributing very little to attacks on French posts to their west or north. By 1758 Virginia was maintaining 27 wooden frontier forts, which could not prevent raids and which occasionally became targets themselves. Between 1755 and 1758 an estimated 2,000 British colonial settlers were killed in these raids, and even more were taken captive and adopted into Amerindian villages in the Ohio Valley. For Vaudreuil, a small investment in Canadian manpower and supplies supported raids that hobbled and distracted a richer opponent while strengthening Canada's Amerindian alliances.

Vaudreuil combined irregular and regular warfare against his primary objective of 1756, Fort Oswego, the Lake Ontario base from which the English had threatened Fort Niagara the previous year and from which they could easily attack Fort Frontenac. Fort Oswego had begun, in 1728, as a trading post at the mouth of a river; as Anglo-French rivalry escalated, so did fortification. During the winter of 1755–56, Canadian scouting parties took prisoners and burned supply boats. In March a force of Canadians, mission Amerindians, and selected French regulars trekked 200 miles to attack and destroy Fort Bull, a supply depot at the crucial portage between the Mohawk and Oswego Rivers. The isolation of Fort Oswego was reinforced by attacks on supply boats on the Oswego River in July. The next month Fort Oswego was besieged by 1,300 French regulars, 1,500 Canadian militia, 260 Amerindians and 137 *troupes de la marine*. Louis-Joseph de Montcalm (1712–59), the newly arrived commander of the French regulars, led an attack that he hoped would last long enough to draw British regulars away from Albany, where they were a direct threat to New France. Weakened by preliminary irregular attacks, Fort Oswego surrendered within hours of the first cannonade from Montcalm's guns. French forces took 1,520 men and 120 women and children prisoner, as was customary after a feeble defense. These prisoners proved particularly burdensome as Canada suffered another crop failure, delaying military operations the next year. Despite some tensions and the killing of at least 30 wounded prisoners by Amerindians after the surrender, the taking of Fort Oswego represented effective cooperation between Amerindian and European military methods.

Vaudreuil's target for 1757 was more challenging. Fort William Henry was a substantial two-year-old, corner-bastioned earthen fort at the south end of Lake George, only one-third as far from Albany's supplies and reinforcements as Fort Oswego had been. A major raid in March 1757 by 1,500 Canadians, Amerindians, and French regulars under Vaudreuil's brother, François-Pierre de Rigaud de Vaudreuil, burned boats and outbuildings but failed to

surprise or outmaneuver the garrison of 474 British regulars and colonial rangers. Interpreted variously then and since either as a successful spoiling raid or as a failed attempt to capture the fort, the raid contributed to the defensive posture of the British on that frontier in 1757. Canadian raids along the communications lines between Albany and Fort William Henry did not seriously disrupt supplies that spring.

Montcalm again led the summer attack with an army of nearly 8,000 regulars, *troupes de la marine,* Canadian militia, and mission Amerindians supplemented by 1,800 Amerindians recruited from the Great Lakes basin. Amerindian scouts completely defeated efforts by the fort's commander, Lieutenant Colonel George Monro, to gather information about the approaching force. A frustrated Monro sent 350 men in whaleboats to scout down Lake George late on July 23, but they were surprised at dawn off Sabbath Day Point by nearly 600 Amerindians whose canoe attack allowed only about 100 to escape. This destruction of whaleboats ensured that Montcalm's army would not be challenged on Lake George. Amerindians also prevented all British communication with the fort after the siege began. A well-conducted, European-style siege and defense ended with surrender of the fort on August 9.

Cooperation between regular and irregular warfare brought Canadian success, but it also brought an attack on prisoners of war the next day. Amerindians, deprived of promised loot because of generous surrender terms, attacked the column of 2,456 paroled prisoners and their dependents, killing at least 69. Amerindian disgust at what they saw as French collusion with the enemy, as well as the smallpox they carried back to their villages, ensured the end of this French advance into New York and reduced Amerindian support for New France thereafter.

Despite its successes, Vaudreuil's aggressive defense of New France ended in 1757. Montcalm, who advocated withdrawal from the Ohio, Lake Ontario, and Lake Champlain frontiers and concentration on defense of Quebec and Montreal, was increasingly influential and openly at odds with Vaudreuil. The British and British colonists, who had been constrained by political, administrative, and strategic tangles during these three "years of defeat," were about to put New France on the defensive.

PITT'S OFFENSIVE, 1758–1760

There was little strategic imagination in the British offensive that began in 1758; the targeting of Louisbourg, Fort Carillon, Fort Frontenac, and Fort Duquesne echoed the plan to reverse French "encroachments" in the undeclared war of 1755. The major difference was that three of four efforts failed in 1755, whereas three of four succeeded in 1758.

The resources available to British commanders were much larger in 1758, which cannot be said for their opponents. The relevant change in British politics was the appointment of William Pitt (1708–78) as secretary of state for the southern department and, effectively, as prime minister. Arrogant, eloquent, and ambitious, Pitt was disliked by cabinet colleagues and by King George II, but he worked efficiently in the revitalized ministry. Pitt represented patriotic nationalism in power, and he charmed voters, government suppliers, and creditors into a massive war effort. He was not winning a European war in America, as he claimed, or the reverse; Pitt raised and spent enough to support both wars. Pitt's "subsidy plan" offered full reimbursement of all colonial assistance beyond levy money and pay for colonial troops. Soldiers, supplies, and transport became readily available from colonial sources anxious to earn sterling, while also winning a war.

British regulars, including about 10,000 recruits from America, constituted over half of the forces used in 1758, compared to one-seventh of the much smaller number employed in 1755. Regulars were retained over the winter for garrison duty and were ready for early spring campaigning, whereas colonial regiments were recruited for eight-month terms after annual legislative decisions, and were available only after spring planting. Colonial recruits into the regulars and colonial ranger units had a good reputation, and the latter became part of the regulars. Loudoun introduced light infantry units into all regular regiments, trained troops to counter ambushes, and organized an innovative army transport service that greatly assisted wilderness campaigning.

British naval resources also expanded markedly in those three years. British naval spending doubled to an unprecedented £4 million. The fleet included 98 ships-of-the-line to confront France's 72. British fleets carried British regulars, gunpowder, and supplies to America as well as offering tactical mobility and additional manpower, especially for amphibious operations at Louisbourg and later at Quebec. The British naval blockade of French European ports was never complete, but there were no major "escapes" of substantial relief squadrons bound for America after 1757. Between early 1758 and late 1759 the French navy lost nearly half of its fighting strength, and by 1760 there were only 50 French ships-of-the-line to counter 107 British.

Louisbourg was to be the showpiece of the 1758 British offensive, an amphibious campaign uncomplicated by wilderness treks. Loudoun had brought a force of nearly 15,000 for the task the year before, but withdrew when he discovered that a fleet comparable to his own, and equally cautious, was in Louisbourg harbor. The 1758 landing was challenged by well-prepared shore entrenchments and by heavy seas, but not by a French fleet. A boatload of resourceful infantrymen were able to land in a protective "neck of rocks." This minor weakness was exploited effectively by the British to gain control of the heights above, forcing defenders to retreat to the fort. Major General Jeffrey Amherst (1717–97) conducted a

careful, thorough, but unimaginative siege that indicated the kind of leadership he would provide as commander in chief in subsequent campaigns. Thirteen thousand British regulars besieged the French, who were outnumbered three to one but led ably by Governor Augustin de Drucour (1703–62). Louisbourg surrendered after resisting for nearly two months, which was long enough to ensure that the British force could not proceed to Quebec that year.

Although Major General James Abercromby (1706–81) had become British commander in chief in North America, his major responsibility was the attack of Fort Carillon (Ticonderoga); the 1758 Louisbourg and Fort Duquesne campaigns were run from London as independent commands, and the Fort Frontenac expedition was initially canceled. Montcalm, very short of Amerindian scouts, was defending a vulnerable Fort Carillon with 3,500 men, opposing Abercromby's nearly 15,000. Located to intercept waterborne traffic and to facilitate supply, the fort would have been untenable if cannon were mounted atop nearby Mount Defiance. Like Washington at Fort Necessity, Montcalm was not prepared to trust the fort's ability to defend his men, and he had elaborate entrenchments prepared to intercept attackers. Trenches were reinforced by logs and sandbags and screened by a massive *abattis,* a tangle of freshly cut trees effective in slowing and disrupting advancing troop formations.

Abercromby's attack of July 8, 1758, was precisely the type for which Montcalm had prepared. Abercromby, who is often considered criminally responsible for the resulting disaster, was in a hurry because of false information. French and Canadian prisoners had reported that Montcalm had 6,000 troops and that 3,000 more were expected to arrive soon with the talented and popular Chevalier François-Gaston Lévis (1719–87) at their head. Abercromby's scouts atop Mount Defiance, where there were as yet no cannon, added to the urgency by reporting that Montcalm's defenses were still incomplete but should be attacked quickly. The result was a poorly coordinated frontal assault on the entrenchments that continued long after it was clear that Abercromby's scouts had been wrong. The French were never seriously threatened in a battle that killed 464 attackers. Montcalm's victory against such impressive odds was also his victory over Vaudreuil. By the following February he would outrank Vaudreuil in military decisions, and would prepare Quebec for a defense like that of Fort Carillon.

Attempting to salvage something from this disaster, Abercromby authorized an expedition against Fort Frontenac. Lieutenant Colonel John Bradstreet (1714–74) took 3,500 American colonists in British pay on a surprise attack against a weakened Canadian outpost. The garrison of 70 surrendered on August 27, before the attackers had exhausted their 24-hour supply of ammunition for their cannons. Rather than a conquest, this success was a well-timed raid into enemy territory. The prisoners were released after promising the release of an equivalent number of prisoners held in Canada. The fort was burned, as was the French Lake Ontario fleet based there, after which the victors left.

The 1758 British campaign against Fort Duquesne was to avenge Braddock, but it also had strategic significance for Virginia and Pennsylvania, which were drawn more fully into the war. Brigadier General John Forbes (1710–59) supervised the methodical construction of a defensible 193-mile road, complete with stockades and forts no more than 40 miles apart. The route, west from Raystown (Bedford), Pennsylvania, was shorter, less susceptible to flooding, and traversed country with more forage than was available along Braddock's road. Approximately 500 Cherokee and Catawba scouts initially accompanied the expedition, but left because progress seemed slow. Five thousand colonial militia and 1,840 regulars built Forbes's road, giving Pennsylvania ready access to the Ohio country. On September 14 an advance party of 800 regulars and Virginia militia attempted to raid near Fort Duquesne, but were discovered and driven off after heavy losses. Fort Duquesne's commander presumed that the English had been turned back, and reduced his forces to a winter footing. On November 24, when Forbes's army advanced to within a day's march of Fort Duquesne, it was evacuated and detonated. The English occupied the site of Fort Pitt (Pittsburgh) the next day.

A major diplomatic meeting at Easton, Pennsylvania, the previous month had been a promising omen for this campaign. Some 500 Amerindian leaders from 15 tribes met officials from Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Forbes's army. In return for assurances that certain fraudulent land sales would be canceled and that English presence in the Ohio Valley would be temporary, the Amerindians agreed to withdraw support from the French. Six days before Forbes reaches his objective, the British flag replaced the French one flying over the major Amerindian town of Kuskuski.

The campaigns of 1758 demonstrate that fortune favors the biggest armies and navies. France was unable to reinforce a New France that had mobilized all adult males without mustering more than 16,000 militia, regulars, and *troupes de la marine.* Their opponents had increased their troops in the field to more than 44,000 in 1758. The shrinking of New France was obvious from the burned forts and lost Amerindian allies in the west. British conquest of Louisbourg was strategically more ominous as a base from which all Canadian maritime traffic could be challenged and an army launched against Quebec. As a pessimistic Montcalm predicted, New France would fall in one or two campaigns unless peace was made in Europe.

British imperial and colonial forces had, by 1759, fulfilled most of the initial military objectives developed four years earlier; now they were to mount a direct attack on the heart of New France reminiscent of the failed attempts of

1690 and 1711, and the plans of 1746. A seaborne attack on Quebec was to be coordinated with another army's advance up the Lake Champlain route to Montreal, thereby dividing the outnumbered defenders. The plan was pursued in 1759, but delayed by French resistance, by Amherst's caution, and by changing Amerindian strategies.

The attack on Fort Niagara illustrated all of these factors. Fort Niagara was very peripheral to the conquest of New France, especially if invaders used the traditional two-pronged approach. However, the Six Nations wisely reconsidered the formal neutrality most of them had observed throughout the conflict, and declared an interest in joining the recently successful British. New France had built Fort Niagara on Seneca territory, and the Seneca now led the Iroquois confederacy's opposition to that fort. If Amherst authorized something comparable to Forbes's elimination of Fort Duquesne, he would have Six Nations support. Early in May 1759 Amherst approved a siege of this increasingly isolated and vulnerable fort, an initiative that fitted with Amherst's thorough, dogged approach and offered the prospect of a third unencumbered route into New France, a route via the upper St. Lawrence River.

The Niagara campaign revealed Amerindian diplomatic dexterity. The French garrison at Fort Niagara, consisting of about 500 under the able leadership of engineer Captain Pierre Pouchot (1712–69), was surprised on July 7 by a besieging force of 2,000 British regulars and nearly 1,000 Iroquois. This surprise indicated that Six Nations informants had entirely abandoned New France. Six Nations legates were allowed to talk to the 30 Amerindians inside the fort, after which the Six Nations forces seemingly withdrew from the siege to establish a camp at nearby La Belle Famille. There they waited to intercept the reinforcements Pouchot expected from the Ohio. Some 600 French and Canadians arrived, together with nearly 1,000 Ohio Amerindians whom the Six Nations convinced to stay out of this white man's conflict. On July 24 the 600 French and Canadian reinforcements, including numerous legendary irregulars, were ambushed on their way to the fort by an equal number of British regulars and New York provincial soldiers screened behind a log barricade and *abattis*. Nearly 350 were killed or captured either in the ambush or in its aftermath, when Six Nations warriors joined in the pursuit of scalps and prisoners. Pouchot, learning what had happened to his only hope for relief from a throttling conventional siege, surrendered two days later. By the terms of surrender, the defeated became prisoners of war, except for the 30 Amerindians, who were freed. The Amerindians had suffered few losses in the process of withdrawing from the losing side, or in moving from neutrality to support of the British.

It was Amerindians turning hostile to the British who began distracting British forces in the Carolinas in 1759. Some 10,000 Cherokee hunters and farmers lived in 40 villages in the valleys of the southern Appalachians. Although generally allied with the British, they were increasingly angered by South Carolina and Virginia frontiersmen encroaching on their lands. There were fatal skirmishes with Virginia militia in the summer of 1758, and subsequent murderous raids of revenge by both sides. In August of 1759 Governor William Lyttleton (1724–1808) of South Carolina halted arms and ammunition sales to the Cherokees. Attempts to force the Cherokee to surrender "murderers" escalated into a full-scale expedition by 1,500 men in the last three months of 1759. The expedition forced a group of Cherokee leaders to agree that the Carolinians could hold 22 Cherokee hostages in Fort Prince George until an equal number of unnamed Cherokee "murderers" were delivered. Although celebrated in Charleston, the expedition had done nothing but provoke the Cherokee and infect the garrison of this isolated fort with smallpox. An elaborate Cherokee ruse killed the garrison commander, leading to retaliatory killing of all the Cherokee hostages. Continuing raids on South Carolina frontiers prompted Lyttleton to seek help from Virginia and from General Amherst. Amherst sent 1,300 regulars from New York to Charleston in the spring of 1760. They burned five evacuated Cherokee towns and fought an inconclusive battle near Etchoe (near modern Otto, North Carolina) before claiming success and hurrying back to the war in the north. The unbowed Cherokee responded with the successful siege of Fort Loudoun, 200 hilly miles inside Cherokee territory. Major James Grant (1720–1806) led 1,400 regulars and an equal number of provincial volunteers, rangers, and Amerindian guides in the 1761 expedition that burned 20 Cherokee towns, destroying crops and orchards as well. Harassed but still undefeated, the Cherokee negotiated a favorable peace that was ratified by the end of the year. Other Amerindians learned from the Cherokee war against British regulars, even though none had answered the Cherokee appeals for help. They were reacting cautiously in light of developments on another front, the British success in Canada.

The 1759 Battle of the Plains of Abraham is widely regarded as the decisive battle of the French and Indian War, though it was anticipated by the major British successes of 1758 and challenged by an effective French campaign early in 1760. A British fleet of 141 warships and transports delivered nearly 9,000 troops, under the command of General James Wolfe (1727–59), to Quebec by early June 1759. There they confronted 16,000 French regulars, Canadian militia, and Amerindian irregulars whom Montcalm had deployed to strengthen defenses. Montcalm's position was strong, because those attacking fortified positions expected to succeed only if they outnumbered defenders by at least three to one. Wolfe's first two months were spent in futile efforts to gain a military foothold anywhere near the fortress on the north shore of the St. Lawrence River. He also failed to lure defenders out of their entrenched positions, though 40 cannon pounded

the city mercilessly from the south shore, and farms were also being systematically destroyed. The invaders had accomplished very little by early September, except that British ships were escaping damage while passing the city, forcing Montcalm to deploy sizable forces to shadow them up the river.

An increasingly frustrated Wolfe accepted a risky plan suggested by his brigadiers. A night landing at Anse de Foulon, on the north shore above the city, was followed by scaling 150-foot cliffs, deceiving and overpowering French pickets, and assembling 4,400 men and two field cannon on the Plains of Abraham by daylight on September 13. Montcalm, assuming that the attackers were not yet established on the heights, acted with uncharacteristic haste. Without waiting for field cannon or for reinforcements that could have doubled his force, Montcalm led 4,500 regulars and militia who attacked in three columns. Six battalions of British regulars used disciplined musket volleys to halt the charge, then advanced with bayonets and broadswords. When the half-hour battle was over, the British controlled the field, though the French still held the city. Each side had casualties of 15 percent (658 English and 644 French), with Wolfe among the dead and Montcalm among the dying. Before succumbing four days later, Montcalm surrendered the city to the British.

Whatever is claimed for the Battle of the Plains of Abraham, the Franco-Canadian army had not surrendered or been separated from its local supply bases. A battle to regain Quebec, the Battle of Sainte-Foy on April 28, 1760, demonstrated the continuing strength of New France. Lévis was now commanding an army of nearly 7,000, half of them French regulars; Brigadier General James Murray (1725–94) led the British winter garrison at Quebec, consisting of fewer than 3,900 men. Murray, like Montcalm the previous year, ventured his forces out of their defenses. The battle was bloodier than its predecessor (1,104 English and 833 French casualties) and the victorious French captured the abandoned British field guns. However, Murray retreated back into the walled city and withstood a siege that suffered from a severe shortage of gunpowder. The British Royal Navy, having won decisive engagements over the French off Portugal's Lagos Bay in August 1759 and off Brittany's Quiberon Bay that November, not only prevented a modest French supply squadron from reaching Quebec but also arrived in strength in the second week of May 1760, forcing Lévis to abandon the siege.

Most Canadians and Amerindians considered the war as lost thereafter, but 2,000 French regulars and nearly 1,000 Canadian militia assembled to defend Montreal despite increasing shortage of provisions and supplies. Amherst's cautious, thorough, and logistically impressive *coup de grace* was delivered at Montreal in September. Three well-supplied British armies, totaling 17,000 men, arrived within 48 hours of each other: Murray's army sailed unopposed up from Quebec; Lieutenant Colonel William Haviland (fl. 18th century) brought another down the now-defenseless Richelieu River; and Amherst led his army down the St. Lawrence, overrunning the last opposition. An infuriated Lévis still wanted to fight for more honorable terms but, on September 8, 1760, Vaudreuil wisely agreed to surrender the town and the colony. Although the century-long Anglo-French intercolonial struggle had featured various combinations of Amerindian and European military methods, it was concluded by a decisive contest dominated by the latest European military personnel, methods, and values.

Britain became much more interested in making peace in the two eventful years between the surrender at Montreal and its confirmation in the Peace of Paris. British king George II, who had been resistant to any peace that did not fulfill his ambitions for his native German principality of Hanover, died in 1760, making peace possible. William Pitt, who had insisted upon British retention of its rapidly increasing colonial conquests, did not gain the ear of 22-year-old George III (1738–1820), who joined his advisers and a war-weary English public in wanting peace and an end to the astronomical military spending. Meanwhile, British armies and navies continued to impound French imperial possessions in the West Indies, West Africa, and India.

Spain belatedly joined the French, only to provide additional targets, including Manila, captured in 1762. Some North American troops were involved in Britain's major success of 1762, the capture of Havana. Approximately 2,000 Americans volunteered to join an equal number of regulars from the North American command in a contingent that arrived to witness the storming of El Moro. They participated in the last few days of skirmishing and in two months of unhealthy garrison duty after the surrender.

France lost the war but won the peace. Recognizing that the French could not be forced to surrender Louisbourg, Pitt had it detonated. George III's negotiators were so anxious for peace that the continuing British victories were discounted. France retained fishing rights off Newfoundland, and the nearby islands of Saint-Pierre and Miquelon. There was debate, which has continued, about Britain's keeping Canada rather than the French West Indian sugar island of Guadeloupe. British West Indian sugar planters, not wishing for more competition in their monopoly of British markets, joined British North Americans in urging that the less profitable colony of Canada be kept. This was accomplished, together with a presumed British sovereignty over all Amerindian lands east of the Mississippi River, because French negotiators made concessions that protected France's major imperial commercial interests. Spain, too, did well at the peace; Britain returned Manila and exchanged Havana for the much less valuable colonies of East and West Florida. Having

humiliated France in war, Britain alienated its European allies in making a generous separate peace that did not limit France's interest in, or capacity for, revenge.

Amerindians were quicker than the colonials to react violently to the consequences of the Peace of Paris. Although Amerindian resistance to British colonial encroachment had been persistent, and a new Amerindian spiritual nativism had grown out of the Delaware dispersal of the 1730s, the rapid spread of intertribal Amerindian resistance after 1760 was attributable to the outcome of the French and Indian War. The negotiated boundaries between Amerindian and European settlement, restated in the Proclamation Line of 1763, were completely overrun by British colonial settlers and deerskin hunters after 1760. Renewed British colonial trade into the Ohio Valley focused on liquor, despite ineffective British bans that succeeded only in irritating traders and customers. British army administrators, assuming their recent victories made Amerindians into subjects rather than allies, suspended the entire system of annual presents. This false economy reduced Amerindian access to gunpowder and supplies while European hunters and settlers were reducing the deer populations that might have funded Amerindian trading. Suspending the presents that allowed chiefs most loyal to Britain to distribute supplies, and thereby enhance their own and British prestige, was a political and diplomatic blunder. The final Peace of Paris, in which France presumed to give Britain Amerindian lands that Britain presumed to take, was the trigger for two years of intense warfare erroneously called PONTIAC'S REBELLION of 1763–65.

Colonial British Americans initially received the Peace of Paris with rejoicing, as they had the accession of George III and news of British victories. Statues of the king and of William Pitt were erected by public subscription in Boston, New York, and other centers; names of new counties and towns on colonial frontiers celebrated British administrators and soldiers. The victory had been prayed for by a wide variety of Christian congregations in King George III's Protestant empire. Despite tensions between imperial and colonial politicians and soldiers, the war had integrated eastern North America into the British Empire as never before.

Expectations of both the British and the Americans proved too high, as did the costs of the war. British ministries expected grateful Americans to shoulder the costs of the 7,500 troops left to ensure French and Amerindian acceptance of the peace, particularly in the light of the mother country's unprecedented £157 million war debt and generous reimbursement for colonial war costs. Americans expected peace to bring lower taxes and more prosperity, not new imperial taxes and a postwar slump followed by a British credit squeeze. Although the elimination of the French and Spanish made British ministries confident that they could impose more on the colonists, the same situation made Americans willing to tolerate less.

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French-Canadian Rebellion

See PAPINEAU'S REBELLION.

French Civil War (1871)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French Communards vs. the Third French Republic

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paris and other major French cities
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Communards rebelled against a French government humiliated by defeat in the Franco-Prussian War.
OUTCOME: The Communard rebellion was largely crushed during "Bloody Week," May 21–28, 1871.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Communards, about 50,000; government forces, 130,000
CASUALTIES: Communards, 25,000 killed, 41,000 imprisoned; government, 879 killed, 6,775 wounded
TREATIES: None

This civil conflict was the direct result of France's defeat in the FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR. The Battle of Sedan ended in a crushing French defeat and cut short the reign of Napoleon III (1808–73). In Paris, the Third French Republic was established, and Parisians resisted a Prussian siege until starvation forced their capitulation on January 28, 1871. The National Assembly, having evacuated to Bordeaux, negotiated the humiliating Treaty of Sedan with Prussia. Those legislators who had evacuated were primarily monarchist holdovers. The true republicans had remained in Paris, and it was these leaders who now repudiated the peace terms and proclaimed the Commune of Paris, a republic independent from the Third French Republic.

The Commune was proclaimed on March 18, 1871, and soon boasted a military strength exceeding 212,000, but in reality mustered no more than about 50,000. Against this army, which took to the streets of Paris in opposition to the new government led by Adolphe Thiers (1797–1877), were some 130,000 government troops under the command of the very able Marshal Patrice Mac-Mahon (1808–93).

The Communard army operated from behind barricades built mainly of the cobblestones of the Parisian streets. After desultory exchanges, Mac-Mahon decided to make a decisive move on May 21. With 70,000 troops, he stormed the barricades in a seven-day battle christened Bloody Week. The assault culminated in the capture of Communard headquarters at the Hôtel de Ville and the summary execution of thousands of Communards. In all, about 25,000 Parisians died, either in battle or by on-the-spot execution. Another 3,000 subsequently died in prison, and 270 were sentenced in court to execution. Some 7,500 revolutionaries were exiled.

The Paris Commune had been suppressed with unbridled brutality and decisiveness. Its destruction ensured the survival of the Third Republic and ended the Communards' dream of a workers' state.

Further reading: Rupert Christiansen, *Paris Babylon: The Story of the Paris Commune* (New York: Viking Press, 1995); Alastir Horne, *The Fall of Paris: The Siege and the Commune, 1870–71* (New York: Penguin USA, 1990).

French Conquest of Algeria

See ABD EL-KADER, FIRST WAR OF; ABD EL-KADER, SECOND WAR OF; ABD EL-KADER, THIRD WAR OF.

French Conquest of Chad (1897–1914)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (with Senegalese auxiliaries) vs. Rabah Zobeir and other Chadian nationalists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chad, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Colonial conquest of Chad
OUTCOME: Chad became part of French Equatorial Africa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France (and Senegalese auxiliaries), fewer than 1,000; Chadian nationalists, 2,500+
CASUALTIES: France (and Senegalese auxiliaries), 74 killed, 181 wounded; Chadian nationalists, 200+ killed
TREATIES: Documents formalizing incorporation of Chad into the federation of French Equatorial Africa, 1910

France was one of the major powers participating in the European partition of Africa during the later years of the 19th century. After suppressing resistance in the Congo and Algeria, French colonial forces converged on Chad, which was ruled at the end of the 19th century by Rabah Zobeir (d. 1900).

During the 1890s, Zobeir led a force of Dazingers, black slave soldiers, in the conquest of the Bagarmi, a large region southeast of Lake Chad. French colonial forces clashed with the Dazingers periodically from 1897. Finally, in 1899, French columns converged on the area Zobeir controlled, advancing from the north, west, and south. In November, the southern column attacked a fort at Kouno, but was repulsed. The northern column, however, attacked Zobeir's main fort at Kousseri on April 22, 1900, and captured it. Zobeir was taken prisoner and summarily beheaded; 200 of his Dazingers were killed in battle or executed.

Zobeir's son, Fader Allah (fl. early 20th century), led 2,500 Dazingers in a defense of Gujba, but was overwhelmed by the French on August 23, 1901. This put the French in nominal control of Chad, and they supported the traditional Kanembu dynasty as a puppet government under a French protectorate. In 1910, Chad formally became part of the federation of French Equatorial Africa. Colonial troops continually battled resistance, but by 1914, when WORLD WAR I drew French military resources elsewhere, the entire area of present-day Chad had been "pacified" and was under relentlessly repressive French rule.

See also FRENCH CONQUEST OF MAURITANIA; FRENCH CONQUEST OF NORTH AFRICA.

Further reading: Samuel Decalo, *Historical Dictionary of Chad* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow, 1997).

French Conquest of Mauritania (1908–1909)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (with Sheikh Sidiya Bab of Traarza) vs. the Moors under Sheikh Ma Al-Ainine
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mauritania, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Colonial subjugation of Mauritania
OUTCOME: By skillfully exploiting divisions within Mauritania, the French prevailed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Agreement with Sheikh Sidiya Bab, c. 1908

Early in the European partition of Africa, the French won a mandate in 1814 to exploit coastal Mauritania. They adopted a divide-and-conquer approach to the local people, the Moors, who were inclined to dispute and disunity. French colonialists rapidly mastered the complex politics of the region and set about playing one faction against another. They focused on the two central religious leaders, Sheikh Sidiya Bab (fl. early 20th century) of Traarza and Sheikh Ma Al-Ainine (d. 1910). The French obtained the support of Sidiya Bab. Sheikh Ma Al-Ainine led the opposition against France, obtaining arms from Morocco as well as from France's rivals, Spain and Germany. Like the French, Ma Al-Ainine understood the inherent weakness and disunity of Mauritania, and he did his best to exploit it to muster a following. However, the French acted preemptively and aggressively, crushing Ma Al-Ainine's resistance during 1908–09. By 1909, French rule was securely established, with Sheikh Sidiya Bab operating as a puppet. The death of Ma Al-Ainine in 1910 brought an end to any major resistance to French rule, although sporadic outbreaks of violent opposition continued through 1934.

See also FRENCH CONQUEST OF CHAD; FRENCH CONQUEST OF NORTH AFRICA.

Further reading: Alfred G. Gerteiny, *Historical Dictionary of Mauritania,* 2nd. ed. (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow, 1996).

French Conquest of North Africa (1830–1847)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. (principally) Abd el-Kader, emir of Mascara
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Algiers and Morocco
DECLARATION: 1829, France on Algiers
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Colonial conquest
OUTCOME: After a prolonged war, France conquered Algiers and thereby came to dominate North Africa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 220,000; Abd el-Kader, 60,000
CASUALTIES: France, 10,000 killed, 35,000 wounded; Abd el-Kader forces, unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Tafna, June 1, 1837; Treaty of Tangier, September 10, 1844

During the early 19th century, French forces clashed with Algerian pirates. When Husein (r. 1818–30), the dey of Algiers, slapped the French consul in the face on April 30, 1827, the French initiated a naval blockade, which endured to August 3, 1829. On that day, war was triggered when a French ship, under a flag of truce, was fired upon. The French mounted an invasion during June and July of 1830, sending an army of 37,000 under Marshal Louis A. V. de Bourmont (1773–1846). The army overwhelmed defenses at Algiers on July 5, 1830, and ousted the dey. From here, Bourmont dispatched forces to take and occupy the principal ports as well as the major inland towns.

With the dey neutralized, Abd el-Kader (1808–1883), the emir of Mascara, emerged as the new military leader of what he deemed the Islamic opposition to a Christian invasion. From 1832 to 1837, el-Kader fought the French to a standstill through a consummately skillful campaign of guerrilla warfare and hit-and-run raids. One French general after another was sent to eradicate el-Kader and his forces, and each failed. At last, exhausted, France concluded the Treaty of Tafna on June 1, 1837, obtaining control of a handful of ports.

Although the Tafna treaty had generally restored peace, the French continued to conduct limited military operations. In October 1837, French troops under Marshal C. M. D. Damremont (d. 1837) stormed the walled city of Constantine, which had resisted siege for a year. Although Damremont was killed in the assault, his troops took the city. In response, Abd el-Kader deemed the treaty broken and, in December, mounted a campaign with a regular force of about 8,000 infantry and 2,000 cavalry, plus auxiliary cavalry (*gouma*) numbering about 50,000. Despite these numbers, fighting was indecisive through December 1840, when Marshal Thomas R. Bugeaud (1784–1849) arrived to build a regular French army of 59,000, which was later reinforced to a strength of almost a quarter million men, many of them native troops. Bugeaud's great strength was in his ability to organize indigenous forces into an effective and highly spirited army. It was Bugeaud who truly established the enduring French military presence in North Africa, which would last well into the 20th century.

The first major battle between the reinforced French armies and the forces of Abd el-Kader came on May 10, 1843, at Smala, when Duc Henri d'Aumale, leading a "flying column" of only 2,000 men surprised 40,000 men under el-Kader and drove them from the field. This initiated a series of French triumphs during 1843–44, which

drove the forces of el-Kader into Morocco. Here, the Moors were naturally sympathetic to his cause, but the judicious application of French naval bombardment of Tangier and Mogadir, combined with Bugeaud's assault by 6,000 infantry and 1,500 cavalry, discouraged the Moors. The French pursued el-Kader into Morocco.

On August 15, 1844, Bugeaud staged a brilliant attack on el-Kader's 45,000-man camp on the Isly River. The result was a back-and-forth struggle, but, ultimately, el-Kader's forces caved in. The Battle of Isly turned out to be the decisive encounter of the war. The Treaty of Tangier followed on September 10, 1844, by which the French agreed to withdraw from Morocco, but Abd el-Kader's power in Algiers was broken. Sporadic fighting continued until December 23, 1847, when el-Kader surrendered. With this, France was in complete control of Algiers and, from here, dominated all of North Africa.

See also FRENCH CONQUEST OF CHAD; FRENCH CONQUEST OF MAURITANIA.

Further reading: Raphael Danziger, *Abd Al-Qadir and the Algerians: Resistance to the French and Internal Consolidation* (New York: Holmes & Meier Publishers, 1977); Benjamin Stora, *Algeria, 1830–2000: A Short History* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 2001).

French Conquest of Wadai

See FRENCH CONQUEST OF CHAD.

French Indochina War (1858–1863)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (with a Spanish alliance) vs. forces of Vietnamese king Tu Duc
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vietnam (Indochina and Cochin China)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ostensibly, France invaded Vietnam to protect French missionaries and other nationals there, but the expedition quickly came to involve the acquisition of large amounts of territory.
OUTCOME: France acquired a large colonial stake in Indochina.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 8,000; Vietnam, 32,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but in the hundreds for both sides; disease claimed many hundreds of French lives.
TREATIES: Tu Duc ratified a comprehensive treaty, April 1863

Under Napoleon III (1808–73), France began a campaign to expand its territorial holdings into Southeast Asia. On August 31, 1858, 2,500 French troops, augmented by Filipino reinforcements supplied by Spain, invaded Vietnam at Tourane (Da Nang). The force laid siege against the citadel there, capturing it on September 12. However, Viet forces counterattacked and laid siege to the French garrison installed in the citadel. The siege lasted a year, by which time some 900 Frenchmen had died in battle or had succumbed to disease. In March 1860 the garrison was withdrawn.

In the meantime, on February 16, 1859, Admiral Rigault de Genouilly (1807–73) landed a contingent of French regulars and colonial troops (Algerian and Senegalese) to attack Saigon (Ho Chi Minh City). The invaders took the city, but were in turn blockaded by Viets. On April 23, 1859, a 700-man relief force was sent against the poorly armed Viets, who numbered perhaps 10,000. The Viets scattered—having incurred about 500 casualties—and the Saigon garrison was relieved, at least temporarily. Soon a new Vietnamese blockade was put in place, and 27 French warships and 3,500 infantry troops were sent to reinforce the garrison. Then on February 24, 1861, 8,000 French troops attacked some 32,000 Viets at Chi Hoa to permanently break the blockade.

The Battle of Chi Hoa did break the Viet blockade of Saigon, and it moved Emperor Tu Duc (1829–83) to sue for peace and agree to terms of French control in June 1862. He signed a formal treaty in 1863. Nevertheless, guerrilla action continued through about 1880.

See also VIETNAMESE UPRISINGS; VIETNAM WAR.

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Vietnam: A Dragon Embattled,* vol. 1, *From Colonialism to the Vietminh* (London: Pall Mall Press, 1967); John F. Cady, *The Roots of French Imperialism in Eastern Asia* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1954); Milton E. Osborne, *The French Presence in Cochinchina and Cambodia: Rule and Response 1859–1905* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press 1969); Virginia Thompson, *French Indochina* (New York: Octagon Books, 1968).

French Indochina War (1873–1874)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French vs. Black Flag Pirates (northern Vietnamese and Chinese)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tonkin (northern Vietnam)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France sought to expand its trade and colonial interests into northern Vietnam.
OUTCOME: France temporarily withdrew from the north, but consolidated its control in the south (Cochin China).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No formal treaties

Within four years of the FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1858–1863), Vietnamese emperor Tu Duc (1829–83) ceded all

of Cochin China (southern Vietnam) to the French. Once firmly established at the reins of government, French authorities sent the explorer François Garnier (1839–73) to the northern capital, Hanoi, to settle a dispute involving local northern Vietnamese officials and a French trader, who was accused of smuggling and who was held prisoner in the Hanoi fortress. Garnier heard the case against the trader, then demanded his release. The Vietnamese officials refused, whereupon Garnier led an attack against the Hanoi fortress. It fell to him after a brief battle, and he used it as a base, from which he launched expeditions to take other cities in northern Vietnam.

The Vietnamese and Chinese formed the "Black Flag Pirates," a well-trained and ruthless force that engaged Garnier and his men in battle toward the end of 1873. Garnier was killed, and his force defeated, leaving the pirates free to raid French shipping in the region. Worse, raiding parties destroyed French Christian towns throughout Tonkin (northern Vietnam), forcing the French to withdraw from the north. Eager to retain a foothold in Vietnam, France consolidated its hold on Cochin China and extorted from Tu Duc a promise not to persecute Christians and to recognize French suzerainty. Tu Duc also granted French traders free passage on the Red River, which became for them a principal trade route.

See also French Indochina War (1882–1885).

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Vietnam: A Dragon Embattled,* vol. 1, *From Colonialism to the Vietminh* (London: Pall Mall Press, 1967); John F. Cady, *The Roots of French Imperialism in Eastern Asia* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1954); Milton E. Osborne, *The French Presence in Cochinchina and Cambodia: Rule and Response 1859–1905* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press 1969); Virginia Thompson, *French Indochina* (New York: Octagon Books, 1968).

French Indochina War (1882–1885)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Vietnam (and China)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vietnam
DECLARATION: China on France, August 27, 1884
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France sought expansion in Vietnam, to include the northern and central regions, in addition to southern Vietnam, which France already controlled.
OUTCOME: France acquired a protectorate over northern and central Vietnam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 17,000; Vietnam and China, 30,000
CASUALTIES: France, 4,222 killed or wounded; Vietnam and China, 10,000+ killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty among France, China, and Vietnam, August 25, 1883; Treaty of Tientsin, June 9, 1885

France, which had invaded Vietnam in 1858–63 (*see* French Indochina War [1858–63]) and 1873–74 (*see* French Indochina War of [1873–74]), ostensibly to protect French missionaries (but also to acquire colonial territory), intervened a third time in 1881–82. Once again, the ostensible motive was to protect missionaries, but the war also resulted in further colonial expansion.

In 1881, China proclaimed its sovereignty over Annam (much of modern Vietnam). Chinese troops occupied the northern region, Tonkin, even as France dispatched troops to check persecution of missionaries and to acquire more territory in Indochina—encompassing Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia. China objected to this.

A small French force of 480 men under Captain Henri Laurent Rivière landed at Tonkin on April 28, 1882, and captured the fortress at Hanoi, the coast of Nam Dinh, and the Hon Gay coal mine. Rivière advanced into the Red River delta region, where on May 19, 1883, he and 450 men were ambushed by the Black Flag Pirates. Rivière was killed, along with 49 of his men. Paris responded by ordering 3,000 reinforcements to Indochina, and on August 18 seven French naval vessels bombarded the citadel at Hue, which prompted the Vietnamese to sue for peace on August 25.

If the Vietnamese had been beaten into temporary submission, China remained deeply concerned that French colonialism was now on its southern border. During December 14–16, 1883, French river gunboats and 5,500 troops took preemptive action against combined Black Flag and Chinese forces—about 9,500 men—at Son Tay. The fortress fell to the French, and China opened negotiations with France, even as sporadic combat continued. Early in the summer of 1884, peace talks collapsed, and, on June 23, an 800-man French force was defeated by a vastly superior force of 8,000 Chinese near the border at Bac Le. On August 27, China declared war on France, and the French fleet responded with an attack on Foochow Harbor on the southern coast of China. Eleven Chinese warships were sunk in a one-sided battle. This was followed by a ground invasion, which resulted in the capture of Chinese forts in the Pescadores and on Taiwan.

While France waged a successful war on Chinese territory, French troops were hard pressed by Vietnamese and Chinese troops in Vietnam. From December 1884 to March 1885, Tuyen Quang in the Red River delta was besieged by Black Flag and Chinese forces, but held out until it was relieved. French troops also succeeded in taking Lang Son, near the Chinese border, albeit with heavy losses (200 killed or wounded) on February 13, 1885.

At Bang Bo, near Lang Son, on March 24, a massive force of 30,000 Chinese and Vietnamese attacked, prompting the evacuation of 3,700 French troops and many more French civilians throughout the area. This was a shocking setback and the worst defeat France would suffer in Southeast Asia until the French Indochina War (1946–

1954). The defeat prompted France to conclude the Treaty of Tientsin on June 9, 1885, restoring the status quo antebellum—albeit Vietnamese and Chinese battle losses were far greater than those suffered by France: about 10,000 killed or wounded versus 4,222 Frenchmen. If disease is factored in, French losses about equaled those suffered by the Asians.

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Vietnam: A Dragon Embattled,* vol. 1, *From Colonialism to the Vietminh* (London: Pall Mall Press, 1967); John F. Cady, *The Roots of French Imperialism in Eastern Asia* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1954); Milton E. Osborne, *The French Presence in Cochinchina and Cambodia: Rule and Response 1859–1905* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1969); Virginia Thompson, *French Indochina* (New York: Octagon Books, 1968).

French Indochina War (1946–1954)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (with some U.S. aid) vs. Viet Minh (communist forces of northern Vietnam)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vietnam
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ho Chi Minh, leader of the communist north, sought to end French colonial domination of Vietnam and to unite the country under communism.
OUTCOME: The French withdrew from Vietnam, which was divided into two independent republics, the communist Democratic Republic of Vietnam in the north, and the democratic Republic of Vietnam in the south.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the culminating battle of Dien Bien Phu—France, 15,709; Viet Minh, more than 100,000
CASUALTIES: At Dien Bien Phu: French, 1,726 dead; 1,694 missing; 1,161 deserted; 5,234 wounded; on May 8, 1954, the Viet Minh counted 11,721 prisoners, among whom were 4,436 wounded. (In addition to ground troops lost, many French aircraft and crews were also lost. Two U.S. civilian contract pilots were killed and one seriously wounded.) At Dien Bien Phu: Viet Minh, 8,000–12,000 dead; 15,000–20,000 wounded
TREATIES: Geneva Agreements, July 15, 1954

During the 19th century, France had established colonial hegemony in Laos, Cambodia, and Vietnam (*see* FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR [1858–1863], FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR [1873–1874], and FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR [1882–1885]). When France surrendered to Germany in 1940, setting up the Vichy government—which soon became a Nazi puppet—Germany's Pacific ally, Japan, permitted French colonial officials nominal authority in Indochina while assuming de facto control of these areas itself (*see* WORLD WAR II). In 1945, with the liberation of France and the end of the Vichy government, the Japanese seized full control in French Indochina, eliminating the French police agencies and other armed authorities that had long kept in check indigenous nationalist groups seeking independence. In Vietnam, the largest and most powerful of these groups was the Viet Minh, which, under the leadership of Soviet-trained Ho Chi Minh (1840–1969), launched a guerrilla war against the Japanese forces of occupation and (with the aid of U.S. Office of Strategic Services [OSS] military teams) soon took control of the nation's northern regions.

After the conflict in Europe had ended, Allied forces turned their attention to Vietnam (and the rest of Southeast Asia), a theater they had largely neglected during most of the war. Nationalist Chinese troops moved into the Tonkin provinces of northern Vietnam, and the British, anxious to restore France to world power status as a means of countering the Soviet Union's rapidly expanding sphere of influence, secured southern Vietnam for the reentry of the French. Once French colonial authorities had returned, they set about ruthlessly suppressing all agitation for independence in that region. With the south secured, the French opened talks with Ho Chi Minh, firmly established as political leader of the north, but negotiations rapidly broke down, and a state of low-level guerrilla conflict developed.

The conflict escalated into genuine warfare during 1946, when Nationalist Chinese forces, which had occupied the north after World War II, were replaced by the French military. Nationalist China's Chiang Kai-shek (Jiang Jieshi; 1887–1975) had little affection for French imperialism, but he feared a Communist takeover in Vietnam and preferred French control of the region to that eventuality.

In November 1946, fire was exchanged between a French patrol boat and Vietnamese militia in Haiphong harbor. The French retaliated by bombarding Haiphong, killing some 6,000 civilians and prompting Ho Chi Minh permanently to break off talks with the French, retreat with his government into the hill country of Tonkin, and launch an all-out guerrilla war against the French.

At this point in history, many in the United States strongly sympathized with Ho Chi Minh's nationalism. Like President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945) before him, Harry S. Truman (1884–1972) was an anti-imperialist, but he also believed that, unfortunately, an independent Vietnam would most likely become a communist Vietnam. Nevertheless, Truman urged the French to reach a political solution in Vietnam and barred direct export of U.S. war materiel to French forces there—though he vacillated to the important extent of refusing to bar arms shipments to France itself, which, of course, could reship the materiel to its troops in Vietnam.

The fall of China to communism in 1949, together with the intensification of the COLD WAR in Europe by the

end of the decade, including the forcible induction of much of Eastern Europe into the Soviet camp, compelled the United States to accept French authority in Vietnam, even if doing so went against the American grain.

In 1949, France recognized a Vietnamese provisional government under Emperor Bao Dai (1913–97), for all practical purposes its puppet. The government of Bao Dai was recognized by the United States on February 7, 1950. In less than two weeks after this recognition, the French requested U.S. economic and military aid, threatening to abandon the nation to Ho Chi Minh if the aid were not forthcoming. Fearing losing both Vietnam to communism and French support of the newly formed North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in Europe, Congress immediately appropriated $75 million. Shortly afterward, on June 25, 1950, Communist forces from North Korea invaded South Korea. In addition to prosecuting the KOREAN WAR, President Truman now stepped up aid to the French in Vietnam, sending eight C-47 transports directly to Saigon. On August 3, 1950, the first contingent of U.S. military advisers—the U.S. Military Assistance Advisory Group (MAAG)—arrived in Saigon.

By 1951, the Viet Minh united with Communist groups in Laos and Cambodia and became increasingly aggressive in its attacks against the French. This led to the increasing involvement of the United States, which, by 1952, was financing one-third of the French military effort in Vietnam. Ho Chi Minh's forces were not triumphing against those of the French; indeed, during 1950 through the end of 1953, the French enjoyed moderate overall success against the insurgents. But Ho understood that he did not need victories, merely sufficient perseverance to deny the French absolute victory. He waged a guerrilla war of attrition, steadily wearing down the French resolve. As the French lost heart, preserving Vietnam from communism became increasingly an American agenda.

In April 1953, the Viet Minh, under General Vo Nguyen Giap (b. 1912), staged a major offensive in western Tonkin, advancing into Laos and menacing Thailand. The French requested the loan of U.S. C-119 transports to airlift heavy equipment into Laos. President Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969), wary of committing U.S. Air Force crews to a combat mission, ordered military crews to fly the aircraft to Nha Trang, where nonmilitary contract pilots took them over for the flight to Cat Bi Airfield near Haiphong.

At this time, General Henri Eugène Navarre (1895–1968), France's new commander of operations in Vietnam, presented a plan to defeat the Viet Minh by luring them into open battle and so reducing their numbers that they could only maintain a low level of guerrilla warfare, which could then be contained by indigenous Vietnamese troops. Additional cargo planes were loaned to the French, and in the fall of 1953, Navarre began operations on the strategically located plain of Dien Bien Phu in northwest Tonkin, near Laos. French paratroopers fortified an airstrip there beginning on November 20, and on December 5 the U.S. Far East Air Forces flew more C-119 transports to Cat Bi, from which civilian contract pilots or French personnel flew them into the combat area. At this point, American military officials and the Eisenhower administration were becoming increasingly anxious that the Viet Ming now menaced Hanoi and Haiphong, from which Navarre had withdrawn forces to bolster Dien Bien Phu. At the same time, Giap was also massing Viet Minh forces around Dien Bien Phu. With the object of bolstering General Navarre's offensive operations, President Eisenhower authorized increased military aid—short of committing American personnel to combat—and U.S. B-26 bombers and reconnaissance aircraft were dispatched on loan to the French.

Because French air units were seriously undermanned, the fateful decision was made on January 31, 1954, to dispatch some 300 U.S. airmen to service aircraft at Tourane and at the Do Son Airfield near Haiphong. This, the first substantial commitment of U.S. airmen—indeed, of U.S. military personnel—to the VIETNAM WAR, was highly classified. President Eisenhower explained to the American public that he was committing to the aid of the French some airplane mechanics—who would not get touched by combat.

Despite American logistical support, it became daily more apparent that the French situation at Dien Bien Phu was hopeless. General Giap steadily forced the French to contract their defensive perimeter. Although President Eisenhower contemplated direct U.S. military intervention, mainly air support, he decided not to act without British approval as well as a demonstration of France's willingness to train and employ indigenous troops and ultimately to grant Vietnam its independence. In the meantime, on April 7, 1954, President Eisenhower presented to the American press a rationale for fighting communism in Vietnam: "You have a row of dominoes set up," he explained, "you knock over the first one, and what will happen to the last one is the certainty it will go over very quickly." The so-called domino theory would become a cornerstone of U.S. policy in the Vietnam War. For the present, however, American military advisers were not optimistic about the efficacy of committing U.S. combat forces in the region. The Americans believed that French colonialism had permanently alienated the indigenous people, who now lacked the will to resist a communist invasion from the north. Americans also feared that starting a war in Vietnam would mean beginning a war with Red China.

Beginning on March 13, 1954, the situation changed dramatically. General Giap launched a massive siege on Dien Bien Phu. On May 7, after 56 days of combat, the French stronghold fell to the forces of Ho Chi Minh. Dien Bien Phu was rapidly followed by additional Viet Minh

victories, which led the French to agree, in a Geneva peace conference in July, to divide Vietnam along the 17th parallel—the Democratic Republic of Vietnam, a communist government, in the north; the Republic of Vietnam, a democratic government, in the south. France withdrew from the nation entirely, and the stage was set for the much more destructive Vietnam War to come.

See also VIETNAMESE UPRISINGS OF 1930–1931.

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Vietnam: A Dragon Embattled,* vol. 2, *Vietnam at War* (London: Pall Mall Press, 1967); John F. Cady, *The Roots of French Imperialism in Eastern Asia* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1954); Bernard B. Fall, *Hell in a Very Small Place: The Siege of Dien Bien Phu* (New York: Da Capo, 2002); Ellen J. Hammer, *The Struggle for Indochina* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1954); Virginia Thompson, *French Indochina* (New York: Octagon Books, 1968).

French Intervention in Italy

See ITALIAN REVOLUTION.

French Invasion of Spain

See FRANCO-SPANISH WAR (1823).

French-Iroquois Wars

See IROQUOIS-FRENCH WARS.

French Mexico Campaign

See PASTRY WAR.

French Revolution (1789–1799)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France's ancien régime (later backed by most of Europe and Great Britain vs. revolutionaries among the nobility, bourgeoisie, and proletariat; the French Revolutionary Army (ultimately led by Napoleon Bonaparte).
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France; Egypt
DECLARATION: No formal declaration; however, the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (August 26, 1789) may be considered the formal opening of the Revolution.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Enfeebled by years of foreign war and nearly bankrupted by its participation in the American Revolution, France's ancien régime fell prey to a rising tide of unrest led principally by revolutionaries among the bourgeoisie. The Revolution, which quickly turned bloody at the hands of more radical factions and was forced by internal dissent to export its radicalism, created fear and loathing among the ruling houses in the rest of Europe, which united to crush it.
OUTCOME: Buoyed by a new kind of ideologically driven army of volunteers and recruits from the masses, Revolutionary France proved a destabilizing force in the Western world. Its foreign wars also created turmoil in an already volatile polity at home, which led to ever more repressive forms of government and to the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte, who set out to conquer the world.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France: Hundreds of thousands of citizens and national guardsmen fought in the streets against Royalist forces; by August 1793 the Republic had conscripted an army of 650,000 (some estimates put the number at 1 million). Anti-French allies initially fielded 80,000 (42,000 Prussians, 30,000 Austrians, and the rest Hessians and Royalist émigrés); as the coalition grew, so did the numbers, into a few hundred thousand. All numbers increased during the French Revolutionary Wars.
CASUALTIES: France, 100,000 battle deaths; other nations, chiefly Austria, 100,000+ battle deaths
TREATIES: Most important was the Treaty of Campo Formio, October 17, 1797

END OF THE OLD REGIME

A decade before the close of the 18th century France was the most powerful nation on the continent of Europe, perhaps (Great Britain excepted) the world. It was certainly the most populous Occidental country. But France's political system was weaker than was apparent before French revolutionaries began openly to excoriate the ancien régime in front of revolution-minded assemblies and mobs. An absolute monarchy stitched together in the previous century by the crafty and capable Cardinal Richelieu (1585–1642) that had come to center around Louis XIV (1638–1715) at his new palace in Versailles, the kingdom was only as strong as the man at the top, a fact that became clear when the Sun King's successors—the lazy Louis XV (1710–74) and the dithering Louis XVI (1754–93)—enfeebled royal authority.

The cost of Louis XIV's absolute power had been the corruption of French society. He and Richelieu had bought off the old aristocracy, France's traditional check on royal authority, with wholesale grants of privilege, including exemption from taxes, the right to extract feudal tolls from the peasants, and control of the country's 13 provincial *parlements,* or appeals courts. To dissipate the strength of the aristocrats, the Sun King in his own day drove them toward penury by demanding their lavish and constant attendance at Versailles, and he created scores of new nobles ("nobility of the robe") from the upper echelon of his civil service. Over the course of a generation, however, these new aristocrats became—through intermarriage and natural drift—indistinguishable from the old "nobility of the sword." Both groups jealously guarded their privileges, creating a professional class of *feudistes* to unearth—or

invent—long forgotten seigneurial dues for the French peasantry. Without a strong monarch to keep them in line, by mid-century they had turned the *parlements* into vehicles for exercising the veto over royal decrees. Each *parlement* upheld its own province's various prerogatives, including the important right to levy local customs on interprovincial trade. So a few grew rich by, in effect, stifling the growth of a true national economy, and, given the power of the *parlements,* reform seemed unlikely if not impossible.

The entire economic and legal system was not simply corrupt but fecklessly inefficient, and the state's finances often tottered on ruin. Already a source of deep resentment for the country's growing bourgeoisie, the system was stretched intolerably by the foreign adventures and imperial wars typical of the 18th century's rival European ruling houses—the War of the GRAND ALLIANCE in Europe, the War of the SPANISH SUCCESSION, the War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, the SEVEN YEARS' WAR. The latest of these, playing itself out 3,000 miles from Paris across the Atlantic Ocean, was the AMERICAN REVOLUTION. There the French had helped British colonists achieve independence against the nation's archrival, England, only to provoke a fiscal crisis at home. Along with new war debts also came the liberal ideas of the Enlightenment for which the former colonists had been fighting, placing both new financial and new intellectual burdens on the French. When the French middle class and many of the country's forward-thinking aristocrats realized that the government against which the North Americans had fought was much less oppressive than their own, the political costs of the adventure became clear. By the 1780s, the French state was close to both economic and moral bankruptcy.

As the subversive corrosion seeped throughout the country beneath the glittering veneer of the ancien régime's society, Louis XVI and his celebrated but much-disliked, Austrian-born queen, Marie Antoinette (1755–93), ensconced in the sheltered Versailles palace 10 miles from Paris, desultorily worked to avoid the economic catastrophe they understood was coming but could not bring themselves to take seriously. In 1787, the French treasury minister, Charles-Alexandre de Calonne (1734–1802), an able enough man, proposed tax reforms aimed at the landed aristocracy. When the newer nobility resisted, Louis was forced to dismiss Calonne, but his successor managed to come up with no better a plan, and the next scheme also asked the aristocrats to share the fiscal burdens of state. This served to arouse the ire of the *parlements*. Spouting the Americanized language of liberty, they refused to recognize the new legislation, and the old aristocracy, supported by the Catholic Church, followed their lead. As the reforms became clogged in the *parlements,* the long-simmering conflict between king and nobility boiled into the open. Louis began dissolving the provincial bodies, many of which reassembled in defiance of royal order.

An outright parliamentary revolt seemed close at hand. Lawyers, clerks, bailiffs, ushers, all those dependent for their livelihoods on the *parlements,* formed small armies and staged numerous riots, rallying in their wake still larger crowds of unhappy peasants and artisans. In 1788, with the treasury empty and half of all royal revenues vanishing into debt service, the reluctant Louis called together an Assembly of Notables, but to his chagrin these notables refused to listen to reason and declined to impose the taxes required to avert bankruptcy. Louis's hand was forced. Grudgingly he acceded to the *parlement*'s demands and, in August 1788, summoned the old Estates General, a traditional body made up of the three officially recognized classes of the realm—the clergy, the nobility, and the commons—which had last met in 1614. Although the clergy and the nobility chose their representatives directly, the commoners' deputies had to be selected through a series of local and regional elections, so the Estates General did not meet until May 5, 1789. In between, France suffered the worst harvest of the century. When the deputies gathered in Paris, the population was near starvation, and there were food riots in the streets. Amid the atmosphere of instability throughout France, expectations for this most recent assemblage remained high.

THE REVOLUTION

From the start, the representatives of the commons, dominated by members of the hitherto silent middle class, or the bourgeoisie as the French called them, took control of the assembly. Even before they arrived they declared that, because they represented the largest "estate" in the nation, they would boycott all discussion until their third was allowed as many delegates as the other two combined. Back in December 1788, Louis, assuming that voting would be by estate rather than by individuals, had granted them double representation. Immediately upon arrival at Versailles, the recently elected representatives of the Third Estate, which now considered itself the voice of the nation as a whole, demanded that deputies vote jointly by head rather than separately by estate, assuring a numerical advantage over the clergy and nobility. When Louis vacillated, the Third Estate, swept away by a tide of liberal sentiment that included half the clergy and a fifth of the nobility present, proclaimed itself a National Assembly. Three days later, reformist deputies and their supporters gathered at a royal tennis court, swearing to secure a constitution. The king nominally recognized the assembly, and with some ill will commanded the remaining holdouts among the clergy and the aristocracy to join this "new" body. The Paris mob hailed Louis's action, chanting "Long live the king," but the king himself had no desire to become a constitutional monarch. He surrounded the

royal palace at Versailles with troops and ordered his forces in the provinces to march on Paris.

What had begun as a gambit by the aristocrats to protect their privileges had been turned by the bourgeoisie into an opportunity to acquire prerogatives of their own. Now, the revolt passed for a time into the hands of the Parisian lower class—workers and apprentices, tradesmen and small shopkeepers, all those who wore the long, loose trousers of the poor instead of the knee breeches of the wealthy, and who were not, in fact, truly represented in the National Assembly. Called *sansculottes*—literally "without knee breeches"—they formed an angry mob in response to Louis's calling out the guard, and on July 14, 1789, stormed the despised Bastille prison in Paris—the symbol of French absolutism. As all semblance of royal authority over the city vanished, many among the king's court fled, and a few were murdered. Paris belonged—briefly—to the workers, who formed revolutionary councils and a citizens' militia, which the masses proclaimed the new National Guard and pledged to use in defense of the assembly. As news spread of the uprising in the capital, provincial towns followed suit, and even in the countryside, peasants laid down their tools to march on local manors and burn records of debts and feudal tolls, occasionally putting to the torch the country houses and their noble landlords as well. The fever spread to the army, and royal troops could no longer automatically be counted reliable.

Back in Versailles, responding to this uprising, the so-called Great Fear, nobles and clergy relinquished all privileges on August 4, 1789, and on August 26, the assembly—having dubbed itself anew the Constituent Assembly and taken on the charge of producing a new constitution—issued the seminal Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, followed by measures nationalizing church lands and outlawing monasticism. Declaring that "men are born and remain free and equal in rights" and that "the source of all sovereignty lies essentially in the Nation," the assembly had reduced Louis from the king by divine right of France to the king by national will of the French people, a monarch with limited powers soon to be held in check by constitutional law. These were not new ideas. They had been around since the 17th century, and many of them had already found embodiment in the United States's Declaration of Independence and its newly printed Constitution, but they did mark the passing of the ancien régime, much to the delight not only of French common folk but also of republican sympathizers around the world.

Writ large in the Declaration were the sacred rights to own property, a right the middle-class majority in the assembly warmly embraced. This right mollified many of the aristocrats as well, because they could keep their landed estates despite losing their feudal privileges. Most of the nobility willingly accepted the Declaration, while those few who demurred slipped away into exile or began silently to plot a royal restoration. The urban poor, the sansculottes without property, nevertheless hailed the rights of man, and—at least for now—supported the assembly. But the king withheld his assent to the Declaration. He remained at Versailles, isolated from the turmoil in Paris, and grew truculent about signing a number of the new articles produced by the assembly in developing the constitution. Rumors began to spread of his contempt for the Revolution, especially one about his unpopular queen, Marie Antoinette. She had, at a banquet given by ultraroyalist officers (and, therefore, antirepublican conspirators), so it was unjustly said, responded to talk about the flour that was, as always in those days, in catastrophically short supply with a sarcastic comment on the hungry masses: "Let them eat cake."

As a result, in October a Parisian demonstration demanding bread swelled into a protest march by a legion of housewives on Versailles. By morning, the grounds of the royal palace teemed with 20,000 angry citizens, some of whom stormed the residence (and a few of whom killed several guards). After the queen narrowly escaped their ire, the crowd demanded that the royal family return with them to the city, and when the National Guard failed to restore the mob to order, the king gave in to those demands. Surrounded by a mass of poor Parisians, escorted by guardsmen, accompanied by the king's unarmed bodyguards, the royal family trundled off to its new home in the city's Tuileries palace. Thus did the sansculottes warn the bourgeois deputies who held the fate of the Revolution in their hands that they, the Parisian proletariat, were the backbone of the Revolution, and they were neither under the control of the assembly nor to be easily ignored by it.

Inside the assembly, factions were developing. Already, for the first time in history, the terms "left" and "right" had entered the language to designate political positions based on the simple fact that those deputies sitting together to the left of the assembly president, who chaired the debates, were more radical than those grouped on his right. In the long, wrangling discussions, conducted with an energy unique in French history, all the delegates had to deal with the tense reality of the Revolution. Its leaders, the bourgeois property owners, needed the support of the propertyless urban proletariat who were its driving force, but if they gave away too much to the poor they endangered their own recent gains in social status. In addition, they had to be wary of the vast French peasantry, which—having achieved its own goals of land reform and the end of feudal obligations in the early weeks of the Revolution—had by now returned to its traditional conservatism and become a source of potential reaction and counterrevolution.

Outside the walls of the debating chambers the growing factions organized political debating societies, the most

prominent of which would soon be the Jacobin Club, so named for its original meeting place, the former monastery of the Dominicans of Saint James. Led by an impeccably dressed, incorruptible, but austere and rigid lawyer from Arras named Maximilien Robespierre (1758–94), the Jacobins saw themselves as an idealistic elite whose mandate was to save the Revolution from all corruption, and their clubs sprang up by the thousands throughout France, each owing allegiance to the original in Paris. Contributing mightily to the rancor and ferment surrounding the activities of the new political clubs was the explosion of a new free press, which the revolutionary assembly had made possible when it abolished censorship back in 1789. Amid the 600 or so newspapers that had sprung up in Paris in the two years since, there were even those that defended the king. And as left wing as the Jacobin journals were, they seemed almost moderate compared to such extreme sheets as Jean-Paul Marat's (1743–93) *L'Ami du Peuple* and Jacques-René Hébert's (1757–94) *Le Père Duchesne*. With their violent, sometimes obscene vilifications of endless if ill-defined enemies of the Revolution, such rags all but ensured the debate inside the assembly would grow more heated—and more deadly.

As the rhetoric and the emotional fervor escalated, the delegates somehow managed finally to produce the long-waited National Constitution in September 1791, much influenced by the example of the United States and institutionalizing separation of powers, individual liberty, and civil equality. Meanwhile, they had reorganized the country's administration, introduced a modern educational system, and overhauled the judiciary, outlawing torture and establishing trial by jury under a clear hierarchy of courts and appeals presided over by independent judges with secure tenure. Communes, each with elected councils and a National Guard detachment, became the basic unit of government in a patchwork of local departments, and citizens were taxed progressively on land, personal property, and commercial income. Moderate and rational, derived in large part from the experience of other nations, including centuries-long rival Great Britain, the constitution the assembly produced was a perfect blueprint for a bourgeois state.

And being bourgeois, the assembly delegates had worried much about how the cash-strapped government would pay off the national debt and ease the financial crisis the Revolution had inherited from the ancien régime. In setting the country's finances in order, however, the delegates—the majority of them anticlerical—nationalized the Roman Catholic Church's huge landholdings and used them to back a kind of instant currency in certificates redeemable against the purchase of the recently seized lands. The church accepted these measures with some equanimity, especially because the state took over its burden of caring for the poor, but when the assembly took the next step and passed a Civil Constitution of the Clergy, calling for bishops and parish priests to be elected by secular committees and denying to any clergy the right to conduct religious services if they refused to swear loyalty to the new constitution, outrage exploded. The pope suspended those priests who accepted the terms of the legislation, the strongly Catholic peasantry grew deeply discontented, and foreign powers such as Austria expressed their outrage.

Adding to this problem was the controversy over the French royal house. Now a constitutional rather than an absolute monarch, Louis nevertheless exercised executive control of the state, and—although deprived of a permanent veto over legislation—he was allowed, like England's king, to appoint his own ministers. True, things had changed—for one, the government he served now had a legislative assembly, which would be elected by popular vote under a franchise whose modest property requirement included most adult males who need not have been dangerous. But Louis and his family, frightened and confined at the Tuileries, were privy to the same rumors and violent attacks in the press suffered by the assembly. As the debates raged, the king and queen grew increasingly worried for their lives. Even before the new constitution came up for a vote, they donned disguises and decamped under cover of night for the French border. They were caught at Varennes, 140 miles from Paris. Marched back to the capital, they passed through streets thronged by silent and sullen crowds, and returned to the Tuileries little more than prisoners of the Revolution.

By then aristocratic royalist émigrés were fomenting antirevolutionary sentiment abroad. When the Revolution inspired an uprising in the Austrian Netherlands, Leopold II (1747–92), emperor of Austria, already upset by the antiecclesiastical bent of the assembly in Paris and by the ill-treatment of his sister, Marie Antoinette, began plotting an armed response. Together, Leopold and the king of Prussia, Frederick William II (1744–97), issued a joint declaration calling on other European monarchs to help them restore Louis to the French throne. Meanwhile, the October 1791 elections had brought to office in France a left-wing majority dominated by a group of deputies from the Southwest, the Gironde, led by a café owner's son turned revolutionary pamphleteer, Jacques-Pierre Brissot de Warville (1754–93). Immediately following the election, the tension surrounding the Constituent Assembly seemed to abate, despite the irritant of a king in custody. With the growing potential for both an outside invasion and an internal revolt by the fifth-column aristocrats, many in the new Legislative Assembly argued for a preemptive attack as the best defense. Brissot himself thought a foreign war might help unite the nation behind the Revolution. Only Robespierre and his Jacobins spoke out strongly against war.

In truth, the French army was in disarray, with two-thirds of its old officer corps in exile. But the Girondists

argued that the ideas of the Revolution alone would sweep away all resistance to its troops. Managing at last to form a ministry in March 1791, they pressured Louis into a formal declaration of war against Austria the following month. The Revolutionary Army, whose ranks were filled with poorly trained troops, marched into the Austrian Netherlands only to panic at the first sight of the enemy and scurry home. That summer, Charles William Ferdinand (1735–1806), duke of Brunswick, led an army of Prussians, allied to Austria, into revolutionary France. A cautious general of the old school, Brunswick moved slowly but deliberately, and the hysterical French feared nothing could stop him. They had reason to worry. Under the strain of war, the delicate French economy had collapsed, and the dangerous, widespread discontent fostered by food shortages and rising prices led the assembly to declare a national emergency (*see* COALITION, WAR OF THE FIRST).

National Guard volunteers by the thousands swarmed into Paris from the provinces, joining the sansculottes to create an armed force beyond government control. Brunswick issued a proclamation threatening the mob with dire reprisals if it harmed the royal family, which—as is the wont of any revolutionary rabble when confronted by such a threat from any authority—the crowds read as a challenge. An armed mob of 20,000 sansculottes descended on the Tuileries, and radicals from the more militant districts of the city forced out the municipal authorities and took over the running of the capital. When the mob slaughtered the king's Swiss guard, Louis and his family fled to the assembly itself for protection. There, the royal family listened as the delegates debated the crisis through the night. At length, the assembly suspended the monarchy and handed over the king's powers to a Provisional Executive Council. The Girondists held onto control, though they found themselves saddled with the far left-wing leadership of Jacobin Georges-Jacques Danton (1759–94) as the council's new minister of justice.

A huge, pleasure-loving, foulmouthed man, Danton's fondness for food, females, and well-formed phrases put him in contrast to the aloof Robespierre, the most influential delegate among the street fighters outside. For now, Robespierre was content to work behind the scenes, whereas Danton had immediately to deal with the Revolution's greatest crisis so far. For as the delegates debated, Brunswick continued to advance, and the Paris mob turned, in fear and anger, to terrorism. Traitors, or so the Jacobins would have all believe, were everywhere. Extralegal mass roundups filled the jails of Paris and the provinces with suspects. Then, urged on by Jacobin rabble-rousers under the icily relentless leadership of Robespierre, "spontaneous" mobs broke into the jails and massacred more than 1,000 of these suspected royalist prisoners in Paris alone, and many more such prison murders occurred in the outlands.

Danton hastily mobilized new units of the National Guard following what became known as the "September Massacres" of 1792 and marched them off to the front. As they left, he rallied the country with memorable speeches and persuaded the Legislative Assembly, so inept throughout the crisis, to dissolve itself, and it did so unmourned. Another National Convention was summoned, this one to be elected by universal manhood suffrage, to write a new and entirely republican constitution. But, although the emergency had destroyed the government and the monarchy, its participants had not seen to the ending of the war. That came as the deputies departed Paris for home and the Revolutionary Army won its first victory at Valmy, scarcely 100 miles from the city limits. Little more than a skirmish, the battle nevertheless proved decisive when republican troops—the great bulk of them former royalist regulars—under General Charles-François du Périer Dumouriez (1739–1823), determinedly cannonaded Brunswick's army. A few hundred casualties later, Brunswick sounded a general retreat and gave the Revolution new life.

Back in Paris at the end of the month, the National Convention formally abolished the monarchy on September 22, 1792, and declared the day the first of Year 1 of Liberty, as if by legislating a new calendar—and new weights and measures and a new metric system—it had laid the foundations for true republicanism in France. Citizen Capet, as the revolutionaries took to calling Louis, and his wife, Marie Antoinette, thought differently, and the two had been covertly canvassing military support from fellow monarchs and French aristocrats who had fled the country. When their secret correspondence was found inside an iron closet hidden in a wall at the Tuileries, the radicals seized the opportunity and hauled him before the Convention to be tried for treason. Louis was more inept than he was guilty, but that was beside the point because the trial was planned as political theater rather than to render true or even legal justice. Surrounded by enemy armies, threatened by internal rumblings of discontent, the deputies, even had they wanted to vote for acquittal, would have been committing political—and perhaps literal—suicide. In the event, they voted almost unanimously to find Louis guilty and, thereby, to show foreigner and Frenchman alike that the Revolution would be defended. For many of them, however, regicide was another matter, and the Girondists virtually to a man argued for clemency. In another all-night debate, however, the more radical delegates persuaded a narrow majority to condemn their former king to the Revolution's new "humane" killing machine, the guillotine.

The king's execution on January 21, 1793, sparked royalist insurrections, notably in the Vendée, and a set off a wave of outraged protest from the governments of Europe. The Convention, however, was in no mood for conciliation, and the same month that saw Louis Capet's head roll witnessed Danton's call for the expansion of the Revolution

beyond French borders to the Alps, the Pyrenees, the Rhine, and the Mediterranean. The Revolutionary Army would now be swelled by conscripts, by "citizen soldiers," who were expected to conquer the world with arms and an idea, as the French government in quick succession declared war on Britain, Holland, and Spain. Dumouriez, the hero of Valmy, deserted to the Austrians and their new British allies. The staunchly Catholic peasants of Vendée, spurred on by attempts to conscript their sons to defend a revolution that had outlawed priests and beheaded a king, stepped up their counterrevolt. Bordeaux, Nantes, Lyon, Marseille, and other provincial cities joined the insurrection as discontent boiled over into civil war.

The crisis put France on a war footing, which led to the infamous Reign of Terror at home. When the fighting had begun in Vendée in March, a revolutionary tribunal had been set up to sniff out traitors by a government that now saw treason in what a few months before would have passed for simple political opposition. By April full power had flowed into the hands of the newly created Committee of Public Safety. Led originally by Danton, the committee became a form of collective dictatorship, a ruthless organ of state determined to wage war against enemies within and enemies without, one that increasingly played a political role in the internal struggles for control of the revolutionary government. The Girondists were only the first to fall prey to the committee. Riding a wave of rioting and near-rebellion by the Parisian sansculottes, the Jacobins early in June forced the arrest of Brissot and his supporters, blaming the Girondists for both military defeat and economic failure. The Jacobin purge continued into July, forcing Danton and his minions—once considered left of the Jacobin mainstream—off the committee, which now came to be dominated by Robespierre and his extremist Montagnard wing of the Jacobins in the assembly.

In Jacobin hands the committee proved an extremely effective machine for winning wars. The Jacobins increased conscription to levies unheard of before, raising by August a force of some 650,000 men, many of whom—as usual during the Revolution—came from the ranks of the National Guard, bringing with them not only their bodies as fresh cannon fodder but the radical fervor of their political beliefs. At first disorganized and badly supplied, these true believers nevertheless far outnumbered those in the ranks of the small professional armies then invading France. Given the needed training, the necessary tools, and the right leader, they would make a mighty force indeed—and they were soon to receive all of these. Even now, their mass was pushing the foreigners and the émigré aristocrats back beyond French borders. In Toulon, for example, where royalist traitors to the Revolution had handed over the port town to the encroaching British, republican troops recaptured the site in December 1793. Leaders back in Paris, reading over official dispatches, noted that the republican success was being attributed in large degree to an unknown Corsican artillery officer and strong Jacobin supporter by the name of Napoleon Buonaparte (1769–1821).

RISE OF NAPOLEON

Destined to become perhaps the most brilliant figure in military history, Napoleon Buonaparte was not so much a product of the French Revolution as its chief beneficiary. Born on August 5, 1769, in Ajaccio, Corsica, a politically turbulent island recently acquired by the French Crown from the Republic of Genoa, and given a typical military upbringing, his own ambitions were to establish a solid dynasty within France and to create a French-dominated empire in Europe. He spent the twilight years of the ancien régime on leisurely garrison duty reading the works of military theorist J. P. du Teil and Enlightenment philosophes Voltaire and Rousseau, steeping himself in both strategy and tactics of war and the liberal ideas sweeping France. Although he believed political change was imperative, as a career officer he seemed leery of radical social reform, and he always moved steadily to consolidate his personal power (*see* NAPOLEONIC WARS).

Joining the Jacobins early in his career in Grenoble, he made fiery speeches declaiming against nobles, monks, and bishops and, in 1791, put down a revolt against French revolutionary rule in his native Corsica. Thereafter, he rose by personal connection and opportune action. He came to the attention of the Paris revolutionaries through Maximilien Robespierre's brother, Augustin (1764–99), via a pamphlet he wrote as a young artillery officer, which argued fervently for united action by all republicans rallied around the Jacobins. When the French artillery commander at the port of Toulon was wounded during an attack in August 1793, Napoleon stepped in to save the town from British occupation. Augustin Robespierre, who was political governor of Toulon, wrote to his brother Maximilien, by then the leading figure behind the current Reign of Terror, praising the "transcendent merit" of the young republican officer.

With such powerful backing, Napoleon quickly worked his way up the ranks of the Revolutionary Army, while the Revolutionary Tribunal quickly worked its way through French society. Two months earlier, in September 1793, the government had passed the Law of Suspects, which quickly packed French jails full of counterrevolutionaries, a term whose definition grew ever less discriminating as the Great Terror ran its course. Aristocrats and captured or returned émigrés made the first, most obvious targets for guillotining. They were followed to the scaffold by a number of republican generals who had committed the new crime of suffering defeat in battle. With great dignity, Marie Antoinette faced the same fate as had her late husband, Louis Capet, after she was convicted of treason in a trial more slanderous and more scandalously unfair than the king's had been. If the deaths of these two were

tragic, at least in terms of revolutionary history, those of such figures as Madame du Barry (1743–93), the aging beauty who was once mistress to Louis's grandfather, who had to be dragged screaming to the scaffold, were sadly pathetic.

Although the executions of aristocrats garnered more press, first favorable within France and then damning in the foreign capitals of Europe, the highborn were really only a minority of the Terror's victims. Nearly 85 percent, to judge by spotty records, of the 35,000 executed during Robespierre's continuous purges were in all likelihood commoners. For one thing, the National Convention had sent its most trusted deputies, men like Augustin Robespierre, to the provinces, some of them traveling with portable guillotines. The same month Napoleon Bonaparte (originally Buonaparte) burst onto the scene, December 1793, the defeat of the rebellion in the Vendée gave birth to a terrible republican revenge. There were summary shootings and beheadings throughout the countryside, and in Nantes alone some 2,000 people were systematically drowned. And second, long before Robespierre responded in February 1794 to his brother's praise of Napoleon and had the young officer appointed commander of artillery in the French Army of Italy, the Revolution had begun to eat its own. The Girondist deputies were guillotined shortly after Marie Antoinette, and Robespierre immediately began redefining those who had brought him to power as counterrevolutionaries themselves. In March, a month after Napoleon was posted to Italy, where he began planning actions against the Hapsburg army of the Holy Roman Empire, the less radical Jacobins trundled to the scaffold, followed the next week by Danton and his minions.

By midsummer 1794, Napoleon's plans had resulted in gains against the enemy, and the ambitious young officer seemed set on a dazzling career. Around the same time, Robespierre's plans for the Festival of the Supreme Being also came to fruition. A bombastic extravaganza of ersatz classicism, nature worship, and extreme anticlerical, anti-Christian vilification, the silly ceremony would forever after provide an ironic counterpoint in histories of the period to the terror that raged even more fiercely than before. The same man, Maximilien Robespierre, who in June 1794 ritually ignited a huge papier-mâché monument to the enemies of happiness, designed by Jacques-Louis David, all-but-official artiste of the Revolution, and called forth from the ashes a scantily clad actress who, as Wisdom, invited all the participants to pay their homage to the Author of Nature, this same man insisted on a new law obliging the revolutionary tribunals to choose only between acquittal and death for those hapless souls dragged before them.

All sense had gone out of the thing, and justice had vanished from the land. It was not enough that Belgium had been recaptured from the allies and France had clearly passed through the period of its greatest danger, the Jacobins still saw traitors everywhere. In June and July 1794 nearly 1,400 more enemies of the people were executed in Paris, more in two months than in all the previous year. The Revolution had become bloodthirsty, and Robespierre and his Montagnard faction of the Jacobins no longer truly controlled the beast they were riding. Given the mob's lust for violence and Robespierre's addiction to conspiracy theories, no one felt safe, not the convention's surviving deputies, not the members of the Committee of Public Safety itself. When on July 26, Robespierre spoke before the convention and demanded yet another purge of its deputies to eradicate even more enemies of the republic, the Terror turned on its master. The convention, its members clearly conscious they were voting to save their own necks, ordered the arrest of Citizen Robespierre.

Caught off guard, the Jacobin firebrand did not have time to mount an effective counteroffensive in the streets, where forces loyal to the convention managed to suppress the disorganized rioting of the Robespierre faithful. Robespierre himself was shot in the jaw, some said in a failed attempt at suicide. In great pain, he was hauled to the scaffold and relieved of his head, as were, within days, his entire faction. Now, for the first time since the execution of the king, the Paris guillotine fell idle. A few more extremists, such as the former public prosecutor and the more bloodthirsty of the deputies who had brought massacre to the provinces, felt its bite, but the Revolutionary Tribunal itself was gutted of its power and abolished, and the new regime came much to prefer the "dry guillotine" of exile. The Great Terror had burned itself out.

The news reached Nice in August 1794, and Napoleon—as a protégé of the Robespierres—was arrested and imprisoned on charges of conspiracy and treason. Lucky that his head did not roll along with those of other Jacobins, Napoleon found himself freed after the charges were dropped due to lack of evidence. But he was not restored to his command, his political backing had disappeared, and under the new Convention Assembly, whose members feared his intense ambitions and worried about his former relations with the Montagnards, his prospects looked bleak indeed. In March he turned down an offer to command the artillery in the Army of the West, a post fighting stubborn counterrevolution in the Vendée that seemed to hold no future for him. Instead, he gave up life in Italy, where he was trying on half-pay to conduct an affair with the daughter of a rich Marseille merchant, to go to Paris and attempt to justify himself. For months he tramped about the city from office to office, but his efforts brought no new command. At one point he considered offering his services as a mercenary to the sultan of Turkey.

Then, in October, his luck changed. The National Convention, on the eve of dispersing, submitted a new constitution—the Constitution of the Year III of the First Republic—to a referendum. Much less democratic than its 1793 predecessor, it withdrew the right of universal

manhood suffrage and allowed only the propertied classes the right to vote for a two-tiered assembly, elected annually, which in turn was to select five directors who would wield executive power. To the sansculottes and former Jacobins, whose clubs had been outlawed the year before, it was a betrayal. Since its inception, the convention had been plagued by outbreaks of rioting, even near rebellion, in the streets of Paris, and now the country's conservatives saw in the growing discontent over the new constitution the chance they had been waiting for. Hoping soon and surreptitiously to restore the monarchy, they instigated a revolt. Tremendous crowds, many among their number drawn from the more prosperous parts of Paris, gathered to protest the convention's transparent attempts to ensure itself a clear two-thirds majority in the assembly.

Vicomte Paul de Barras (1755–1829), entrusted with almost dictatorial powers by the convention, was in charge of the defense of the Tuileries palace, the site threatened by the mob. Unwilling to rely on the loyalty of the commander of the Army of the Interior, Barras—who had heard of Buonaparte's service at Toulon—appointed him second in command. Thus it was Napoleon who, rapidly assembling some artillery, coolly dispersed the insurrectionists with a "whiff of grapeshot," leaving several hundred people dead and wounded and, thereby, saved the convention, the republic, and his own career. The massacre confirmed the Directory as the supreme authority in the land, and the Directory rewarded Napoleon with full command of the Army of the Interior. Now a hero of the Revolution, his future was assured.

As head of the Army of the Interior, Buonaparte was aware of every political development in France, and he became a trusted military adviser to the Directory. Meanwhile, he seemed to have acquired something other than a fresh start in his military career from Barras—the young commander had taken up with the politician's mistress. An attractive Creole named Josephine Tascher de La Pagerie (1763–1814), she was the widow of Alexandre de Beauharnais, a republican general guillotined during the Reign of Terror, mother of two children, and the source of many rumored affairs. She and Napoleon were to be married in March 1796. Informed of the upcoming nuptials, Barras—now one of the five members of the all-powerful Directory—not only voiced his approval but even spoke of an appointment coming to Napoleon as a wedding present. For months since gaining his general's rank, Buonaparte had been ferociously lobbying for an appropriate field command. Having proved his loyalty to the Directory by disposing of a communistic group led by François Babeuf (1760–97) and the Italian Filippo Buonarroti (1761–1837), whom Napoleon had known in Corsica, he was going to get his wish. Shortly before the wedding, his new orders arrived, and two days afterward Napoleon and a small trusted staff left to take command of the Revolution's war in Ital (*see* FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS).

In northern Italy the demoralized, ill-equipped, badly outnumbered republican troops might be forgiven for receiving their new general with some skepticism. Not yet 27 and owing his appointment to Parisian politics rather than to proven military skill, this Corsican who had only recently decided to drop the un-French "u" from his surname seemed an unlikely candidate to turn the situation around. He transformed his motley troops into a crack band of veterans and the paucity of supplies into an excuse for rapid deployment. Unfettered by clumsy baggage trains, the Army of Italy moved quickly across the countryside, living off what they could forage or steal, and hitting the Austrians' extended line with a series of fast, concentrated blows. By April 1797, he had swept the Austrians from northern Italy and marched to within 75 miles of Vienna. On his own initiative, he negotiated the Treaty of Camp Formio in open disregard for regular diplomatic channels and his own legal authority. The Directory did not much like it, but this Napoleon Bonaparte had gotten the Holy Roman Empire to surrender a good deal of its Italian territory to a new French-dominated government he called the Cisalpine Republic and to let go its holdings in the Rhineland and the Netherlands as well.

Such successes abroad were in contrast to the Directory's continuing problems at home. In fact, this new government would only endure for little more than four uninspiring years. Associated more with extravagant women's fashions, flourishing decorative arts, and the spendthrift extravagance of gilded youths whose fathers had grown rich off the Terror than with forging the republic's destiny, the Directory was never truly popular. Subject throughout its tenure to unrest from both the Left and the Right, the hardships the Directory visited on the masses lacked even the sense of struggle and sacrifice that had helped the common folk endure the bleak years through which the Revolution had recently passed. The Directory's military efforts alone were almost always seemingly crowned with success, partly because France now had the most efficient system of conscription in Europe as well as one of history's best generals. In return, the army's help became indispensable to the Directory's survival, which introduced the generals to politics and made the coup d' état thenceforth a part of French political life.

In terms of foreign affairs, the return to grace of Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord (1754–1838), was second in importance only to the rise of Napoleon. As a French statesman and diplomat, Talleyrand would become noted for his capacity for survival, not only holding high office during the French Revolution and the subsequent Napoleonic empire, but also at the restoration of the Bourbon monarchy and under King Louis-Philippe. From an impoverished but ancient aristocratic family, left clubfooted by a childhood accident, Talleyrand had under the ancien régime become a typical court cleric before rising to fame as the veritable "bishop of the Revolution" when he engi-

neered the adoption of the Civil Constitution of the Clergy that had proved so pernicious to the Revolution's success.

The first bishop to take the loyalty oath, for which he was excommunicated by the pope, Talleyrand was recognized for his skills as a clever negotiator and was posted as a minister to London in 1791, where he helped keep Britain neutral until the massacre of royalist prisoners alienated whatever sympathy the British had for revolutionary France. Denounced at home by the National Convention after the overthrow of the monarchy, Talleyrand was also attacked in Britain by counterrevolutionary émigrés who demanded his expulsion. When the British complied with these demands in January 1794, Talleyrand—hardly able to return to a France in the throes of the Terror—embarked for the United States.

After the fall of Robespierre, Talleyrand petitioned the National Convention to remove his name from the list of émigrés because, he pointed out, he had left France on an official passport. His request granted, Talleyrand returned to Paris in September 1796. There, with the help of his political connections in the Directory, he regained his standing as a diplomat and was named French foreign minister in the summer of 1797.

It was Talleyrand who confirmed Napoleon's conclusion of the Treaty of Campo Formio, and it was Talleyrand who, with Napoleon, would execute the government's grand strategy in the coming years of guaranteeing French security by creating a ring of satellite republics around the nation's borders in Italy, the Netherlands, and Switzerland. And it was Talleyrand who seconded Napoleon's proposal to strike at Britain by occupying Egypt and threatening its lucrative trade route to India.

Some members of the Directory, disturbed by Napoleon's high-handedness at Formio and by his increased meddling in political affairs, were glad to see their ambitious young general head off to the faraway Middle East. Napoleon had personally put down the first plot against the new regime in 1796, the so-called Conspiracy of Equals led by Babeuf. But he had also had a hand in the events following the French elections of 1797, during which the royalists' success at the polls had increased the number of conservatives in the five-man Directory to two. Uneasy with the results, Napoleon had advised opposition to them, and when the Directory attempted a coup d'état against the royalists in July and failed, its three republican members asked Bonaparte's aid to rectify the situation. Keeping himself aloof from the turmoil in Paris, Napoleon instead sent one of his subordinates, Pierre-François-Charles Augereau (1757–1816) to conduct purges of both the Directory and the assembly.

Although Augereau's successful coup of 18 Fructidor (September 4, 1797) eliminated the royalists and their friends from the government and enhanced Bonaparte's prestige, allowing him to conduct negotiations in Formio without political interference, it also set a dangerous precedent. When the next year's election produced an assembly too republican for the Directors' taste, they used their military support to annul the results in more than 100 districts; in 1799 the Directory employed arrest and forced dismissal to maintain the status quo in the face of a similar election crisis. By then, although Britain was France's only surviving enemy and Napoleon was in Egypt, the Directory's rule was chronically unstable. When British prime minister William Pitt (1759–1806) organized and financed a new anti-French alliance, the Second Coalition, which included Naples, Austria, Russia, and the Ottoman Empire, many doubted the Directory's ability to wage war successfully against it, and some of the Directory's members—especially Emmanuel Sieyès (1748–1836)—were convinced that only military dictatorship could prevent a restoration of the monarchy. "I am looking for a saber," was the way Sieyès put it, and the Directory ordered the return of Napoleon.

Napoleon was delighted to be the sword. Although he had been victorious on land in Egypt, his fleet had been destroyed by the British, and his army was left sick and stranded in the shadow of the pyramids. Under the circumstances, it did not take much to make up his mind to return to France yet again to save the Republic. He was on his way to Paris even before he had received the Directory's recall, and once there he took advantage of the new circumstances to seize power. By the time he arrived on October 14, 1799, French victories in Switzerland and Holland had stayed the danger of invasion and the most recent counterrevolutionary risings at home had fizzled, so the Republic no longer needed saving. But Sieyès now had his sword, and he intended to use it. He and Napoleon plotted the coup from the end of October, and on the 18 Brumaire (November 9), they struck.

The five-man Directory was replaced by three consuls, including—as yet another reward for services rendered to the Revolution—General Bonaparte, along with two of the directors who had resigned, Sieyès and Pierre-Roger Ducos (1747–1816). When the Jacobins in the Assembly refused to accept the abrogation of the constitution, Bonaparte's troops drove them from their chambers. A few hours later, a handful of more tractable deputies murmured assent to the changes and gave a semblance of legality to the coup. But the bayonets remained, and the message was clear. Not just the Directory, but the Revolution was dead, and First Consul Napoleon Bonaparte was master of France.

See also COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND.

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French Revolution (July Revolution) (1830)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces loyal to Charles X vs. disaffected French citizens and military elements
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paris
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebels sought to overthrow the hyperreactionary king of France and his prime minister.
OUTCOME: The king abdicated and was ultimately replaced by the even more inept Louis-Philippe.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Forces loyal to Charles X, 11,776; revolutionaries, unknown
CASUALTIES: Forces loyal to Charles X, 400 killed, 800 wounded; revolutionaries, 1,800 killed, 4,500 wounded
TREATIES: None

The so-called July Revolution was triggered by a single ill-judged action of King Charles X (1757–1836). An unpopular ruler, Charles was a reactionary who, in his determination to restore an absolute monarchy to France, alienated the growing French middle class. The king directed Premier Jules de Polignac (1780–1847) to form a new, ultraroyalist ministry. When the Chamber of Deputies protested, Charles X dissolved that body in 1829. The elections of 1830 produced even more opposition to the king and Polignac. Charles responded by dissolving the new chamber as well. With Polignac, he also published the "July Ordinances," which sharply curbed freedom of the press and disenfranchised many Frenchmen. In response, Parisians rebelled on July 27, erecting and manning 4,054 barricades in the streets. In addition to civilians, some army units as well as former National Guard members joined the defense of the barricades.

On July 30, a desperate Charles caved in to the rebellion by annulling the July Ordinances and dismissing Polignac. The rebels arrested Polignac and sentenced him to life imprisonment; he was granted amnesty six years later. Charles abdicated in favor of one of his grandsons, then fled.

The people rejected Charles's choice. The radical republicans among them supported the aged marquis de Lafayette (1757–1834) for president, while the monarchist rebels supported Louis-Philippe (1773–1850), duc d'Orléans, as the new king. Amid the dissension, all that could be agreed upon was a declaration that the throne was vacant. Louis-Philippe was subsequently proclaimed king, and although he was popularly dubbed the "Citizen King," he soon proved as reactionary as Charles X had been. The stage was set for the FRENCH REVOLUTION (1848).

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French Revolution (February Revolution) (1848)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French liberals vs. the monarchy of Louis-Philippe
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paris
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Liberal and radical elements sought to replace the monarchy with a republic.
OUTCOME: Louis-Philippe abdicated, and the Second Republic was established; however, the revolution soon turned moderate and then conservative.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown in this citizen action
CASUALTIES: Few
TREATIES: None

The year 1848 was one of turmoil in Europe, beginning with a "revolution" in France. At this time in France, suffrage was restricted to men who owned a certain amount of property. Discontent over the property qualification had simmered for years and had given rise to opposition parties and an organized protest movement to expand the franchise. On February 22, 1848, a mass protest banquet was arranged to demand universal manhood suffrage. François-Pierre-Guillaume Guizot (1787–1874), the French premier under King Louis-Philippe (1773–1850), was informed of the planned event and immediately issued a decree forbidding the banquet. Louis-Philippe had become increasingly unpopular, and, if anything, Guizot was even less loved. In response to Guizot's provocative decree, Parisians gathered at the banquet hall and street fighting broke out. The violence reached its height on February 23, when troops clashed with demonstrators. Although some of the soldiers fired into the mob, others laid down their arms and joined the Parisians. Guizot resigned immediately, and Louis-Philippe abdicated on the 24th.

The Chamber of Deputies created a Committee of Public Safety headed by the renowned poet Alphonse de Lamartine (1790–1869), which quickly created the Second French Republic. The Revolution of 1848 was essentially local, chiefly confined to Paris, and although radical,

socialist, and even anarchist voices made themselves heard, most of the people of France preferred to take a moderate, even conservative course. Immediately after the proclamation of the Second Republic, bold steps were taken, including the writing of a democratic constitution, the creation of national workshops, and a right-to-work law. Although Parisian workers approved of this, most of the country protested, and the workshops were dissolved in June. This provoked a workers' rebellion, the so-called June Days of June 23–26, 1848, which soon dissolved. New elections were called, and despite everything that had happened, the expanded French electorate brought to the assembly an overwhelmingly monarchist slate of legislators. Prince Louis Napoleon (1808–73), an arch conservative, was elected president in December 1848, effectively bringing the revolution to an end. The Second Republic endured until 1852, when Louis Napoleon proclaimed himself Napoleon III, and the Second Empire was thereby created.

Although the Second French Republic was short-lived, the tumult in France inspired an Italian rebellion against the Austrian overlords in Italy (*see* ITALIAN REVOLUTION [1848–1849]). That same year, Hungary also rebelled against Austria (*see* HUNGARIAN REVOLUTION), to which it had been subject for some 150 years. When Austrian emperor Ferdinand I (1793–1875) responded by granting Hungary representation in the imperial government, the Czechs, also under Austrian rule, demanded a significant degree of independence. Revolutionary sentiment swept over Germany as well in 1848 (*see* GERMAN REVOLUTION), creating an abortive movement for unification of the disparate German states. Austria itself was swept by revolution (AUSTRIAN REVOLUTION).

See also FRENCH REVOLUTION (1830).

Further reading: J. P. T. Bury, *Napoleon III and the Second Empire* (New York: Harper and Row, 1968); William Fortescue, *Revolution and Counter Revolution in France, 1815–1852* (London: Blackwell Publishers, 2002).

French Revolutionary Wars (1792–1802)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Revolutionary France vs. (at various points) all the major European powers, including Great Britain and Russia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): From the Caribbean to the Indian Ocean, but concentrated primarily in Holland (the Low Countries), the Rhineland, and Lombardy
DECLARATION: Various of the allied nations declared against France.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Suppression of the French Revolution's ideological threat to the older regimes of Europe
OUTCOME: Napoleon Bonaparte came to power as emperor and launched several wars of conquest.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France mobilized more than 2 million men, its enemies, combined, mobilized perhaps half that number.
CASUALTIES: France, 295,000 killed; allies, 177,420 killed
TREATIES: Treaty of Campo Formio, October 7, 1797; Treaty of Amiens, March 27, 1802

The French Revolutionary Wars were fought between France and the other European powers in the wake of the FRENCH REVOLUTION, from 1792 to 1802. After the brief hiatus created by the Treaty of Amiens, the wars continued as the NAPOLEONIC WARS. Napoleon Bonaparte's (1769–-1821) series of victories in the French Revolutionary Wars, which ended at Amiens, began with astounding successes in northern Italy and brought about the collapse of the First Coalition of European powers formed against the new republic (*see* COALITION, WAR OF THE FIRST).

In 1792, France's new National Assembly, pressed by the moderate republican Girondists, declared war on Austria's Emperor Francis II (1768–1835) for signing the Declaration of Pillnitz, which called for the restoration of France's ancien régime. The duke of Brunswick, Charles William Ferdinand (1735–1806), led the Austrians and their allied Prussian troops across the Rhine, threatening to destroy Paris if the revolutionaries harmed the royal family, who considered themselves more or less prisoners in their own country. The French resented the demands, and that resentment led them to abolish the monarchy, if not yet the monarch.

In the first year of the wars, revolutionary France defeated the invaders at Valmy and then pressed on to attack the Austrian Netherlands. There, too, the French army was victorious, defeating the Austrians at Jemappes and afterward overrunning today's Belgium. The successful French offensive pushed the Prussians back across the Rhine; in November 1792, a French army conquered Savoy and Nice, and flush with these early victories, the French began bold talk of exporting their revolution. The French constitutional convention offered aid to seekers of liberty everywhere, it opened the Scheldt estuary to French commerce, and—in 1793—it guillotined the erstwhile king, who the French had taken to calling Citizen Capet.

Alarmed by these events, the powers of Europe were provoked into forming the First Coalition against France—Britain, Holland, Spain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia. The allies enjoyed early victories at Neerwinden, Mainz, and Kaiserslautern, and they evicted the much demoralized French from the Austrian Netherlands. The French quickly regrouped, however, introducing mass mobilization to form a huge army made up of a new kind of trooper, the citizen soldier, and took the offensive. Once again, they drove the Prussians back, and in 1794, a Russia distracted by unrest in Poland withdrew from the coalition.

French success in Holland forced the Dutch to a peace, and the revolutionaries renamed their conquest the Batavian Republic. In 1795 Prussia and Spain followed Holland to the negotiating table. That year, too, the new five-man governing Directory, which had replaced the old convention, planted the young Bonaparte atop the Revolution's army in Italy. Jailed the year before as his Jacobin allies' heads rolled in the streets of Paris, a newly free Napoleon had not only saved the government from a Paris mob but also married up in the world to Josephine de Beauharnais (1763–1814). Now the once obscure Corsican artilleryman was confronting the troops of the Holy Roman Empire, whose Hapsburg monarch ruled northern Italy and the Netherlands and claimed allegiance from all the German states in between.

Rallying the troops under his new command, Napoleon took the offensive on April 12, 1796. In quick succession he defeated and separated the Austrian and the Sardinian armies, then marched on Turin. When the Sardinian king, Victor Amadeus III (1726–96), asked for an armistice and then sued for peace, Nice and Savoy, occupied by the French since 1792, were annexed to the republic. Bonaparte fought on against the Austrians, occupying Milan before he was held up at Mantua. While his army besieged the great fortress, he signed armistices with the duke of Parma, the duke of Modena, and ultimately with Pope Pius VI (r. 1775–99). He took an interest in the political organization of Italy, setting up a republican regime in Lombardy. In October 1796, he merged Modena and Reggio nell'Emilia with the papal states of Bologna and Ferrara to create the Cisalpine Republic. He even sent an expeditionary force to recover Corsica after the British had evacuated.

Meanwhile, Austrian armies had swept down four times from the Alps to relieve Mantua, and four times Bonaparte had routed them. With the last defeat at Rivoli in January 1797, Mantua itself capitulated, and Napoleon wasted no time in marching on Vienna. He had hied his army within about 60 miles of the Austrian capital before the House of Hapsburg sued for an armistice. With Austria standing alone against Napoleon in Italy, Francis II felt he had no choice but to come to terms with France, which he did in a preliminary peace signed on April 18, 1797, at Leoben. Back in Paris, royalist gains in the latest election occupied Napoleon's attention as he urged the Directory on to a coup in July, which failed. Bonaparte then dispatched one of his generals and several officers to mount another. This one, the coup d'etat of 18 Fructidor (September 4, 1797) proved successful. Having eliminated the royalists' friends from the government and legislative councils, the young general saw his prestige rise again. Hailed as the savior of the Directory, to its dismay he then concluded the Treaty of Campo Formio as he thought best.

Essentially, in exchange for Dalmatia and Venetia, Francis II recognized all of the conquests of the French Republic, including the long-cherished French dream of establishing hegemony over Italy. In addition, the treaty provided for a congress to be convened at Rastadt to determine the future of Germany.

With the Treaty of Campo Formio, Bonaparte began reshaping the map of Europe, a habit that would continue throughout his career. The Directory, disturbed by Napoleon's extralegal assumption of authority, let it be known that it was displeased because the treaty had ceded Venice to the Austrians but did not secure the left bank of the Rhine for France. On the other hand, Napoleon had not only reorganized parts of Europe, he had, like a good radical republican, spread the revolution to northern Italy, encouraging Jacobin propaganda in Venetia. Returning to Paris with a victory in hand after five years of war on the Continent, Bonaparte's popularity, despite the naysaying of the politicians, reached new heights. The glory was his, and a new figure was strutting across the stage of world history. Moreover, his consolidation of the northern Italian republics led many Italian patriots to hope for the formation in future of a single and indivisible "Italian Republic" modeled on the French. As would often be the case, out of Bonaparte's conquests was born a new nationalism.

The events culminating in Campo Formio isolated Great Britain, which had acted as the chief source of funds for the anti-French alliances. The nation was vulnerable to invasion, but the French fleet proved no match for the Royal Navy, which defeated it at the Glorious First of June (1794), and then dealt a decisive blow to the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent (February 14, 1797) and to the Dutch fleet at Camperdown (October 11, 1797). Turning from its plans against England, the French Directory approved Napoleon's 1798 proposal to conquer Egypt. Despite a brilliant land campaign, Napoleon's gains were largely nullified by Admiral Horatio Nelson's (1758–1805) victory over the French fleet in the Battle of the Nile (August 1, 1798) and by the Turks' successful defense of Acre.

In the meantime, while Napoleon was fighting in Egypt, a Second Coalition, consisting of Britain, Austria, Russia, and Turkey, was formed against France (*see* COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND). This, too, failed, and the French Republic was again victorious. On September 25, 1799, Russian armies were turned back at Zurich, leaving the Austrians exposed and forcing them to retire from the Rhine. A planned Anglo-Russian landing in Holland had to be aborted. Next, Napoleon returned from Egypt to defeat the Austrians at the spectacular Battle of Marengo (June 14, 1800), which followed his brilliant march across the Alps, an action that cut off the Austrian commander, Friedrich von Melas (1729–1806) from communication with Austria, leaving him vulnerable. This, coupled with another French victory at Hohenlinden (December 3, 1800), prompted the Austrians to make peace at Luneville on February 9, 1801. Britain, now isolated, struck out at the Danish fleet at Copenhagen (April 2, 1801) and also

destroyed Napoleon's Egyptian army at Alexandria (August 1801). However, aware of its exposure, Britain sued for peace at Amiens.

The Treaty of Amiens served as an entr'acte between the French Revolutionary Wars and the Napoleonic Wars. Though a general peace was reestablished in Europe, Napoleon Bonaparte's success in the French Revolutionary Wars had allowed him to maneuver politically at home into a position of near dictatorial powers, and Bonaparte's notion of international peace bore little resemblance to that of Great Britain. Already First Consul of the French Republic, Bonaparte's prestige was such that his friends—with a few hints from Napoleon—proposed to offer him a "token of national gratitude." A referendum was mounted to answer the simple question: "Shall Napoleon Bonaparte be consul for life?" The vote was overwhelmingly yes, and Napoleon grasped the reins of state with the right to name his own successor.

If the Treaty of Amiens marked for the British the absolute limit beyond which they were never prepared to go, for Napoleon it marked the starting point of a new French ascendancy in the world. Future wars were inevitable.

See also COALITION, WAR OF THE THIRD.

Further reading: T. C. W. Blanning, *The French Revolutionary Wars, 1787–1802* (London: Edward Arnold, 1996); Paddy Griffith, *The Art of War of Revolutionary France, 1789–1802* (Mechanicsburg, Pa.: Stackpole Books, 1998); John A. Lynn, *The Bayonets of the Republic* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1996); Martyn Lyons, *Napoleon Bonaparte and the Legacy of the French Revolution* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1994).

French-Vietnamese Wars

See FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1858–1863); FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1873–1874); FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1882–1883); FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1946–1954).

French War (1635–1648)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (with Swedish and Dutch allies) vs. Spain (with German, Austrian, Italian, Walloon, and Portuguese allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Europe
DECLARATION: France on Spain, May 21, 1635
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France sought acquisition of the Rhineland.
OUTCOME: The French War effectively ended the Thirty Years' War with the Peace of Westphalia (1648), ending the Holy Roman Empire as a major political force.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the major battle, Rocroi: France, 22,000; Spain, 26,000. At Lens: France, 14,000; Spain-Austria, 15,000
CASUALTIES: At the major battle, Rocroi: France, 4,000 killed; Spain, 8,000 killed, 7,000 captured. At Lens: France, relatively light losses; Spain-Austria, almost 15,000 killed, wounded, or captured
TREATIES: Peace of Westphalia, October 24, 1648

The political maneuvering behind this conflict was the complex work of Louis XIII's (1601–43) ruthless chief minister, Cardinal Richelieu (1585–1642). He sought to acquire the Rhineland for France and therefore pledged financial and military aid to Protestant German princes who agreed to accept Catholicism. These princes were engaged in the THIRTY YEARS' WAR against the Holy Roman Empire, which was ruled by the Catholic Hapsburgs. Like the Protestant Germans, the Catholic Richelieu wanted to contain the power of the Holy Roman Empire and the Hapsburgs. However, in 1635, the Holy Roman Emperor made peace with Saxony and the other Lutheran states, and Spain, a Hapsburg ally, began a war against the Netherlands. Having sought to thwart Hapsburg power, Richelieu now found himself facing increased Hapsburg influence. In response, he allied France with Chancellor Axel Oxenstierna (1583–1654) of Sweden, leader of the Protestant forces, and with the Netherlands. Thus connected, Richelieu declared war on Spain on May 21, 1635.

Richelieu's forces were deployed widely: in Italy, in the Netherlands, and on the Rhine. This left France itself vulnerable to invasion by the Bavarian and Spanish armies in 1636. The French repulsed the invasion, which was followed by another, this time by the Spanish army alone, the following year. Again, the French succeeded in ejecting the invaders. In Italy and the Netherlands, however, French forces suffered defeats during 1638. The following year, France's Dutch allies scored a major victory against Spanish naval power at the Battle of the Downs.

During 1641–42, internal problems in France, Spain, and Portugal, in the form of popular uprisings, forced a hiatus in the war, but, following the deaths of Richelieu as well as Louis XIII—and the subsequent ascension of Cardinal Jules Mazarin (1602–61) as regent to the five-year-old Louis XIV (1638–1715)—the great French general Louis II de Condé (1621–86) took command. In the spring of 1643, General Francisco de Melo (d. 1664), commander of the Spanish army, crossed what is today the border of Belgium and France and laid siege against Rocroi, west of the Meuse River. Leading 22,000 men, Condé marched to the relief of Rocroi, confronting Melo's 26,000-man force just south of the city. The two sides deployed their cavalry on the flanks, their infantry in the center. On the right flank, Condé opened with a cavalry charge that routed the Spanish cavalry to his front; however, on the other flank, Melo's cavalry pushed back the French cavalry on that side. Condé's next move was a spectacular wheel directly through the massed Spanish infantry, cutting off the frontline troops.

This panicked the troops behind—mostly Italians, Germans, and Walloons—and Condé was able to break through to the rear of Melo's cavalry, which was thus caught between an ongoing frontal attack by Condé's cavalry and a rear attack by his infantry. The Spanish cavalry fled the field, leaving Melo's infantry completely encircled. The remaining Spanish force fought gallantly, but the situation was hopeless. By the end of the day, surrounded, the Spanish infantry had died almost to a man. The loss was extraordinary, with implications well beyond the particular battle and the particular war. The flower of the Spanish army, the best-trained infantry in Europe, had died—in a single stroke—and Spain would never recover from the loss. Spain was all but completely knocked out of the war.

In Germany, France's Swedish allies advanced from the north while the French advanced from the south, pushing north across the Rhine. Under this pressure, representatives of the Holy Roman Empire met with Swedish and French negotiators in extremely protracted talks even while fighting continued. On August 2, 1648, Archduke Leopold William (1610–90), brother of Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand III (1608–57), led an Austrian-Spanish army of 15,000 men into northwestern France, toward Arras. Condé intercepted the advance at Lens, 11 miles northeast of Arras. Through deft maneuvering, Condé deceived Leopold William into thinking that he was in retreat, only to double back and hit the Spanish-Austrian force in its flank. Even though Condé commanded somewhat fewer numbers, his surprise attack was devastating—a "second Rocroi"—resulting in the loss of almost the entire Spanish-Austrian army and leading directly to Ferdinand III's capitulation at the Peace of Westphalia on October 24, 1648.

The Peace of Westphalia effectively brought the Thirty Years' War to an end. It created a compromise between Protestants and Catholics by ending the political and military power of the Holy Roman Empire and replacing it with a recognition of the sovereignty of the German states. In the process, the treaty established France as the major power in Europe, and it elevated its ally Sweden to the status of most powerful Baltic nation.

See also THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Ronald G. Ash, *The Thirty Years' War: The Holy Roman Empire and Europe, 1618–1648* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1997); Geoffrey Parker, ed. *The Thirty Years' War* (New York : Routledge, 1997).

Fries's Rebellion (Hot Water War) (1799)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: German farmers of Bucks, Northampton, and Montgomery counties in Pennsylvania vs. U.S. tax assessors, army regulars, and militia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Pennsylvania
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tax rebellion—Pennsylvanians protested a direct federal tax levied against real property, including land, buildings, and slaves
OUTCOME: Federal troops moved in to rescue the tax assessors and suppress the insurrection.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Insurrectionists, several hundred; federal troops, unknown
CASUALTIES: None, except some tax assessors were scalded by boiling water
TREATIES: No formal treaty

In July 1798 when the U.S. Congress needed funds to mount an anticipated war against France, it passed a direct federal tax on real property—land, buildings, and slaves. Most Americans resented the tax, but perhaps none more so than the German farmers of Bucks, Northampton, and Montgomery counties in Pennsylvania. When federal officials moved into eastern Pennsylvania to assess properties, they encountered resistance from angry citizens led by John Fries (c. 1750–1818). Reportedly, wives of the tax rebels, protecting their homes from the assessors, scalded the officials with boiling water, thus the name: the Hot Water War.

Fries amassed a following of several hundred farmers, and when he marched on Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, to force—without violence—the release of tax resisters arrested by federal marshals, President John Adams called out the regular army and militia to suppress the insurrectionists. Wholesale arrests of Fries's followers ensued. Fries was arrested and tried twice. Found guilty of treason and condemned to be hanged in both trials, he was pardoned by the president in an order of general amnesty for all the protesters.

See also SHAYS'S REBELLION; WHISKEY REBELLION.

Further reading: Charles Adams, *Those Dirty Rotten Taxes: The Tax Revolts That Built America* (New York: Simon and Schuster 1998); Robert W. Coakley, *Role of Federal Military Forces in Domestic Disorders, 1789–1878* (Washington, D.C.: Center of Military History, 1989); David McCullough, *John Adams* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 2001).

Fronde, Wars of the (1648–1653)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Fronde (a group of nobles in antiroyal opposition in the Parlement of Paris) vs. royalist forces led by Cardinal Mazarin, Queen Anne, and Louis XIV
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France, especially Paris
DECLARATION: No official declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Fronde sought to check the absolute power of the monarchy.

OUTCOME: Internal dissent within the Fronde caused the antiroyalist opposition to fragment and fail; Louis XIV emerged as a monarch with absolute power.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable; Condé commanded 8,000 at the capture of Charenton, February 8, 1649; this was probably the largest single contingent engaged.
CASUALTIES: 50,000 dead on both sides, mostly as a result of disease and privation
TREATIES: Peace of Rueil, April 1, 1649

Fronde was the name of a children's game played in the streets of Paris in defiance of civil authorities. The name was applied to forces in the Parlement of Paris that opposed the growing power of royal government. The Wars of the Fronde were, in effect, a series of civil wars that attempted to check the developing absolutism of the French monarchy. The failure of the opposition in these wars may be the origin of the absolutism that marked the long reign of Louis XIV (1638–1715).

The Fronde began in reaction to policies developed by Cardinal Richelieu (1585–1642) during the reign of Louis XIII (1624–42). Richelieu strengthened the monarchy at the expense of the prerogatives of the nobility, and he also compromised the authority of the judicial bodies, or parlements. In 1648, the Parlement of Paris refused to approve the royal government's revenue appropriations, thereby setting off the Fronde of the Parlement. This opposition body sought to apply constitutional limits on the monarchy by arrogating to itself the right to discuss and modify royal decrees. The Fronde issued 27 articles for reform, which Cardinal Mazarin (1602–61), regent to the infant Louis XIV, acceded to. Engaged at the time in war with Spain, Mazarin did not dare provoke dissension at home. However, when the Spanish war resulted in a French victory, Mazarin moved to arrest two of the most outspoken Fronde leaders on August 26. This touched off an uprising in Paris, which forced the release of the men.

The conflict escalated in January 1649, when the royalist forces blockaded Paris in an effort to compel the surrender of Parlement. The government backed down and negotiated the Peace of Rueil on April 1, 1649, by which the rebels secured amnesty and obtained royal concessions to Parlement. Thus ended the first phase of the Wars of the Fronde, the Fronde of the Parlement.

The second phase, the Fronde of the Princes, spanned January 1650 to September 1653 and ushered in a confusing period of shifting allegiances and intrigues, which had less to do with creating a constitutional government than with individual attempts to grab personal power. About the only thing that united the aristocrat-rebels was mutual opposition to Mazarin.

One of the most prominent figures to emerge during the Fronde of the Princes was Louis II de Bourbon, prince de Condé, known as the Great Condé (1621–86), cousin of Louis XIV and a military genius. He had supported the royalists during the first phase of the wars, but when he failed to satisfy his political ambitions by these efforts, he turned against the Crown. His arrest on January 18, 1650, prompted his friends and allies to stage a series of provincial uprisings. These conflicts are sometimes collectively called the First War of the Princes. These were crushed by government forces before the end of 1650.

After the First War of the Princes ended in defeat for the rebels, partisans of the Great Condé united with the so-called Parisian party—or the Old Fronde—to secure the release of Condé and the dismissal of Mazarin. They succeeded in both by February 1651, and Condé emerged briefly as leader of the *Frondeurs*. However, this rebel group was badly splintered, and Queen Anne (1602–66), mother of Louis XIV, was masterful in her exploitation of the factionalism. She joined forces with the Old Fronde and brought an indictment on Condé in August 1651. This provoked Condé to lead the Second War of the Princes, which spanned September 1651 to September 1653.

The culminating event of the Second War of the Princes was Condé's entrance into Paris in April 1652. Spanish forces rushed to his aid, but he suffered near-defeat at the hands of royal troops outside the walls of the city in a battle of July 2, 1652. This debacle lost him the support of the Parisian bourgeoisie, and Condé was never able to secure the approval of the Parlement. Unable to garner support, Condé left Paris on October 13, ultimately seeking refuge in the Spanish Netherlands.

With Condé gone, Louis XIV entered Paris on October 21, 1652, followed by Mazarin on February 3, 1653. This marked the royalist victory in the Wars of the Fronde, which not only established Mazarin's power, but set up Louis XIV for a reign in which royal prerogative would stand supreme. The nobility and the Parlement failed to achieve leadership of the government, and the supremacy of the monarchy was not seriously challenged again until the FRENCH REVOLUTION (1789–1799).

See also FRENCH WAR (1635–1648); THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Orest Ranum, *The Fronde: A French Revolution, 1648–1652* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1993).

G

Gabriel's Rebellion (1800)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: African-American slaves of Virginia under Gabriel Prosser vs. the state's white citizens
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Richmond, Virginia, and environs
DECLARATION: No formal declaration.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: An attempt on the part of African-American slaves to win their freedom and to establish a black nation within the state of Virginia.
OUTCOME: The impending revolt was betrayed before it occurred, it was suppressed by Virginia officials, and the leaders of the movement were hanged.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Estimates of slave enlistments vary widely from 2,000 to 50,000. About 1,000 slaves gathered on the night of the planned assault. Contemporary papers report that the Virginia militia could have mustered no more than 500 soldiers.
CASUALTIES: Thirty-five leaders, including Prosser, were hanged.
TREATIES: No formal treaties

In 1800, Gabriel Prosser (d. 1800), a 24-year-old slave, planned a rebellion against the white slaveholders of Virginia. Prosser was a deeply religious man, as were most leaders of slave revolts, and he was inspired to act by the fight for freedom and the stirring words of equality he heard from his fellow Virginians, Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826) and George Washington (1732–99).

Prosser organized a three-pronged attack on Richmond. Assembling some six miles outside the city, one column planned to approach from the right to secure the arsenal and seize guns; the left column aimed for the powder house; the central column, attacking Richmond from both ends, was to kill every white person, except Frenchmen, Methodists, and Quakers. With Richmond secured, Prosser planned rapid assaults on other Virginia cities. If the scheme succeeded, Prosser would proclaim himself king of Virginia. If it failed, his army was to take to the woods and instigate a guerrilla war.

As Prosser's followers—estimated at about 1,000—gathered on the night of August 30, they did not know that their plans had been revealed to white officials. In truth, it hardly mattered because a thunderstorm washed out roads and bridges, making it impossible for Prosser to reach Richmond. Before he could regroup, he and 34 others were arrested, convicted, and hanged.

See also TURNER'S REBELLION; VESEY'S REBELLION.

Further reading: Douglas E. Egerton, *Gabriel's Rebellion: The Virginia Slave Conspiracies of 1800 and 1802* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1993); Thomas Wentworth Higgenson, *Black Rebellion: Five Slave Revolts* (New York: Da Capo Press, 1998).

Galeruis's Invasion of Italy

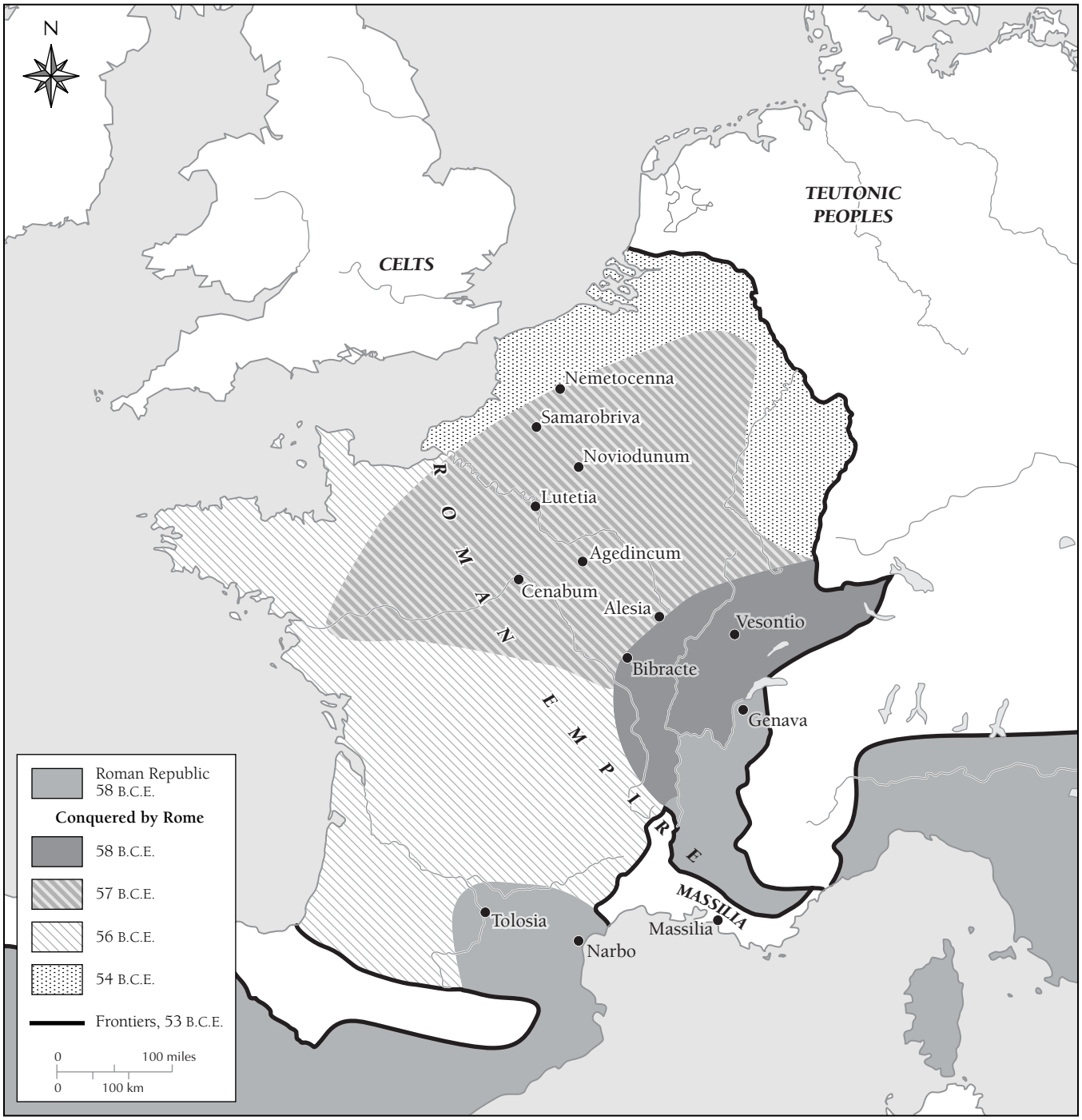
See ROMAN CIVIL WAR (306–307).

Gallic Wars: Ariovistusian Campaign (58 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Germanic tribes under Ariovistus

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Gaul (eastern France)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Julius Caesar sought to drive out of Gaul a raiding tribe under Ariovistus.
OUTCOME: After a brief campaign of maneuver, Caesar fought a decisive battle that routed and purged the tribe.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Romans, 50,000; Ariovistus, 75,000
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but very heavy among the followers of Ariovistus.
TREATIES: None

Following the GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN in 58 B.C.E., Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) next faced a threat from Ariovistus (fl. 58 B.C.E.) leader of a Germanic tribe that had been raiding the Gauls of Aedui, Sequani, and Arverni (modern Alsace and Franche-Comté, France).



Roman conquest of Gaul, 58–52 B.C.E.

Caesar's force of 50,000 cautiously sparred with Ariovistus's 75,000 warriors in the country east of Vesontio (Besançon) until, on September 10, Caesar determined that the time and place were right for an attack. The battle came in the vicinity of modern Belfort, Mulhouse, or Cernay. Caesar moved swiftly and achieved total surprise. Seizing the initiative, he never relinquished it, and the Germans, despite their superior numbers, were routed. They retreated in disarray across the Rhine, with Caesar in pursuit.

This victory elicited from central Gaul general acknowledgment of Roman suzerainty. Caesar took his forces into winter quarters at Vesontio.

See also GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: MORINIAN AND MENAPIIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS; GALLIC WARS: SECOND INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: Helvetian Campaign (58 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome (with Gallic auxiliaries) and Helvetian migrants
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaul, principally the Jura Mountain region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Julius Caesar sought to repel a Helvetian invasion of Gaul.
OUTCOME: The Helvetians were defeated and suffered great losses; they withdrew to their original homeland in the region of modern Switzerland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Helvetians, 100,000; Caesar, 30,000 legionnaires, plus about 25,000 Gallic warriors
CASUALTIES: Including many noncombatant civilians, 130,000 Helvetians died as a result of the Battle of Bibracte; Roman losses were heavy (though much smaller), but not precisely known.
TREATIES: None

In 58 B.C.E., Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.), Roman triumvir and consul, became proconsul and governor of Gaul, taking in Istria, Illyricum, Cisalpine Gaul (the Po Valley), and Transalpine Gaul (southern France). He was immediately confronted by a migration—or invasion—of Helvetians, the Gallic tribe centered in modern Switzerland. Out of a population of nearly 400,000, 100,000 Helvetians were warriors.

Caesar gathered and concentrated his regular forces and also recruited various Gallic tribes who feared invasion by the Helvetians. By early spring, Caesar had mounted an effective blocking force, which sent the Helvetians into the Jura Mountains, north of the Rhône River. In June of 58, Caesar, leading a force of 34,000, intercepted the Helvetians as they crossed the Arar River. Caesar led his men on a forced night march, then immediately into a surprise attack. This daring move decimated the Helvetian force of 30,000 men who were still on the east bank of the Arar. Those who made it across, however, continued their march west toward the Liger (Loire) River. Caesar did not pursue, but warily followed them.

At Bibracte (Mount Beuvray), in July, the Helvetians, now about 70,000 strong, wheeled about and attacked Caesar's contingent of 30,000 legionnaires and 24,000 Gauls (this included 4,000 Gallic cavalrymen). Caesar's outnumbered forces quickly seized the initiative from the Helvetians, who were driven back to their camp. There tens of thousands of Helvetian migrants, men, women, and children, lived, and by the time the attack was over, 130,000 had perished. Those Helvetians who survived the battle surrendered and, at Caesar's demand, returned to their original homes east of the Jura Mountains.

See also GALLIC WARS: ARIOVISTUSIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: MORINIAN AND MENAPIIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS; GALLIC WARS: SECOND INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: Belgian Campaign (57 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Romans (with Gallic auxiliaries) vs. the Belgae, Nervii, and Aduatuci
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Belgica (modern Belgium and surrounding region)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Julius Caesar sought to preempt a massive Belgian invasion.
OUTCOME: The Romans prevailed, bringing all central Gaul under their control.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Belgae, 100,000; Romans, 40,000 legionnaires with 20,000 Gallic auxiliaries; Nervii, 75,000
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of the Sabis, Nervii losses were 60,000 (of 75,000 engaged); Roman losses are unknown, but were substantial
TREATIES: None

The Belgae were a Gallic-Germanic people living in northeastern Gaul (region of modern Belgium). Distressed by Gaius Julius Caesar's earlier triumphs in the area (*see* GALLIC WARS: ARIOVISTUSIAN CAMPAIGN and GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN), they organized a vast coalition against the Roman legions, mustering some 300,000 warriors to overwhelm them. Timely intelligence alerted Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) to the activities of the Belgae, and prompted him to act preemptively. In April 57 B.C.E., he led a force of 40,000 Roman legionnaires supplemented by 20,000 Gallic auxiliaries in an invasion of Belgica (Belgium). Taken by surprise, Galba (fl. 57–58 B.C.E.), king of Suessiones (Soissons), mustered some 75,000 to 100,000 warriors and met Caesar's advance at the Battle of the Axona (Aisne) River. Caesar defeated Galba, then continued his invasion. His victory prompted some of the tribes to submit to the Romans, but others, led by the Nervii, remained resistant.

In July 57, Caesar's invasion force reached the Sabis (Sambre) River. Uncharacteristically having failed to make proper reconnaissance, Caesar's forces were ambushed as they made camp on the Sabis. Some 75,000 Nervii attacked. So well-disciplined were the legionnaires, however, that, despite their surprise, they refused to panic and instead mounted an effective defense. After beating off successive attacks, the Romans assumed the offensive and inflicted some 60,000 casualties.

Caesar pressed on with the invasion and by the autumn of 57 had penetrated the country of the Aduatuci. In September he laid siege to Aduatuca, the tribal capital (Tongres). The Aduatuci surrendered, only to fall upon the Romans as they entered the town. Caesar successfully repelled these attacks, seized the initiative, and slaughtered the attackers. This demonstration brought most of Belgica to its knees in submission to Rome.

See also GALLIC WARS: MORINIAN AND MENAPIIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS; GALLIC WARS: SECOND INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: Morinian and Menapiian Campaign (56 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Romans vs. Morini and Menapii tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Belgica (modern Belgium and the Netherlands)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Julius Caesar sought to suppress these rebellious tribes.
OUTCOME: Generally very successful in bringing Belgica under Roman control, Caesar nevertheless failed to run the Morini and Menapii to ground.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After successfully completing a campaign against the Veneti in 56 B.C.E. (*see* GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN), Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) turned to the suppression of rebellious tribes in the northwestern region of Belgica. All yielded rapidly except for the Morini and Menapii tribes, which successfully evaded the onslaught of the Roman legions by hiding in the marsh regions of the seacoast of the Low Countries or by making a break for the dense wilderness of the Ardennes. Caesar was never able to suppress these tribes, which were the sole holdouts against the Roman domination of all Gaul.

See also GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS; GALLIC WARS: SECOND INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: Veneti Campaign (56 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Veneti
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Armorica (Brittany), Aquitania, Normandy, and the Rhineland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Julius Caesar sought to suppress rebellion by the Veneti of Armorica.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Veneti were the tribal people of Armorica (Brittany). During the winter of 56 B.C.E., they took several Roman ambassadors captive, and they committed numerous acts

of rebellion against Roman authority in the region. Come spring, Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) decided to act to suppress the Veneti. At the head of three legions, he marched into Armorica, north of the Loire River. He coordinated this advance with the operation of another legion, under General Decimus Brutus (85–43 B.C.E.), which manned a fleet stationed near the mouth of the Loire. Simultaneously, Marcus Licinius Crassus (d. 53 B.C.E.) led troops numbering somewhat more than legion strength in an invasion of Aquitania in northwestern Gaul. A smaller force, under Titus Labienus (100–45 B.C.E.), campaigned near the Rhine, while another force, led by Q. Titurius Sabinus (d. 54 B.C.E.), occupied the region of modern Normandy.

All of these forces worked to suppress the Veneti, systematically closing in on and laying siege to fortified towns. However, the major action took place at sea, in Quiberon Bay (the Gulf of Morbihan), where Roman galleys, though inferior to the ships of the Veneti, nevertheless outmaneuvered the larger vessels, enabling Roman legionnaires to slash the rigging of the Veneti ships by means of sickles lashed to long poles. This extraordinary tactic effectively disabled the Veneti fleet. Once the fleet was thus neutralized, the land campaign against the Veneti proceeded apace. Caesar was ruthless in visiting reprisals for the abuse inflicted on Roman ambassadors, and the Veneti, much abashed, acknowledged Roman suzerainty.

See also GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS; GALLIC WARS: SECOND INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: First Invasion of Britain (55 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Britons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Britain, on the Dover coast
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This was a preliminary, exploratory invasion of Britain.
OUTCOME: Julius Caesar overcame local resistance, concluded a truce with the Britons, then withdrew to Gaul.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rome, two legions; Britons, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce, 55 B.C.E.

Having secured Gaul by the summer of 55 B.C.E., Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) led two legions in an invasion of Britain, landing near Dubra (Dover) during August 55 B.C.E. The Britons resisted on the beaches, but Caesar bombarded the defenders with ship-mounted catapults. Softened up by this preinvasion bombardment, the Britons still fought hard, but were overcome quickly. A truce was concluded, and Caesar, having made his initial impression, withdrew to Gaul after occupying Britain for a mere three weeks.

See also GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS; GALLIC WARS: SECOND INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: Germanic Campaign (55 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Usipetes and Tencteri tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaul, between the Meuse and Rhine Rivers
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Julius Caesar sought to drive out Germanic invaders from Gaul—and to set a brutal example that would discourage future invasions.
OUTCOME: Caesar succeeded both in evicting (or killing) the Usipetes and Tencteri and in intimidating other tribes.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Roman strength was several legions; Usipetes and Tencteri fielded about 100,000 warriors.
CASUALTIES: Many of the 430,000 Usipetes and Tencteri in Gaul, men, women, and children, were slaughtered.
TREATIES: None

In 55 B.C.E., the Usipetes and Tencteri, Germanic tribes, invaded Gaul by crossing the Rhine River. Numbering some 430,000 and able to field at least 100,000 warriors, these people set up villages on the Meuse River near the modern city of Maastricht. Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) attempted to negotiate with the tribal leaders in May, hoping to persuade them to return to Germany. When Caesar discovered that they planned to attack during the negotiations, he resolved to act so vigorously against the invaders that no other German tribe would ever dare invade again.

Caesar embarked on the negotiations, but bested the Usipetes and Tencteri at their own game by making a

surprise attack during the talks, hitting the invaders between the Meuse and the Rhine. Not only did his legions destroy the invading army, they were turned loose against the women and children as well.

The massacre was condemned in Rome, but Caesar argued that it had been necessary, and he took his campaign of terror into Germany itself. In June 55 B.C.E., he crossed the Rhine near the site of present-day Bonn and built a spectacular bridge across the river. He marched his legions en masse across the span, a feat that, as he had planned, thoroughly intimidated the local tribes. After securing their allegiance and submission, Caesar returned to Gaul—and destroyed the bridge, lest it be used at some future time by Germanic invaders.

See also GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS; GALLIC WARS: SECOND INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: Revolt of the Gauls
(54–53 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Gauls (especially Nervii)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northeastern Gaul
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Gauls attempted an uprising against Roman domination.
OUTCOME: Led by Julius Caesar, the Romans defeated the Nervii and suppressed the Gallic uprisings.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Gauls, potentially 1,000,000; actually fielded, more than 60,000 Nervii; total Roman strength was no more than 50,000 men.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By 54 B.C.E., all Gaul was ready to erupt into rebellion. Potentially, the Gauls could muster 1,000,000 (a contemporary claim, probably grossly inflated) warriors, whereas the Roman army of occupation amounted to no more than 50,000 men. However, the Gallic tribes never fully united.

The principal uprising against Rome was led by the Nervii chief Ambiorix (fl. 54–52 B.C.E.), who attacked Q. Titurius Sabinus (fl. 54 B.C.E.) near Aduatuca. Ambiorix offered Sabinus a safe conduct to rejoin the other legions, but as soon as the legions were on the march, Ambiorix attacked and destroyed them. He moved next against the major camp of Quintus Cicero (c. 102–43 B.C.E.), near the modern town of Binche. Cicero's forces repulsed the attack, whereupon Ambiorix tried to entice him into open battle. Cicero steeled his nerves and continued to defend the camp. He managed to dispatch a messenger to Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.), who marched to Cicero's relief with a small force of 7,000 men—all he could muster on short notice.

Ambiorix marched to meet Caesar with 60,000 men, while keeping Cicero under siege with a substantial force. Vastly outnumbered, Caesar lured Ambiorix into a careless attack. Caesar was then able to mount a swift counterattack and drive Ambiorix from the field. Caesar went on to relieve Cicero and was soon joined by Titus Labienus (100–45 B.C.E.) and his forces. Thus united, the Romans established secure winter quarters.

See also GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: SECOND INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: Second Invasion of Britain
(54 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Britons under Chief Cassivellaunus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southeastern Britain (region of London)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Julius Caesar sought the submission of the Britons.
OUTCOME: Caesar received the submission of the Britons, but he did not occupy the country at this time.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Romans, 22,000; Britons, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After making a preliminary invasion the year before (*see* GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN), Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) returned to Britain in strength—five legions (20,000 men) with 2,000 cavalry troopers. As before, he landed at Dubra (Dover), and this time was unopposed—although a severe Channel storm posed a serious threat to his force.

Chief Cassivellaunus (fl. 54 B.C.E.) mustered a defensive force to counter the invasion, but it was no match for the advancing legions. The legions crossed the Thames west of the site of modern London and were frequently harassed by Cassivellaunus, who wisely avoided a head-on attack. When it was clear to the British chief that the Romans were not about to be intimidated into leaving the island, he sued for peace in a conference near Verulamium (St. Albans). Caesar contented himself with Cassivellaunus's professions of submission and made no attempt to occupy the country he had at least nominally conquered.

See also GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: Revolt of the Belgae (53 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Belgae
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Belgica (around Belgium)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Julius Caesar wanted to suppress rebellion in Belgica.
OUTCOME: A strong show of force succeeded in suppressing rebellion throughout the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rome, 10 legions
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) had only narrowly suppressed a Gallic rebellion led by Ambiorix (fl. 54–52 B.C.E.) of the Nervii (*see* GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS) from 54 to 52 B.C.E. but by 53 he had mustered 10 full legions and was prepared to seize the initiative. He marched into Belgica, and although he did not force the rebellious Belgae into a major open battle, his ceaseless pursuit of rebel groups effectively wore them down. Understanding that some German tribes had assisted Ambiorix, Caesar built a new bridge across the Rhine as a demonstration of the ease with which he could invade and devastate the region. The pursuit and this demonstration brought Belgica under control.

See also GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: Revolt in Central Gaul (53–52 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Gauls under Vercingetorix
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Gaul
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Vercingetorix led the biggest rebellion against Roman rule in Gaul.
OUTCOME: Although dramatically outnumbered, Julius Caesar defeated Vercingetorix and thereby broke the back of rebellion in central Gaul.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Vercingetorix's forces, 95,000; Gallic relief force, 240,000; Roman legions, 55,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The remarkable Arverni chieftain Vercingetorix (d. 46 B.C.E.) led a sudden rebellion among the tribes of central Gaul, which Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) had considered fully secure. For the first time, the disparate Gallic tribes united, and, under Vercingetorix, warriors became a disciplined and effective army. As the uprising began, most of the Roman legions were in northern Gaul, and Caesar himself was in Italy. Caesar was back in Gaul by January. In February 52, he led a small force from southern Gaul, through the Cevennes Mountains, and around Vercingetorix. He was able to join the legions in the Loire region, then launched an attack against Cenabum (Orléans), where the rebellion had begun. Caesar recaptured the town.

Dispatching legions under Titus Labienus (100–45 B.C.E.) to hold northern Gaul, Caesar led an expedition into southern Gaul, the heart of Vercingetorix's power. Caesar recaptured town after town as Vercingetorix made a highly destructive fighting retreat, in which he enforced a scorched-earth policy that inflicted great hardship on the legions.

In March 52, the Roman legions, hungry and short of supplies, were outside of Vercingetorix's stronghold at Avaricum (Bourges). They laid siege to the town, which fell but Vercingetorix eluded captured. Caesar pressed his weary troops southward and laid siege to Gergovia (modern Gergovie), the capital of the Arverni. Vercingetorix fortified the capital extensively and, during April and May 52, withstood Caesar's siege. Impatient and critically short

of supplies, Caesar prematurely ordered an attack, which was repulsed with great loss of life. Caesar withdrew from Gergovia and joined Labienus in the north.

At this point, Caesar was forced to acknowledge that he had lost control of Gaul. He retreated to Province, his main base, to regroup with supplies and reinforcements. However, Vercingetorix, leading an army of 80,000 infantry and 15,000 cavalry, deployed his forces in the hill country along the Vingeanne, a tributary of the upper Saône. His object was to block Caesar and force him into battle.

In July, the Battle of the Vingeanne commenced. Vercingetorix hesitated, however, and thereby lost the initiative—which Caesar, as always, was quick to seize. Vercingetorix retreated, and Caesar pursued. The Arverni leader ensconced his forces in the fortified mountaintop town of Alesia (Alise-Ste-Reine), located on Mount Auxois. At this point, he had 90,000 men with which to oppose Caesar's 55,000, and he also enjoyed a superior position. As usual, Caesar did not let inferiority of numbers or position inhibit him. He attacked with great vigor, forcing the Gauls to hole up within the walls of Alesia. Then Caesar put his engineers to work building a giant siege-work wall, some 14 miles in circumference, around the town. After this great project had been completed, a tremendous Gallic force of 240,000 marched to the aid of Vercingetorix. This force laid siege to Caesar, even as he continued to hold Alesia under siege. Caesar, however, was fully prepared to withstand a long siege and had plenty of supplies. He allowed the relief force to make three attacks, all three times repulsing them and inflicting great losses. In the meantime, Vercingetorix and his followers were starving. When he tried to send women and children through the Roman lines, Caesar turned them back. At last Vercingetorix surrendered. This broke the back of the rebellion in central Gaul. The relief army dispersed. Vercingetorix was marched back to Rome, where he was there executed six years later.

See also GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS; GALLIC WARS: FINAL PACIFICATION OF GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Gallic Wars: Final Pacification of Gaul (51 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Gallic rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaul
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A "mop-up" operation to ensure all pockets of rebellion had been crushed.
OUTCOME: The pacification was successful, and Gaul became a secure part of the Roman Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rome, about 55,000 men; no other figures known.
CASUALTIES: Few casualties in this campaign.
TREATIES: None

The defeat and execution of Vercingetorix (d. 46 B.C.E.), greatest of the Gallic chieftains (*see* GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL), broke the back of rebellion in Gaul. However, Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) conducted an extensive "mop-up" operation, ensuring that he had thoroughly extinguished all pockets of persistent rebellion. This grand tour through Gaul was also intended to impress the people of that country with the might and majesty of the Roman legions, and in this Caesar was highly successful. Gaul was now securely in Roman hands and a key addition to the empire.

See also GALLIC WARS: HELVETIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: BELGIAN CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: VENETI CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN; GALLIC WARS: GERMANIC CAMPAIGN; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE BELGAE; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT OF THE GAULS; GALLIC WARS: REVOLT IN CENTRAL GAUL.

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *The Gallic War,* trans. Carolyn Hammond (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Garibaldi's Invasion of Sicily (1860)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Giuseppe Garibaldi's "Thousand Redshirts" vs. forces of Naples
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The nationalist Garibaldi sought to wrest Sicily from Neapolitan control preparatory to the conquest of Naples and, ultimately, the unification of Italy as a single kingdom.
OUTCOME: Sicily fell to Garibaldi.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The core of Garibaldi's force consisted of about 1,000 men, and 2,000 Sicilian guerrillas (the *Picciotti*) joined later; Neapolitan forces, 22,000.
CASUALTIES: Garibaldi lost 800 killed or wounded; the Neapolitans suffered 1,300 or more killed or wounded.
TREATIES: None

The Risorgimento, or reunification, of Italy spanned 1850 to 1870, and one of its military highlights was the liberation of Sicily from the Kingdom of Naples in 1860. This

was led by Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807–82) and covertly supported by Victor Emmanuel II (1820–78), king of Piedmont, and his brilliant prime minister, Count Camillo Cavour (1810–61).

Although a revolt broke out in Naples in April 1860, only to be suppressed in May, Garibaldi sailed for Sicily—at the time part of the kingdom of Naples—with "The Thousand," a brigade of 1,000 Redshirt legionnaires loyal to him. The Thousand landed on May 11 and fought its first battle against Neapolitan forces on May 15 at Calatafami. For this encounter against 4,000 Neapolitan troops, Garibaldi's 1,000 Redshirts were augmented by 2,000 Sicilian guerrillas, known as the *Picciotti*. Although still outnumbered, Garibaldi and the Sicilians defeated the Neapolitan forces, opening the way, during May 26–27, for an assault on Palermo, chief city of Sicily. Garibaldi led 750 Redshirts and 3,000 Picciotti against a garrison of 18,000. Despite the disparity in numbers, the city fell to Garibaldi, and he advanced to Milazzo. There, on June 20, he was victorious, although his forces suffered severe losses—755 killed or wounded—compared to 162 casualties among the Neapolitans. Nevertheless, it was the Neapolitans who surrendered and gave up the city to Garibaldi.

The fall of Palermo and Milazzo signaled the liberation of Sicily, and from this conquest, Garibaldi led forces across the Strait of Messina to Naples, which fell to him on September 7.

See also ITALIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE (1859–1861).

Further reading: Denis Mack Smith, *Cavour and Garibaldi, 1860: A Study in Political Conflict* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1985); George MacAway Trevelyan, *Garibaldi and the Making of Italy* (London: Phoenix Press, 2002).

Gascon Nobles' Revolt (1368)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Gascon nobles vs. Edward III
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aquitaine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The nobles sought relief from Edward's irresponsible, oppressive, and economically burdensome government.
OUTCOME: Charles V (Charles the Wise) of France intervened, renewing the Hundred Years' War, to the disadvantage of Edward.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Not applicable
CASUALTIES: Not applicable
TREATIES: The document in question was the Treaty of Brétigny, May 8, 1360; Charles V now deemed invalid clauses relating to Edward's sovereignty over Aquitaine, thereby reigniting the Hundred Years' War.

This action was an episode of the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR and less a war in itself than an adroit diplomatic and strategic maneuver on the part of Charles V (Charles the Wise; 1338–80) of France.

Charles's nominal vassal, Edward III (r. 1327–77), ruler of Aquitaine, was an irresponsible monarch who did not hesitate to live extravagantly at the expense of the Gascons while ruling the realm through oppressive policies and burdensome taxes. At length, the Gascon nobles rebelled by appealing to Charles to intercede in 1368. In response, Charles turned to the Treaty of Brétigny, which had been concluded on May 8, 1360, between France and England. Among other things, the treaty gave Edward III full sovereignty over Aquitaine in exchange for his renunciation of his claim to the French throne and a further renunciation of any claim to sovereignty over territories outside of those specified in the treaty. Charles now recognized that although the treaty had been in force for eight years, certain key clauses regarding each king's renunciation of the other's newly agreed-to territories had been relegated to a separate document, which never had been officially ratified. Charles now summoned the eldest son of his vassal, Edward the Black Prince (1330–76), to Paris, presumably to inform him that his father's sovereignty over Aquitaine was invalid. As Charles had assumed, Edward refused to come. Charles then had a cause for resumption of the Hundred Years' War—this time in a context disadvantageous to Edward, whose territories rose up in rebellion, giving the French, under Charles, a series of advances.

Further reading: Richard Baker, *The Life and Campaigns of the Black Prince* (Rochester, N.Y.: Boydell & Brewer, 1997).

Gaston of Foix, Campaigns of (1511–1512)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. papal-Spanish forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of northern Italy
OUTCOME: The French achieved control of northern Italy, but the loss of the great French commander Gaston of Foix exposed France to later invasion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Gaston's French forces, 23,000; papal-Spanish forces, 16,000 plus 5,000 garrison troops
CASUALTIES: France, 4,500 killed, 4,500 wounded; papal-Spanish forces, 9,000 killed, an unknown number wounded, many captured
TREATIES: None

Gaston of Foix (1489–1512), the duke of Nemours, joined in the Italian wars of Louis XII (1462–1515) with a

brilliant series of campaigns against Bologna, Brescia, and Ravenna.

Although France had taken Bologna on May 13, 1511, a combined papal-Spanish force under Raymond of Cardona (fl. 1512), the Neapolitan viceroy, laid siege to the city in an effort to retake it. Gaston led an army to the relief of the city, driving off Raymond's forces. This accomplished, he turned to the north and advanced against Brescia, which was in the hands of the Venetians. Outside the city, Gaston defeated the Venetian forces, then laid siege to Brescia itself, which he captured in February 1512.

The capture of Brescia put most of northern Italy under Gaston's control. He therefore marched south, to lay siege against the Spanish in Ravenna. Wary of the remarkable Gaston of Foix, however, the combined papal-Spanish army moved with great caution toward Ravenna, seeking to establish an impregnable defensive position. Raymond of Cardona's force consisted of some 16,000 men, and the Ravenna garrison numbered 5,000. Against these, Gaston fielded 23,000, including some 8,500 German mercenaries, the *landsknechts*.

The Battle of Ravenna was fought on April 11, 1512. It was fierce and bloody, and one of its early casualties included Gaston of Foix, killed in an otherwise unremarkable skirmish. Beyond this, French losses were heavy, with some 4,500 killed and an equal number wounded. But papal-Spanish losses were heavier still: 9,000 killed and an unknown number wounded. Pedro Navarro (c. 1460–1528), the brilliant Spanish military engineer and commander of Spanish infantry, was captured, and when Spain declined to ransom him, he switched his allegiance to France. Although this acquisition was highly valuable, the French forces never overcame the loss of Gaston of Foix, and France was subsequently invaded by the English and, separately, by the Swiss.

See also ITALIAN WAR OF LOUIS XII.

Further reading: Frederic J. Baumgarther, *Louis XII* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1996).

Gaucho Revolution

See BRAZILIAN REVOLUTION.

Gempei War (Taira-Minamoto War) (1180–1185)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Minamoto clan vs. Taira clan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Japan
DECLARATION: Call to war, 1180
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Minamoto Yoritomo sought to establish the dominance of his clan over that of the ruling Tairas.
OUTCOME: Yoritomo succeeded in bringing Japan under the control of the Minamotos and, in the process, established the shoguns as great powers in Japanese government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable, but unknown; some battles fielded as many as 30,000 men on a side.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No treaty, but an imperial proclamation named Minamoto Yoritomo sei-i-tai-shogun for life in 1191.

Also called the Taira-Minamoto War, this was the concluding contest between the Taira and Minamoto clans, which resulted in the Minamoto clan's establishment of the Kamakura shogunate, the military dictatorship that dominated Japan from 1192 to 1333.

In May 1180, Prince Mochihito, son of retired Emperor Go-Shirakawa (1127–92), issued a proclamation urging the Minamoto clan to rise against the Taira. In September, Minamoto Yoritomo (1147–99) responded to the call by raising an army in the eastern Japanese province of Kwanto, to which he had been exiled after his father, leader of the Minamoto clan, had been killed. Yoritomo's forces killed the local Taira governor, but they were defeated at the Battle of Ishibashiyama by a Taira force under Oba Kagechika (fl. 1180). Despite this defeat, Yoritomo's army continued to grow, and various local Taira officials were killed throughout Japan. By the spring of 1181, Yoritomo had the support of most of the prominent families in the Kanto domain. For a time, Yoritomo contented himself with consolidating his hold on this domain rather than attempting to spread the rebellion beyond it, but within two years, his forces were powerful enough to drive the Taira entirely out of Kwanto. Then, in 1183, Yoritomo led an advance on the Taira capital of Kyoto. After taking the capital, Yoritomo advanced into the western domains, where the Taira were still firmly established. In a series of battles, Yoritomo wore the Taira down. The culminating battle, Dan-no-ura, took place at sea in April 1185, when Yoritomo's fleet virtually destroyed that of the Taira at the western end of the Inland Sea. In this battle, the infant Emperor Antoku (d. 1185), a grandson of Taira no Kiyomori (1118–81), was drowned, as were many of the leaders of the Taira clan. Those who survived were, for the most part, executed. The battle itself became the stuff of Japanese legend through such classic literary accounts as the *Gempei seisui-ki* (Record of the rise and fall of the Minamoto and Taira), largely because of the loss of Antoku, along with a great sword, one of the Imperial Treasures of Japan brought from heaven by the first Japanese emperor. The loss of this sword betokened the revolutionary change created by Yoritomo's victory.

The victory at Dan-no-ura put Yoritomo on the path to assume control of the entire empire. Yoritomo had not merely suppressed a rival warrior clan, but had, for the first time in Japanese history, created an effective alliance among regional powers. In the process, he also built a government, establishing policies and institutions that supplanted aristocratic rule. The Minamoto created new

government offices and appointed to them warriors whose loyalty to the Minamoto clan came before all else. In 1191, Yoritomo visited the new emperor in Kyoto, who certified Yoritomo's dominance of the empire by appointing him sei-i-tai-shogun ("barbarian-defeating generalissimo") for life. He thus became the first of the great shoguns, and this appointment marked the beginning of the great medieval courts of Japan and the power of the shoguns.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan; From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); Helen Craig McCullough, trans., *The Tale of the Heike* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press 1990); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63); Pierre François Souyri, *The World Turned Upside Down* (New York: Columbia University Press, 2001).

Genghis Khan's Campaigns against the Khwarezmian Empire

See Mongol-Persian War, First.

Genghis Khan's Chepe and Sübedei Expeditions

See Mongol Invasion of Russia, First.

Genghis Khan's Conquest of Kara-Khitai (1217)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Genghis (Chinggis) Khan vs. the Kara-Khitai
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kara-Khitai (in modern Kyrgyzstan, Central Asia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Mongols defeated the Kara-Khitai forces of the usurper Kushluk, and Genghis Khan annexed the country.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mongols, 20,000 men; Kara-Khitai, numbers unknown, but far superior
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Kushluk (fl. early 13th century), leader of the Naiman tribe, was defeated by Genghis Khan (c. 1162–1227) in the 1208 Battle of Irtysh. He fled the field and found refuge among the Kara-Khitai Tatars. During 1209–16, however, Kushluk, in concert with Mohammad Shah (r. 1098–1128) of Khwarazm, turned on his host and protector, the khan of Kara-Khitai, and carried out a coup d'état, which culminated in his usurpation of the Kara-Khitai throne. From this position, Kushluk swore vengeance on Genghis Khan.

Genghis Khan knew that he had to check the threat posed by Kushluk, but he was also aware that his vast army was worn out by a decade of continual campaigning. Therefore, he detached the freshest troops, some 20,000 men, put them under the command of one of his ablest commanders, General Chepe (fl. early 13th century), then dispatched these forces to Kara-Khitai.

Outnumbered, Chepe understood that he had to employ what military tacticians call a "force multiplier," a means to compensate for his relatively small numbers. He therefore incited a rebellion among the Tatars. Once this was under way and the country thrown into chaos, Chepe attacked and defeated Kushluk's forces west of Kashgar. The treacherous usurper was captured and summarily executed, whereupon Genghis Khan annexed Kara-Khitai.

See also Genghis Khan's First War with the Xi Xia Empire; Genghis Khan's Second War with the Xi Xia Empire; Genghis Khan's War with the Jin Empire; Mongol Invasion of Russia, First; Mongol-Persian War, First.

Further reading: Paul Ratchnevsky, *Genghis Khan: His Life and Legacy* (London: Blackwell Publishers, 1991); J. J. Saunders, *The History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Genghis Khan's First War with the Xi Xia Empire (1205–1209)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Xia Tanguts
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Xia empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Genghis (Chinggis) Khan sought suzerainty over the Xi Xia (Hsi Hsia) Empire, in part to control Chinese-Western trade routes and in part as a base from which to continue westward conquest.
OUTCOME: The Mongols waged a successful war of attrition against the Xi Xia, compelling them to accept Mongol suzerainty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No surviving documents

Genghis Khan (c. 1162–1227) saw conquest of the Xi Xia, or Western Xia—a Chinese empire south of the Gobi Desert and west of Cathay, the empire of the Jin—as a means of controlling and profiting from the great caravan routes between China and the West. Although the Xi Xia were ruled by the Tanguts, a warrior people, the empire was poorly organized, weak, and ripe for conquest. Genghis Khan conducted the war as a series of massed, highly disciplined raids throughout the countryside dur-

ing 1205, 1207, and 1209. No great cities were attacked, but the Xi Xia were so thoroughly worn down by three terrible raids that they sued for peace after the third, in 1209, and accepted Mongol dominion over them.

Far from being the brutal and rapacious conqueror popular history frequently portrays, Genghis Khan combined diplomacy and what today would be termed "nation building" with military conquest. He was eager to come to terms with the Xi Xia, to acquire control of the empire, but to allow the people to live their lives and, indeed, to live them better than they had under the Jin. From this conquest, Genghis Khan was in an excellent position to press Mongol expansion westward.

See also GENGHIS KHAN'S CONQUEST OF KARA-KHITAI; GENGHIS KHAN'S SECOND WAR WITH THE XI XIA EMPIRE; GENGHIS KHAN'S WAR WITH THE JIN EMPIRE; MONGOL INVASION OF RUSSIA, FIRST; MONGOL-PERSIAN WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: Paul Ratchnevsky, *Genghis Khan: His Life and Legacy* (London: Blackwell Publishers, 1991); J. J. Saunders, *The History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Genghis Khan's Second War with the Xi Xia Empire (1226–1227)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Tanguts of Xi Xia (Hsi Hsia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Xi Xia and Ning-Xia, imperial capital
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Genghis Khan sought vengeance against his rebellious vassal.
OUTCOME: Ning-Xia was destroyed and Tangut hegemony in Xi Xia ended.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mongols 180,000; Xia Tanguts, 300,000+
CASUALTIES: Xia Tanguts, 300,000 killed; Mongol casualties unknown
TREATIES: None

The Mongols' second war against the Xi Xia, or Western Xia Empire, came about when the Tangut vassal ruling that realm decided to assert autonomy by refusing to render to Genghis Khan (c. 1162–1227) the service appropriate from a vassal (*see* GENGHIS KAN'S FIRST WAR WITH THE XI XIA EMPIRE). Preparatory to launching his war against Persia (*see* MONGOL-PERSIAN WAR, FIRST), Genghis Khan called upon the Xi Xia for troops. Not only did the Tangut ruler of Xi Xia refuse to deliver the troops, he replied contemptuously that if Genghis Khan lacked sufficient numbers for conquest, he no longer had the right to rule.

In response to this act of rebellion, Genghis Khan invaded the Xia late in 1226, when the rivers were frozen, allowing for rapid passage of the Mongol army. Some 180,000 Mongols met 300,000 Xi Xias on a frozen battlefield: the Yellow River. From the beginning, Genghis Khan was in control of the battle. He enticed the Xia Tangut to advance onto the river, then attacked the Xia Tangut cavalry with dismounted archers. This threw the Xia Tangut into a confused panic, which the Mongols exploited in a series of charges. Simultaneously, Genghis Khan's infantry seized the initiative by attacking the Xia Tangut infantry still waiting on the far bank of the Yellow River. The Mongol victors reported virtually 100 percent casualties among the Tangut Xias, perhaps 300,000 killed.

Following the victory at Yellow River, the Mongols attacked Ning-Xia, capital of the Xi Xia empire. During the siege, Genghis Khan dispatched raiding units to lay waste to the surrounding countryside, However, Genghis Khan died before Ning-Xia fell. His commanders continued the war and took the capital. They put the entire population of the city to death and killed the rebellious Tangut emperor. With the destruction of Ning-Xia, Tangut rule over the empire ended forever.

See also GENGHIS KHAN'S CONQUEST OF KARA-KHITAI; GENGHIS KHAN'S WAR WITH THE JIN EMPIRE; MONGOL INVASION OF RUSSIA, FIRST.

Further reading: Paul Ratchnevsky, *Genghis Khan: His Life and Legacy* (London: Blackwell Publishers, 1991); J. J. Saunders, *The History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Genghis Khan's Unification of Mongolia (1190–1206)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Genghis Khan vs. rival warlords of Mongolia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mongolia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Consolidation of empire
OUTCOME: Genghis Khan consolidated fractious Mongol tribes into a large and remarkably homogeneous empire, which, in turn, served as the core of a much larger empire of conquest and diplomacy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Presumably no formal treaties

Temujin (c. 1162–1227), who would become known to history as Genghis Khan—Supreme Emperor—combined military conquest with brilliant diplomacy to bring together the disparate tribes of Mongolia into a large east-central Asian empire. By 1206, he had established the core of an empire that would become far vaster, all cen-

tered on the capital he created at Karakorum. From this nucleus, he would expand into China, India, Russia, and Europe.

See also GENGHIS KHAN'S FIRST WAR WITH THE HSIA EMPIRE; GENGHIS KHAN'S CONQUEST OF KARA-KHITAI; GENGHIS KHAN'S SECOND WAR WITH THE XI XIA EMPIRE; GENGHIS KHAN'S WAR WITH THE JIN EMPIRE; MONGOL INVASION OF RUSSIA, FIRST; MONGOL-PERSIAN WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: Paul Ratchnevsky, *Genghis Khan: His Life and Legacy* (London: Blackwell Publishers, 1991); J. J. Saunders, *The History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Genghis Khan's War with the Jin Empire (1211–1215)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Genghis Khan vs. the Jin (Chin) Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Genghis Khan compelled the Jin emperor to yield to the suzerainty of the Mongols.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Concession of the Jin emperor, 1215

For two years, during 1211 and 1212, Genghis Khan (c. 1162–1227) attacked the cities of northern China in vain. His forces were repeatedly frustrated by the well-developed fortifications of the Chinese cities, and the Mongols, accustomed to conducting warfare on the run, using lightning raids, had never developed siegecraft. Genghis Khan recognized the need to develop a siege train, and he did so, returning in 1213. His forces penetrated as far as the Great Wall by the end of the year.

From 1213 on, Genghis Khan led his armies deeper into Jin lands, defeating the Jin in the central region of their own territory, between the Great Wall and the Yellow River. Taking one city after the other, Genghis Khan laid siege to Beijing, which fell to him in 1215. He sacked the Jin capital, forcing the Jin emperor to acknowledge Mongol suzerainty over his realm.

In a procedure typical of Genghis Khan, the conqueror co-opted local authority by offering key leaders positions of power rather than simply eliminating them. In this case, Yeh-lu Chu'u-ta'ai (fl. 1215), a Khitan in the service of the Jin, became one of the Khan's most important administrators. As Genghis Khan had recognized the need to adapt by developing siegecraft, so now he saw that the Khitan official had expertise in administering sedentary populations, a skill the Mongols lacked.

See also GENGHIS KHAN'S CONQUEST OF KARA-KHITAI; GENGHIS KHAN'S FIRST WAR WITH THE XI XIA EMPIRE; GENGHIS KHAN'S SECOND WAR WITH THE XI XIA EMPIRE; MONGOL INVASION OF RUSSIA, FIRST; MONGOL-PERSIAN WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: Paul Ratchnevsky, *Genghis Khan: His Life and Legacy* (London: Blackwell Publishers, 1991); J. J. Saunders, *The History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

German Civil Wars (938–941)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Otto I vs. his half brother Thankmur; Otto I vs. French-backed German nobles
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Germany
OUTCOME: Otto increased his central authority over Germany.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Carolingian Empire fell into decline immediately following the death of Charlemagne (742–814) and the ascension to power of his son, Louis I the Pious (768–840). A bad ruler and an even worse soldier, Louis faced increasingly bold Viking raiders just as his sons, squabbling over their inheritances, launched a civil war. For almost 50 years something approaching anarchy ruled Carolingian Europe as a result of this combination—continuous dynastic civil wars laced with frequent Viking raids. As the central authority of the Carolingian Empire fell into decline, the power of the nobility increased. In Germany more so than in France (where rulers would remain nominally Carolingian for another century), the nobles' growing power meant that old tribal organizations suddenly became independent duchies. And it opened the door to Europe for Muslim raiders from North Africa (*see* MAGYAR RAIDS IN FRANCE; MAGYAR RAIDS IN THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE; MAGYAR RAID INTO EUROPE, FIRST).

Central authority continued to decline in Germany until it was revived by the coming to power of a talented soldier, diplomat, and administrator named Henry the Fowler (r. 919–936) (Henry I). It was his son, Otto I the Great (912–973) who would decisively defeat the Muslims at the battle of Lechfield (*see* MAGYAR RAID, GREAT) and, in effect, create a new Holy Roman Empire. But before he faced the Magyars, Otto was forced to put down two rebellions in the early years of his reign.

The first was led by his half brother, Thankmur (fl. 10th century), and lasted less than a year during 938–939.

The second was more serious and lasted longer, from 939 to 941. A group of German nobles, led by Otto's younger brother Henry (fl. 10th century), launched a civil war once they had secured the backing of France's Louis IV (920–954). Otto won major victories in the 940 battle of Xanten and at the battle of Andernach in 941. These triumphs brought Lorraine under German control and enhanced Otto's power. Despite Henry's thwarted plot to murder his brother, Otto forgave him, although he severely punished his rebellious coconspirators. Henry remained loyal ever afterward and, in 947, Otto made him duke of Bavaria. Otto likewise bestowed the other German dukedoms on his relatives.

Secure at home, Otto invaded France the next year seeking revenge against Louis for supporting the German rebels. Louis quickly made peace and Otto withdrew.

Further reading: Geoffrey Barraclough, *The Origins of Modern Germany,* 3rd ed. (Oxford, England: B. Blackwell, 1988); Patrick J. Geary, *Before France and Germany; The Creation and Transformation of the Merovingian World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1988).

German Civil War (1077–1106)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Henry IV of Germany vs. Pope Gregory VII; the Welf (Guelf) party vs. the Waiblingen; Henry IV vs. his son, Henry V
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany and Italy (primarily Rome)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Henry IV wanted absolute rule of Germany and desired to become Holy Roman Emperor; the papacy resisted his acquiring so much power.
OUTCOME: Although Henry IV ultimately prevailed, his death in 1106 put his rebellious son, Henry V, on the German throne; in contrast to his father, Henry V sought reconciliation with the papacy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No controlling treaties were concluded

The always fractious German states erupted into civil war in 1077. Henry IV (1050–1106) became German king in 1056, when he was only six years old. During his minority, Germany was ruled by regents, who elevated the episcopacy to great power. After attaining his majority, Henry, in 1065, attempted to regain control of the government by choosing bishops who would answer directly to him. In response to Henry's bid for power, Pope Gregory VII (c. 1020–1085) objected to Henry's advocacy of lay investiture of bishops and also to Henry's demand that he be made the Holy Roman Emperor. For years, hostility increased between Henry and the papacy, until, in 1076, Henry convened a synod, which, at his bidding, proclaimed the deposition of Pope Gregory VII. Predictably, the pope responded by deposing the clergy of the synod and by excommunicating Henry IV. As part of the excommunication, the pope forbade Henry from exercising rule over his government.

The papal action moved Henry's nobles to the verge of rebellion against their king. In an ultimatum issued on February 22, 1077, they demanded that Henry secure papal absolution or they would abandon him. Immediately, Henry set out for the Diet at Augsburg. En route, he humbled himself before Gregory's representatives and thereby gained absolution. This, however, proved insufficient to move the Diet to reconsider its intention to reverse Henry's election. The Augsburg Diet deposed Henry IV and elected an antiking, their rival nominee for the throne.

The action of the Diet touched off a long civil war. The Welf party (known in Italy as the Guelfs) obtained papal support against Henry, whereas a majority of the German nobility honored their pledge to support Henry. These supporters formed a rival to the Welfs, the Waiblingen, named for a castle owned by Henry's family, the Hohenstaufens. (In Italy, the Waiblingen were known as the Ghibellines.)

In 1080, a council of the Waiblingen held at Brixton reaffirmed the original action of the synod that had deposed Pope Gregory VII and deposed him yet again. The council proclaimed an antipope, Guibert of Ravenna (1025–1100), who was called Clement III. Later that year, Henry IV led an army against the Welfs, but was defeated in his first engagement at the Battle of Thuringia. Strangely enough, this military defeat was negated by the death of the antiking and his replacement by a political unknown, whose presence actually diminished Welf power. Despite the military defeat, most Germans now believed that the death of the antiking was a sign of God's having elected Henry. Thus fortified by increased popular support, Henry was emboldened to expand the German civil war into an assault on Rome after Gregory defiantly demanded the new antiking's fealty.

After a long and costly struggle, Henry's army marched into Rome and occupied the city in 1084. Henry forcibly replaced Gregory with the antipope, Clement III, who, in turn, crowned Henry Holy Roman Emperor. No sooner was this done, however, than Pope Gregory's Norman adherents, under the leadership of Robert Guiscard (c. 1015–85), attacked the occupiers of Rome and drove them out. Rome, however, was then subject to the ravages of Robert's army, which sacked the city for three days after ejecting the forces of Henry. The sack of Rome turned Romans against Pope Gregory, who was forced into exile in Salerno. He died in 1085.

Thus, although he had again suffered a military defeat, Henry IV emerged triumphant. He returned to Germany, subdued another rival for the throne during 1086–87, returned to attack Rome in 1090–92, then found himself beset by his own sons. Backed by the successors of Pope Gregory, Henry's sons fought their father from 1092 to 1106. Henry IV was imprisoned by his son Henry (later Henry V, 1080–1125), who forced him to abdicate in 1105. The son now set about reconciling with the papacy, but Henry IV escaped from captivity, recruited a strong army, and defeated the forces of Henry V just outside of Visé, in modern Belgium. Having achieved military victory against a rival, Henry IV succumbed to illness and died, at Liège, in 1106. Thus Henry V assumed the German throne, and the civil war ended.

See also GERMAN CIVIL WARS (938–941); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1197–1214); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1314–1325); and GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1400–1411).

Further reading: Geoffrey Barraclough, *The Crucible of Europe: The Ninth and Tenth Centuries in European History* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1976) and *The Origins of Modern Germany,* 3rd ed. (Oxford, England: Blackwell, 1988); R. I. Moore, *The First European Revolution, c. 970–1215* (London: Blackwell, 2000).

German Civil War (1197–1214)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Philip of Swabia (with aid from France) vs. Otto of Brunswick (with aid from England; later, Frederick (with papal support) vs. Otto of Brunswick; France vs. England (with aid from the Low Countries)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the German throne and the imperial throne
OUTCOME: Frederick II was ultimately crowned, and Germany was more or less aligned with the pope; however, the long civil war had devastated the land.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Bouvines, Philip II Augustus fielded 36,000 troops; Otto fielded 71,000.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

A conflict over the succession to the German and imperial throne following the death of Holy Roman Emperor Henry VI (1165–97) touched off a full-scale civil war with much outside involvement. The emperor-elect, Frederick II (1194–1250), was an infant. An additional contender, Philip of Swabia (c. 1176–1208), Henry's brother, was a member of the Waiblingen party (in Italy, known as the Ghibellines), whereas a third, Otto of Brunswick (c. 1175–1218), was a member of the rival Welfs (Italian, Guelfs). The Waiblingen was the nationalist party, and the Welfs constituted the papal party; their cause was sponsored behind the scenes by the new pope, Innocent III (1160 or 1161–1216).

Young Frederick was crowned nothing more than king of Sicily while the forces of Philip and Otto battled it out in a war that ravaged Germany. In 1198, Philip managed to be crowned with the support of the southern Germans and the French. However, Otto contested the coronation and found allies among the archbishop of Cologne, the northern Germans, and the English.

To obtain the support of Pope Innocent III, in 1201 Otto pledged to the papacy Italian lands under his control. This prompted the archbishop of Cologne to crown Philip at Aachen in 1205. Thus legitimated, Philip mounted a major offensive against Otto in 1206 and defeated him, thereby gaining Innocent's recognition—in exchange for certain concessions. Three years later, however, Philip was assassinated, and Otto regained ascendancy. After buying off the German church by relinquishing royal control over it, Otto invaded Italy and forced the pope to crown him Holy Roman Emperor Otto IV in 1209. This accomplished, Otto instantly reneged on his agreement with the German church and invaded Sicily. The pope responded by stirring up a new rebellion against Otto and crowning King Frederick II of Germany.

On July 27, 1214, King Philip II (1165–1223) (Philip Augustus) of France led his forces against those of Otto, his Flemish allies, and an army led by King John I ("Lackland"; 1199–1216) of England at the Battle of Bouvines. The main forces were those of Philip II Augustus—some 36,000 troops—and Otto of Brunswick, who fielded 71,000. Despite this disparity in numbers, Philip brilliantly outgeneraled Otto. Otto attempted to cut Philip's lines of communication and supply. Philip responded by feigning panic, which enticed Otto to make a premature attack on ground favorable to the French cavalry. Although the first French assault was repulsed by Flemish and German pikemen, Philip directed his knights against the very center of Otto's army. While Philip smashed through here, his right flank drove off repeated German attacks. Now it was Otto's turn to panic—in earnest. He fled the field, whereupon Philip turned his attention to the right flank of Otto's remaining forces, which included a small English contingent under John I. These warriors performed heroically, but were overwhelmed.

The French victory broke up the coalition among Otto, the Low Countries, and, most important, England. For King John, one consequence of this defeat was discredit among the English barons, who forced him as a result to sign the Magna Carta in 1215 (*see* ENGLISH CIVIL WAR [1215–1217]). As for Frederick II, he was crowned anew in Aachen in 1215, then reinstated the

Speyer concessions—the commitments to the church that Otto had reneged on—and embraced the papacy.

Frederick's ascension hardly brought peace and stability to Germany. The war fragmented an already fractious land, and a more or less permanent state of civil insurrection followed.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1213–1214); GERMAN CIVIL WARS (938–941); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1077–1106); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1314–1325); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1400–1411).

Further reading: Geoffrey Barraclough, *The Origins of Modern Germany,* 3rd ed. (Oxford, England: Blackwell, 1988); R. I. Moore, *The First European Revolution, c. 970–1215* (London: Blackwell, 2000).

German Civil War (1314–1325)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Duke Frederick III of Austria vs. Duke Louis IV of Bavaria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany and Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the German and imperial thrones
OUTCOME: Louis IV was crowned (though he shared the throne with Frederick III), but at the expense of alienating the papacy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Under Holy Roman Emperor Henry VII (c. 1275–1313), the various princes of Germany, along with local church authorities, gained much power at the expense of the Holy Roman Empire and the papacy. Thus, many German princes felt entitled to even more when Henry died in 1313, and conflict developed over Henry's successor. Most of the princes supported the Hapsburg candidate, Duke Frederick III ("the Handsome") (1286–1330) of Austria. A significant minority favored the Wittelsbach candidate, Duke Louis IV of Bavaria (c. 1287–1347). In 1314, their respective supporters elected both men king of Germany, a fact that triggered a new civil war as both assumed the title of Holy Roman Emperor. Complicating matters was the fact that the papacy was vacant at the time, so that no supreme authority was available to adjudicate the election. Thus war seemed the only alternative.

After years of indecisive combat, in 1322 Louis IV achieved a decisive victory at the Battle of Mühldorf on the Inn River, some 45 miles east of Munich. Frederick was captured in the battle and imprisoned. Under duress, he acknowledged Louis as the rightful Holy Roman Emperor. The war quickly wound down, and by 1325 it was over—yet the underlying issues were not fully resolved. Pope John XXII (d. 1334) vehemently opposed Louis and refused to acknowledge his right to rule. In response, Louis denied a need for papal sanction and relied instead on the approval of the electors and the people. In 1327–28, he led an invasion of Rome. He captured the city and installed Nicholas V (d. 1333) as antipope. John XXII fled to Avignon, which became the new seat of the papacy. Louis had to content himself with a lay coronation as Holy Roman Emperor and joint rule with Frederick, who became Frederick III. As for the antipope, his reign was brief. Excommunicated by John in 1329, he renounced his claim to the papacy the following year.

See also GERMAN CIVIL WARS (938–941); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1077–1106); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1197–1214); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1400–1411).

Further reading: F. R. H. Du Boulay, *Germany in the Later Middle Ages* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1983); Friedrich Heer, *Holy Roman Empire,* trans. Janet Sondheimer (New York: Sterling, 2002); Joachim Leuschner, *Germany in the Late Middle Ages,* trans. Sabine MacCormack (New York: North-Holland Publishing, 1980).

German Civil War (1400–1411)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: King Wenceslaus IV vs. the German electors Rupert III, Sigismund, and Jobst
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Retention of the German throne and the imperial throne
OUTCOME: The conflict was a low-level civil war; an all-out war was averted by a scheme to mollify Wenceslaus and his supporters while allowing the electors their choice as German king and Holy Roman Emperor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown; no formal armies involved
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Wenceslaus (1361–1419), son of the Holy Roman Emperor Charles IV (1316–78), was king of Bohemia and Germany as well as Holy Roman Emperor. Although he was an earnest lover of peace, who willingly convened frequent diets in Germany from 1378 to 1389 to please and placate the always fractious German nobles, he was a weak and generally incompetent ruler, given to bouts of drunkenness. Worse, he spent most of his time in Prague, neglecting his German realm, and his absence prompted the nobles to demand that Wenceslaus appoint a *Reichsverweser* (imperial governor) for Germany. This the king stubbornly refused to do.

In the absence of effective rule, wars between town leagues and princes brought anarchy over Germany, and in August 1400, after Wenceslaus declined to attend one of many meetings demanded by the nobles, the princes deposed him and elected Rupert III (1352–1410), the elector of the Palatine, as the new Holy Roman Emperor. On the face of it, this was a wise and necessary step, but Wenceslaus, for all his incompetence, was popular with the German people. Nor did Wenceslaus leave quietly, but insisted on his right to retain the throne.

For the next decade, a low-level civil conflict simmered, continually threatening to erupt into a full-scale civil war. Only the death of Rupert in 1410 averted a major conflict, and Wenceslaus offered himself as candidate for emperor. The electors, however, refused to elect him and instead elevated Jobst (1351–1411), margrave of Moravia. But Jobst died in 1411, again clearing the way for Wenceslaus to stand for election. This time, Wenceslaus's brother, Sigismund (1368–1437), king of Hungary, maneuvered to allow Wenceslaus to retain the title of king of Germany and to receive a royal pension while he, Sigismund, became the actual German ruler and Holy Roman Emperor. Thus Wenceslaus and the people were placated, and a major civil war was avoided. Nevertheless, the low-level conflict that had ensued drained the German treasury and created a troubled reign for Sigismund.

See also GERMAN CIVIL WARS (938–941); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1077–1106); German CIVIL WAR (1197–1214); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1314–1325).

Further reading: Henry J. Cohn, *The Government of the Rhine Palatine in the Fifteenth Century* (London: Oxford University Press, 1978); Friedrich Heer, *Holy Roman Empire,* trans. Janet Sondheimer (New York: Sterling, 2002).

German East Africa Insurrection

See MAJI MAJI UPRISING.

Germanic Revolts of 1–5 C.E.

See ROMAN NORTHERN FRONTIER WARS.

German Peasants' War

See PEASANTS' WAR.

German Revolution (1848)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: German nationalists vs. Prussia's King Frederick William IV
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Berlin and southwest Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: German liberals agitated for a constitutional monarchy ruling over a united Germany.
OUTCOME: Liberal reforms were short-lived, and the German nationalist movement collapsed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Citizen movement, numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but mostly light; the only serious casualties were in Berlin, during April 1848.
TREATIES: None

The year 1848 saw revolutions—most short-lived—in France, Italy, Hungary, and Bohemia, as well as Germany. All shared a common theme—a desire for liberal reform—except for the German revolution, which had more to do with creating a unified nation than with liberalizing existing government.

Like the other European revolutions, that in Germany was inspired by the FRENCH REVOLUTION (1848). It began as public demonstrations in favor of the establishment of a German national parliament. The demonstrations had an effect. In Baden, for example, liberal reform was introduced into government. The Hanseatic states transformed themselves into democratic republics during March 1848. Up to this point, the "revolution" was bloodless, but after the repressive Klemens von Metternich (1753–1859) was driven out of Austria during the AUSTRIAN REVOLUTION in March 1848, Berlin suddenly exploded into armed revolt. On March 13, garrison troops, including dragoons and the garde du corps, confronted a street mob, which they dispersed at rifle point. Three days later, as demonstrations continued and intensified, cavalry as well as infantry were called out. Demonstrators hurled stones, and the troops replied with shots, which dispersed the crowd. Still, the demonstrations continued throughout the rest of the week, the crowd hurling stones, the troops replying with gunfire.

At last, on March 18, King Frederick William IV (1795–1861), who had assumed the Prussian throne in 1840, made a series of sweeping concessions, yielding to a call for a German confederation and even agreeing to some constitutional reforms. He stopped just short of accepting rule over a unified Germany as a constitutional monarch.

On May 18, 1848, a National Assembly convened at Frankfurt, but was soon deeply divided over whether Austria was to be part of the newly contemplated German confederation. While the assembly debated, troops forcibly put down the radical agitation of German laborers, and the revolution began to lose steam. By the end of the year, the radicalism that had triggered the revolution had petered out, and the National Assembly drifted steadily to the right. When the assembly offered Frederick William rule over a unified Germany within the confines of a liberal—but hardly democratic—constitution, he rejected the offer as too great an incursion on his royal prerogatives. His counterproposal was a somewhat liberal-

ized, but still conservative plan for continued monarchy. This gave rise to abortive uprisings in the German southwest, which royal troops quickly put down.

By the beginning of 1849, a number of the king's liberal decrees of the previous year had been canceled. Austria once again emerged as a powerful rival to Prussian power and assumed leadership of the old German Confederacy Assembly. In effect, the pre-1848 status quo had been reasserted, and the drive for a democratic and united Germany would have to await the ascendancy of Otto von Bismarck (1815–98) and the FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR two decades later.

Germany's harsh suppression of its 1848 liberal revolutions led millions of Germans to emigrate during the next decade. When Bismarck came to power and introduced universal conscription into his brutal Prussian army, they were joined by young German draft dodgers and those from a number of religious sects whose beliefs forbade military service. For almost 40 years these millions of Germans scattered over Europe, nations adjacent to Europe, and North, Central, and South America. Wherever they went, these German intellectuals, revolutionaries, and true believers brought deeply held new doctrines and often startling new ideas whose unsettling impact was soon felt not merely in their adopted homelands but ultimately around the world.

Further reading: Werner E. Mosse, *The European Powers and the German Question, 1848–71* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1981); Wolfram Siemann, *The German Revolution of 1848–49* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1999); Veit Valentin, *1848: Chapters of Germany History* (Hamden, Conn.: Archon Books, 1965).

German Town War

See "TOWN WAR."

Geronimo Campaign, The

See UNITED STATES–APACHE WAR (1876–1886).

Ghassanid-Lakhmid Wars (c. 500–583)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ghassanids (allied with Byzantium) vs. Lakhmids (allied with Persia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Arabia (modern region of Syria, Jordan, and Israel)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ghassan and the Lakhmids were essentially client states of Byzantium and Persia, respectively, which promoted war between them as a means of gaining power and influence over Arabia.
OUTCOME: Neither dynasty proved enduringly dominant, and both ultimately succumbed to the Muslim conquest of Arabia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Byzantium (the Eastern Empire of Rome) vied with Sassanid Persia for influence and hegemony in Arabia and backed rival dynasties in Arabia. The Byzantines supported the Ghassanids, whereas the Persians backed the Lakhmids, encouraging and perpetuating years of continual warfare between the dynasties.

Concentrated around Al-Syrah in southern Iraq, the Lakhmid kingdom emerged late in the third century and became an increasingly influential Iranian vassal state, approaching the height of its power by the end of the fifth century under King al-Mundhir I (c. 418–462). At the start of the sixth century, King al-Mundhir III (503–554) began raiding Byzantine Syria, particularly the pro-Byzantine Ghassanid Arab kingdom.

The Ghassanids endured much loss at the hands of the Lakhmid raiders until a battle in 528, in which the Ghassanid leader al-Harith ibn Jabalah (r. 529–569) defeated the Lakhmid forces and soon afterward became Ghassanid king. About 550, the Lakhmids returned to the offensive with strong attacks against Ghassan as well as Byzantine Syria, but these ultimately failed.

Byzantium turned against its ally in 583 when orthodox Byzantine leaders responded to the Monophysitic heresy rampant in Ghassan (the belief that Christ's human and divine natures are one rather than two). To suppress the heresy, Byzantium sent troops to seal Ghassan's borders and made Ghassan a vassal. Two decades later, the Lakhmid dynasty effectively came to an end with the death of its last ruler. Persian Christians had opposed his adherence to the Nestorian heresy (the belief that Mary was not the mother of God). What was left of both Ghassan and the Lakhmid dynasties was swept away during the balance of the seventh century by the great Muslim conquest.

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries*. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2003); Mark Whittow, *The Making of Byzantium, 600–1025* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1996).

Ghost Dance Uprising (1890–1891)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Various Sioux factions vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Dakota
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A religiously inspired Indian uprising against white domination

OUTCOME: Rebellion was suppressed, ending four centuries of warfare between whites and Indians in North America.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: For the United States, 5,000 at Pine Ridge Reservation; for the Sioux, 150 warriors, supporters of Sitting Bull, otherwise, totals unknown

CASUALTIES: At Wounded Knee, possibly 300–350 Indians; United States, 25 killed, 39 wounded, most a result of friendly fire

TREATIES: No formal treaty

By the opening of the last decade of the 19th century, the so-called Indian Wars of the American West were by and large concluded. The tribes, hostile, friendly, and indifferent, were confined on nearly 200 reservations, encompassing some 181,000 square miles of land. For the most part, life on these reservations was at best harsh and at worst debilitating and demoralizing. The great Hunkpapa Sioux chief Sitting Bull (1831–90), domiciled with his followers at the Standing Rock Reservation, South Dakota, persistently refused to cooperate with the agent in charge and struggled to maintain the identity of his people.

In the meantime, among the reservation Sioux, a prophet arose. Wovoka (c. 1856–1932) was the son of a Paiute shaman and had spent part of his youth with a white rancher's family, from whom he learned Christian teachings and traditions, which he combined with Native religion. Wovoka began to preach of the coming of a new world in which only Indians dwelled and in which buffalo—virtually exterminated by white hunters and the encroachment of white civilization—were again plentiful. Generations of slain Indians would come back to life in the new world. Wovoka enjoined all Indians to dance the Ghost Dance in order to propitiate the millennium. His was a message born of discontent and desperation, to be sure, but Wovoka did not counsel violence. Quite the opposite, he preached a Christian ethic of peace.

Wovoka's message spread through the western reservations like wildfire, and among the Teton Sioux, his call for nonviolence was suppressed. Wovoka's message became a call to rebellion. Short Bull (c. 1845–1904) and Kicking Bear (c. 1847–1923)—Teton apostles of the Ghost Dance religion—urged a campaign to obliterate the white man, and they even fashioned a "ghost shirt," which, they said, afforded absolute protection against the whites' bullets.

But even in the absence of such bellicose posturings, the Ghost Dance itself was sufficient to alarm white authorities. The agent in charge of the Pine Ridge Reservation frantically telegraphed Washington, D.C., in November 1890: "Indians are dancing in the snow and are wild and crazy. We need protection and we need it now." Accordingly, on November 20, 1890, cavalry and infantry reinforcements arrived at Pine Ridge and at the Rosebud Reservation. This action served only to provoke the Sioux under Short Bull and Kicking Bear, and some 3,000 Indians gathered on a plateau at the northwest corner of Pine Ridge called the Stronghold. Sitting Bull, most venerated of all Sioux leaders, actively embraced the Ghost Dance doctrine at Standing Rock Reservation. James McLaughlin (1842–1923), the agent in charge there, decided to have Sitting Bull quietly arrested and removed from the reservation. To accomplish the arrest, McLaughlin wanted to use the reservation's own Indian policemen.

The skillful but vainglorious army commander in charge of western operations, Nelson A. Miles (1835–1925), thought that the arrest of Sitting Bull, which would signify the end of the Indian Wars once and for all, should not be quiet. Accordingly, Miles contacted the greatest showman the West has ever known: William F. Buffalo "Bill" Cody (1846–1917). Cody and Sitting Bull were, after all, friends, the Indian having formerly starred in Cody's Wild West Show. Cody would persuade Sitting Bull to step down—and, what is more, he would persuade him with a flourish.

McLaughlin, convinced that the publicity that would attend Miles's plan would provoke widespread rebellion, arranged for the commanding officer of nearby Fort Yates to detain Buffalo Bill at a local saloon when the showman arrived at Standing Rock on November 27, 1890, until he could secure orders cancelling Cody's mission. This he narrowly succeeded in doing just as Short Bull and Kicking Bear openly invited Sitting Bull to join them and their people at the Stronghold on the Pine Ridge Reservation.

McLaughlin dispatched 43 reservation policemen on December 15 to arrest Sitting Bull. A scuffle developed, and Sitting Bull was killed.

With many of the reservation Sioux clearly on the verge of violent resistance, General Miles ordered the arrest of another prominent chief, Big Foot (d. 1890) of the Miniconjou Sioux, who were living on the Cheyenne River. The tragic irony is that Big Foot had not only personally renounced the Ghost Dance religion, he was marching to Pine Ridge at the behest of Chief Red Cloud (c. 1822–1909), a Pine Ridge leader friendly to the whites, who had asked him to persuade the Stronghold party to surrender. Miles understood only that Big Foot was headed for the Stronghold, and that, he assumed, could mean only trouble.

Miles sent troops in a wide net across the prairies and badlands to intercept all Miniconjous. On December 28, 1890, a squadron of the Seventh Cavalry located the chief and about 350 Miniconjous near a stream called Wounded Knee Creek. During the night of the 28th, more troops moved into the area, so that by morning 500 soldiers, under Colonel James W. Forsyth, surrounded Big Foot's camp. Four Hotchkiss guns—small pieces of repeating artillery—were trained on the camp from the surrounding hills.

Forsyth's mission was to disarm the Indians and remove them from the "zone of military operations." His soldiers entered the camp and began a rough and provocative search for guns. Soon shots rang out—whether from the Indians or the soldiers is not known—and a full-scale massacre (the army persisted in calling it a battle) ensued. In less than an hour, Big Foot and 153 other Miniconjous are known to have been killed—most of them cut down by deadly fire from the Hotchkiss guns—but so many others staggered, limped, or crawled away that the exact death toll remains unknown. Probably 300 of the 350 who had been camped at Wounded Knee Creek ultimately perished. Most of the Seventh Cavalry's casualties—25 killed and 39 wounded—were the result of "friendly fire."

The Wounded Knee Massacre immediately provoked "hostile" and "friendly" Sioux factions to unite—though Chief Red Cloud continued to protest his people's participation—in a December 30 ambush of the Seventh Cavalry near the Pine Ridge Agency. The unit was rescued by the timely arrival of additional cavalry, and General Miles marshaled 3,500 troops (out of a total force of 5,000) around the outraged Sioux who had assembled 15 miles north of the Pine Ridge Agency along White Clay Creek. Despite the numerical superiority he enjoyed, Miles was wary of provoking further bloodshed. With great forbearance, he slowly closed in around the Indians, urging surrender and promising good treatment. On January 15, 1891, the Sioux at last surrendered, effectively bringing to a conclusion some four centuries of warfare between whites and Indians in North America.

See also UNITED STATES–SIOUX WAR (GREAT SIOUX UPRISING).

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Dee Brown, *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee* (Reprint ed., New York: Henry Holt, 2000); Stephan J. Crum, "Ghost Dance," in *Encyclopedia of American West* vol. 2, edited by Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod (Macmillan Reference USA, 1996); Robert M. Utley, *The Lance and the Shield: The Life and Times of Sitting Bull* (New York: Ballantine, 1994).

Gladiator's Revolt *See* SERVILE WAR, THIRD.

Glencoe Massacre (1692)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: MacDonald clan vs. English troops and the Campbell clan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Glencoe Valley, Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King William III of England moved to exterminate the rebellious MacDonald clan of Scotland.
OUTCOME: Most of the clan was slaughtered; news of the atrocity, however, destroyed the reputation of William III in Scotland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: MacDonalds, number unknown; English, 80 troops
CASUALTIES: 38 MacDonalds were killed; probably an equal number later died of exposure.
TREATIES: None

Like many other English monarchs before him, King William III (1650–1702) was hard pressed to control Scotland. During 1689–90 he faced rebellion among the Highland Jacobites (*see* JACOBITE REBELLION [1689–1690]) and imposed upon the Scottish clan chiefs oaths of allegiance.

One clan leader, Maclain MacDonald (d. 1692) of Glencoe, refused to swear the oath. In response, William ordered the extirpation of the clan and dispatched troops commanded by Captain Robert Campbell (fl. 1692), a relative of Maclain MacDonald. Maclain MacDonald did not resist the troops, but received them hospitably. In the meantime, other royal soldiers sealed all approaches to the valley of Glencoe, and the visiting soldiers, aided by members of the Campbell clan, rivals to the MacDonalds, slaughtered the MacDonalds as they slept. They also burned their houses.

Unfortunately for King William, the slaughter was not total. Thirty-eight MacDonalds were slain, but others escaped, many succumbing to exposure, but some survived to broadcast news of the atrocity throughout Scotland, further hardening much of the country against William and English domination.

See also JACOBITE REBELLION (1715–1716); JACOBITE REBELLION (1745–1746).

Further reading: Bruce Lenman, *The Jacobite Risings in Britain 1689–1746* (Aberdeen: Scottish Cultural Press, 1995); John L. Roberts, *Clan, King, and Covenant: The History of the Highland Clans from the Civil War to the Glencoe Massacre* (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2000).

Glendower's Revolt (1402–1409)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Welsh rebels under Owen Glendower vs. England's King Henry IV
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Wales
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Glendower wanted to evict the English from Wales.
OUTCOME: Despite many early victories and potentially powerful allies, Glendower was ultimately defeated, and the rebellion collapsed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Welsh had long protested and rebelled against onerous English taxation and inept administration. The situation came to a crisis during the tumultuous reign of King Henry IV (1367–1413) when a wealthy and powerful Welsh lord, Owen Glendower (c. 1354–1416), led a successful campaign against Henry's garrisons throughout Wales, driving them out of the country.

Glendower was descended from the princes of Powys and had inherited a number of manor properties in northern Wales. As a youth, he was sent to London to study law, then served in the army of Henry Bolingbroke (1366–1413), who opposed King Richard II (1367–1400). After this adventure, Glendower returned to Wales to discover that oppressive English rule had badly hobbled the Welsh economy and stirred popular resentment.

In September 1400, a year after Bolingbroke usurped the English throne, Glendower engaged in a feud with his neighbor, Reynold, Lord Grey of Ruthin (1362–1440), which rapidly expanded. Proclaimed prince of Wales, Glendower found allies in the English Edmund de Mortimer (1367–1409) in 1402 and the rebellious Percys in 1403. After Glendower captured the castles of Aberystwyth and Harlech in 1404, he won recognition from France's King Charles VI (1368–1422), who, eager for any opportunity to oppose the English, struck an alliance with the Welshman. Charles proved an unreliable ally. The troops he repeatedly promised Glendower never materialized, and, as a result, Glendower's forces suffered defeat after defeat between 1405 through 1409. Aberystwyth and Harlech were soon retaken, and Glendower fled into the remote Welsh mountains, where he died some seven years after the end of the war.

See also NORTHUMBERLAND'S REBELLION; PERCY'S REBELLION.

Further reading: John Davies, *A History of Wales* (New York: Viking Penguin, 1995); R. R. Davies, *Age of Conquest: Wales 1063–1415* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000).

Glorious Revolution (1688)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Supporters of William and Mary vs. James II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Devonshire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At the invitation of a delegation of Parliament, William and Mary came to England to replace James II.
OUTCOME: The revolution—the installation of new monarchs and a profound revision of the role of the English Crown—was wholly successful and entirely peaceful.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: William and Mary were accompanied by a small Dutch force and gathered many more supporters; James II's army deserted him.
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: None

The catalogue of the offenses of England's King James II (1633–1701) is long: his reprisal against MONMOUTH'S REBELLION was disproportionately brutal, as was his attempt to force Catholicism upon the English; his general abridgment of rights, culminating in his proroguing (suspending) Parliament, brought the nation to the verge of civil war. Perhaps most outrageous of all was James's total lack of political consciousness, an understanding that his rash tyrannies would produce a conspiracy to remove him from the throne. But this is precisely what happened. In 1688, seven prominent Whig and Tory leaders invited Mary (1662–94) and her husband, William of Orange (1650–1702), to come from Holland to replace James II on the English throne. The two monarchs landed at Torbay, Devonshire, with a small Dutch army and acquired many additional supporters as they marched to meet the forces of James II at Salisbury. The English king's forces, under John Churchill (later, duke of Marlborough) deserted James, who fled, was intercepted at Kent, but then released and permitted to sail for France—ignominiously making his way across the Channel on a decrepit fishing smack, the only vessel immediately available.

William and Mary immediately assumed leadership of a provisional government while the Convention Parliament debated how power might be legally and permanently transferred to them. In 1689, the Convention Parliament finally ruled that the throne was indeed vacant, that James's flight constituted abdication, and the Parliament further asserted its authority to appoint William and Mary legal sovereigns. It was the first time in English history that the Parliament had appointed a monarch.

The Glorious Revolution had done much more than replace an abusive king with more palatable rulers. The Convention Parliament enacted a "Declaration of Rights" and a "Bill of Rights," which defined anew the relationship between monarch and subjects, and it explicitly barred future Catholic succession to the throne. The parliamentary acts ended the royal prerogative to suspend or abridge the law in any way, thereby subordinating the monarch to the law. The Crown was also explicitly forbidden to levy taxes or maintain a standing army in peacetime without parliamentary consent. Thus William and Mary came to power as England's first monarchs fully answerable to a Parliament and a constitution. Parliament, in effect, became the supreme governing body of England.

See also DUTCH WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: John Childs, *The Army, James II and the Glorious Revolution* (Manchester, England: Manchester University Press, 1980); Eveline Cruickshanks, *The Glorious Revolution* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2000); John Miller, *The Glorious Revolution,* 2nd ed. (New York: Addison-Wesley, 1997).

Gold Coast Uprising *See* Ashanti Uprising.

Golden Horde Dynastic War (1359–1381)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mamak and Urus, successors to Jöchi vs. Tamerlane (Timur) and Toktamish; Mamak vs. Dmitri Donskoi of Muscovy (Russia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Golden Horde (Kipchak Khanate, Mongol territory north and west of the Caspian Sea)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Golden Horde
OUTCOME: Thanks to his alliance with Tamerlane, Toktamish assumed rule over the Golden Horde.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Jöchi (d. 1227), son of the great Mongol ruler Genghis Khan (c. 1162–1227), was given the Mongol territory north and west of the Caspian Sea to rule. This territory and its subjects became the Kipchak Khanate, better known to history as the Golden Horde, because of its celebrated abundance and wealth.

In 1359, the last successor of Jöchi died, and with his death, the Golden Horde became the subject of violent dispute. Mamak and Urus (both fl. 14th century), two non-Mongols, ruled the Golden Horde (the Russian designation for the Ulus Juchi, the western part of the Mongol Empire) jointly for a time, but the conqueror Tamerlane (Timur) (1336–1405) pushed to obtain the throne for his ally and protégé Toktamish (d. 1398). Tamerlane high-handedly proclaimed Toktamish the khan of the Golden Horde in 1377. The proclamation notwithstanding, Mamak retained power, until he was defeated by Dmitri Donskoi (1363–89), prince of Muscovy (modern Russia). Donskoi led his Russian forces in a rebellion against the Mongols, who demanded tribute.

Hoping to exploit Mamak's defeat at the hands of the Russian, Toktamish attacked Mamak twice, but was twice defeated. Mamak died of natural causes, however, in 1380 and was followed, later that same year, by Urus. In this way, despite his military defeats, Toktamish came to rule the Golden Horde. His first act was to return the Golden Horde to the Mongol fold and to launch attacks against Russia. Toktamish triumphed over the Russians and, flushed with victory, turned his back on his benefactor, Tamerlane. This triggered Tamerlane's First War against Toktamish, from 1385 to 1386 and Tamerlane's Second War against Toktamish, from 1391 to 1395.

Further reading: Charles J. Halperin, *Russia and the Golden Horde: The Mongol Impact on Medieval Russian History* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986).

Golden Horde–Il-Khan Civil War (1261–1262)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hülegü, il-Khan (Mongol) ruler of Persia vs. Berke, khan of the Golden Horde (Kipchak Khanate)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western region of the Mongol Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dominance over the two khanates
OUTCOME: The war was inconclusive, and the rival khanates remained bitter foes.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Alliance treaty between Golden Horde and Mamluk Turks, 1262

When Arik-Böke (fl. 1261–62) convened a *kuriltai,* a Great Assembly, in 1260, he provoked the Mongol Civil War as well as the Golden Horde–Il-Khan Civil War. This second conflict broke out between Arik-Böke's brother Hülegü (r. 1256–65), who was the il-Khan (Mongol) ruler of Persia, and Berke, the khan of the Golden Horde, or Kipchak Khanate, the Mongol territory lying north and west of the Caspian Sea.

Hülegü attacked a protégé of Arik-Böke, which provoked Berke (fl. 1261–62), a Muslim enemy of Hülegü, to conclude a treaty with the Mamluk Turks, who were also enemies of the Il-Khan.

In 1262, Hülegü advanced northward and ambushed Berke's army in a devastating surprise attack. However, the tables suddenly turned when, while the troops crossed the frozen Terek River, the ice gave way beneath their feet, drowning much of Hülegü's army. Hülegü retreated with the survivors and quickly looked for a way to stop the war. He did so by marrying a Byzantine princess, thereby forming a powerful alliance with a traditional foe of the Mus-

lims. Although this alliance created a stand-off that stopped the fighting, the khanates of Hülegü and Berke remained bitter, simmering foes.

See also GOLDEN HORDE DYNASTIC WAR.

Further reading: David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); Paul Ratchnevsky, *Genghis Khan: His Life and Legacy,* trans. and ed. Thomas N. Haining (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991).

Gordon's Khartoum Campaign, Charles "Chinese"

See SUDANESE WAR (1881–1885).

Gothic (Italian) War (534–554)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Goths
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Justinian I, emperor of the Eastern Roman (Byzantine) Empire, sought to wrest Italy from the Goths and thereby reunite the Eastern and Western Roman empires.
OUTCOME: Italy briefly came under Justinian's control, but at great cost to the Eastern Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At war's end: Byzantine Empire, 20,000; Goths, 15,000
CASUALTIES: Byzantine numbers unknown; Goth losses at the culminating Battle of Taginae were 6,000 killed out of a force of 15,000.
TREATIES: No document survives

The Ostrogoth king, Theodoric the Great (c. 454–526), conquered Italy by 493, but he failed to establish a strong dynasty. The Gothic rulers who followed him were inept leaders, and, as the Byzantine emperor Justinian I (483–565) saw it, Italy was ripe for conquest. With the taking of Italy, Justinian hoped to reunite the Western Roman and Eastern Roman (Byzantine) empires.

Justinian dispatched an army under his leading general, Belisarius (c. 505–565), to command an expedition to retake Italy from the Goths. From Constantinople, Belisarius's forces landed at Sicily, invaded it, then used it as a jumping-off point to the southern Italian mainland. By 536, Belisarius had taken Naples as well as Rome. At Rome, the Goths counterattacked with a year-long siege during 537–538, but the disciplined and resourceful Byzantine invaders withstood it until the Goths were force to lift the siege and depart.

Belisarius continued his northward march up the Italian Peninsula, but he soon faced the chief problems of even highly successful invaders: supply and reinforcement. His often hungry troops were vulnerable to repeated hit-and-run attacks by the Goths. Nevertheless, Belisarius scored a major victory at Ravenna in 539, capturing the Gothic king Vitiges, who was sent to Constantinople as a prisoner. Leaderless, the Gothic resistance collapsed, and, in 541, Belisarius heeded Justinian's order to return to Constantinople. For his part, Justinian was persuaded that Italy had been safely secured for the Byzantine Empire, and he did not want Belisarius and an army to remain in the region for fear that Belisarius would proclaim himself emperor of the West.

Yet no sooner had Belisarius withdrawn from Italy than the Goths mobilized under a new ruler, Totila (Baduila) (d. 552). Totila led Gothic forces in the reconquest of the cities and strongholds yielded to the Byzantines. Belisarius was dispatched to Italy again and led a series of five campaigns against the Goths, but without the success he had earlier enjoyed. Although he briefly retook Rome, it quickly fell again to the Goths. Justinian recalled Belisarius, and all of Italy, including even Sicily, was again in Goth hands.

In 552, Justinian sent Narses (c. 478–c. 573), an aged eunuch general, to lead a combined sea and land assault on Italy from the north via the Adriatic. The expedition marched across the Apennine range and, in July, engaged the Goths at the Battle of Taginae, an Apennine mountain village. Narses's archers proved his most destructive arm, and the general used them in superb coordination with his pikemen—the first time the bow and pike had been used effectively together.

From Taginae, Narses marched down the Italian Peninsula, methodically retaking the Goth strongholds. By the end of 552, Rome was again liberated from the Goths, and during 553, Justinian could again claim control of Italy. Constantinople did not retain that control for long.

See also JUSTINIAN'S SECOND PERSIAN WAR.

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,* 7 vols., ed. by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Peter Heather, *The Goths* (London: Blackwell, 1996); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2003).

Gothic-Roman Wars

See ROMAN-GOTHIC WAR, FIRST; ROMAN-GOTHIC WAR, SECOND; ROMAN-GOTHIC WAR, THIRD; ROMAN-GOTHIC WAR, FOURTH; ROMAN-GOTHIC WAR, FIFTH.

Gothic-Sarmatian War (332–334)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sarmatians and Byzantine Empire vs. Goths and allied Germanic tribes; subsequently, Sarmatians vs. Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dacia (approximately modern Romania)
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Sarmatians secured the aid of the Byzantine Empire in resisting invasion by the Goths and their allies; when the Sarmatians betrayed the Byzantine alliance, the Byzantines withdrew aid and encouraged the Goths' conquest.
OUTCOME: The Sarmatians were destroyed as a people; some 300,000 were permitted to resettle within the Eastern Roman Empire; the Goths became *foederati* of the Byzantine Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

Goths and other Germanic "barbarian" tribes made frequent incursions into the territory of the Sarmatians, a people living in Dacia (approximately the region of modern Romania). The Sarmatians shared with the Scythians, a closely related people, a heritage of horsemanship and skill at arms. By the fifth century B.C.E., they had also proved themselves superb administrators, coming to control—and to govern well—all the lands between the Ural Mountains and the Don River. By the fourth century B.C.E., they crossed the Don and conquered the Scythians, and during the first century C.E., the Sarmatians became a powerful threat to the Roman Empire.

Although closely allied with several Germanic tribes, the Sarmatians were themselves overwhelmed by the Goths during the third century C.E., and their territory was reduced to Dacia (Romania) and the lower Danube region. Even so contracted, the Sarmatians were continually harassed and menaced by the Goths and therefore reluctantly requested military aid from Constantine I the Great (c. 285–337), emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire (Byzantium). Constantine dispatched an army under the command of his son. Operating in concert with the Sarmatians, the force attacked the Goths and Gothic allies during 332–33. In the midst of this action, however, the Sarmatians turned against their Byzantine allies by making forays against the Roman Empire. Outraged by the betrayal, Constantine threw his support behind the Goths. He urged them to act even more aggressively against the Sarmatians, as he withdrew Roman aid. Without this aid, the Sarmatians were instantly overwhelmed by the Gothic hordes.

In a curious act of magnanimity, Constantine permitted some 300,000 Sarmatian refugees to resettle within the Eastern Roman Empire. As for the Goths, they responded to the Christianizing efforts of the Byzantine bishop Ulfilas, and embraced membership in the Byzantine federation. In exchange for their good behavior, the Goths received Byzantine subsidies.

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,* 7 vols., ed. by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Peter Heather, *The Goths* (London: Blackwell, 1996); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2003).

Granada, Siege of (1491–1492)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Christian Castile vs. Muslim Granada
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Granada (the capital city of the Muslim kingdom of Granada)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Christian Castile sought to complete its conquest of Muslim Granada.
OUTCOME: Granada, the last stronghold of Muslim Spain, fell.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The siege of Granada may be seen as a phase of the SPANISH CHRISTIAN-MUSLIM WAR (1481–1492). As a result of that conflict, most of Moorish Granada, in southern Spain, had by 1491 fallen to an invasion of Christian Castilians. The capital city of Granada, however, held out against the invaders, refusing to yield to the suzerainty of King Ferdinand V (1452–1516) and Queen Isabella I (1451–1504) of Castile and Aragon. About to fall under siege, the Muslims of Granada appealed to Sultan Muhammad XI (d. 1538), known as Boabdil, to come to their aid.

In 1483, Boabdil had marched against the Castilians, but was captured in battle. To ransom himself, he signed the Pact of Córdoba, by which he pledged to deliver into Castilian hands the portion of his holdings that were under the control of Abd al-Zaghall (fl. late 15th century) in return for Castilian aid in recovering a part of his territory that had been lost by his father. Thus Boabdil was able to reoccupy the Alhambra.

Boabdil's concession did not satisfy the Castilian appetite for conquest, and when, early in 1491, the Spanish invaded al-Zaghall's remaining holdings in eastern Granada and the district of Almería, Boabdil abrogated the Pact of Córdoba and came to al-Zaghall's aid. However, al-Zaghall soon surrendered to the Castilians and accepted a kind of voluntary exile, leaving Boabdil holding only the town of Granada.

In April 1491, Castilian forces laid siege to Granada, which now contained not only the original defenders, but Boabdil's army as well. In the process of investing Granada, the Castilians established Santa Fe, a western outpost that severed Granada's communication with the outside world. From within the besieged city, numerous sorties were launched, each repulsed by Christian forces. With the situation clearly hopeless, Boabdil sued for peace. After brief negotiations, he surrendered on Jan-

uary 2, 1492. The day before, the magnificent Alhambra, palace of the Moorish rulers of Granada, had fallen to Castile.

Ferdinand and Isabella rode into Granada on January 6, 1492. They administered their conquest with great liberality, granting the Granadans freedom of worship and a significant measure of self-government. They also allowed Moors who wished to migrate to North Africa to do so freely and in safety. However, the significance of the conquest of Granada was great. Muslim rule had ended in Spain, and a triumphant Spain was ready to explore and conquer a new world.

Further reading: David Coleman, *Creating Christian Granada: Society and Religious Culture in an Old-World Frontier City, 1492–1600* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 2003); John Edwards, *Spain of the Catholic Monarchs, 1474–1520* (London: Blackwell, 2001).

Grand Alliance, War of the (Nine Years' War, War of the League of Augsburg) (1688–1697)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. England, the Dutch Republic (United Provinces), Spain, the Spanish Netherlands, Austria, the Holy Roman Empire, the Bishopric of Liège, Brandenburg-Prussia, Württemberg, Savoy-Piedmont, Bavaria, the Palatinate, Electorate of Cologne, Denmark; England vs. Ireland and Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Spanish Netherlands, northeastern France, Duchy of Luxembourg, Bishopric of Liège, the Moselle valley, the Rhineland, Savoy-Piedmont, Dauphiné, Catalonia, Ireland
DECLARATION: Alliance declares war on France, 1689
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: (1) The formation of an anti-French coalition aimed at restoring Europe to the frontiers agreed at the Peace of Westphalia in 1648 and the Peace of Nijmegen in 1678. (2) Savoy-Piedmont's need to free herself from French and Hapsburg/Spanish domination by regaining Pinerolo and Casale. (3) William of Orange's quest for international, particularly French, recognition of his entitlement to the throne of England.
OUTCOME: (1) France retained Strasbourg and Alsace but surrendered other territories gained since 1678. The Dutch were allowed to garrison selected fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands as a "barrier" against French aggression. (2) Savoy-Piedmont secured Pinerolo and neutralized Casale. (3) Louis XIV recognized William III as king of England.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The military establishments of most participants reached their peak between 1693 and 1695. France: 300,000; England: 100,000; Dutch Republic: 130,000; Savoy-Piedmont: 20,000; Austria and Holy Roman Empire: 100,000; Spain: 40,000; Brandenburg-Prussia: 40,000; Denmark: 32,000
CASUALTIES: France: c. 200,000; Austria/Imperial forces: c. 120,000; Spain, Savoy, England, and the Dutch Republic: c. 250,000. The principal killer of both civilians and soldiers was disease, usually spread by the presence and movement of armies.
TREATIES: Treaty of Limerick (October 13, 1691); Treaty of Turin (June 29–July 5, 1696); Truce of Vigevano (October 7, 1696); Peace of Rijswijk (Ryswick) (September 20–October 30, 1696)

This conflict enjoys seven names, each indicative of a particular historical perspective: the War of the GRAND ALLIANCE, the War of the League of Augsburg, KING WILLIAM'S WAR, the War of the English Succession, the First World War, the Palatine War, and the Nine Years' War. The latter nomenclature is neutral and thus the most satisfactory.

It was contemporary with the AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1683–1699). Only the Holy Roman Emperor and some German states—Austria, Bavaria, Saxony—were actively involved in both.

CAUSES

Louis XIV (1638–1715) of France emerged from the Third DUTCH WAR (1672–78) as the most powerful monarch in western Europe. He immediately consolidated and extended his gains seeking defensible frontiers in the Spanish Netherlands, Alsace, and the Rhineland. Between 1678 and 1688, a decade of "peace," the French army numbered 140,000 men, allowing Louis to support aggressive diplomacy with armed force. By 1680 Louis's diplomats had reclaimed Franche-Comté, Alsace, Lorraine, Orange, Toul, Metz, and Verdun, while his troops occupied most of the duchy of Luxembourg and were blockading Luxembourg City. When, in 1682, the governor of Luxembourg tried to break the blockade, French units invaded Flanders, ruined the countryside, and occupied the territory around Courtrai. On September 30, 1681, the French army simultaneously seized Strasbourg and took possession of Casale in Montferrat. Spain declared war on France in 1683 but this only resulted in the loss of Courtrai in November and Luxembourg City on June 3, 1684, following a formal siege. Under cover of the siege of Luxembourg, Louis's Mediterranean fleet bombarded Genoa whose politics were pro-Hapsburg and anti-French (May 1684). No power could stand alone against France.

Western Europe was alarmed but concerted action was slow to develop. Leopold I (1640–1705), the Holy Roman Emperor, was distracted, first by a revolt in Hungary (*see* HAPSBURG CONQUEST OF HUNGARY; HAPSBURG-OTTOMAN WAR FOR HUNGARY), and then, in 1683, by the Turkish invasion of Austria and the subsequent siege of Vienna (*see* AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR [1683–1699]; VIENNA, SIEGE OF). At Regensburg, or Ratisbon, on August 15, 1684, a truce was concluded between Austria, Spain, and

France, which guaranteed the expanded borders of France for 20 years. Having largely secured his frontiers, Louis commenced the climacteric of his campaign against the Huguenots by revoking the Edict of Nantes in 1685. Protestant refugees, living evidence of Louis's violence and intolerance, were welcomed into England, the Dutch Republic, Switzerland, and Brandenburg-Prussia.

During the four years following the Truce of Regensburg an anti-French confederation developed, largely through the initiative and leadership of the stadtholder of the United Provinces, William III of Orange (1650–1702). In 1685, a number of German states, of which the largest was Bavaria, formed the League of Augsburg to defend German soil. The persecution of the Huguenots and the Vaudois finally convinced the Republican Party in the United Provinces that Louis could not be trusted, particularly as the accession of the Catholic James II (1633–1701) of England in 1685 presaged an alliance between England and France that would endanger Dutch maritime commerce. Although the Dutch and Frederick William (1620–88), the Great Elector of Brandenburg-Prussia, did not join the league, they were supportive.

The balance of power was also shifting in central Europe. The Turks were beaten at Buda in 1686 and Mohács in 1687, and lost Belgrade in September 1688. Emperor Leopold could now reduce his military effort against the Turks and direct some of his forces, especially the German army of the Circles, toward the Rhine to protect the empire. Whereas Louis had accepted the Truce of Regensburg on the supposition that 20 years would provide ample opportunity to translate his seizures into permanent accretions through formal treaties, the retreat of the Turkish army undermined his assumptions. Instead of being coerced into confirming the truce, Leopold was about to lead a coalition of German princes dedicated to recapturing lands forfeited to France.

OUTBREAK

Affairs came to a head in the electorate of Cologne. Maximilian Heinrich (1621–88), the archbishop-elector, had been a French client since 1671. There were two contenders for his throne. The favorite was Cardinal Wilhelm Egon von Fürstenberg (1624–1704), one of Louis's advisers on German politics. When Maximilian Heinrich died on June 3, 1688, the succession of Fürstenberg, who had been accepted by the cathedral chapter as coadjutor in January 1688, seemed assured. The second candidate was Prince Joseph Clement (1671–1723) of Bavaria, a nephew of Maximilian II Emmanuel (1662–1726), elector of Bavaria, and a younger brother of Maximilian Heinrich. At the election, neither received the necessary two-thirds majority and the impasse was referred to Pope Innocent XI (1611–89). There was no prospect of Innocent, who had been insulted and ill-treated by Louis, finding in favor of Fürstenberg, and Joseph Clement was duly installed as archbishop-elector on August 26, 1688.

Rather than waiting to assess the impact of his defeat at Cologne, Louis, encouraged by his war minister, the marquis de Louvois, and aware of the mounting strength of his opponents beyond the Rhine, determined upon a preemptive strike against the Holy Roman Empire. When Brandenburg troops entered the city of Cologne in support of Joseph Clement, 16,000 French soldiers occupied the remainder of the electorate, including Bonn and Kaiserswerth. In return for a Dutch commitment to support Austrian claims to the Spanish succession, Emperor Leopold promptly joined the League of Augsburg.

On September 24, 1688, a French army under the dauphin and the duc de Duras, attended by the engineer, Sébastien Le Prestre de Vauban, invaded the Rhineland and besieged the imperial fortress of Philippsburg. Louis hoped for a short, sharp siege. Before they could mobilize, Leopold and the German princes would thus be presented with a fait accompli sufficient to persuade them to translate the Truce of Regensburg into a permanent settlement. If the worst occurred, and Louis was not pessimistic, the annexation of Philippsburg would at least complete the defense of France's eastern frontier.

THE RAVAGING OF THE PALATINATE

Aided by heavy rains, Philippsburg held out for two months. To make the Germans pay for the campaign, French detachments roamed the Rhineland extracting contributions and seizing supplies. The marquis de Boufflers surprised Kaiserslautern on October 2 and then attempted Coblenz. German reaction was swift. Frederick William of Brandenburg-Prussia, John George III of Saxony, Ernst Augustus of Hanover, and Karl of Hesse-Kassel agreed to mobilize their forces (the Concert of Magdeburg, October 15, 1688). From Hungary, the emperor recalled the Bavarian, Swabian, and Franconian troops and sent them, under the elector of Bavaria, to defend southern Germany. By the end of October, a German army of 20,000 men had concentrated at Frankfurt-am-Main and Boufflers had to withdraw before Coblenz. Louis's invasion of Germany also created an opportunity for William of Orange to invade England.

In attacking Philippsburg, Louis calculated that William of Orange would invade England only to become enmeshed in a civil war: simultaneously, the Turks would be encouraged to greater endeavors on the Danube. Instead, by the spring of 1689, France faced war with Spain and the Anglo-Dutch along her entire frontier from Dunkirk to Basel. The Rhineland would now become subsidiary to the main theater of war in the Spanish Netherlands. Louvois and Louis decided further to erode the military capability of the Rhineland through a campaign of devastation and destruction, the "ravaging of the Palatinate."

The resultant systematic destruction of towns, villages, fortresses, and supplies in the Palatinate, Trier, and

Württemberg was designed to create a cordon sanitaire through which the German armies could not operate toward the French border. Tübingen, Heilbronn, Heidelberg, Worms, Mainz, Mannheim, Eslingen, Oppenheim, Pforzheim, Kaiserslautern, Spiers, Coblenz, and Cochem were all partially or totally destroyed. French raiding parties reached as far into Germany as Nuremberg and Würzburg. This mixture of terror and crude economic warfare characterized the French conduct of the Nine Years' War. Catinat in Piedmont and the duc de Noailles and Marshal Vendôme in Catalonia used identical methods. In the case of the Palatinate, it was successful. Although the German princes did not come to the peace table, the Rhineland remained a secondary theater, and armies could undertake only limited operations.

ENGLAND

By the spring of 1688, the Catholic and francophile James II appeared to be sliding into a commitment to France. The Dutch calculated that it was imperative to secure England and her considerable resources. Exploiting internal disquiet, William of Orange, on behalf of the States-General, invaded England on November 15, 1688, during the opportunity created by the French siege of Philippsburg (*see* GLORIOUS REVOLUTION). King James fled to France, and William and his wife, Mary, were created joint sovereigns by the Convention Parliament. Louis quickly played James against the new regime in England. He was dispatched to Ireland, where the Catholics were already in revolt, entering Dublin on April 3, 1689 (*see* IRISH WAR). If William's energies could not be consumed by civil war in England, Louis was able to substitute Ireland.

THE GRAND ALLIANCE

The Dutch Republic declared war on France on March 9, 1689. This was followed by an offensive compact between the Dutch and the Holy Roman Emperor, the Grand Alliance, on May 12, which aimed to restore Europe to the boundaries that had been settled at the Peace of Westphalia in 1648 and the Peace of Nijmegen in 1678. Additionally, the Dutch agreed to support the imperial candidate to the Spanish succession (*see* SPANISH SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE). Spain and the Spanish Netherlands declared war on France on May 3, 1689. William, as king of England, declared war on May 17, 1689. England and Duke Charles V of Lorraine joined the Grand Alliance on December 19, 1689. The elector of Bavaria added his name to the Grand Alliance on May 4, 1690, and the duke of Savoy and the king of Spain declared war in June. The elector of Brandenburg was already allied with both the Dutch Republic and the emperor. Several states, including Denmark, Sweden, Hesse-Kassel, Württemberg, and Hanover, were prepared to rent troops to the Grand Alliance. Instead of a short war, France was faced by a coalition of the League of Augsburg, Spain, England, and the United Provinces.

THE NATURE OF THE WAR

All participants perceived that they were fighting defensively. However, the huge costs of waging war demanded the offensive so that armies could be maintained through contributions extracted from enemy lands. The imperative of making "war pay for war" involved the capture of territory resulting in positional campaigns, the extensive use of field fortifications or "lines," and the predominance of the siege. Constricting an opponent's freedom of maneuver through the consumption or destruction of material resources was a central strategic ploy.

Weaponry, tactical organization, the limitations imposed by logistics, and the rough equivalence of numbers between the allies and France rendered armies almost incapable of decisive action in battle. Destruction of an enemy's armed forces was not an objective because it was rarely possible. Politicians sought what their soldiers could deliver: the capture and retention of territory via the siege and fortification.

1689: THE SPREAD OF WAR

During a winter of raiding, all participants augmented their forces. The French withdrew from Germany and the bishopric of Liège having forced the prince-bishop, Jean-Louis d'Elderen (r. 1688–94), to declare his state neutral. Liège was obliged to abandon neutrality and join the Grand Alliance later in the year. The French formed two main armies: one to operate along the line of the Sambre River under the command of Marshal d'Humières and a second at Mainz directed by the duke de Duras. Although the allies were numerically superior, the French held the advantage of a central position, while the allies experienced difficulty in coordinating their campaigns. Not until 1691, when William III was able to leave England and Ireland, did the allied war effort benefit from some degree of synchronization.

The campaign opened in the Rhineland. The smaller of three German armies, commanded by the elector of Bavaria, held the "lines of Stollhofen" between the Black Forest and the Rhine, guarding central Germany against a French attack from Strasbourg and Kehl. The Army of the Middle Rhine consisted of 50,000 Austrians, Bavarians, Saxons, and Hessians around Frankfurt-am-Main, directed by Duke Charles V of Lorraine. Lorraine besieged Mainz on June 5: Marshal d'Huxelles resisted for 52 days. This was the major success in Germany in 1689. A victory at Herderbosch on March 11 by 40,000 Brandenburg and Hanoverian forces commanded by General Hans Adam von Schöning over the French under the marquis de Sourdis and the comte de Vertillac forced the French to evacuate most of the electorate of Cologne: Neuss fell on March 14, Siburg and Kempen on March 16, quickly followed by Zons and Soest on the Ruhr. The French hold on Cologne was reduced to Bonn, Rheinberg, and Kaiserswerth. This cleared the eastern flank of the Anglo-Dutch-Spanish army in the Spanish Netherlands, commanded by George

Friedrich von Waldeck, and reduced the danger of a French invasion of the United Provinces along the line of the Rhine River (*see* LOUIS XIV'S RHENISH INVASION). Kaiserswerth was bombarded on May 23 and then besieged (June 21–26), followed by the bombardment and siege of Bonn, which fell on October 10. The French, although they still held Philippsburg, had been pressed back to the Rhine, which they were to hold for the next seven years.

In Flanders, Waldeck resolved to cross the Sambre and invade France. Although Waldeck won the action at Walcourt on August 25, his invasion of France was effectively countered by d'Humières. Waldeck withdrew across the Sambre.

After James II's return to Ireland, his Catholic forces occupied most of the country, except Londonderry and Enniskillen in Ulster. Although he knew that the war would be decided in the Low Countries, William had to divert resources to the conflict in Ireland because the future of his throne depended upon its outcome. A French squadron under the comte de Château-Renault was surprised on May 11 by an allied squadron under Admiral Edward Herbert while landing supplies and reinforcements in Bantry Bay. Both sides claimed victory, but the allied ships withdrew. Londonderry withstood a low-intensity siege of 105 days (April 28–August 10) and, on August 23, Marshal Herman von Schomberg landed near Bangor with 14,000 allied troops but was unable to make strategic progress.

Scotland also rose in support of James II (*see* JACOBITE REBELLION [1689–1690]). A rebellion, led by John Claverhouse, viscount Dundee, beat a small Williamite army under General Hugh Mackay at Killiecrankie on July 27. Defeat at Dunkeld on August 21 marked the effective end of the Jacobite cause in Scotland.

In Catalonia, a peasant rising against Castilian rule, which had initially broken out in 1687, burst into life in the spring of 1689. In May, Marshal Noailles invaded Catalonia with 9,000 men and took the fortress of Camprodon in the face of extremely weak resistance. France could not spare enough troops to exploit this success, even though Barcelona was open to attack. At the end of June, Noailles withdrew into Roussillon, and the Spaniards advanced, then besieged and razed Camprodon before turning to suppress the peasant rising in their rear.

1690: SAVOY-PIEDMONT, BEACHY HEAD, THE BOYNE, AND FLEURUS

In 1690, a fifth theater of war opened. Savoy-Piedmont was sandwiched between France and Spanish Milan and dominated by the French fortresses of Pinerolo in the west and Casale in the east: Duke Victor Amadeus II (1666–1732), "could not afford to be honorable." France had treated him like a vassal since 1685. Forced by Louis to persecute his Protestant Vaudois subjects, from the spring of 1687 Victor Amadeus tried to move closer to Spain and the emperor. The outbreak of war along the Rhine allowed him greater freedom of action. On June 3 he signed a treaty with Spain for military assistance from Milan and concluded a similar deal with the emperor on June 4. He then declared war on Louis XIV. In return for promising to restore to the Vaudois all the rights they had enjoyed before 1686, Victor Amadeus formally allied with England and the United Provinces on October 20, 1690.

Initially, France regarded northern Italy as a subsidiary theater. William, though, saw Piedmont as the one region where the allies could act effectively, invading southern France to capture Toulon and foment rebellion among the Huguenots of Dauphiné, the Cevennes, and Languedoc. Victor Amadeus was less ambitious; his objective was to rid himself of French influence, avoid domination by Spain and Austria, and regain the fortresses of Pinerolo and Casale.

During the first weeks of the war, French troops overran Savoy with the exception of the fortress of Montmélian. Savoyard hatred of the French and religious discord resulted in a brutal war: massacres, atrocities, and the burning of towns and villages were frequent. Throughout, the French suffered guerrilla attacks by an armed populace, both Catholic and Vaudois. In return, they took draconian reprisals. By 1696, Savoy and much of southern and western Piedmont had been devastated and ruined.

In June, Catinat's army was in Pinerolo and Victor Amadeus's forces were at Turin. By ravaging the countryside and threatening Saluzzo, Catinat sought to bring Victor Amadeus to battle. Faced with a threat to this important town, Victor Amadeus accepted battle on August 18 at the Abbey of Staffarda. Surprised and defeated, the allied army lost 5,000 men and had to withdraw to Carmagnola to await reinforcements. Catinat exploited his victory by levying contributions from much of southern Piedmont. Early in November, Catinat hurried northward to besiege and capture Susa on the River Dora Riparia, a vital fortress on his communications with Briançon in Dauphiné.

In the more northerly theaters, the prospects for France were promising. William and most of the British troops were tied down in Ireland while the emperor was making his major effort in Hungary. There was also an unexpected naval success for France. So many English and Dutch ships had already been lost to French privateers that merchants demanded greater protection. This could only be provided by denuding the Channel fleet. While Vice-Admiral Henry Killigrew's 24 warships were escorting merchantmen toward Cadiz, a French fleet under the comte de Tourville entered the English Channel, greatly outnumbering the combined Anglo-Dutch Fleet of Arthur Herbert, now earl of Torrington. Torrington, who wanted to evade battle until Killigrew could rejoin, was instructed to fight. On July 10, off Beachy Head, Torrington's English vessels failed to support the Dutch, and the allied fleet was defeated losing five ships.

As they withdrew to the Nore River in Ireland, Tourville ruled the Channel, but an outbreak of sickness restricted exploitation to burning the fishing village of Teignmouth.

Although Tourville stood across his communications with England, William III campaigned actively in Ireland. Landing at Carrickfergus on June 24 with enough reinforcements to augment the allied army to 40,000 men, William assumed command from Schomberg and advanced south toward Dublin. James II marched north with a smaller army, approximately c. 25,000, including 6,600 French infantry, and took position along the River Boyne, but was defeated on July 11. While the Jacobite army withdrew to Limerick, James left Ireland for France, command passing to the duke of Tyrconnel. Bad weather saved Limerick from capture. To improve communications with England and boost his own prestige, the earl of Marlborough launched an amphibious operation that captured Cork (August 29) and Kinsale (October 15).

Waldeck was again given command of the allied army in the Spanish Netherlands. D'Humières had been relegated to command of the French troops in the lines of the Lys and the Scheldt, and the chief French command in Flanders went to their most capable general, the duke of Luxembourg. Taking a central position, he rapidly combined with the corps of Boufflers to the east of the Meuse and advanced with 40,000 men against Waldeck's 30,000. At Fleurus, on July 1, in a battle that lasted all day, Waldeck was beaten, although both sides lost approximately 7,000 men. Intelligence that a German attack might materialize from Coblenz along the line of the Moselle River prevented Luxembourg from exploiting his victory.

The Turkish recapture of Belgrade in October forced the emperor to recall imperial troops from the Rhineland, while a further 6,000 left Germany for northern Italy. Another setback was the death of the duke of Lorraine: The less able elector of Bavaria was appointed in his stead. Fleurus allowed the French to reinforce their corps in the Rhineland to 40,000, against which the German armies were unable to take significant action.

1691: MONS AND LEUSE

William III provided reinforcements sufficient to increase the Piedmontese army to 20,000 men, but plans to invade France through Savoy had to be abandoned after Catinat's preemptive capture of Nice early in March. He then prepared to attack Turin, taking Avigliana as a preliminary, but his forces were inadequate and he turned southward. Carmagnola fell on June 9 and Catinat then besieged Cuneo, the key post in southern Piedmont. The arrival of imperial reinforcements under Prince Eugene of Savoy enabled Victor Amadeus to force Catinat to abandon the siege. Catinat assumed the defensive, although Victor Amadeus's plans for an invasion of France were obstructed by the Austrians. Sensing that he might not achieve his political objectives by military means, in October Victor Amadeus sought a diplomatic contact with France. Giovanni Gropello (fl. late 11th century) was sent, during December, to open negotiations with the comte de Tessé, the commandant of Pinerolo. Nothing resulted from these overtures because Louis would offer nothing except recognition of the duke's neutrality.

In Catalonia, the French land forces were inactive as Noailles attempted to establish a supply base around Cardona. Instead, campaigning was pursued by the navy. Employing the bomb ketches that had proved so effective against Genoa, 36 French ships anchored off Barcelona on July 7 and bombarded the city on July 10, destroying over 300 houses. The fleet proceeded to Alicante on July 25 and fired 3,500 bombs into the town over a period of four days; 90 percent of the buildings were damaged. These terror attacks helped to unite Spain, including the Catalans, behind the leadership in Madrid, resulting in improved prospects for fighting effectively against France.

The Irish theater was brought to a conclusion during 1691. William III handed command to Godard van Reede, baron van Ginkel, later earl of Athlone. He emerged from winter quarters to secure a crossing of the Shannon River at Athlone (June 29–July 10) before defeating the Jacobite army under its French commander, the marquis de St. Ruth, at Aughrim on July 22. The Jacobite army withdrew into Limerick. With no prospects of further French assistance, the Jacobites signed the Treaty of Limerick (October 13), which ended the war on surprisingly generous terms.

On the Rhine, the German armies achieved little, epidemics of sickness affecting both the French and the imperial forces. Again, the main theater was the Spanish Netherlands. In an operation carefully planned by Louvois, the last before his death on August 16, the French surprised the Allies by besieging the fortress of Mons (March 15). William hurriedly concentrated an army at Halle, south of Brussels, but was unable to prevent the fall of the fortress on April 8. Having been outmaneuvered, William sought redemption through battle. Boufflers raided Liège in June, bombarding sections of the city and burning some of the suburbs, but he was unable to effect a siege. William left the field before the campaign was concluded, and Luxembourg took advantage by embarrassing the rear guard of the army, now under Waldeck, as it decamped from a position at Leuse on September 19.

1692: LA HOGUE, NAMUR, AND STEENKIRK

All participants were now feeling the economic strains of war Antigovernment factions in England were disillusioned with both the cost and the unimpressive results of fighting the French in Flanders: An alternative was discovered by resurrecting the Elizabethan strategy of mounting amphibious "descents" upon the enemy coast. Employing infantry returned from Ireland, the initial target (January 1692) was Dunkirk, but secrecy was compromised and the operation canceled.

The major French objective for 1692 was the capture of the vital Sambre-Meuse fortress of Namur (May 29–July 1). To delay William from marching to its relief, Louis arranged a simultaneous invasion attempt upon the south coast of England using 12,000 Irish troops, released under the terms of the Treaty of Limerick, supported by an equal number of Frenchmen. An essential preliminary was the acquisition of naval supremacy in the English Channel. During a five-day battle between Capes La Hogue and Barfleur on the northern coast of the Cotentin Peninsula (May 29–June 3), Edward Russell's Anglo-Dutch warships shattered Tourville's fleet. The invasion was canceled.

The fall of Namur opened the line of the Sambre-Meuse to Luxembourg and threatened Liège. William sought to restore the situation through battle. By a night march from his position at Halle, William surprised Luxembourg in his camp at Enghien, but inadequate reconnaissance reduced the allied assault to a partial blow against the French right wing around the village of Steenkirk (August 3). Although only half the armies were engaged, the battle cost each side 8,000 casualties.

The imperial forces in the Rhineland numbered 47,000 but were slow to enter the field. Two limited offensives across the Rhine brought no enduring success, failing to capture Eberenburg, while a counterattack by Marshal de Lorge seized Pforzheim. Lorge then brushed aside a small corps on the borders of Württemberg and proceeded to levy contributions throughout the duchy.

Although his preference was either to recapture Pinerolo and Susa or to invade Savoy and relieve Montmélian, Victor Amadeus was persuaded by William III to mount an invasion of France: Catinat's army had been drained to provide troops for other theaters and was incapable of an offensive. In the spring, a small force was sent to blockade Casale, while the main allied army invaded Dauphiné. In July, they besieged and took Guillestre, Embrun, and Gap, ruining the countryside as they progressed. This, however, was the limit of the advance and all attempts to foment a rising among the Huguenots failed. The campaign was already languishing when Victor Amadeus contracted smallpox. The allied army recrossed the Alps in the autumn. During the winter, as Victor Amadeus slowly recovered, further diplomatic approaches were made to Tessé.

1693: LANDEN, LA MARSAGLIA, AND CHARLEROI

The year 1693 was decisive. French harvests between 1689 and 1691 had been indifferent; that of 1692 was poor; the harvest of 1693 failed completely throughout France and northern Italy. Faced with a dwindling tax base, Louis had to prioritize expenditure. Money was accordingly diverted from the navy to the army. The former switched from fleet actions to commerce raiding in conjunction with privateers. The resultant "guerre de course" was to have a major impact on Anglo-Dutch commerce, more than 1,200 merchant ships being captured by the French between 1688 and 1695. The final, successful, French fleet action was the seizure, off Lagos, of 80 of the 400 merchantmen from the insufficiently escorted Smyrna fleet (June 27). Louis also decided to launch land offensives in Catalonia, Germany, and the Netherlands, as a prelude to dictating generous peace terms to the Grand Alliance. A concomitant diplomatic initiative arrested Swedish dalliance with the Grand Alliance before applying her good offices to open fissures among the German princes. Only the offer of an electoral title by Leopold persuaded Ernst August of Hanover not to desert the Grand Alliance, and concessions were also required to retain the wavering John George IV of Saxony. The major French diplomatic effort was directed toward Piedmont.

Victor Amadeus determined upon an offensive to capture Pinerolo. After sending minor forces under the Spanish general, the marquis de Legañez, to mask Casale, he advanced westward. Catinat left Tessé in command of the fortress and withdrew his field army to Fenstrelle to protect Tessé's communications with Susa. The attack on Pinerolo was halfhearted, more bombardment than siege, and ended with Victor Amadeus renewing his diplomatic overtures to Tessé through Gropello on September 22. As Victor Amadeus dithered, Louis prepared a counterattack. Reinforced with troops from Catalonia and the Rhine, Catinat advanced from the mountains above Pinerolo and was across Victor Amadeus's communications with Turin by September 29. Abandoning the bombardment, the allied army hastened eastward, encumbered by their siege train. At La Marsaglia on October 4, the outnumbered, fatigued, and out-generaled allied army lost 6,000 men. Although Cuneo and Turin lay open to attack, supply difficulties prevented Catinat from exploiting his victory. After levying contributions from as far south as Saluzzo, he retired into winter quarters.

His country exhausted and facing famine, Louis needed peace in Italy. With Savoy and Nice occupied, much of Piedmont devastated, and his army beaten at La Marsaglia, Victor Amadeus was receptive and talks reopened in October. Tessé was empowered to negotiate on the conclusion of a truce, followed by a junction of Franco-Savoyard forces to drive the imperial armies from Italy before declaring it a neutral zone. As a gesture of goodwill, Victor Amadeus promised to remain inactive for the campaign of 1694. By attempting to detach one member, Louis hoped to induce the collapse of the Grand Alliance and thus bring about a general settlement. Accordingly, he also made indirect contact with William III. Victor Amadeus maneuvered between both sides, pressing Louis to make peace on favorable terms but advertising the fact of these negotiations to persuade his allies to redouble their military efforts on his behalf.

Noailles besieged Rosas, the chief Catalan naval base, on May 28, using both his army and a fleet of 50 warships. It surrendered on June 9.

The comte de Lorge crossed the Rhine in May with 50,000 men and attacked Heidelberg, which was sacked for the second time in four years. He then advanced slowly into Franconia, but Ludwig of Baden occupied a strongly fortified blocking position at Ilzfeldt (July 26–August 28) through which Lorge and the dauphin could not penetrate.

Luxembourg commanded 68,000 men in the Netherlands supported by Boufflers with 48,000. William had 120,000. Luxembourg made light of this numerical inferiority by maneuvering so that William had to split his army into three corps to protect Flanders, Brussels, and Liège. Having achieved a local superiority of 66,000 to 50,000, Luxembourg trapped William in a confined and awkward position around the villages of Landen and Neerwinden, west of Maastricht, on July 29. Although the allied army lost only 12,000 compared to French casualties numbering 15,000, William withdrew from the field in some disorder and Luxembourg was able to exploit his victory by besieging and taking the Meuse fortress of Charleroi (October 11).

1694: HUY

The French victories of 1693 were insufficient to bring the Grand Alliance to negotiation. France was now so reduced in resources that she could not resume the offensive and depended upon diplomacy to disunite her opponents.

Following an ill-conceived and worse executed "descent" on Brest, which was repulsed on the beach of Camaret Bay (June 8), followed by the bombardment of Dieppe, St. Malo, and Le Havre, the powerful Anglo-Dutch navy was employed in a strategic role. On May 17, Noailles's 26,000 men beat a Spanish army of 16,000 on the banks of the River Ter, French warships providing flanking fire and logistic support. Palamós was stormed on June 7 and Gerona on June 19, opening the route to Barcelona. The Anglo-Dutch fleet was ordered to the Mediterranean: 75 ships under Edward Russell anchored off Barcelona on August 8. The French ships immediately departed for the safety of Toulon, obliging Noailles to withdraw to the line of the Ter, harassed by the Catalan guerrillas, the *miquelets,* under their general, Blas Trinxería. Seapower had proved decisive. Instead of returning to home waters, Russell was instructed to winter at Cadiz in readiness for operations off Catalonia in the spring. There was also the possibility that the allied fleet could assist the duke of Savoy in recapturing Nice, especially because Catinat's army had been depleted to reinforce Noailles. The duke demurred, explaining that the season was too far advanced for such complex maneuvers. Either Victor Amadeus was abiding by his pledge to remain inactive or, more probably, the devastated Piedmontese countryside could no longer support sustained operations, a situation exacerbated by an acute shortage of grain throughout northern Italy in the winter of 1694, occasioned by the failure of the harvest. Late in the year, imperial envoys proposed Casale as the target for the next year. This did not accord with Victor Amadeus's aim of regaining Savoyard control over Casale, and he promptly renewed his negotiations with Tessé: Peace had to be secured.

In both Germany and the Netherlands, the French remained on the defensive. Lorge sallied across the Rhine early in June but an advance by Ludwig of Baden forced him to recross at Philippsburg on June 28 following a sharp engagement. Baden then occupied a series of fortified camps to deter the French from reentering Germany. Although he was able to protect Flanders, Luxembourg could not prevent William from seizing the small Meuse fortress of Huy (September 27), an essential preliminary to future operations against Namur.

1695: THE GREAT SIEGE OF NAMUR

Despite winter negotiations, William concluded that he had more to gain from weakening France through military action, while Louis trusted that Savoy-Piedmont could be detached from the Grand Alliance.

Taking advantage of the Anglo-Dutch fleet, the marquis de Castañaga unsuccessfully attacked Palamós (August 15–25). When the fleet departed from the Mediterranean in the autumn, the French were free to resume their advance toward Barcelona. Neither could the allied fleet affect events in Savoy-Piedmont. Victor Amadeus knew that the imperial forces intended to attack Casale. Concerned to restrict the extension of Austrian Hapsburg power in Milan, on March 15 the duke instructed Gropello to warn Tessé. Instead of letting the emperor conquer Casale, Gropello proposed that the garrison should surrender after a brief siege by the Piedmontese on condition that the fortifications were then dismantled and the fortress returned to its rightful owner, the duke of Mantua. On April 29, 1695, Louis consented and Victor Amadeus undertook to prevent his allies from attacking any other French possession during 1695.

The siege of Casale began on June 25 and, after token resistance, the French garrison surrendered on July 9. Despite the suspicions of his allies, Victor Amadeus avoided any further action and the rest of the summer was spent demolishing the fortifications, a task not completed until mid-September, by which time it was too late to begin further operations. On November 23, Gropello proposed to Tessé that Victor Amadeus would abandon his allies if France would cede Pinerolo. Although Louis was reluctant to give up territory, he grew more amenable to the proposal as he realized that the defection of Savoy-Piedmont might well shatter the Grand Alliance. In

February 1696 he instructed Tessé to draw up a settlement on these lines.

Luxembourg died in January 1695, to be succeeded by the less able duc de Villeroi. Villeroi has 115,000 men in the Spanish Netherlands but was outnumbered by William. The allies feinted toward Flanders, and attacked Fort Knokke (June 17–24) to commit Villeroi, before hurrying eastward to besiege Namur (July 8), which was defended by Boufflers with a garrison of 15,000 men. Villeroi was slow to march to relieve Namur, thinking that the fortress could endure almost indefinitely. He was shadowed by the prince de Vaudémont with a corps of 37,000 men whose rearguard action at Aarsele (July 14–15) was one of the tactical masterpieces of the war. Slowly, Villeroi edged toward Namur, bombarding Brussels en route (August 13–15) to draw William away from the Meuse River. Some 4,000 shells and red-hot shot were fired, destroying more than 2,000 buildings. Finally, Villeroi approached Namur but was held off by William's covering army. Boufflers surrendered on September 22. For William, this achievement greatly enhanced his own prestige and that of the Grand Alliance. Strategically, the recapture of Huy in 1694 and Namur in 1695 restored the allied position on the Meuse and secured communications between their armies in the Low Countries and those on the Rhine and the Moselle.

1696: EXHAUSTION AND STALEMATE

The campaign of 1696 was dominated by a monetary crisis in England and the defection of Savoy-Piedmont from the Grand Alliance. Without money to pay his troops in the Netherlands, William was unable to undertake significant operations. Without operations in the Netherlands to distract the French, there was no prospect of the imperial armies in the Rhineland functioning effectively. The sole operation of note was the raid on the French magazine at Givet (March 15–17) by Menno van Coehoorn. The destruction of 4 million rations may have forced the French to abandon an attempt to retake Namur. The raid on Givet possibly persuaded Louis that economic salvation might be found in the New World; as a result, in 1697, the baron de Pointis led a naval expedition that captured and looted Cartagena, Colombia.

Louis also attempted an invasion of England. The murder of William III by Jacobite assassins as he traveled to Windsor was to be the signal for a landing in Kent by 14,000 French soldiers under Boufflers and d'Harcourt. The discovery of the assassination plot on March 2 ended this scheme, which could not have succeeded because the Anglo-Dutch fleet retained command of the English Channel.

Determined to capture Pinerolo either through diplomacy or war, Victor Amadeus prepared to attack. He was preempted by Louis's offer of peace and on May 30 Tessé and Gropello signed a draft treaty. The final version of the Treaty of Turin was signed on June 29 and ratified by Louis on July 6. France ceded Pinerolo, its fortifications demolished, plus its land corridor into Dauphiné, and would restore Savoyard territory seized during the war as soon as all allied forces had evacuated Italy. An immediate truce was to be declared, before the French and Savoyard armies combined to force Savoy's ex-allies to accept the neutralization of northern Italy. Victor Amadeus's daughter, Marie Adelaide, was to marry the duke of Burgundy.

On July 12, Catinat's army, suitably reinforced, advanced on Turin as if to attack, offering Victor Amadeus the pretext to sue for peace. He did so and dropped from the Grand Alliance. Early in August, the remaining allied forces left Turin and withdrew toward Lombardy. When the truce expired, the French and Savoyard armies marched into the Milanese and besieged Valenza. The Allies were forced to sue for peace. A truce was proclaimed at Vigevano on October 7, declaring Italy to be a neutral zone. During the next two months, the allied armies departed. Although Victor Amadeus had secured his war aims of capturing Pinerolo and neutralizing Casale, the price, both to his reputation and the economy of the duchy, was high.

1697: ATH, BRUSSELS, AND BARCELONA

Financially exhausted, England, the United Provinces, and Spain did not want another campaign. Peace had seemed within reach in 1696 when the defection of Savoy wrecked their expectations and encouraged France to further military effort. Catinat's 40,000 men were redeployed to reinforce the French armies in Catalonia and the Netherlands; success in either or both theaters would force the Grand Alliance to make peace on French terms. The allies did not enjoy such riches. The Savoyard army was forfeit while the Spanish troops that had fought for Savoy-Piedmont had to remain in northern Italy to police the truce and cover Milan.

The campaign in the Netherlands had not properly opened when the peace plenipotentiaries met in the Palace of Rijswijk on the outskirts of The Hague on May 6. Nevertheless, the French assumed the offensive, besieging Ath (May 7–June 5) "to make a noise" during the peace negotiations. Three French armies, under Villeroi, Boufflers, and Catinat, then threatened Brussels, but the allies retreated through the night of June 22–23 to take up a blocking position around Koekelberg near Anderlecht. Here the armies remained until the signature of peace.

In Catalonia, where the duke de Vendôme had succeeded Noailles, the French advanced during June and besieged Barcelona on June 12 with 25,000 troops and a sizable fleet. Barcelona fell on August 10. This convinced the king of Spain to make peace.

THE COLONIES

Although not affecting the campaigns in Europe, there was some fighting in the Americas and India. Protection of trade—sugar, tobacco, fishing, and precious metals—was

the major concern. The petty operations, which usually consisted of raids conducted by local militias, occasionally supported by troops from Europe, were not strategically significant.

The French seized St. Kitts on August 15, 1689, but it was recaptured on July 22, 1690. A British attempt to take Guadeloupe in April 1691 was unsuccessful. During 1695, the British attacked French bases on Hispaniola following raids on Jamaica. In 1697, the baron de Pointis and the marquis de Château-Renault brought a squadron into the Caribbean in search of the Spanish treasure fleet. Unable to locate the *flota,* they looted Cartagena, the entrepôt for the South American silver traffic. Also in 1697, a British squadron tried to regain control of Newfoundland but achieved little.

Whereas the war in the Caribbean was mostly conducted by Europeans and white settlers, in North America the Nine Years' War relied upon the native Indians: the Five Nations of the Iroquois were allied to the British and the Algonquian tribes to the French. Vicious frontier raiding was the characteristic military operation, except for the capture of Port Royal by Sir William Phips, the governor of New York, on May 21, 1690, and an unsuccessful attack on Quebec later in the same year.

In India, Admiral Duquesne-Guiton sailed in October 1690 into Madras harbor and bombarded the Anglo-Dutch fleet. Three years later, in September 1693, the Dutch besieged and captured the tiny French garrison at Pondicherry.

THE PEACE OF RIJSWIJK, 1697

Negotiations were formally conducted at Rijswijk, but proceedings were hastened by nine private conversations between the earl of Portland and Marshal Boufflers, beginning at Brucom, near Halle, on July 8. Peace was signed at Rijswijk on September 20, the emperor adding his signature on October 30 when he finally accepted that his allies would not support his request for the return of Strasbourg.

The peace settlement represented a substantial victory for the Grand Alliance. William III was recognized as king of England and Louis XIV undertook not to support actively the candidacy of James II's son. The forward defense of the United Provinces was formalized by permitting the Dutch to garrison a line of Spanish fortresses from Nieuport to Namur, including Charleroi, in the south of the Spanish Netherlands, the "Dutch Barrier." The territorial settlement largely obeyed the rule of status quo ante bellum. The French surrendered Philippsburg, Breisach, Freiburg-im-Breisgau, and Kehl, while their new fortresses at La Pile, Mont Royal, and Fort Louis were to be demolished. They retained, however, Alsace and Strasbourg. The duke of Lorraine was restored to his duchy. With an eye on the Spanish succession, Louis allowed Spain to regain Luxembourg, Chimay, Mons, Courtrai, Charleroi, Ath, and evacuated Barcelona and Catalonia. Dinant was returned to the bishop of Liège. With the question of the Spanish succession unresolved, the Peace of Rijswijk was simply a truce in the long struggle between France and the Hapsburg-Dutch coalition.

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Grattan Massacre (1854)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The United States vs. the Lakota People (also called the Teton Sioux, and consisting of the Brulé, Hunkpapa, Minneconjou, and Oglala tribes, among others)

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North Platte River, seven miles east of Fort Laramie, Wyoming

DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: On August 18, 1854, High Forehead, member of a hunting party of various Lakota tribes, killed a cow belonging to a passing Mormon emigrant; when the Mormon complained to Fort Laramie, a sortie was dispatched to arrest the Sioux hunter.

OUTCOME: Brevet Second Lieutenant John L. Grattan and a small troop from the Sixth U.S. Infantry, plus their interpreter, were killed by Brulé Sioux soldiers after Grattan attacked when they refused to give up High Forehead. Subsequently labeled the "Grattan Massacre,"

the episode foreshadowed a generation of bloodletting on the northern plains.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: U.S. Army: 30; Sioux: unknown
CASUALTIES: United States, 31; Sioux, 1
TREATIES: None

For more than half a century before the Grattan Massacre, a mutually suspicious, but carefully guarded relationship existed between the expansionist United States and the Indian tribes of the northern Great Plains. Federal employees and soldiers, explorers, missionaries, and traders were welcomed across the region as long as they behaved decently. Tribal members and non-Indian hunters, sometimes together, harvested beaver pelts, buffalo hides, and other animal resources to the commercial advantages of white investors in the fur trade. The Indians exchanged some of the natural bounty of their hunting grounds and their labor for American- and European-manufactured goods that improved their military capabilities, made their lives more convenient or luxurious, and embellished their culture, its ceremonies and art.

But many on both sides grew increasingly fearful over the years that such occasional clashes as the ARIKARA WAR of 1823 might someday escalate into a more generalized war. In many ways, the clashes had structural roots in the changing economy and society of the Great Plains: Fur traders and professional hunters were so depleting the wildlife that they posed an essential threat to the traditions of tribal life; during the 1840s, overland travelers to the Pacific coast violated the boundaries of tribal lands without permission; and by mid-century, a significant number of emigrants were settling close enough to Indian communities to create many cross-cultural conflicts.

It was just about that time that strategists in the U.S. Army, increasingly worried about the potential for violence, changed the military's policies toward the northern plains. Since 1819, when the United States had established Forts Snelling and Atkinson, and 1825, when the Atkinson-O'Fallon Commission had made treaties with the Plains tribes during the Yellowstone Expedition, the army high command had reduced its forces north of Kansas to meet the military exigencies of the southern Great Plains. In 1848, however, federal troops had built Fort Kearney and, in 1849, the government had purchased Fort Laramie from traders. These moves were aimed at protecting the new migration of Mormons, California gold rush emigrants, and others traveling west from Omaha along the sides of the Platte River basin.

The Treaty of Fort Laramie in 1851 arranged safe passage for these overlanders. Its diplomatic mechanism was familiar to the region's tribal leaders. Treaties, like those produced by the Atkinson-O'Fallon Commission, traditionally recognized the territorial claims negotiated among the tribes themselves for the privilege of passage or for hunting rights. The Fort Laramie treaty extended this intertribal diplomacy to cover non-Indians by offering annuities as tolls for travel across Sioux, Cheyenne, and Arapaho lands. For three years after the treaty was signed, tribal soldiers allowed non-Indians to migrate unmolested until a trivial misunderstanding provoked a bloody confrontation.

The 1851 Fort Laramie Treaty obliged the Plains Indian tribes to assemble each autumn to receive the food and trade goods they were paid for allowing travelers to pass through their territory. As Indians collected near Fort Laramie in August 1854, a member of a hunting party made up of Brulé Sioux and other Lakota soldiers killed a lame cow that belonged to a Mormon family traveling overland with a nearby wagon train. The cow's Mormon owner reported the "theft" to Fort Laramie and demanded restitution. Such incidents were not uncommon at these meetings of cultures, perhaps inherently volatile, among Indian hunters, the U.S. military, and American emigrants. They awaited only the right spark to make of them a crossroads to conflict, and, in this case, the spark proved to be Lieutenant John L. Grattan (1830–54).

A recent graduate of West Point, eager to prove his own mettle, Grattan asked for command of a sortie to the camp of Brulé chief Conquering Bear (sometimes translated as Brave Bear) to arrest the Sioux "thief." Post commander Captain Hugh B. Fleming reluctantly agreed to the expedition, but he warned the young West Pointer to exercise discretion and to avoid any violent engagement. Giving little heed to the warning, Grattan sallied forth on the day following the incident, August 19, with 27 privates and two NCOs, armed with a 12-pounder howitzer and a 12-pounder mountain gun.

On the march toward the Indian village, Grattan's interpreter, Auguste Lucien (d. 1854), got drunk, and upon the army's arrival at the camp, the interpreter began hurling insults at the Sioux as the parley got under way. Conquering Bear (d. 1854) calmly pointed out that the hunting party, in need of food, assumed the lame cow, of no use to others, was fair game. In addition, the party consisted of other tribal members, some Oglala and some Minneconjou Sioux, over which he had no direct authority. In fact, it had been one of them who put the ox out of its misery. Trying to forestall a confrontation, Conquering Bear offered amends to the Mormon family, but his offer was refused. When High Forehead (fl. 1854), the Minneconjou who had killed the cow, refused to surrender, the tension, never far from the surface, increased. Forty-five-minutes after the parley had opened, the overconfident Grattan rashly ordered his troops to open fire on the village, fatally wounding Conquering Bear—as it turns out, the only Sioux to die that day.

Unfortunately for the thoughtless lieutenant and his command, Grattan had set his two artillery pieces too high

to be effective. The next shots caused no injury and little damage, but did incite the fury of the Brulé soldiers, who—joined by some of the Oglala—responded quickly and forcefully. Lucien was among the first to fall; so was Grattan. By nightfall, all the troops except Private John Cuddy (d. 1854) lay dead. Cuddy survived long enough to return to Fort Laramie, but he lapsed into a coma and died on August 21.

The news shocked and alarmed citizens throughout the United States, but despite their outrage, not all officials joined in the growing cry for revenge. To the contrary, the Bureau of Indians Affairs, after hearing reports from Fort Laramie, quickly concluded that the army had blundered. The War Department, on the other hand, demanded a response. When young Sioux warriors, buoyed by the victory over Grattan, began raiding along the major emigrant routes, Secretary of War Jefferson Davis (1808–89) decided that the "massacre"—the word was often used to describe Indian victories—had been deliberate. Action, Davis declared, had to be taken to "punish" the Sioux if future raids were to be avoided. He recalled the fiery-tempered but experienced Indian-fighter, Colonel William S. Harney (1800–89) home from leave in Paris to direct operations against the Sioux, which in turn led to the first serious confrontation between the Lakota and the U.S. Army at Blue Water Creek in early September 1855 (*see* UNITED STATES–SIOUX WAR [1854–1857]).

The Grattan Massacre initiated half a century of military conflict on the northern Great Plains.

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Great Indian Mutiny *See* INDIAN MUTINY (1857–1858).

Great Java War *See* JAVA WAR, GREAT (1815–1830).

Great Kaffir War *See* KAFFIR WAR, EIGHTH (1850–1853).

Great Northern War *See* NORTHERN WAR, SECOND (1700–1711).

Great Peloponnese War *See* PELOPONNESE WAR, SECOND.

Greco-Persian Wars (500–448 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. Greek city-states (mostly Athens, Sparta, and the Delian League)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece and Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia began the war with the intention of punishing Athens; ultimately, its goal was to occupy European Greece.
OUTCOME: The Persian invasion was ultimately repulsed, and the Persians driven out of Europe and Asia Minor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Marathon: Persian, 15,000; Greek, 10,000; at Thermopylae: Persian, 100,000; Greek, 5,300
CASUALTIES: Totals unknown; naval losses among the Persians were particularly devastating.
TREATIES: Peace of Callias, 448

From about 500 to 493 B.C.E. Athens (with Eretria) helped Miletus and other Ioanian city-states in their revolt against the Persian Empire (*see* IONIAN REVOLT). This incited Darius I (550–486 B.C.E.), king of Persia, to seek vengeance on the Athenians. In 492 B.C.E. he sent his son-in-law Mardonius with an army to invade European Greece. Mardonius enjoyed great success against Thrace and Macedonia, quickly subduing them, but then was forced to return to Asia when a massive storm wrecked most of his fleet. In 490, a second Persian expedition made the Aegean crossing under the leadership of Artaphrenes the Younger (fl. 490 B.C.E.) and Datis (fl. 490 B.C.E.), Darius's nephew, who, together, conquered Eretria in a week's time. Datis then led a 15,000-man force in a landing at Marathon, 24 miles northeast of Athens. Miltiades (d. 489 B.C.E.), the Greek general, mustered all the men he could—about 10,000 Athenian citizen-soldiers and another 1,000 Plataean troops. He decided to take the offensive—a bold move against a superior, and hitherto undefeated, force. On September 12, 490, Miltiades arranged his infantry (hoplites) in a long, thin line across the two-mile-wide Marathon plain. The line charged the Persian invaders, who readily beat back the Greek center. Miltiades, however, had augmented his flanks, and these now wheeled inward to envelop the Persian center. Datis was thereby routed and forced to retreat to his ships. Unable to attack strongly defended Athens, Datis returned to Asia in defeat.

Greek losses were a mere 192 men, whereas the Persians had lost 6,400.

It was 480 before Darius mounted another invasion. This time he sent a massive force of 100,000 men, led by his son Xerxes I (d. 465 B.C.E.), across the Hellespont (Dardanelles) on a boat bridge. The army marched through Thrace and Macedonia, then turned into Thessaly. There, at Thermopylae Pass, the narrow gateway into Boeotia—and Attica, the Athenian homeland—the vastly outnumbered Greeks established a strong defensive position, but with a mere 5,300 men. In one of the great heroic stands of all history, 300 Spartans, under Leonidas I (d. 480 B.C.E.), held off 100,000 Persians at the pass. They fought to the last man, but bought sufficient time in the three-day battle for the main body of 5,000 hoplites to escape.

Following Thermopylae, the Greeks yielded Attica to Xerxes, who sacked Athens. The Greek forces took up positions behind a great wall they built across the Isthmus of Corinth, and the Persians followed. The plan now was for the vast Persian fleet of some 600 galleys to attack the Greek position. In September 480, the Persian land forces watched as Xerxes' 600 vessels seemingly entrapped the 366 triremes (superior war galleys with three rows of oars) of the Greek fleet in the Saronic Gulf. Themistocles (c. 525–462 B.C.E.), the Greek commander, lured Xerxes' fleet into the dangerously narrow waters off Salamis, thereby depriving the unwieldy craft of maneuverability. With the enemy thus rendered vulnerable, the Spartan admiral Eurybiades (fl. 480 B.C.E.) led the Athenian triremes in a furious attack. Two hundred to three hundred Persian vessels were destroyed, whereas the Greeks lost perhaps 40 of their own. Xerxes was thus forced to break off the ground campaign, postponing further attacks until the next year—by which time the Greek city-states had been able to unite and pool their military resources. At the Battle of Cape Mycale, in 479, the already diminished Persian fleet was destroyed.

While the Persians suffered defeat at sea, the Greek land forces also managed to take the main Persian base at Plataea, southern Boeotia. This put an end to the immediate threat of a Persian invasion and prompted the Ionian states, with the aid and urging of Athens, to form the Delian League in 478. The Athenian general Cimon (c. 510–450 B.C.E.), son of Miltiades, led the forces of the Delian League in a counteroffensive that retook the cities of Thrace as well as those along the Aegean.

In 466, at the mouth of the Eurymedon River, in southern Asia Minor, Cimon's forces routed the reconstituted Persian fleet and scattered its land forces. This brought southern Asia Minor into the Delian League and ended the Persian threat of further invasion. Athens, however, continued to act against the Persians elsewhere, sending Pericles (c. 495–29 B.C.E.) to lead forces in aid of rebellions in Egypt. Pericles blockaded Memphis in 459, but was badly defeated by the Persians in 456 and besieged on an island in the Nile. In one of the greatest feats of military engineering in all history, the Persian forces diverted the Nile's flow and were thereby able to attack and destroy the Greeks in 454. At this point, Cimon, who had fallen from power with the ascension of his rival Pericles, was recalled. In 450, he won a victory over the Persians at Salamis in Cyprus, thereby recovering most of Cyprus. In 449, however, Cimon died (either of illness or of battle wounds) during the siege of Citium, bringing the war to a close the following year. By the Peace of Callias, Persia pledged to stay out of the Aegean forever. The peace endured for 40 years.

See also PERSIAN INVASION OF GREECE.

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Greco-Turkish War (Thirty Day's War) (1897)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Greece vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Crete and Thessaly
DECLARATION: Greece against Ottoman Empire
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Greece attempted to annex Crete.
OUTCOME: Greek forces were decisively defeated, but Crete was put under an international protectorate governed by Prince George of Greece.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Greece, 600 killed; Turkey, 1,300 killed
TREATIES: Armistice and treaty, 1897

The CRETAN UPRISING (1896) had pitted Islamic Ottomans against Orthodox Greeks on the Ottoman-ruled island of Crete. In response to Ottoman persecution of Orthodox Cretans, Greece commenced a war on April 17, 1897, to annex Crete. The Greeks launched two campaigns, one on Crete itself, the other in Thessaly. The Ottoman forces defended their positions vigorously, defeating the Greeks on Crete at the Battle of Vestinos on May 5 and at Pharsalus on May 6. The Turks forced the withdrawal of 9,000 Greek troops from the island. In Thessaly, the Greeks were fought to a standstill which persuaded them to sign an armistice on May 19, 1897. The war had lasted a month and is sometimes called the Thirty Days' War. Four months later, a final peace treaty was concluded.

Greece suffered a serious defeat and was compelled to pay an indemnity and to cede part of Thessaly to the Ottoman Empire. The Greek government also yielded a degree of its sovereignty to an international commission, appointed to supervise its economic affairs. Nevertheless,

the Ottomans were also compelled to withdraw militarily from Crete and to cede it to an internationally supervised protectorate under Prince George of Greece. The protectorate endured until the end of the First BALKAN WAR in 1913, when, by the Treaty of London, Crete was formally annexed to Greece.

See also GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Alan Warwick, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble Books, 1995).

Greco-Turkish War (1920–1922)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Greece vs. Turkey
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Smyrna, Thrace, and Anatolia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Greece wanted to expand its World War I acquisition, Smyrna, to include Turkish territory in Thrace and Anatolia.
OUTCOME: Greece was decisively defeated and compelled to renounce all Anatolian claims and to return Thrace to Turkey.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: About 50,000 on each side at any given time
CASUALTIES: Greece, 105,000 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner; Turkey, 13,000 killed, 35,000 wounded. Many noncombatant deaths on both sides
TREATIES: Treaty of Lausanne, July 24, 1923

After WORLD WAR I, the Allied Powers supported Greek occupation of Smyrna, which had been part of the German-allied Ottoman Empire. In the meantime, Mustafa Kemal (1881–1938) (later renowned as Kemal Atatûrk) successfully led a revolution against the government of Sultan Muhammad VI (r. 1918–22) and set up a new provisional republican Turkish government at Ankara in 1920. For their part, the Greeks wanted to expand what the post–World War I Treaty of Sèvres had given them, Smyrna, to include Thrace and as much of Anatolia as they could manage to acquire. On June 22, 1920, the Greek army under Alexander I (1893–1920) began its advance inland, taking Alasehir on June 24. The advance paused here while Greeks and Turks negotiated at Constantinople (later Istanbul). Muhammad VI had agreed to certain concessions, which Kemal now refused to honor. The negotiations broke down, and the Greek offensive resumed on March 23, 1921.

At Inönü 150 miles west of Ankara, a Turkish force under Ismet Pasha (1884–1973) retarded the advance of 37,000 Greek troops. By August 24, 1921, however the Greeks had reached the Sakarya River, 70 miles outside Ankara, where they would fight the decisive battle of the war. The battle commenced on August 24, 1921, and pitted 50,000 Greeks against 44,000 Turks, who were subsequently reinforced by an additional 8,000. Although the Greeks initially succeeded in driving back the Turkish center, on September 10, Kemal led a small reserve force in an attack on the Greek left flank. Fearing envelopment, the Greeks disengaged and withdrew to Smyrna, having lost 3,897 killed and 19,000 wounded. An additional 15,000 had been captured or were missing in action. Turkish losses were 3,700 killed, 18,000 wounded, and 1,000 missing or taken prisoner.

Following their victory at the Sakarya, the Turks intensified their counteroffensive, beginning on August 18, 1922, laying siege to Smyrna. It fell to the Turks on September 9, and the Greek forces were expelled from the island.

The Treaty of Lausanne was concluded on July 24, 1923, by which Greek claims to Anatolia were vacated, and the Greeks were compelled to return Thrace to the Turks. The Turkish border in Europe was fixed at the Maritsa River. The Turkish triumph also propelled Mustafa Kemal to the presidency of the newly proclaimed Turkish republic.

See also BALKAN WAR, FIRST; BALKAN WAR, SECOND; GRECO-TURKISH WAR (1897); GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

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Greek Civil War (1944–1949)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Greek Communists vs. Greek government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Greek communists wanted to overthrow the British- and American-supported democratic government.
OUTCOME: With British and then U.S. support, the government ultimately crushed the communist insurgency.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Greek government forces, 205,000,—with 40,000 British troops; Greek Communists, about 28,000 guerrillas, maximum
CASUALTIES: Government forces, 15,969 killed, 38,557 wounded, 2,001 missing; communist forces, 50,000 killed; total fatalities, including noncombatants, 158,000
TREATIES: None; cease-fire signed October 16, 1949

Early in WORLD WAR II, Greece was invaded and occupied by Nazi forces. During the occupation, an active partisan resistance was conducted, chiefly by the Communist National Liberation Front (EAM) and its military arm, the People's National Army of Liberation (ELAS). The British

drove the Germans out in September 1944, and liberated Greece was occupied by the British, who brought the former government of Greece, which now included the EAM, back into power. Certain elements of the ELAS resisted cooperation with the British-supported government and threatened armed insurrection. The British response was a proposal to disarm the ELAS, which elicited a Communist protest in the form of a general strike in Athens declared on December 2, 1944. The next day, police and the ELAS clashed in the streets, but after British prime minister Winston Churchill (1874–1965) visited, a truce was signed, and ELAS guerrillas withdrew from Athens. A further agreement was concluded on February 12, 1945, calling for the ELAS to surrender its weapons within two weeks. Despite the agreement, however, fighting continued. The Greek government was unstable, and Greece was embroiled in territorial disputes with Yugoslavia and Albania.

Marshal Tito (Josip Broz) (1892–1980), head of Communist Yugoslavia, supported the EAM-ELAS, as did Albania and Bulgaria. With this support, the Communist forces were able to retreat intact north into the mountains. There they received supplies directly from Yugoslavia and Albania. To counter this, Britain sent 40,000 troops to Greece and gave financial aid to the government, which soon became entirely dependent on the troops and the cash to maintain power. Devastated itself by the just-concluded war, however, Great Britain announced that it could not continue its support beyond March 31, 1947, the day of Greek elections. On February 21, 1947, Britain turned to the United States. It requested aid for Greece as well as Turkey. President Harry S. Truman (1884–1972) secured an appropriation from Congress of $400 million for this purpose as part of the so-called Truman Doctrine—a policy of aiding the "free" nations of Europe to resist the incursion of Soviet-sponsored communism (*see* COLD WAR). The ELAS responded to the Truman Doctrine by announcing the formation of a Communist government, the "Free Greek Government," and, with 20,000–30,000 guerrillas, it fought its way south, penetrating nearly to Athens.

As U.S. military and financial aid began to reach government forces, 40,000 loyalist troops were able to mount a major attack on the main Communist base in the Grammos Mountains during June 19–August 20, 1948. It was the biggest battle of the war, and it proved decisive. The rebels, under General "Markos" Vaphiades (1906–92), broke out of an encirclement by three columns of government troops, but, in doing so, they suffered catastrophic losses: 3,128 killed, 6,000 wounded, and 598 taken prisoner. (Government forces lost 801 killed, 5,000 wounded, and 31 missing.)

With the Communist rebels reeling, the government launched 50,000 troops against a force of 12,500 Communists in the Vitsi Mountains. In heavy fighting, the government did not succeed in dislodging the Communists, but did inflict heavy casualties.

With the onset of winter 1948–49, government troops concentrated on the Peloponnese, clearing it of some 4,000 rebels by the middle of March 1949. However, in Macedonia, it was the rebels who took the offensive. The town of Carpenisi was occupied on January 12, 1949, and it took government forces 16 days to recapture it. The government garrison at Florina came under attack from 4,000 communist troops on February 12, 1949. The siege was broken after four days of bitter combat.

The Communist offensive created heavy casualties on both sides, but Communist losses were heavier—and, in proportion to the numbers of men fielded, much more devastating. The rebel forces kept fighting, but had been greatly reduced, and in July 1949, Tito, responding to divisions within the Soviet sphere of influence, withdrew support for the Greek Communists after they announced their allegiance to Tito's nemesis, Joseph Stalin (1879–1953). By August, the last of the Communist guerrillas had been captured, and the country was declared secure on August 28, 1949. The People's National Army of Liberation (ELAS), principal Greek communist military force, formally surrendered on October 16, 1949.

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Greek War *See* LAMIAN WAR.

Greek War of Independence (1821–1832)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Greek nationalists (later with British, Russian, and French allies) vs. Ottoman and Egyptian forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece and Balkans
DECLARATION: Declaration of independence, January 13, 1822
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Greek nationalists sought independence from the Ottoman Empire.
OUTCOME: With Anglo-Franco-Russo aid, the nationalists achieved autonomy, then independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman and Egyptian forces, 24,000; Greek and allied forces, 25,000
CASUALTIES: Greece, 15,000 killed; Ottoman and Egyptian forces, about 6,000 killed
TREATIES: Treaty of Adrianople, September 14, 1829; Treaty of London, August 30, 1832

Greece had long been under Ottoman rule when the "Hellenic movement"—in part driven by early 19th-century archaeological discoveries that reawakened a passion for classical Greek culture—nurtured a nationalist movement. Educated Greeks were attracted to cultural-political societies, the most prominent of which was the Philike Hetairia (Society of Friends), whereas the lower classes gravitated toward quasi-guerrilla bandit bands, known as the *klephts*.

The beginning of a war for independence was signaled by the so-called YPSILANTI REBELLIONS. The Ypsilantis were a prominent Greek family in Constantinople (and therefore known as Phanariots, Greeks of Constantinople) that had been exiled to Russia because of a dispute with the Sublime Porte, the Ottoman government. In Russia, Alexander Ypsilanti (1792–1832) became a general in the czar's army, and in 1820, military leader of the Philike Hetairia. His ambition was to incorporate Greece in a pan-Balkan rebellion against Ottoman domination, and in March 1821 he led a "Sacred Battalion" in an invasion of Moldavia. He took its capital, Jassy (modern Iasi, Romania), then entered Bucharest. Ypsilanti received acclaim and support from the Phanariot governor of Moldavia and Greeks living in Wallachia, but the czar, responding to pressure from the Austrian minister Metternich, repudiated the action. Presumably acting at the czar's urging, the Greek ecumenical patriarch excommunicated Ypsilanti. Worse, Romania failed to support Ypsilanti. Romania had its own agenda of independence, which included not only freedom from Ottoman oppression but from the oppression of Phanariot officials as well.

Lacking sufficient backing, Ypsilanti suffered a decisive defeat at the Battle of Dragasani, 90 miles west of Bucharest, on June 9, 1821. The general fled to Austria, only to be arrested by imperial order and imprisoned for the next six years. Alexander Ypsilanti's brother, Demetrios (1793–1832), also fled, from Moldavia to Morea (Peloponnese). Here he assembled Greek rebels to begin the war of independence in earnest and on Hellenic territory.

On January 13, 1822, Demetrios Ypsilanti was instrumental in a declaration of independence at Epidaurus, Greece. He led rebel bands by land and sea against the Ottoman garrisons and ports of Morea. His men seized supplies from Ottoman ships there. The rebels took the major Ottoman fortress of Tripolitza and then Athens itself. The Turks responded, during 1822–23, by invading Greece, but their assault on the Greek fortress of Missolonghi (at the mouth of the Gulf of Corinth) failed, and the troops withdrew.

On Crete, however, the Turks made horrific inroads, killing the Orthodox residents there and then going on to devastate the island of Chios, actually enslaving some 100,000 Greeks. Yet Morea held out—until internecine quarreling among the Greeks sparked a civil war in the midst of the rebellion. In 1825, Ottoman sultan Mahmud II (1784–1839) secured military aid from Egypt, which put under the leadership of Ibrahim Ali (1789–1848), son of the Egyptian pasha, an amphibious force aimed at Morea. The Greeks, debilitated by internal strife, were easily defeated, and the Turks soon retook Morea on February 24, 1825, then took Krommydi on April 19. Missolonghi, a key Greek stronghold, was besieged from May 7, 1825, to April 23, 1826. The Egyptians stormed the fortress, killing 500; in the course of the entire siege, 3,000 Greeks died. After the fall of Missolonghi, Athens was retaken on June 5, 1827.

Throughout western Europe, governments and individuals (including, most famously, the British poet George Gordon, Lord Byron [1788–1824]) rallied to the cause of Greek independence. For one thing, western Europe favored a weak Ottoman Empire, and, for another, people felt genuine outrage at the oppression of the "noble" Greeks by the "barbaric" Turks. Britain, Russia, and France agreed to mediate between the Turks and the Greeks, with the ultimate object of obtaining Greek autonomy, if not outright independence. The three nations also demanded the immediate withdrawal of Egyptian forces from Greece. The response of the Ottomans as well as the Egyptians was defiant. The Ottoman Porte rejected any armistice, and the Egyptians refused to evacuate Greek territory. Britain, Russia, and France then launched a naval expedition against the Turkish-Egyptian fleet at Navarino, destroying most of it on October 20, 1827. Navarino was the decisive battle of the war, and it was entirely the work of British, French, and Russian naval commanders and some 17,500 naval personnel from those nations. Not a single Greek was involved. The Turks lost three ships-of-the-line, 12 frigates, two fireships, and 45 smaller craft—a disaster for the Ottoman navy. Four thousand Turks, Egyptians, and Algerians died in the battle, whereas the allies lost 177 men killed in action. Navarino is especially significant in military history in that it was the last great sea battle between wooden ships.

After Navarino, French land forces aided the Greeks in expelling Ibrahim's army.

At this point, Turkey and Russia came to blows in the RUSSO-TURKISH WAR (1828–29), which resulted in a series of Turkish defeats and ended with the Treaty of Adrianople, whereby the Ottoman Porte ceded sovereignty of Moldavia and Wallachia (the so-called Danubian Principalities) and granted Greece autonomous status. Full independence was recognized by the Porte in 1832 when the Treaty of London was signed.

Further reading: David Brewer, *The Greek War of Independence* (New York: Penguin Putnam, 2003).

Grenada, Invasion of (1983)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States forces vs. Cuban and Grenadan forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Grenada, West Indies

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The United States wanted to remove the Cuban military presence in Grenada and to protect approximately 1,000 U.S. nationals resident in the country.
OUTCOME: U.S. objectives were achieved.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Two U.S. Marine amphibious units, two Army Ranger battalions, a brigade of the 82nd Airborne Division, special operations units, and major naval vessels vs. 500–600 Grenadian regulars, 2,000–2,500 organized militiamen, and about 800 Cuban military construction personnel
CASUALTIES: United States, 18 killed, 116 wounded; Grenada, 25 dead, 59 wounded; Cuba, 45 dead, 350 wounded
TREATIES: None

On October 25, 1983, President Ronald Reagan (b. 1911) authorized U.S. forces to invade the island nation of Grenada in the West Indies. Intelligence reports revealed that Cuban troops had been sent to the tiny country (population 110,100) at the request of its anti-American dictatorship. In keeping with the COLD WAR policy of containment of communism, President Reagan was determined to prevent a Cuban presence from being established in Grenada. More immediately, the military was assigned the task of protecting the approximately 1,000 American citizens there, most of whom were students at a local medical college.

The background of the invasion is this: In 1979, a Marxist-Leninist coup led by Maurice Bishop (1944–83) and his New Jewel movement overthrew the government of Grenada. The United States became alarmed when the new communist regime devoted inordinate resources to the construction of a 9,800-foot airstrip, a facility clearly intended for military purposes. The Bishop administration proved to be short-lived. He, together with others in his government, were killed in a 1983 coup that put Deputy Prime Minister Bernard Coard (b. 1944) and General Hudson Austin (b. 1939) in charge of the government. At this point, Sir Paul Scoon (b. 1935), Grenada's governor general, secretly communicated with the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) for aid in restoring order. It was the OECS that, in turn, asked for U.S. military intervention.

The United States launched Operation Urgent Fury, which included a naval battle group centered on the aircraft carrier *Independence,* as well as the helicopter carrier *Guam,* two U.S. Marine amphibious units, two Army Ranger battalions, a brigade of the 82nd Airborne Division, and special operations units. These massive forces landed on Grenada on October 25, 1983, and found themselves facing no more than 500–600 Grenadan regulars, 2,000 to 2,500 poorly equipped and poorly organized militiamen, and about 800 Cuban military construction personnel. The invaders quickly seized the airport and destroyed Radio Free Grenada, a key source of government communications. The U.S. nationals were safely evacuated, and Grenada was under complete U.S. military control by October 28.

The operation was highly successful in that it achieved its objectives, rescuing the U.S. nationals and evicting the Cubans. It was plagued, however, by poor intelligence and inadequate communication and coordination among the army, navy, and marines.

Further reading: William C. Gilmore, *Grenada Intervention: Analysis and Documentation* (New York: Facts On File, 1985); Peter A. Hutchausen, *America's Splendid Little Wars: A Short History of U.S. Military Engagements: 1975–2000* (New York: Viking, 2003); Anthony J. Payne, Paul Sutton, and Tony Thorndike, *Grenada: Revolution and Invasion* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1986).

Guatemalan Revolution (1954)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: U.S.-backed anticommunist rebels vs. Republic of Guatemala
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Guatemala
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When a newly elected Guatemalan president began nationalizing fallow land leased to the United Fruit Company, the United States mounted a military coup.
OUTCOME: The president was ousted and replaced by a military junta that brutally repressed suspected communists and left-wing sympathizers.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 500 rebels; government troop strength unknown
CASUALTIES: About 100 killed on each side
TREATIES: None

Guatemala had been a "banana republic" since 1913, when the Boston-based United Fruit Company established the Tropical Radio and Telegraph Company in the impoverished Central American country, creating a monopoly of the little nation's communications system and placing a stranglehold on its infrastructure—a shining example of America's "dollar diplomacy." Imperialism disguised as economic development, dollar diplomacy allowed the United States in the name of free trade and capital investment to promote its interests—and be spared the inconvenience, not to mention the political headaches, of setting up a colonial government—through the auspices of huge export firms doing business in Central America and the Caribbean.

In Guatemala dollar diplomacy worked like this: Guatemala's ruling elite were persuaded to grant United Fruit tax exemptions, vast acreages for its plantations, and the ownership of Guatemala's main port exchange in

return for help in building a railroad, since Queen Victoria's (1819–1901) heyday the sine qua non for any nation that wanted to count for something. Seduced by promises of further American investment, Guatemalan leaders turned over control of all the nation's railways to the company, whose merchant navy already dominated local shipping. Here also—and in other Latin American countries—United Fruit functioned as a shadow government.

Like the other big fruit companies—Standard Fruit and Steamship in Honduras, for example—United Fruit ruled its vast plantations with an iron fist. Company commissaries drove peasants into unredeemable debt, and thus peonage. When malaria weakened its much exploited workers, the company imported black workers from Jamaica and the West Indies—whose immune systems were supposedly resistant to the disease—to get the crop picked, imposing a U.S.-style racial segregation on those it forced to work together. True, the company built a number of hospitals, but that made sense if it wanted to keep its workers healthy enough to harvest its products. On the other hand, the company did not bother much with schools, building only a few and those mostly for show; it did not need many workers who could read, and consequently Guatemalan literacy rates remained shamefully low. Peasants owned tiny plots, whereas United Fruit kept hundreds of thousands of acres in reserve and uncultivated. By 1930, the company had made so much money that it easily absorbed 20 of its closest rivals, becoming Central America's biggest employer. In the absence of major investments of capital and because so much land was dedicated to agriculture, Guatemala could hardly industrialize, and it thus remained hostage to the constantly shifting world demand for its two cash crops, coffee and bananas—a predicament that continues to plague both Central and much of South America today.

When America began to develop its secret intelligence organizations after World War I, their personnel—like many in the country's foreign service—tended to be agents of the dollar diplomats as well. It was the managing partner of the Wall Street law firm, Sullivan and Cromwell, who in 1936 put together the deal that gave its client, United Fruit, control of the International Railways of Central America (IRCA) and drew up the papers for a new 99-year lease in Guatemala signed by the Guatemalan caudillo (military leader) Jorge Ubico y Castañeda (1878–1946). Ubico was a man who so despised the Mayan rabble that constituted a majority of his subjects (and United Fruit's workers) that he had his initials stamped in every bullet fired by his soldiers to ensure that malcontents "would carry his personal emblem into eternity." A 1944 revolution led by reform-minded army officers ousted Ubico and set up national elections, the second of which six years later brought to power Jacobo Arbenz Guzmán (1913–71).

Pledging "to convert Guatemala from a backwater country with a predominantly feudal economy into a modern capitalist state," President Arbenz planned to open a second port on the Gulf of Mexico, build a national highway to break IRCA's monopoly on transport, and generally compete with United Fruit. In 1952, he squeezed through a legislature corrupted by foreign bribes an agricultural reform bill and began expropriating uncultivated land leased by United Fruit. By 1954, he had nationalized some 400,000 acres—a seventh of the arable acreage in Guatemala—when United Fruit struck back with a vengeance.

In the U.S. Senate, Boston's Henry Cabot Lodge (1902–85) (dubbed "the senator from United Fruit") and House Speaker John McCormack (1891–1980), also from Massachusetts, set off a drum roll in Congress demanding action to clean up the mess in Guatemala. Back in 1952 John Foster Dulles (1888–1959)—from the Wall Street firm of Sullivan and Cromwell—became the U.S. secretary of state, and his brother, Allen (1893–1969), head of the CIA, and now they arranged for the United States to meet with several Latin American nations in a Pan-America conference that condemned the growing influence of the communist movement in the Western Hemisphere.

Suddenly Arbenz found himself accused of consorting with communists and subverting the free world, and a CIA-backed coup was underway. Kermit Roosevelt, the United States's man in Teheran, who had helped engineer the fall from power of Iran's prime minister and the return of the shah earlier in the year, declined the Dulles brothers' invitation to participate, stating that the plan reeked of Nazi methodology. At any rate, the U.S. government claimed a Polish ship carrying communist-made arms had docked in Guatemala and then sent U.S. arms to Honduras and Nicaragua for "defensive" purposes. One of those purposes at least was the invasion launched from Honduras on June 18, 1954, of a 2,000-man anticommunist army under Lieutenant Colonel Carlos Castillo Armas (1914–57). Castillo Armas, encountering almost no resistance from Arbenz's army, quickly penetrated deep into Guatemala. Arbenz turned to the United Nations for help, and the Organization of American States began an investigation into the one-sided conflict, but before either could reach any conclusions Arbenz was ousted on June 28, 1954, and fled to Mexico City.

Castillo Armas occupied Guatemala City as head of a military junta that would now run the country. He brought back Ubico's head of security, a man adept at terror and torture. Suspected communists were treated as common criminals, which meant none too gently, and the hunt was on. Castillo Armas just missed capturing a young, contemplative left-winger named Che Guevara (1928–67), who left the country for glory elsewhere (*see* the Cuban Revolution). If the Dulles brothers took pause at overthrowing the democratically elected president of a sovereign power and replacing him with a brutal dictator, they never mentioned it. Their clients—the government they served, the old Wall Street law firm at which they

once had worked, the United Fruit board of directors for whom they reclaimed Guatemala—were pleased, and they felt covert action had been vindicated. They would use it again.

See also GUATEMALAN WAR.

Further reading: Piero Gleijeses, *Shattered Hope: The Guatemalan Revolution and the United States, 1944–1954* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1992); Burton Hersh, *The Old Boys: The American Elite and the Origins of the CIA* (New York: Scribner's, 1992); Richard H. Immerman, *The CIA in Guatemala: The Foreign Policy of Intervention* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1982).

Guatemalan War (1885)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Guatemala vs. El Salvador (with Nicaraguan, Costa Rican, and Mexican support)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): El Salvador border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Justo Rufino Barrios, dictator of Guatemala, sought to forge a single, unified Central American state, with himself as its president.
OUTCOME: In a single major battle, Barrios was killed and his army defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Guatemala, 7,000; Salvadoran and allied strength unknown
CASUALTIES: Guatemala, 800 killed; El Salvador, 200 killed
TREATIES: None

A liberal coup in 1871 ended the string of conservative regimes that had ruled Guatemala for years. Miguel García Granados (served 1871–73) assumed the presidency and was succeeded upon his retirement in 1873 by fellow revolutionary Justo Rufino Barrios (1835–85), who had been commander of the army during the Granados presidency. The military man approached the task of government as a dictator, diminishing the power of the church, but improving the Guatemalan economy by developing its coffee industry. Barrios favored a union of Central American states, which he effected in 1876. From a union of states, his ambitions escalated to the creation of a single united Central American republic—with himself as president and commander of the army. Honduras eagerly joined Guatemala in this enterprise, but El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica rejected the proposal. Although Mexico was not encompassed by the proposal, its president, Porfirio Díaz (1830–1915), also objected to it, fearing the presence of a large republic on its border. Díaz dispatched troops along the border with Guatemala. Violence broke out when Barrios invaded El Salvador with 7,000 men. The invasion was quickly checked at the Battle of Chalchuapa, April 2, 1885, the only major armed exchange of the Guatemalan War. Eight hundred Guatemalans, including Barrios, fell in this battle, and the Guatemalan plan to create a single Central American republic instantly collapsed.

Further reading: Greg Grandi, *The Blood of Guatemala: A History of Race and Nation* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 2000); Jim Handy, *Gift of the Devil: A History of Guatemala* (Boston: South End Press, 1990).

Guerre Folle ("Mad War") (1488–1491)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The first phase of the war was fought by rivals for the regency of French king Charles VIII; the second phase was fought between France and Brittany (with allies Austria, Aragon, and England).
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Brittany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The first phase of the war was a dispute over the regency of King Charles VIII of France; the second phase was a dispute over Anne of Brittany's marriage to King Maximilian of Austria.
OUTCOME: Anne of Brittany agreed to marry Charles VIII of France; France guaranteed Breton autonomy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: The Treaty of Sablé (1488) ended the first phase of the war; the Treaty of Laval (1491) ended the second.

During the minority of King Charles VIII (1470–98) of France, a dispute broke out among rival claimants to the regency. The young king's sister Anne of France (1460–1522) was opposed to the insurgent claims of Duke Louis (1462–1515) of Orléans, who had gained the support of Brittany's duke Francis II (1435–88). Anne of France dispatched troops, who defeated the forces of Louis and Francis II at the Battle of Saint-Aubin-du-Cormier in 1488. A settlement, the Treaty of Sablé, was drawn up, stipulating the evacuation of all foreign troops from Brittany and obliging Anne of Brittany (1477–1514), Duke Francis's heir, to secure royal permission before marrying.

After Francis died later in 1488, Anne—without the required permission—married Austria's King Maximilian (1459–1519) by proxy, thereby menacing Charles with Austrian encirclement. Accordingly, Charles petitioned Anne of Brittany to renounce the marriage in favor of marriage to himself. The petition touched off a conflict in which King Ferdinand II (1452–1516) of Aragon and King Henry VII (1457–1509) of England backed the Austrian monarch. France sent a large force to Rennes, prompting Maximilian and his allies to back down and agree to the Treaty of Laval, whereby Anne of Brittany agreed to marry Charles in exchange for a pledge of Breton autonomy.

Further reading: David Potter, *History of France, 1460–1560* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995).

"Güglers" War (1375–1376)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French-sponsored English and French mercenaries (*Güglers*) vs. Swiss citizens
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aargau, Switzerland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Lord Enguerrand VII de Coucy claimed the Aargau by right of inheritance and therefore waged war against Leopold of Austria for possession of the territory.
OUTCOME: A combination of a scorched-earth policy and the skill and determination of Swiss citizen-soldiers defeated the Güglers.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 10,000 Güglers against an unknown number of Swiss citizen-soldiers
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but starvation was high among the Güglers.
TREATIES: None

This ugly conflict associated with the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR was named for the dress of the 10,000-man French and English mercenary army hired to prosecute the war. The troops wore cloaks with pointed hoods, called in Swiss-German *Güglers*.

By right of inheritance from his mother, Lord Enguerrand VII de Coucy (1340–97) (later count of Soissons) claimed the Swiss territory of Aargau, which was held by Duke Leopold III (1351–86) of Austria, Enguerrand's cousin. The French-financed Enguerrand's hiring of the Gügler mercenaries, who were augmented by French knights. This force swept through France and Alsace en route to Basel. By November 1375, they had crossed the Jura mountains and were in lower Aargau. At this point, the Güglers had laid waste to a swath of countryside, and they entered Aargau unopposed by Leopold, who refused to fight. Instead, he ordered a scorched-earth policy, pillaging and essentially destroying the region to ensure that the Güglers would have nothing—no booty and no food.

The hungry and enraged Güglers divided their force into three units, believing this to be the most effective way to fight the citizen armies that, in the absence of official aid from Leopold, had formed to oppose them. In fact, the citizen armies proved devastatingly effective against the starving Güglers. At the culminating Battle of Fraubrunnen on December 26, 1376, Bernese troops decisively defeated the Güglers, who began a long, costly retreat back through the Jura Mountains and into France—all the way pursued and harried by Swiss citizen forces.

Further reading: Christopher Allmand, *The Hundred Years' War: England and France at War, c. 1300–1450* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1988); Anne Curry, *The Hundred Years War,* 2nd ed. (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Robin Neillands, *The Hundred Years' War* (New York: Routledge, 2001); Jonathan Sumption, *The Hundred Years' War* (Boston: Faber and Faber, 1999).

Guinea-Bissauan War of Independence (1962–1974)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Guinean revolutionaries vs. Portugal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Guinea-Bissau
DECLARATION: None; independence proclaimed, 1973
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The PAIGC party wanted to lead Guinea-Bissau to independence from Portugal.
OUTCOME: After a prolonged struggle, independence was achieved.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Revolutionaries, 6,200; Portuguese forces, 55,000
CASUALTIES: Revolutionaries, 2,000 military and 5,000 civilians killed; Portuguese forces, 1,000
TREATIES: Portuguese recognition of the Republic of Guinea-Bissau, 1974

Guinea-Bissau was an overseas province of Portugal and known as Portuguese Guinea. In 1956, the African Party for the Independence of Guinea and Cape Verde (PAIGC), founded by Amilcar Cabral (1924–73), attempted to negotiate independence for Guinea-Bissau and the Cape Verde Islands, which were also Portuguese possessions. When talks failed, the PAIGC worked vigorously at the grass roots to acquire support for a war of independence throughout the Guinean villages on the mainland of West Africa. By the end of 1962, guerrilla units had formed and were increasingly effective in their raids on Portuguese army outposts and police stations. Within months, many areas had been taken over by the guerrillas and completely cleared of Portuguese. The Portuguese garrisons were confined to the cities and their own bases. They dared not venture into the countryside. The Portuguese government sought to reclaim the country by attacking, mainly from the air, guerrilla forest bases. The 27,000 Portuguese garrison troops were substantially reinforced, more than doubled to 55,000.

During the Portuguese offensive, the guerrilla units also suffered from internal dissension, as tribal affiliations conflicted with political organization. A pervasive belief in witchcraft also undermined unified effort. At this point, Cabral realized that the war for independence in Guinea-Bissau had to be prosecuted in a twofold manner. It was a struggle against Portuguese imperialism but also against outmoded tribalism and superstition, which were incompatible with united resistance to colonial rule. Cabral worked vigorously through his commanders to gain

control of the situation, and, by the early 1970s, he had made significant progress. He did not aim to defeat the Portuguese militarily, but to wear down the will of the Portuguese government to continue the struggle. By 1973, most of Portuguese Guinea was solidly under Cabral's control and the PAIGC formally proclaimed the independence of the Republic of Guinea-Bissau.

Portugal refused to recognize the independence of its colony, and Amilcar Cabral was assassinated, apparently by PAIGC members who had been compromised by Portuguese agents. But the assassination did nothing to halt the independence movement, and a 1974 military coup in Portugal installed a new government willing to recognize the republic. Luis de Almeida Cabral (b. 1931), brother of the slain Amilcar Cabral, was elected president. The following year, Cape Verde Islands also achieved independence.

Further reading: Carlos Lopes, *Guinea-Bissau: From Liberation Struggle to Independent Statehood* (Denver: Westview, 1987).

Gulf War *See* PERSIAN GULF WAR (1990–1991).

Gupta Dynasty, Conquests of the (320–467)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Guptas and the Kushans (and others); the Guptas and the White Huns
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Guptas sought expansion and unification.
OUTCOME: The Gupta kingdom reached its height and greatest extent under Chandragupta II in the early 400s. With his death, repeated invasion rapidly reduced the kingdom, which effectively ceased to exist about 467.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No surviving documents

Chandragupta I (r. c. 320–c. 330) came to the throne of the Magadha kingdom through marriage. Once established, he took advantage of the weakness of the Kushan-held west by expanding his kingdom as far as Allahabad. When he assumed the throne on the death of his father, Samudragupta (335–80) pushed the boundaries of the kingdom eastward, to Assam, then extended it west, beyond Allahabad, to the Punjab borderlands. The entire Deccan paid him homage.

Samudragupta began a war with the Shakas in their capital at Ujjain, and his son, Chandragupta II (380–413), prosecuted the war to its conclusion, conquering all of the Shaka kingdom, which covered the territory of modern Bombay state. At this point, the Gupta dominated all of northern India, save for the extreme northwestern corner. This proved to be the dynasty's Achilles' heel, for it admitted passage to invaders. By the fifth century, White Hun invasions had ravaged and sapped the Gupta kingdom, so that by about 467 it had been reduced to no more than a portion of Bengal. The dynasty ended completely by 499.

The Guptas had brought India to its classical height. Following the barbarian invasions, the former Gupta realm fragmented into a mass of small states, which devoted themselves to warring against one another.

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Gurkha War (1814–1816)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain (British East India Company) vs. the Gurkhas
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nepal (near the Indian border)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The East India Company and the Gurkhas disputed possession of a region bordering Nepal and India.
OUTCOME: The disputed territory came under East India Company control, and Nepal and the Gurkhas became British allies.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: British East India Company, 40,000; Gurkhas, 12,000
CASUALTIES: British forces, 3,000 killed or wounded; Gurkhas, 1,500 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Sagauli, November 28, 1815

The Gurkhas, a tribe of the western Himalayas, conquered the Nepal valley by 1768. From this territory, they gradually built up a powerful realm with formidable military strength. Conflict between the Gurkhas and the English began in 1801, when the East India Company occupied the Gorakpur district, which bordered Gurkha country. The Gurkhas took Bhutwal, which was subsequently retaken by the East India Company. The dispute over Bhutwal simmered until 1814, when the British government warned the Raja of Nepal that troops would be dispatched to take possession of Bhutwal once and for all. In response, the Gurkhas evacuated—only to return once the British troops had been withdrawn during the rainy season. The territory was patrolled by a small police force, some of whom the Gurkhas killed. In response, the gover-

nor-general of British India, Warren, Lord Hastings (1732–1818), sent a letter to the raja of Nepal, accusing him of deliberately making war on the British government and warning him that troops would be sent into Nepal as soon as the cold weather set in.

When it began, the war went badly for the British. Three of the first four expeditions sent were defeated. The worst disaster came when 3,500 troops attempted to storm the small fort of Kalanga, a few miles north of Debra Dun. The first British attack was beaten back, and then the commanding general of the force was killed while rallying his men for a second attack. The British kept up the pressure for weeks, finally making a breach in the Gurkha line. However, the British were so thoroughly intimidated that, on November 27, 1814, they refused to advance on the fort, even though it was held by only 600 men. Instead of charging the fort, the British bombarded it, finally forcing the Gurkhas to abandon it three days later. Even after achieving this small victory, the intimidated British broke and ran under Gurkha attack at the end of the year.

Two additional expeditions against the eastern end of the Gurkha territory bogged down, and a major British baggage train was attacked and pillaged. Reinforcements were called for, bringing the number of troops massed against the Gurkhas to about 13,000. Even with these numbers, reports of the Gurkhas' fierce fighting capabilities discouraged any offensive action. Yet the fact was that the Gurkhas had neither the manpower nor the resources to withstand the full military might of the British East India Company for any length of time. All that was required was an injection of nerve and the will to mount a concerted campaign.

By early 1815, the East India Company had mustered almost 40,000 troops against perhaps 12,000 Gurkhas, and in the spring the now overwhelmingly superior British forces made headway. By April 1815, the main Gurkha military leader, Amar Singh (fl. 1815), was blockaded on a single mountain ridge. His troops were beginning to talk of surrender. While this was going on, an irregular force of British and Indian troops penetrated deep into Gurkha territory. On April 28, 1815, the Gurkhas hoisted a flag of truce and surrendered, agreeing to evacuate Almora and the whole province of Jumaon and to withdraw all their troops to the east of the Kali River. With this capitulation, Amar Singh's troops began to desert and go over to the British. On May 10, Amar Singh surrendered. All of the disputed territory was now under British hands. Negotiations between the East India Company and the Gurkhas dragged on until November 1815, when the Treaty of Sagauli was signed—however, the major Nepalese leader Nepal Durbar (fl. 1815) refused to ratify it.

Fighting was resumed early in 1816. A British force of 20,000 advanced on Khatmandu and, by strenuous and stealthy maneuvering, surprised the Gurkhas with an attack from behind. The Gurkhas, panic stricken, withdrew without giving battle. A few days later, in March, a representative of Nepal Durbar offered to ratify the 1815 treaty. A lasting peace was made. Nepal remained an independent kingdom, allied to the British, but never a vassal to them, and many Gurkhas voluntarily joined the British colonial military service, in which they became elite troops of great renown and tradition.

Further reading: David Bolt, *Gurkhas* (New York: White Lion Publishers, 1975); Byron Farwell, *The Gurkhas* (New York: Norton, 1990); Harold James and Denis Sheil-Small, *The Gurkhas* (Harrisburg, Pa.: Stackpole Books, 1966).

Guyanan Rebellion (1969)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebel guerrillas vs. Guyanan police and military forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southwestern Guyana, on the Brazilian border
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebels were apparently sponsored by American owners of ranches in southwestern Guyana who wanted to establish an independent state in which they could operate without restrictions of any kind.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quickly crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: A few fatalities
TREATIES: None

This brief conflict began on January 2, 1969, when guerrillas from Brazil invaded Guyana and took the border towns of Lethem and Annai. The Guyanan army and government police officers were quickly deployed to the region and drove the guerrillas back across the border. Casualties on both sides were light in this ultimately abortive rebellion, which was apparently backed by American nationals who owned extensive cattle ranches in the border region and wanted to create a separate state to allow them to operate without restriction or taxation.

Further reading: Chaitram Singh, *Guyana: Politics in a Plantation Society* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1988).

H

Haitian Civil War (1805–1820)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Southern Haiti ("jaunes") vs. northern Haiti ("noirs") (with involvement of French and Spanish colonists in Santo Domingo)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Haiti and Santo Domingo (modern Dominican Republic)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Henry Christophe (northern leader) vied with Alexandre Pétion (leader in the south) for control of Haiti.
OUTCOME: Jean-Pierre Boyer, successor to Pétion, prevailed, unifying all Haiti under his presidency after the suicide of Christophe.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Northerners (*noirs*), 30,000; Southerners (*jaunes*), 20,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but widespread among combatants and noncombatants alike.
TREATIES: None

Jean-Jacques Dessalines (1758–1806), who had crowned himself Emperor Jacques I of Haiti after the HAITIAN-FRENCH WAR of 1801–04, was a brutal and aggressive dictator. During February–March 1805, he led 30,000 Haitians in an invasion of neighboring Santo Domingo. When a French fleet showed itself off Santo Domingo, Dessalines retreated, ravaging the countryside along the way back to the Haitian frontier.

Dessalines's depredations incited the mulattoes (*jaunes*) of the south to rebellion, and when Dessalines led an expedition to crush the uprising, he was killed on October 17, 1806. Henry Christophe (1767–1820) succeeded him, but by this time Haiti had fractured into a mostly black (*noir*) north (soon to become the Kingdom of Haiti) and predominantly *jaune* south. In 1807, when Henry Christophe declared himself king, the forces loyal to him fought those of the Republic of Haiti under President Alexandre Pétion (1770–1818) sporadically over the next 13 years.

Christophe launched a major offensive in mid-1812, but it petered out indecisively. His forces continually harassed the republic from February 1807 to May 1819, successfully defeating a series of punitive expeditions. However, in 1819, Jean-Pierre Boyer (1776–1850) dispatched six regiments into the mountainous region of the Grand' Anse (southern panhandle) to find the *noir* rebel leader known only as Goman (d. 1819). When Goman was cornered, he committed suicide by leaping off a cliff.

With the death of Goman, the last of the major organized *noir* resistance crumbled. In 1820, Henry Christophe, ill and despondent, killed himself, leaving Boyer to unify the nation.

See also HAITIAN RECONQUEST OF SANTO DOMINGO; HAITIAN REVOLT (1858–1859); HAITIAN REVOLT (1915); HAITIAN REVOLT (1918–1920); TOUSSAINT LOUVERTURE, REVOLT OF.

Further reading: Alex Dupuy, *Haiti in the World Economy: Class, Race, and Underdevelopment since 1700* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1997); Rayford W. Logan, *Haiti and the Dominican Republic* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968); David Nicholls, *From Dessalines to Duvalier: Race, Color, and National Independence in Haiti,* rev. ed. (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1995); Médéric-Louis-Elie Moreau de Saint-Méry, *A Civilization That Perished: The Last Years of White Colonial Rule in Haiti,* ed. Ivor D. Spencer, 2 vols. (Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 1985).

Haitian-French War (1801–1804)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French vs. Haitian independence fighters
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hispaniola, especially modern Haiti
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The French sought to wrest Hispaniola from the island's governor-general, François-Dominique-Toussaint Louverture.
OUTCOME: French forces withdrew, mainly because of casualties caused by tropical disease.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French, 25,000; Haitian, variable—but always fewer than the French
CASUALTIES: Battle deaths unknown; the French succumbed to disease at a high rate. At least 5,000 French settlers were massacred during 1805.
TREATIES: None

As a result of the REVOLT OF TOUSSAINT LOUVERTURE, Toussaint Louverture (c. 1743–1803) became governor-general of Hispaniola and put the island's government under a new constitution. At this time, Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) dispatched his brother-in-law, Charles Victor Leclerc (1772–1802), at the head of 25,000 French troops to wrest control of Hispaniola from Toussaint Louverture and reestablish slavery. The French force landed at Cap-Français (Cap-Haïtien, Haiti) on February 5, 1802, only to find that retreating black forces under Henry Christophe (1767–1820) (*see* HAITIAN CIVIL WAR) had put the port city to the torch. This was a prelude to worse. As they advanced inland, the French troops were attacked by guerrillas, who avoided open battle, but nevertheless took a heavy toll on the French. An even more destructive enemy proved to be yellow fever, which was endemic to the island. The French forces dwindled rapidly.

Despite all they suffered, the French scored a victory against a force of some 1,200 troops led by Jean-Jacques Dessalines (1758–1806) at the Battle of Crête-à-Pierrot. This apparently persuaded both Dessalines and Christophe to turn coat and defect to the French. With his leading commanders having gone to the other side, Toussaint Louverture accepted a French offer of amnesty and laid down his arms. He was summarily taken prisoner and sent back, in chains, to France. He died in a French prison about a year later. In the meantime Dessalines and Christophe cooperated with the French to put down those black and mulatto guerrillas who persisted in fighting, but, when they discovered Napoleon's intention to return slavery to the island, they deserted the French fold and joined the guerrillas. In March 1805, Dessalines ordered the massacre of every *blanc*—white person—remaining in Haiti. Beginning in the town of Jérémie, in southwest Haiti, Dessalines slaughtered some 1,400 white French men, women, and children. He progressed east and executed 800 French whites in Port-au-Prince, then marched north to Le Cap, where, during late April, 2,000 whites were killed. Historians estimate that no fewer than 5,000 whites were massacred on Haiti at the behest of Dessalines, who wanted to ensure that no European army would ever dare invade again.

In the end, it was not only the desertion of Dessalines and Christophe, the ongoing resistance of guerrillas, and the massacre of 1805 that defeated the French army on Hispaniola. Another vanquisher was tropical disease, primarily yellow fever. Napoleon decided to cut his losses and withdraw forces from the Caribbean. Indeed, he decided to abandon the New World altogether and, in 1804, through his minister, Charles Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord (1754–1838), negotiated the sale to the fledgling United States of its only other major piece of American real estate: the Louisiana territory.

See also HAITIAN RECONQUEST OF SANTO DOMINGO; HAITIAN REVOLT (1858–1859); HAITIAN REVOLT (1915); HAITIAN REVOLT (1918–1920).

Further reading: Alex Dupuy, *Haiti in the World Economy: Class, Race, and Underdevelopment since 1700* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1997); Rayford W. Logan, *Haiti and the Dominican Republic* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968); David Nicholls, *From Dessalines to Duvalier: Race, Color, and National Independence in Haiti,* rev. ed. (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1995); Médéric-Louis-Elie Moreau de Saint-Méry, *A Civilization That Perished: The Last Years of White Colonial Rule in Haiti,* ed. Ivor D. Spencer, 2 vols. (Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 1985).

Haitian Reconquest of Santo Domingo (1822)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Haiti vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Santo Domingo (Dominican Republic)
DECLARATION: Santo Domingan declaration of independence, November 30, 1821
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Haiti chose to interpret Santo Domingo's declaration of independence from Spain as submission to the government of Haiti and responded by driving the Spanish out of Santo Domingo and annexing the country.
OUTCOME: Haiti and Santo Domingo were united under the presidency of Jean-Pierre Boyer.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Santo Domingo (Dominican Republic) had been a Spanish colony when it was ceded to France and then conquered

by the Haitians in 1820 (*see* HAITIAN CIVIL WAR [1805–1820]). Through this, many Santo Domingans remained loyal to Spain until they began to suffer under the repressive rule of the ultraconservative Spanish monarch Ferdinand VII (1784–1833). On November 30, 1821, Santo Domingo declared itself independent from Spain and called itself the Dominican Republic. The people sent a representative to Simon Bolívar (1783–1830), the "Great Liberator" of South America, and asked for union with Great Colombia. Before this envoy reached Bolívar, however, Jean-Pierre Boyer (1776–1850) Haiti's president, declared that Santo Domingo had not declared independence but, in breaking with Spain, had submitted to the government of Haiti. He dispatched an army into Santo Domingo, drove out the Spanish, and asserted his control of the entire island of Hispaniola—Haiti and Santo Domingo. Hait occupied so-called Spanish Haiti until 1844, when the Dominicans rejected Haitian hegemony and again declared their own sovereignty.

See also HAITIAN REVOLT (1915); HAITIAN REVOLT (1918–1920).

Further reading: Alex Dupuy, *Haiti in the World Economy: Class, Race, and Underdevelopment since 1700* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1997); Rayford W. Logan, *Haiti and the Dominican Republic* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968); David Nicholls, *From Dessalines to Duvalier: Race, Color, and National Independence in Haiti,* rev. ed. (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1995).

Haitian Revolt (1858–1859)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of self-proclaimed Haitian emperor Faustin I vs. mulatto rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Haiti
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The mulattoes, having been betrayed by Faustin I, wanted to overthrow his repressive and corrupt regime.
OUTCOME: Faustin was overthrown in a brief but bloody revolt, his repressive regime replaced by anarchy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Jean-Pierre Boyer (1776–1850), who became president of Haiti as a result of the HAITIAN CIVIL WAR, ruled the nation as a fiefdom, his long administration steeped in corruption and maintained by terror and coercion. In 1843, his regime was overthrown by a coup, and in 1847, after a period of great instability, Faustin Élie Soulouque (c. 1785–1867), a former slave, assumed the presidency, with the backing of mulatto leaders, who believed he would make a compliant puppet. In 1849, Soulouque turned on his backers and created around himself a cult of personality. Emboldened, he crowned himself Emperor Faustin I, instituting a regime even more brutally oppressive and corrupt than that of Boyer. While his people languished in poverty, Faustin assembled a court as lavish as many in Europe. He sought to extend his rule into the Dominican Republic, but was repeatedly defeated. In the meantime, opposition to him grew within Haiti, even as the United States, France, and Great Britain applied diplomatic and economic pressure to force his resignation. At last, Faustin I was overthrown in a revolt led by the mulattoes originally allied with him.

Although the revolt was violent, Faustin himself escaped into exile. One of the emperor's former generals, Nicholas Fabre Geffrard (1806–79), took up the reins of government, declaring a republic and immediately achieving election as president. He made valiant attempts to institute badly needed reforms, but was repeatedly foiled by reactionaries, who finally succeeded in toppling his government in 1867, sending him into exile and returning the nation to violent chaos.

See also HAITIAN-FRENCH WAR (1801–1804); HAITIAN REVOLT (1915); HAITIAN REVOLT (1918–1920).

Further reading: Alex Dupuy, *Haiti in the World Economy: Class, Race, and Underdevelopment since 1700* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1997); Rayford W. Logan, *Haiti and the Dominican Republic* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968); David Nicholls, *From Dessalines to Duvalier: Race, Color, and National Independence in Haiti,* rev. ed. (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1995).

Haitian Revolt (1915)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: U.S. Marines vs. Haitian antigovernment mobs ("Cacos")
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Haiti
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The United States sought to protect U.S. interests in Haiti by establishing a protectorate over it.
OUTCOME: A U.S. protectorate was established.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 2,000 U.S. Marines; Caco numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Relatively light
TREATIES: Treaty of September 16, 1915, establishing a U.S. protectorate

Throughout the 19th century, Haiti had suffered great instability under a series of corrupt and repressive regimes. Vilbrun Guillaume Sam (d. 1915) led a revolt against the

weak, chronically unstable government in 1915, assuming the title of president, briefly, until his assassination at the hands of a mob on July 28, 1915. In the wake of Sam's death, Haiti effectively lacked all government and was in a state of violent anarchy. President Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924), seeking to protect U.S. interests in the island nation, dispatched two companies of U.S. Marines in March 1915 to restore order and supervise election of a new president.

The first marine contingent advanced on Port-au-Prince, the Haitian capital, and restored order there. Reinforcements were called, and by late August 1915, approximately 2,000 marines were in country. The marines engaged in a number of small but intense battles, including fierce hand-to-hand combat in an abandoned French fort atop a 4,000-foot mountain, against insurgents known as the Cacos.

Once the Cacos had been suppressed, the Wilson administration backed the new government of President Philippe Sudre Dartiguenave (1863–1926), who signed a treaty agreeing to place Haiti under a U.S. protectorate. The marines remained in the country through 1934, supervising a U.S.-sponsored Haitian police corps. Although the marine presence and the protectorate status were blatant acts of American imperialism, they provided undeniable benefits to the war-weary and poverty-plagued nation. Throughout Haiti, a small contingent of marines supervised the building of an infrastructure of public works, roads, and utilities, and were reasonably effective at providing the people with physical protection—albeit at the expense of their sovereignty.

See also HAITIAN CIVIL WAR; HAITIAN RECONQUEST OF SANTO DOMINGO; HAITIAN REVOLT (1858–1859); HAITIAN REVOLT (1918–1920).

Further reading: Alex Dupuy, *Haiti in the World Economy: Class, Race, and Underdevelopment since 1700* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1997); Rayford W. Logan, *Haiti and the Dominican Republic* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968); David Nicholls, *From Dessalines to Duvalier: Race, Color, and National Independence in Haiti,* rev. ed. (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1995).

Haitian Revolt (1918–1920)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Haitian anti-U.S. rebels (including "Cacos") vs. U.S. Marines and Haitian gendarmerie
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Haiti, principally Port-au-Prince
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebels wanted to end the U.S. protectorate of Haiti.
OUTCOME: The rebellion, though briefly fierce, was quickly crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 20,000–40,000; U.S. Marines, 1,500+; Haitian gendarmerie, 2,700
CASUALTIES: Cacos, 2,004 killed; Marines, 28 killed; gendarmerie, 70 killed
TREATIES: None

Since 1915, Haiti had been a protectorate of the United States, was occupied by a small force of U.S. Marines, and was policed by a U.S.-backed Haitian gendarmerie. In 1918, the marines supervised a plebiscite by which a new constitution was overwhelmingly adopted (the vote was suspect), even while the U.S. protectorate remained in effect. No new elections followed the adoption of the constitution, and the country continued to be governed by the president the United States had supported, Philippe Sudre Dartiguenave (1863–1926), and the government itself staffed by American bureaucrats. This situation created a considerable degree of resentment among many Haitians. Worse, the Haitian police began enforcing a *corvée,* or labor draft, inducting rural Haitians into a labor force for public works. The enforcement of the *corvée* triggered a revolt against the U.S. presence.

Rebel forces were large, numbering between 20,000 and 40,000, but were poorly organized and even more poorly equipped. They were driven, however, by an intense belief in the native religion of Haiti, Vodun (Voodoo), and their leaders supplied them with various powders and potions said to confer invulnerability upon them. Thus they attacked boldly and fiercely throughout the countryside, finally focusing on the capital city of Port-au-Prince. Marines and the Haitian gendarmerie, although outnumbered, readily defeated the poorly armed rebels.

The most serious threat came from about 5,000 rugged northern mountaineers known as the Cacos. They became very active in March 1919, and during the summer of that year two marines and a Haitian constable penetrated the camp of Caco leader Charlemagne Péralte (1886–1919), whom they assassinated. When a new Caco leader, Benoît Batraville (d. 1920), emerged, the First Marine Brigade, reinforced by the Eighth Marines, conducted a systematic campaign against the Cacos. By May 19, 1920, when a marine patrol killed Batraville, completely suppressing the rebellion, 2,004 Cacos had died, the marines had sustained 28 battle deaths, and 70 Haitian gendarmes were also killed.

The uprising caused the American protectorate, slated to last 10 years, from 1915 to 1925, to be extended to 1934.

See also HAITIAN CIVIL WAR; HAITIAN RECONQUEST OF SANTO DOMINGO; HAITIAN REVOLT (1858–1859); HAITIAN REVOLT (1915).

Further reading: Alex Dupuy, *Haiti in the World Economy: Class, Race, and Underdevelopment since 1700* (Boul-

der, Colo.: Westview Press, 1997); Rayford W. Logan, *Haiti and the Dominican Republic* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968); David Nicholls, *From Dessalines to Duvalier: Race, Color, and National Independence in Haiti,* rev. ed. (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1995).

Hamdanid Invasion of Anatolia

See BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (960–976).

Hammurabi's Unification of Mesopotamia

(1787–1750 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Babylon vs. surrounding kingdoms
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Imperial expansion and conquest
OUTCOME: Babylon expanded, Hammurabi consolidated his hold on a unified Mesopotamian empire, but also stretched his borders thin and rendered them vulnerable.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

In Babylon, Hammurabi (d. 1750 B.C.E.) inherited a powerful kingdom with a formidable military. He resolved to use his armies to gain control of the Euphrates River, which would give him control of vast tracts of arable lands, since agriculture in the region was wholly dependent on irrigation. Of course, his strategy brought Babylon into conflict with Larsa, a kingdom downstream. In 1787 B.C.E., Hammurabi conquered the Larsan cities of Uruk (Erech) and Isin, reengaged Larsan forces again the following year, then, in 1784, abruptly shifted the direction of operations to the north and east. This was followed by nearly two decades of peace—but not the cessation of military activity. Hammurabi devoted these years to thoroughly fortifying key cities on his northern borders, especially during 1776–68.

Poised for war, Hammurabi spent the last 14 years of his reign fighting continual battles. In 1764, he broke up a coalition among Ashur, Eshnunna, and Elam, the chief powers east of the Tigris River. The coalition threatened to bar Babylon's access to the metal-producing areas of Iran. The next year, Hammurabi attacked Rim-Sin of Larsa, apparently using a spectacular military engineering tactic. Hammurabi seems to have dammed a main watercourse, then he either, at a critical moment, caused the waters to be suddenly released, creating a catastrophic flood, or simply withheld the water from Larsa, forcing the people into submission when Hammurabi laid siege to the state.

In 1762, Hammurabi turned to the east and expanded his borders, then, the following year, he attacked his ally, Zimrilim (c. 1800–1750 B.C.E.), king of Mari. Likely, this treachery against an ally of long standing was motivated by a claim on precious water, although it is also possible that Hammurabi simply wanted to gain the advantage of acquiring Mari's strategically superb location at what was the crossroads of the Middle East's overland trade.

In 1759 B.C.E., Hammurabi led his armies east once again, where he fought against Eshnunna, destroying that kingdom by means of another damming operation. Although victory was achieved, the expansion of the Babylonian kingdom through Eshunna removed a valuable buffer zone between Hammurabi's realm and the more aggressive people of the East. This necessitated a new program of fortification building to strengthen the kingdom's defenses. Hammurabi undertook this great work during his own physical decline. He died about 1750 B.C.E. having effectively expanded Babylon while simultaneously consolidating his power over it, yet, in extending his borders, he rendered the kingdom vulnerable to frontier incursions and, ultimately, full-scale invasion.

Further reading: A. Leo Oppenheim, *Ancient Mesopotamia: Portrait of a Dead Civilization* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1986).

Hancock's Campaign (1867)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States vs. Plains Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kansas and Nebraska
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Even as a government peace commission worked to end hostilities with Red Cloud's Sioux and their Cheyenne allies in the Dakotas, a frustrated U.S. Army set out to "punish" the bellicose tribes of the central and southern Great Plains.
OUTCOME: General Hancock's troops chased Indians throughout the area without ever engaging them in decisive battle, while the Indians used the pursuit as an excuse to terrorize Kansas; the army—forced on the defensive—withdrew in utter failure.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States—4,000 troops; Plains Indians—unknown
CASUALTIES: U.S. troops, under 100 killed and wounded; Indians, 100+ killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Medicine Lodge Creek, Kansas, 1867

In the wake of the FETTERMAN MASSACRE on December 21, 1866 (*see* BOZEMAN TRAIL, WAR FOR THE), General William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91), newly in command

of the Division of the Missouri (which encompassed the Great Plains and included the U.S. Army's departments of the Missouri, Platte, Dakota, and Arkansas) telegraphed his commander Ulysses S. Grant (1822–85), who had just been promoted to the recently established rank of general of the armies of the United States: "We must act with vindictive earnestness against the Sioux, even to their extermination, men, women, and children."

Much of nonmilitary Washington, however, continued to favor conciliation. The government was then in the middle of a bureaucratic struggle over who would handle Indian affairs, the civil servants of the Indian Bureau or the officers of the U.S. military, a tussle that ultimately would result in Grant's "Peace Policy," when the Civil War hero became president two years later. President Grant would surprise and dismay many in the army by entering the lists on the side of the civilian "liberals," announcing a policy of what he called "conquest by kindness," under which Native American tribes were no longer to be considered sovereign nations, but wards of the state under civilian—not military—supervision; the Indians would be concentrated on reservations where they would be "civilized," that is, educated, Christianized, and taught to become self-supporting farmers.

Meanwhile, however, the army loudly wrangled with the Indian Bureau, which answered not to the War Department but to the Department of the Interior, over policy throughout 1866–67, particularly over the issue of arms sales. The army, understandably, protested against arming hostile Indians. The Indian Bureau argued that the Indians needed weapons in order to hunt; if they could not hunt, they could not feed themselves, and if they could not feed themselves, they would make war. The War Department sponsored a bill, introduced before the Senate on February 9, 1867, to transfer full authority over the Indians from the Department of the Interior to the Department of War. The bill came up against the report of a Senate investigative committee chaired by Wisconsin senator James R. Doolittle (1815–97), which frankly assessed the root causes of Indian-white warfare and recommended against the transfer of the Indian Bureau to the War Department, detailing military blunders and outrages (with a stress on the SAND CREEK MASSACRE) in the West. In light of the report, the War Department's bid for transfer of the Indian Bureau carried the House of Representatives but failed in the Senate, and another peace commission was sent into the field. Sherman had planned to send Colonel John Gibbon (1827–96) with a force of 2,000 cavalry and infantry to "punish" the Sioux and Cheyenne of the Powder River country; this campaign would have to be tabled until the peace commission had failed—as Sherman was certain it would.

The peace commission was not, however, calling on the tribes of the central and southern Plains—the Southern Cheyenne, the Southern Arapaho, Kiowa, and Oglala and Southern Brulé Sioux—and Sherman did not have to wait to campaign against these groups. He dispatched General Winfield Scott Hancock (1824–86)—an impressive Civil War commander, though new to Indian fighting—to do the job.

The Indians of this region at this time were neither unambiguously hostile nor friendly. They tended to be fragmented, the older leaders favoring peace and accommodation, the younger warriors restless and spoiling for a fight. Menacing words and minor raiding activity were common, and Sherman ordered the hostility checked. On April 7, 1867, Hancock turned out 1,400 troopers of the Seventh Cavalry, the 37th Infantry, and the Fourth Artillery at Fort Larned, Kansas. He summoned a body of Cheyenne chiefs to the fort for a conference and to see for themselves the might of the U.S. Army. Bad weather delayed the meeting and resulted in a small turnout—two chiefs and 12 warriors—so Hancock decided to march a column of soldiers the next day to a combined Cheyenne and Sioux village on the Pawnee fork of the Arkansas River in order to deliver his stern message to more chiefs. Doubtless recalling the treachery of Sand Creek, the women and children of the village scattered for the hills as they saw the soldiers approaching. Although Hancock instructed his principal field officer, Lieutenant Colonel George Armstrong Custer (1839–76), commanding the Seventh Cavalry, to surround the village to prevent the men from escaping as well, by morning the lodges were all deserted. Hancock concluded that war had commenced. Responding to Custer's report that the Indians had given him the slip and burned a station on the Smoky Hill route, Hancock torched the Indian village, then marched to Fort Larned, where his campaign would come to an end in May.

In the meantime, he had sent Custer's cavalry out to chase Indians. At 25, Custer had attained the brevet rank of major general in the Civil War, earning a reputation as a brilliant, if erratic and egotistical, cavalry commander. The flamboyant, yellow-haired "boy general" was, like many other officers, reduced in rank at the conclusion of the war. He was determined to recover his former glory by fighting Indians and fighting them unrelentingly. Acting on Hancock's orders, he led his Seventh Cavalry in hot pursuit of the fleeing Cheyenne and Sioux. When Custer arrived at Fort Hays, Kansas, however, his cavalry was immobilized because forage—which was to have been stored there for him—had not arrived. While Custer waited, the Indians attacked, wreaking havoc on the local Kansas countryside. Ultimately Custer took to the field under orders from General Sherman.

From April through July, he and his men followed the chase through Kansas and Nebraska, always in vain, as the Indians terrorized the region. Though he engaged Indians several times, he was never able to fight a decisive battle, and Custer and the Seventh Cavalry, exhausted, had at last

to withdraw. What had begun as an offensive campaign became a series of desperate and futile attempts at defense—desperate and futile because 4,000 officers and men broadcast over 1,500 miles of major trails could hardly be expected to patrol the region effectively.

In July, Custer went to Fort Riley to see his wife and obtain supplies and was subsequently court-martialed for absenting himself from his command without leave and for abusing men and animals. He was sentenced to suspension from rank and pay for one year. Hancock's campaign and Custer's court-martial played right into the hands of the Indian Bureau. An Indian agent with Hancock, E. W. Wyncoop (1836–91), severely criticized Hancock's management of the campaign, and others blamed both Hancock and Custer for the Indian depredations that spread along the Kansas frontier that summer.

Hancock's campaign was yet another costly army failure and prompted a peace offensive on the southern and central Plains to complement the peace activities in the north. Commissioners negotiated two sets of treaties, at Medicine Lodge Creek, Kansas, in 1867, and at Fort Laramie the next year. The Medicine Lodge treaties established Cheyenne, Arapaho, Kiowa, Comanche, and Kiowa-Apache reservations in Indian Territory (present-day Oklahoma), and the Fort Laramie treaties gave to Red Cloud most of what he had fought for in the War for the Bozeman Trail, including the designation of the Powder River country as "unceded Indian territory."

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice-Hall General Reference, 1993); Donald J. Berthrong, *The Southern Cheyenne* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1963); William H. Lecke, *The Military Conquest of the Southern Plains* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1963); Robert Utley, *Cavalier in Buckskin: George Armstrong Custer and the Western Military Frontier* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1988) and *Frontier Regulars: The United States Army and the Indians, 1866–1890* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1984).

Hannibal's Destruction of Himera (409 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Carthage vs. Syracuse
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Himera, on the north coast of Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Seeking revenge for the humiliating defeat in the Carthaginian-Syracusan War, a general named Hannibal besieged and captured the city-state of Himera.
OUTCOME: Carthage defeated Syracuse's opposition, looted Himera, and burned the city to the ground.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Carthaginian general, Hamilcar Barcas (c. 270–28 B.C.E.) and his famous son Hannibal (247–183 B.C.E.), who won their glory during the PUNIC WARS, descended from a powerful family with a long history of military service to their North African homeland. Not only their family name, Barcas, but their first names as well, frequently appeared in the annals of Carthage's storied past. An earlier Hamilcar (fl. 480 B.C.E) attempted to conquer Sicily but was repulsed by Syracuse at the battle of Himera in 480 B.C.E, preserving the island's Greek city-states from Carthagian domination for the better part of another century (*see* CARTHAGINIAN-SYRACUSAN WAR [481–480 B.C.E]). Hamilcar died during the war, which so soundly shook Carthage that it adopted an isolationist policy until Hamlicar's grandson Hannibal (d. 406 B.C.E.) rose to military prominence two generations later. Seeking revenge for his grandfather's death and renewed glory for the Barcas and for Carthage, this ancestor and namesake of the Hannibal who would one day challenge Rome raised a large invasion force and in 409 laid siege to Himera, again facing the Syracusans. Only this time, the opposition of Syracuse proved futile. Hannibal and his troops entered the city-state, looted the denizens, and departed—after first reducing Himera to ruins.

See also HANNIBAL'S SACK OF ACRAGAS.

Further reading: Serge Lancel, *Carthage: A History* (London: Blackwell, 1994).

Hannibal's Sack of Acragas (406 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Carthage vs. Syracuse
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The south coast of Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Three years after destroying Himera, the first Hannibal returned with his soon-to-be-renowned nephew, Himilco, in the first salvo of a longer campaign called Himilco's War.
OUTCOME: The settlement of Acragas was severely defeated, but the first Hannibal was killed in the fighting.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Syracuse sent 35,000 men to relieve the besieged garrison.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Three years after HANNIBAL'S DESTRUCTION OF HIMERA, the Carthaginian general (not the Hannibal [247–183 B.C.E.]

famous for his exploits in the Second PUNIC WAR) returned to Sicily to seek victories against the Syracusans. This early Hannibal (d. 406 B.C.E.) took with him on the expedition his soon-to-be-illustrious nephew, Himilco (d. 397 B.C.E.), and together they besieged Acragas, a settlement on the island's south coast. He defeated the city's garrison, which was commanded by the able Spartan Dexippus (d. 406 B.C.E.), who died in the battle. However, Hannibal himself succumbed to an epidemic that swept the Carthaginian camp before the siege was completed. It fell to Himilco to finish the triumph and to resist the onslaught of a 35,000-man Syracusan relief column, fighting a fierce battle outside the city's walls. The Syracusans nearly prevailed, but, on the verge of victory, fell to disputing among themselves, thus giving the advantage to Carthage.

The relief column defeated, Himilco turned his men loose on Acragas. Its brutal sacking was the first assault of many along Sicily's coast in what is now called HIMILCO'S WAR.

Further reading: Serge Lancel, *Carthage: A History* (London: Blackwell, 1994).

Hanoi Incident

See FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1873–1874).

Hapsburg-Bohemian War (1274–1278)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hapsburg emperor Rudolf I (and allies) vs. Bohemian king Ottokar II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Austria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rudolf fought to make good his claim on Austria.
OUTCOME: Rudolf prevailed, establishing Hapsburg rule over Austria and the entire Danube valley.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The war was fought over a disputed claim to Austria. Both the Holy Roman Emperor Rudolf I (1218–91) of Hapsburg and Bohemia's King Ottokar II ("Ottokar the Great") (c. 1230–78) laid claim to it. In 1274, the Diet of Regensburg vacated Ottokar's claim to Austria, as well as his claims to Styria and Carniola. Thus sanctioned, Rudolf forged an alliance with a group of disaffected Bohemian nobles, then attacked Ottokar in Austria. After making additional agreements with Bavarian knights, Rudolf besieged Vienna, Ottokar's well-fortified stronghold. Unfortunately for Ottokar, his troops proved as disloyal as some of his nobles, and they deserted Vienna. The Bavarian knights overran and captured a supply center at Klosternberg, which provisioned the siege forces for the long haul. Vienna, starving, had no choice but to surrender and to recognize Rudolf as king. Ottokar personally capitulated soon afterward, in 1275, and, in accordance with the Diet's ruling, renounced his claims to Austria, Styria, and Carniola, retaining only Bohemia and Moravia for his kingdom.

Humiliated, the Bohemian king was never reconciled to his defeat. He soon raised a new army, which led back to Vienna in 1278. There Rudolf, his force now augmented by Alsatians and Swabians, as well as Hungarian units under Ladislas IV (1262–90), engaged him on August 26, 1278, at the Battle of Marchfield (Durnkrut), a plain north of the Danube from Vienna. Ottokar was not only defeated but killed. His son, Wenceslas II (1271–1305), aged seven, assumed the throne under a Hapsburg regency directed by Rudolf, and the Hapsburgs would rule Austria and the Danube valley through the end of WORLD WAR I in 1918.

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); Archdeacon William Coxe, *History of the House of Austria,* 3rd ed., 4 vols. (reprint, New York: Arno Press, 1971); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Hapsburg Brothers' War (1601–1612)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rudolf II, Holy Roman Emperor, vs. Matthias, governor of Austria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Austria and Bohemia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The mentally unbalanced Rudolf invited forces under his cousin to raid and pillage Austria and Bohemia in a misguided effort to wrest them from his brother Matthias.
OUTCOME: Rudolf was ultimately forced to abdicate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The war was the result of an internecine dispute within the Hapsburg family. The apparent insanity of the Holy Roman Emperor, Rudolf II (1552–1612), touched off a contest for control of various parts of the Hapsburg realm. In 1605, in an attempt to resolve the already violent dispute, a Hapsburg conference decided that Matthias (1557–1619), governor of Austria, would also assume

governance of Hungary, taking the reins from his brother Rudolf. Matthias understood that many in Hungary looked to Turkey for relief from Hapsburg religious persecution: the Catholic Hapsburgs promoted the Counter Reformation in Protestant Hungary. Matthias wanted to avert war with the Turks. He therefore ended the Hapsburg policy of support for the Counter Reformation. This, however, triggered a violent response from Rudolf, who was a zealous Catholic. To checkmate his brother, Matthias summarily proclaimed himself head of the Hapsburg family. Although Rudolf remained Holy Roman Emperor, Matthias now took control of Bohemia and Austria, in addition to Hungary. Rudolf resisted this, and the nobles of Bohemia sided with him.

An all-out war within the Hapsburg family seemed inevitable, but timely compromise staved it off—until Rudolf, increasingly unstable, called on his cousin, Leopold V (1586–1632) archduke of Austria and a Catholic archbishop, to lead an army through Austria and Bohemia, plundering as he marched. This expedition, which took place in 1611, prompted the Bohemian nobles to transfer their allegiance from Rudolf to Matthias. With the aid of the Bohemian nobles, Matthias forced Rudolf to abdicate the Bohemian throne. Rudolf was permitted to continue styling himself Holy Roman Emperor, but he had no real power, and, on his death in 1612, Matthias succeeded him in fact as Holy Roman Emperor.

See also HAPSBURG DYNASTIC WARS.

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); Archdeacon William Coxe, *History of the House of Austria,* 3rd ed., 4 vols. (reprint, New York: Arno Press, 1971); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Hapsburg Dynastic Wars (1439–1457)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Frederick V, duke of Inner Austria (later Holy Roman Emperor Frederick III) vs. Hungary's John Hunyadi and, separately, Ulrich of Cilli.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Austria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Frederick, Hunyadi, and Ulrich each sought control of Ladislas, infant king of Bohemia and Hungary.
OUTCOME: After prolonged war alternating with compromise, Ladislas asserted his majority and ruled Hungary and Bohemia until his death, apparently by assassination.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Totals unknown. The biggest military operation, the siege of Wiener Neustadt, was carried out by 16,000 soldiers loyal to Ulrich of Cilli.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Albert II (1397–1439), the first of the Hapsburg Holy Roman Emperors, also ruled Austria, Bohemia, and Hungary. A peacemaker and brilliant administrator, he convened the Diet of Nürnberg in 1438 at which he settled all feuds based on the right of private warfare and set up a system of arbitration. He also organized Germany into efficient "administrative circles." Despite all of this, his death in 1439 following a long campaign against the Turks precipitated a crisis of succession. A son, Ladislas (1440–57), was born to him posthumously, but it was Albert's cousin, Frederick V, duke of Inner Austria, who became effective head of the Hapsburg family upon Albert's death. Frederick was guardian of the infant Ladislas, but he had not been designated regent. Nevertheless, he freely exploited his ward's claims to both the Hungarian and Bohemian thrones. Opposing Frederick was John Hunyadi (1387–1456), a Hungarian general who, for all intents and purposes, was the real ruler of Hungary. Hunyadi wanted to control Ladislas as a means of preserving his own power in Hungary. To this end, Hunyadi invaded Styria (part of Inner Austria) in 1446. Backed by his men, Hunyadi demanded that Ladislas be surrendered to him. Instead of relinquishing the boy to Hunyadi, Frederick put him in the care of an arbitrator, a Roman Catholic cardinal. Hunyadi was immediately distracted by an invitation to crusade against the Turks, which he did.

This did not end Frederick's troubles, however. No sooner had he dodged John Hunyadi than, in 1451, he faced an insurrection among many Austrian nobles, who demanded Ladislas. The insurrection was put down with little bloodshed by legal maneuvering that conferred on Frederick full regent powers in Austria. Almost simultaneously, Frederick resolved the dispute with Bohemia by naming George of Podebrad (1420–71) the boy's regent for Bohemia.

Physical possession of Ladislas still remained an issue, however, with dissident Austrians. In 1452, Ulrich of Cilli (d. 1456), the boy's cousin and the single most powerful man in Austria, led 16,000 troops in a siege against Frederick—now Holy Roman Emperor Frederick III—in his capital, Wiener Neustadt, Austria. Frederick had no choice but to surrender Ladislas to him, and the boy was taken to Vienna. The following year, 1453, Ulrich was deposed by a coup—yet Ladislas remained the presumptive monarch. The boy was crowned Ladislas V in 1453, then, two years later, claimed his majority in opposition to John Hunyadi and George of Podebrad. Ladislas assumed active rule of Bohemia and Hungary, only to die in 1457, probably the victim of murder by poisoning.

Following the death of Ladislas, Bohemia elected George of Podebrad as its king, and Hungary elected Matthias I Corvinus (1443–95).

See also HAPSBURG BROTHERS' WAR.

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); Archdeacon William Coxe, *History of the House of Austria,* 3rd ed., 4 vols. (reprint, New York: Arno Press, 1971); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Hapsburg-Ottoman War for Hungary (1662–1683)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hapsburgs with Polish alliance vs. the Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Turks sought conquest of Hungary and the capture of Vienna.
OUTCOME: Hungary fell to the Turks; however, with Polish aid, the Hapsburgs lifted the siege of Vienna, and a new alliance was concluded against the Turks with the object of ejecting them once and for all from Hungary.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Hapsburgs, 45,000; Polish forces, 30,000; Turks, 200,000 men
CASUALTIES: Heavy among Turkish forces at the Battle of Vienna (1683); as many as 17,000 may have died on both sides during the war.
TREATIES: Peace of Vasavar, August 11, 1664; Peace of 1682

At the Battle of Nagyszollos, January 22, 1662, Janos Kemeny (d. 1662), prince of Transylvania, was defeated and killed by Turkish forces under Mehmed Kucuk (fl. 1662). This restored control of Transylvania to the Ottomans.

Following the victory in Transylvania, Turkish forces under the Grand Vizier Fazil Ahmed Koprulu Pasha (1635–76) invaded Hapsburg Hungary with 80,000 men. His object was to capture Vienna, but he failed to seize the initiative and, once delayed, found himself confronting stiff resistance from Hapsburg fortresses. Koprulu Pasha initiated peace negotiations with the Hapsburgs, but, in the meantime, attacked at the Raab River on August 1, 1664. Repulsed, the Turks retreated to Buda. For their part, the Hapsburgs declined to exploit the victory. They did not pursue, and, on August 11, 1664, the Peace of Vasavar was concluded.

The Peace of Vasavar did not please the Magyar nobility in Hungary, and during 1664–73, small-scale rebellions sporadically broke out against the Hapsburgs. The Magyars staged a full-scale revolt in 1678, calling on the Turks for aid. Pressure on the Hapsburgs was so great that, in 1682, they concluded a peace with Count Imre Thokoly (1656–1705), the leader of the Magyar revolt. Thokoly assumed de facto control of all Hungary, except for Transylvania. In the meantime, the Hapsburgs concluded an alliance with the Poles on March 31, 1683. This came just in time to resist a Turkish invasion of Austria by an army of some 200,000 men. Before this onslaught, the badly outnumbered Hapsburg forces—about 45,000 men—retreated, and on July 14, 1683, the Turks laid siege to Vienna.

The Vienna siege lasted into September, when Polish forces under John Sobieski arrived with an army of 30,000. Surprised, the Turks now faced a combined force of about 76,000 in the Battle of Vienna on September 12, 1683. The result was the defeat of the numerically superior Turks, who suffered heavy losses. However, once the siege was broken, Sobieski declined immediate pursuit. The delay extended into December, allowing the surviving portion of the Turkish army to escape intact.

The next year, the Treaty of Linz was concluded (March 31, 1684), creating a Holy League to continue to oppose the Turks and reclaim all Hungary (*see* AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR [1683–1699]; VIENNA, SIEGE OF [1683]).

See also HAPSBURG BROTHERS' WAR.

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); Archdeacon William Coxe, *History of the House of Austria,* 3rd ed., 4 vols. (reprint, New York: Arno Press, 1971); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Hapsburg-Valois War (1547–1559)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hapsburg-ruled Spain (allied with Florence) vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France wanted to achieve control of as much of Italy as possible, but was resisted by Hapsburg-ruled Spain.
OUTCOME: France was defeated in this and related wars and therefore relinquished most of its claims to Italian territory.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Hapsburgs and France each fielded no more than 50,000 men at any given time.

CASUALTIES: Hapsburgs, 28,050 killed or wounded; France, 42,400 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Câteau-Cambrésis, April 3, 1559

Determined to assert French hegemony over the bulk of Europe, Henry II (1519–59) of France embarked on war against Holy Roman Emperor Charles V (1500–58), beginning in 1547. By April 1552, Henry had taken Lorraine, and when Charles attempted to take the fortress city of Metz during October–December 1552, he was repulsed. That same year, a French force invaded Tuscany, but imperial troops defeated the invaders at the Battle of Marciano on August 2, 1553. Survivors of the battle withdrew to Siena, where they were laid under siege until 1554, when they capitulated.

By 1556, Charles V, exhausted by war, abdicated the throne. His son, Philip II (1527–98), assumed the crown of Spain, and Charles's brother, Ferdinand, became Holy Roman Emperor. The war with France continued, but shifted from Italy to northern France and into Flanders.

Philip, with Duke Emmanuel Philibert of Savoy (1528–80), led an army of 50,000 into Picardy while most of the French army was still in Italy. A French force of some 26,000 troops was hastily raised, and an attempt was made to check the invasion at St. Quentin on August 10, 1557. However, as the French army crossed the Somme River, imperial forces attacked, and some 6,000 Frenchmen were killed. The imperial forces sustained no more than 500 casualties. Incredibly, however, the imperial commanders failed to exploit this tremendous triumph and withdrew into the Netherlands. This gave Henry II sufficient time to summon reinforcements from Italy.

On January 1, 1558, the duke of Guise (1519–63) led 25,000 men from Italy against an imperial-allied English force at Calais. The defeat of this English garrison forever ended Britain's occupation of this piece of the Continent. Then, on June 30, 1558, another French force—about 10,500 strong—invaded Spanish Flanders and pillaged Dunkirk before falling back on Calais. A Spanish force of 13,000 men routed the French invaders on July 13, virtually wiping out the entire French force. This catastrophe prompted France to sue for peace, which came in the form of the Treaty of Câteau-Cambrésis (April 3, 1559), by which France relinquished almost all of its Italian possessions.

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); Archdeacon William Coxe, *History of the House of Austria,* 3rd ed., 4 vols. (reprint, New York: Arno Press, 1971); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Harsha's Conquests

See CHALUKYAN WAR AGAINST HARSHA.

Hawaiian Wars (Unification of Hawaii) (1782–1810)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Kamehameha I vs. rival chieftains and the chiefs of Molokai, Lanai, Oahu, and Kauai
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hawaiian Islands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Kamehameha I sought to unite all of the Hawaiian Islands under his rule.
OUTCOME: Through a combination of war and negotiation, Kamehameha I created the kingdom of Hawaii.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The largest force consisted of 12,000 warriors led by Kamehameha.
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but particularly devastating among the defenders of Oahu.
TREATIES: None

Kamehameha I (c. 1758–1819) the Great inherited, with his cousin, Kiwalao (d. 1782), rule over the big island of Hawaii in 1782. Almost immediately, Kamehameha fell to disputing with Kiwalao and waged a war against him, killing him at the Battle of Mokuohai, fought later in 1782. Other rivals also emerged, all of whom Kamehameha subdued, even as he struck out from the island of Hawaii to gain control over the other islands in the Hawaiian chain, each of which was governed by other chieftains.

Maui fell to him in 1790, after a bloody invasion. By 1791, Kamehameha had acquired firearms from American and European traders and used these to attack chieftains from Oahu and Kauai after they had retaken Maui and attacked Hawaii. Using the bought weapons, Kamehameha defeated the armies from Oahu and Kauai to emerge as sole ruler of the big island. When a new rival, Keovu (d. 1791), emerged at this time, Kamehameha invited him to a parley—then assassinated him upon his arrival.

Having taken the big island, Kamehameha invaded the other islands beginning in 1795. With 12,000 warriors in 1,200 large war canoes, he invaded Molokai, Lanai, and Oahu. On Oahu, the invaders drove the defenders to a desperate stand at Nuuanu Pali, a 1,200-foot cliff near modern Honolulu. The defenders, to a man, fell to their deaths from this height—either pushed or having committed suicide. Their leader, Kalunikupule (d. 1795) was summarily executed.

After his victory at Oahu, only the islands of Kauai and Niihau remained to be taken. Kamehameha mounted a major expedition against them in 1800, but was caught

in a destructive storm. He and his surviving crews turned back. Four years passed before he made another attempt, but an epidemic swept his army, killing many warriors before the invasion could be launched, This mishap prompted Kamehameha to turn to negotiations with the leaders, who, in 1809, acknowledged Kamehameha as their king. By 1810, all of the Hawaiian chain was consolidated under Kamehameha's control.

Further reading: Gavan Daws, *Shoal of Time: A History of the Hawaiian Islands* (New York: Macmillan, 1968); Ruth M. Tabrah, *Hawaii. States and the Nation.* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1984); Richard William Tregaskis, *The Warrior King: Kamehameha the Great* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1973).

Heiji War (1159–1185)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Taira vs. Minamoto warrior clans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rival clans sought control of the Japanese government.
OUTCOME: The Minamoto clan emerged as dominant, and the war heralded the emergence of feudal Japan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Heian period, 792–1192, brought a great measure of peace and stability to early Japan; however, during the later Heian period, certain leading families acquired large territories and hired private standing armies to defend their property. Soon, these armies displaced the standing forces of the Heian government. This situation produced a number of warrior clans, the two most important of which were the Taira, also called the Heike, and the Minamoto, also known as the Genji (*see* GEMPEI WAR). By the 1150s, the Minamoto controlled most of eastern Japan, whereas the Taira dominated the west.

As the power of the two great warrior clans grew, another clan, the Fujiwara, gained control of the emperor and, from 856 to 1086 the Fujiwara were effectively the principal executive authority in the government of Japan. In 1155, the succession to the throne fell vacant, and Go-Shirakawa (1127–92) was named emperor, an action that touched off a minor revolt known as the HOGEN WAR, which the Taira and Minamoto clans quarreled. Although the Hogen War itself was not of great military scope, it signaled a turning point in Japanese affairs, for power had clearly passed to the warrior clans. Go-Shirakawa (Shirakawa II) was succeeded by Nijo (1143–65), and, during his reign, the ambitious and shrewd yet morally bankrupt Taira lord, Kiyomori (1118–81), insinuated himself at court and acquired great influence with the emperor. Seeking to control Kiyomori, the retired emperor Go-Shirakawa, with the help of a minor Minamoto lord, laid a military trap for him. The plot collapsed and created a great rift between the Taira and the retired emperor on the one hand and the Taira and Minmoto clans on the other.

In 1179, the head of the Taira, Shigemori (d. 1179), died and was succeeded by his brother Muenemori (1147–85). In contrast to Shigemori, who had been a forceful and successful leader, Muenemori was cowardly and inept in military and political matters. Go-Shirakawa recognized Muenemori's weakness and decided to take steps to reduce Taira power. He dismissed many influential Taira in the capital. Kiyomori stepped in, however, dismissed even more court officials, then marched on the capital and forced the new emperor, Takakura (1161–81), off the throne, installing in his place his own year-old grandson, Antoku (1178–85). The deposed emperor recruited the Minamoto—the Genji—to come to his aid, and the Heiji War became a full-scale civil war.

Kiyomori's seizure of the capital was virtually a military coup. It was opposed by Minamoto Yoritomo (1147–99), who, after coming to control all of eastern Japan, overran the capital in 1185, forced the Taira out of the city, and ended the Heiji War. In its aftermath, Minamoto Yoritomo set up an alternative military government in Kamakura, 30 miles south of Tokyo. The Kamakura military leaders ruled as shoguns—hereditary military governors—and their government eventually came to dominate the country. The Heiji War, therefore, inaugurated the long period of feudal Japan, run by a network of provincial generals and lords who served the shogun as his vassals.

See also JAPANESE CIVIL WAR (936–941); JAPANESE CIVIL WAR (1331–1333).

Further reading: William Wayne Ferris, *Heavenly Warriors: The Evolution of Japan's Military, 500–1300* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1996); John W. Hall, *Japan; From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle, 1971); Jeffrey P. Mass, *Warrior Government in Early Medieval Japan* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1974); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif., Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Henry II's Campaigns in Wales (1157, 1165)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Norman England vs. Wales
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Wales
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Taking advantage of a chaotic period in English rule, the Welsh rebelled against

the Norman barons sent to control them; Henry II invaded to put down the rebellion.
OUTCOME: Henry received the homage of Wales despite failing to conquer the Welsh.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the NORMAN CONQUEST of 1066, Wales came under control of feudal barons and their retinues who owed fealty to the French-speaking English kings. Then, in 1157, the chaotic reign of England's King Stephen (c. 1097–1154) gave the Welsh the opportunity to rise against the "foreign" barons. The revolt was led by two Welsh nobles, Owain of Gwynnedd (d. 1170), prince of the north, and Rhys ap Gruffydd (c. 1132–97), lord of the south.

England was hardly in shape to resist. The ambitious Henry Plantagenet (1133–89) had fast been adding titles to his name. Already duke of Normandy in 1150, he became count of Anjou upon the death of his father, Geoffrey (1113–51). The next year, he acquired lordship of aquitaine by marrying the beautiful and talented Eleanor (1122–1204). Now he laid claim to the English throne as the grandson (through his mother) of Henry I (1069–1135). Faced by invasion, Stephen agreed in 1153 to accept Plantagenet as coadjutor and heir. When Stephen died the following year, Henry II became king over territories stretching from Scotland to the Pyrenees. His succession came virtually without opposition, except from those already fighting in Wales.

Now, in fact, Wales won back lands taken as a result of the Norman Conquest, defeating the invasion force mounted by the new king. Even though he failed to prevail on the battlefield, Henry persuaded Owain to give him his allegiance and began rebuilding the English fortresses in Wales. By 1165, Owain had again had enough of the overbearing English barons, and he incited a new rebellion, which led to yet another invasion. This time Henry and Owain fought to a draw in a campaign plagued by bad weather and short supplies on both sides. Henry had managed in general to drive the Welsh back from the English border, but the individual lords kept control of their own districts. As the Welsh looked on, once again the English began building new fortresses for their borderland barons.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1159–1189).

Further reading: Richard W. Barker, *Henry Plantagenet, A Biography* (London: Barrie and Rockcliff, 1964); Paul Barbier, *The Age of Owain Gwynedd; An Attempt at a Connected Account of the History of Wales from December, 1135 to November, 1170* (Felinfach, Wales: Llanerch, 1990).

Henry VII's First Invasion of Brittany
(1488)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. Brittany
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Brittany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Henry VII sought to assert English control of Brittany in order to secure his precarious hold on the English throne.
OUTCOME: An English invasion failed, and Brittany declared its allegiance to France.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Sablé, 1488

The Wars of the ROSES, from 1455 to 1485, made Henry VII (1457–1509) king of England. He was, however, keenly aware that his reign was vulnerable, and in an effort to protect his hold on the throne, he decided to invade Brittany. Although Brittany was, at the time, a duchy nominally controlled by England, it was weakly held and therefore in danger of falling to Charles VIII (1470–98) of France. To avert this, Henry VII appealed to English patriots to finance an invasion. The king loaded three warships with volunteers and invaded—only to be rapidly and readily repulsed.

In the wake of victory over the English, Francis II (1435–88), the duke of Brittany, shifted his allegiance from Henry to Charles. For his part, Charles, who wanted to marry the duke's daughter, Anne of Brittany (1477–1514), was eager to accept Francis's fealty. Defeated, Henry cut his losses by renewing a truce under the Treaty of Sablé.

See also HENRY VII'S SECOND INVASION OF BRITTANY.

Further reading: J. D. Mackie, *The Earlier Tudors, 1485–1558* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1994); Anthony Pickering, *Lancastrians to Tudors: England 1450–1509* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2000).

Henry VII's Second Invasion of Brittany
(1489–1492)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Brittany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Henry VII of England sought to block the absorption of Brittany by France.
OUTCOME: King Charles VIII settled with Henry VII for a sum of money and a pension, in exchange for Henry's relinquishing all claims on Brittany.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Etaples, 1492

Almost immediately after Henry VII (1457–1509) of England signed the Treaty of Sablé with France and Brittany, ending HENRY VII's FIRST INVASION OF BRITTANY in 1488, Francis II (1435–88), duke of Brittany, died. Charles VIII (1470–98) of France immediately laid claim to Brittany and to Anne of Brittany (1477–1514), Francis's daughter, whom he had wanted to marry. Henry responded by calling for a Breton regency. To Brittany, he offered his services as mediator. He also offered military aid to resist French conquest, and he strengthened his own position by an alliance with Spain, by which Catherine of Aragon (1485–1536) would marry his son, Arthur (d. 1502). But, even as Henry's troops were en route to Brittany, Anne of Brittany agreed to the marriage and agreed to yield Brittany to Charles, and Spain made a secret alliance with France.

Henry, seeking to salvage something from the situation, invaded France in 1490 and laid siege against Boulogne the following year. Charles VIII bought him off with 745,000 gold crowns and a pension, terms agreed to in the 1492 Treaty of Etaples, which ended the war. In exchange, Henry VII renounced all claims to Brittany, which became a French province.

See also "GUERRE FOLLE."

Further reading: J. D. Mackie, *The Earlier Tudors, 1485–1558* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1994); Anthony Pickering, *Lancastrians to Tudors: England 1450–1509* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2000).

Henry of Bolingbroke's Revolt (1399)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Followers of Henry of Bolingbroke vs. King Richard II of England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Yorkshire and London
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bolingbroke revolted when Richard withheld his inheritance from him; he then sought the throne.
OUTCOME: Bolingbroke prevailed, captured, and disposed of Richard II, and assumed the throne as Henry IV, first of the house of Lancaster to become king of England.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Few, if any—excluding Richard II himself
TREATIES: None

As a young king, England's Richard II (1367–1400) was controlled by his uncle, John of Gaunt (1340–99)—head of the house of Lancaster and the country's regent. During the early years of Richard's reign, John of Gaunt's ambitious son, Henry of Bolingbroke (1367–1413), appeared content to remain in the background while his father ran the government. But when Gaunt led an expedition against Spain in 1386, Bolingbroke joined a group a young nobles opposed to the king called "the lords appellants," who from 1387 until 1389 forcibly isolated Richard from his closest associates and thereby dominated the kingdom. Richard had just taken back control of his government when Gaunt returned home.

The former regent managed—at least publicly—to effect reconciliation between the king and the lords appellants before charging off once more, this time on crusades into Lithuania in 1390 and Prussia in 1392. While he was gone, the still bitter King Richard used a dispute between Bolingbroke and another of the former lords appellants, Thomas Mowbray (1366–99), duke of Norfolk, to banish both men from his kingdom. Upon John of Gaunt's death in January 1399, the vindictive Richard seized all the Lancastrian estates, depriving the exiled Bolingbroke of his inheritance and giving him clear excuse to attack England. Bolingbroke invaded Yorkshire, sailing across the English Channel from France while Richard was absent on his second expedition against Ireland. Henry landed at Ravenspur at the mouth of the Humber River on July 4, 1399, and encountered no organized resistance. The northern barons flocked to his side, and, with them, Bolingbroke marched on London. By the time Richard returned to London, the revolt was too advanced to counter. The king felt he had no choice but to surrender. Bolingbroke imprisoned him in Pontefract Castle, where he died in 1400. It is believed that he was murdered outright or deliberately starved to death. Henry of Bolingbroke then usurped the throne using his descent from King Henry III (1207–72) to justify his rule as Henry IV, first of the Lancastrian monarchs.

See also ENGLISH INVASIONS OF IRELAND; HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Mary Louise Bruce, *The Usurper King: Henry of Bolingbroke, 1355–99* (London: Rubicon Press, 1985); Anthony Tuck, *Crown and Nobility, 1272–1461: Political Conflict in Late Medieval England* (New York: Barnes and Noble Books, 1986).

Henry the Wrangler's Revolts (973–1002)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bavaria and Bohemia vs. Germany
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bavaria and Bohemia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Henry II, duke of Bavaria, and other German-speaking princes rebelled against the hegemony of Germany's Otto II.

OUTCOME: Henry's revolts were crushed, and he was forced into exile.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the death of Otto I the Great (912–973), his son Otto II (955–983) ascended to the German throne in 973, and the German states of the Holy Roman Empire descended into five years of civil war. These were led by the duke of Bavaria, Henry II (973–1024), known as "Henry the Wrangler" (or "Henry the Quarrelsome") and Boleslav of Bohemia. By 983, the rebellions had been suppressed by Otto, despite the distraction of the FRANCO-GERMAN WAR, fought from 978 to 980. Forced into exile, Henry left his son, also called Henry (973–1024), with Abraham, bishop of Friesling. When Otto II died, Otto III (980–1002) was a mere three years old, and during his minority Germany was ruled by his formidable mother, Theophano, who had to face a number of revolts led by Henry the Wrangler until 1002. Otto III would travel to Italy at age 13 and, in 996, he appointed a new pope, Gregory V (972–999), and had himself crowned emperor. When Otto died while suppressing another revolt in Rome in 1002 (*see* ARDOIN'S REVOLT), Henry the Wrangler's son ascended to the German throne as Henry II, Holy Roman Emperor.

See also ARDOIN'S WARS; BALDWIN OF FLANDERS, REVOLT OF.

Further reading: K. J. Leyser, *Medieval Germany and Its Neighbors, 900–1250* (London: Hambledon, 1982).

Herero Uprising (1904–1908)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Herero (and allied tribes, especially the Hottentots) vs. Germany
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): German Southwest Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Herero sought to eject German invaders.
OUTCOME: After a long and bitter struggle, three-quarters of the Herero were wiped out, and the remainder removed to other lands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Disastrous among the Herero, who lost about 80 percent of their number, combatants and noncombatants alike.
TREATIES: None

The Herero are Bantu-speaking people of southwestern Africa, who currently inhabit parts of central Namibia and Botswana. They were never a large tribal group, but they had long been powerful in disproportion to their numbers. From the 17th through the later 19th century, they held sway over the Central Highland north of Windhoek. Thus when the German colonial interests encroached on them during 1904–07, the Herero were quick to resist, and because their influence was so great in the region, the Herero uprising attracted other tribes as well, most notably the Hottentots.

German forces had a great deal of trouble suppressing the uprising, and the German government was forced to send significant numbers of troops to fight a guerrilla war of attrition. The Herero uprising inspired a similar uprising against the Portuguese in Angola.

The final suppression of the Herero, when it came, was brutal in the extreme. The Germans subjugated the tribe only by killing 80 percent of the members and compelling survivors to move to the arid sand veldt that is today called Hereroland.

See also HOTTENTOT UPRISING.

Further reading: Helmut Bley, *Namibia under German Rule* (Hamburg and Windhoek, Namibia: Namibia Scientific Society, 1996); Jon Bridgman, *The Revolt of the Hereros* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1981); San-Bart Gewald, *Herero Heroes: A Socio-Political History of the Herero of Namibia, 1890–1923* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 1999).

Himilco's War (405 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Carthage vs. Syracuse
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Carthage sought control of parts of Sicily.
OUTCOME: Syracuse, defeated, made major cessions to Carthage.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 405 B.C.E., by which Syracuse relinquished about half of Sicily to Carthage

The Carthaginian general Himilco (d. 396 B.C.E.) invaded southern Sicily, where he fought an army led by Dionysius I (c. 430–367 B.C.E.), tyrant of Syracuse. Himilco defeated Dionysius at Gela and at Camarina (Santa Croceo). Dionysius not only ceded these cities to Himilco, but concluded a treaty by which Syracuse relinquished to Carthage half of Sicily. It was the first time Syracuse had found it necessary to enter into a treaty with Carthage, against which it had long struggled.

In the First DIONYSIUS WAR, from 398 to 397 B.C.E., Dionysius reclaimed what he had lost, driving the Carthaginians out of Sicily and Himilco to suicide.

See also DIONYSIUS WAR, SECOND; DIONYSIUS WAR, THIRD; DIONYSIUS WAR, FOURTH; HANNIBAL'S DESTRUCTION OF HIMERA; HANNIBAL'S SACK OF ACRAGAS.

Further reading: Brian Caven, *Dionysius I: War-Lord of Sicily* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990).

Hittite Conquest of Anatolia

(c. 1700–c. 1325 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hittites vs. Mitanni and, subsequently, Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia (modern Turkey), Syria, and Cilicia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hittites craved expansion of their empire.
OUTCOME: Twice, during this long period, the Hittites succeeded in dominating Anatolia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

The earliest records of Hittite presence in Anatolia (Turkey) date from about 2000 B.C.E. Twice, during the period 1700 to 1325 B.C.E., they came to dominate the region. Under King Hattusilis, who ruled from about 1650 to 1620 B.C.E., and his successors, the Hittites created what is known as the Old Kingdom, extending their holdings throughout Anatolia and into Syria and Cilicia. In fighting to acquire Cilicia, which was taken, lost to the Mitanni, then retaken, Hattusilis was severely wounded and had to be taken home, where he eventually died of his wounds. Three sons ruled briefly in succession—all poorly—but his adoptive grandson, Mursilis (Murshilish) (c. 1620–1590 B.C.E.), resumed aggressive campaigning in northern Syria. During one of these campaigns, he subdued and destroyed the city of Aleppo. After this, he turned his attention to Babylon, where he defeated and deposed the powerful Amorite dynasty. Later, after defeating the Hurrians along the Euphrates River, Mursilis returned to the Hittite capital, Huttusas, where he was subsequently assassinated by conspirators in service to his brother-in-law, Hantilis.

Following the death of Mursilis, the Mitanni regained much of what they had lost to the Hittites. As a result of the HITTITE-HURRIAN WARS, from around 1620 to about 1325 B.C.E., the Mitanni established in northern Syria the Hanigabat kingdom. However, about 1400 B.C.E., a new Hittite king, Suppiluliumas (c. 1375–c. 1335 B.C.E.), founded the Hittite New Kingdom and reigned as most powerful of the Hittite rulers, called by some scholars the "Charlemagne of the Near East." Continually fighting the Mitanni in the east, Suppiluliumas spread Hittite influence over much of Syria and throughout the Euphrates River valley. He rebuilt the Hittite capital at Hattusas and extended his kingdom to the proportions of a truly great empire.

Feared by his neighbors, Suppiluliumas commanded the wary respect of even the powerful Egyptians, who cultivated an alliance. The widow of the pharaoh Tutankhamen (fl. 1333–1323 B.C.E.) invited Suppiluliumas to send one of his sons to be her new husband. By the time the young man arrived in Egypt, however, an anti-Hittite movement had been organized, and the unfortunate son was assassinated. Suppiluliumas launched a campaign against the Egyptians, but was soon dead himself, apparently having succumbed to plague, introduced into his homeland by Egyptian prisoners of war.

See also ASSYRIAN-HURRIAN WARS; HURRIAN CONQUESTS.

Further reading: Trevor Bryce, *The Kingdom of the Hittites* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1998); O. R. Gurney, *The Hittites* (New York: Penguin Books, 1990); J. G. Macqueen, *The Hittites and Their Contemporaries in Asia Minor* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1986).

Hittite-Hurrian Wars (c. 1620–c. 1325 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hittites vs. Hurrian Mitanni (later with Assyrian allies); separately, Egypt vs. Hurrian Mitanni
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia (Turkey) and the region of modern Palestine and modern Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hittites and Hurrians struggled to dominate Anatolia.
OUTCOME: Dominance seesawed between the Hittites and Hurrian Mitanni but ultimately fell to Assyria, which became the dominant force in the region by the end of these wars.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

The Hittite-Hurrian Wars are especially significant for having included the earliest battle of which a record—however incomplete—exists: the Battle of MEGIDDO, 1469 or 1479 B.C.E.

The Hurrians and Hittites vied for centuries to control Anatolia, the territory of modern Turkey (*see* HITTITE CONQUEST OF ANATOLIA). The long series of wars between them began about 1620 B.C.E. when the Hittites fought the Arzawa, a kingdom on their southwest border. Because the Hittites devoted most of their military resources to this struggle, they left south and southeast Anatolia undefended, and the Hurrian kingdom of Mitanni invaded and

seized this region. In response, Hittite forces were rushed to the area and succeeded in ejecting the Hurrian Mitanni but, about 1600 B.C.E., were again involved in a pitched struggle for the city of Aleppo. After approximately five years of fighting, the Mitanni finally withdrew.

Some time after this victory, internal struggles within the Hittite kingdom weakened its military position, and the Hurrian Mitanni wrested Cilicia from the Hittites, establishing a kingdom called Kizzuwada about 1590 B.C.E. In a bold strategic move, the Mitanni also created the Hanigabat kingdom in the southeast, which effectively cut the Hittites off from northern Syria. This led to the Battle of Megiddo in 1469 or 1479 B.C.E., not between the Hurrian Mitanni and the Hittites, but between the forces of Egypt, under Pharaoh Thutmose III (fl. c. 1500–1447 B.C.E.), and Saustater (fl. 1500–1450 B.C.E.), the Mitanni king of the Syrian city of Kadesh. With the failure of the Hittites to contain Mitanni expansion, Thutmose feared losing influence in Syria and Palestine. He therefore led an army around the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea to extinguish what he interpreted as a revolt in northern Palestine led by the king of Kadesh. The king's rebel army marched south to Megiddo, which overlooked the pass leading to the Plain of Esdraelon and was thus a strategically placed high-ground position, the gateway to all Mesopotamia. Deploying his army in three groups, Thutmose made a surprise attack on the Mitanni position at dawn and routed the opposing force, which withdrew behind Megiddo's walls. Had Thutmose proceeded against Megiddo immediately, the city would have quickly fallen. But his troops paused to loot the abandoned Mitanni camp, giving the defenders time to prepare strong defenses. As a result, Megiddo fell only after a seven-month siege. The Battle of Megiddo must have involved very large forces, for it was probably the site of the Armageddon battle described in the New Testament.

The Egyptian victory at Megiddo stopped the Mitanni expansion. The Hittite "Old Kingdom" still languished in decline, however, until the advent of a new leader, Suppiluliumas (c. 1375–c. 1335 B.C.E.), who founded the "New Kingdom" and brought the Hittites to renewed power and influence. He resolved to end the Hurrian presence in Syria altogether by mounting a massive invasion into Syria. With strategic aplomb, he invaded via an unexpected route, through the eastern valley of the Euphrates, which caught the Mitanni entirely unawares. They offered only feeble resistance and, by about 1370, yielded all territory north of Damascus and all of present-day Lebanon.

Seeking to halt the Hittite advance, the Mitanni struck an alliance with Assyria, a rival of the Hittites, but the Hittites checked this move by conquering the Mitanni city of Carchemish on the Euphrates in about 1340. This gave the Hittites a buffer state between them and Assyria. It would be years before the Mitanni-Assyrian alliance retook the region in 1325. After the area around Carchemish had been retaken, the Hurrian Mitanni also reestablished Hanigabat as a subkingdom. By this time, however, both the Hurrians and the Hittites had greatly receded in importance relative to the Assyrians, who were rapidly becoming the dominant people in the region and were destined to possess all of Anatolia.

See also ASSYRIAN-HURRIAN WARS; HURRIAN Conquests.

Further reading: Trevor Bryce, *The Kingdom of the Hittites* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1998); O. R. Gurney, *The Hittites* (New York: Penguin Books, 1990); J. G. Macqueen, *The Hittites and Their Contemporaries in Asia Minor* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1986).

Hogen War (1156)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Go-Shirakawa vs. Sutoku
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The dispute was over succession to the imperial throne.
OUTCOME: The supporters of Go-Shirakawa prevailed, and he assumed the Japanese throne; but the Fujiwara family was finished as effective rulers of Japan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As the prelude to the larger HEIJI WAR, from 1159 to 1185, the Hogen War marked the end of the Fujiwara family's feudal control over the Japanese monarchy and sparked a period of prolonged fighting. The conflict centered around who in fact ran the imperial court, the retired emperor Sutoku (1119–64) or the reigning emperor Go-Shirakawa (Shirakawa II) (1127–92). In Japan of the Heian period (792–1192), it was customary for emperors to step down later in life, abdicating in favor of a son, then enter a monastery. There, they would live out the remainder of their lives in semiretirement, intervening in affairs of state only as necessary. Toba was one such retired emperor, who, displeased with the rule of his first son, Sutoku, compelled him to abdicate. Sutoku himself retired to a monastery.

After Toba died in 1156, trouble between the new emperor, his third son, Go-Shirakawa, and his first, Sutoku, was perhaps inevitable. Sutoku resolved to come out of retirement and resume what he considered his rightful place on the throne. This action sharply divided the imperial Fujiwara family between those who favored Go-Shirakawa and those who favored Sutoku. When the kampu (or chief counselor, a position controlled since 857 by the head of the Fujiwara family), backed Go-Shirakawa, Sutoku quickly called on the support of the warrior clan led by the shogun (military governor or, perhaps,

supreme general) Minamoto Tameyoshi (d. 1156). In response, those warriors led by rival shogun Taira Kiyomori, came to the aid of Go-Shirakawa's faction.

Go-Shirakawa and his partisans won the brief and violent struggle, forcing Sutoku back into exile and killing his chief supporters. Tameyoshi was executed, and the Minamoto clan declined in power as the Taira family took effective control of the government.

By the time Go-Shirakawa himself decided to respect the custom of retiring to a monastery after abdicating to a son, real power was no longer in the hands of the emperors, but in those of the shoguns.

See also GEMPEI WAR.

Further reading: William Wayne Ferris, *Heavenly Warriors: The Evolution of Japan's Military, 500–1300* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1996); Jeffrey P. Mass, *Warrior Government in Early Medieval Japan* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1974).

Holy League, War of the (1510–1514)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Holy League (Italian states, Swiss cantons, Spain, and England) vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: With papal support, the Holy League sought to oust the French from Italy.
OUTCOME: The French were forced out of Italy, but the Holy League did not long survive the death of the pope who had created it, and the French, now allied with the Swiss, returned to Italy after the war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the most important battle, Novara, the French fielded 10,000 men vs. an Italian-Swiss force of 13,000.
CASUALTIES: At Novara, at least 5,000 French troops and French-employed German mercenaries were killed or wounded; Holy League forces, 1,300 killed or wounded.
TREATIES: All the allies, unable to agree, made separate peace agreements with France.

When France threw its support behind Alfonso I (1486–1534) of Este against Pope Julius II (1443–1513), the pope organized a "Holy League" of Italian states, Swiss cantons, Spain, and England to field an army with the mission of pushing France out of Italy. In a vigorous campaign, the Holy League drove the French out of a number of Italian cities, including, most significantly, Milan, by the spring of 1512. Then, on June 6, 1513, a Swiss-Italian force engaged the French at Novara, 28 miles west of Milan. The French army, 10,000 men under Louis de La Trémoille (1460–1525), was surprised by an attack of the 13,000-man Swiss-Italian army, which included deadly pikemen. Although the attackers suffered heavy losses including 700 pikemen killed or wounded, they inflicted at least 5,000 casualties on the French—a stunning casualty rate of 50 percent—which caused the desertion of German mercenaries fighting in the French ranks (those who surrendered to the Swiss were summarily executed) and forced the French to withdraw from Italy entirely. Yet the French surrendered to the Swiss, and not the Holy League, which, in fact, did not prove durable. With the death of Pope Julius II later in 1513, the league began to dissolve. The French and the Swiss would subsequently fight and then conclude an alliance that would give them control over much of Italy.

See also LEAGUE OF CAMBRAI, WAR OF THE.

Further reading: Christine Shaw, *Julius II, The Warrior Pope* (Cambridge, England: Blackwell, 1993).

Holy Roman Empire–Papacy War (1081–1084)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Holy Roman Emperor Henry IV vs. Pope Gregory VII (with his ally, Robert Guiscard)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy, especially Rome
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Henry IV wanted to depose Gregory VII and replace him with a pliant antipope, who would crown him Holy Roman Emperor.
OUTCOME: Henry IV deposed Gregory VII and did become Holy Roman Emperor, but he was forced out of Italy, and the supremacy of papal authority over the Holy Roman Empire in ecclesiastical matters was vindicated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As a result of the ongoing GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1077–1106), the German king Henry IV (1050–1106) had been excommunicated by Pope Gregory VII (c. 1020–85). Despite having been defeated by forces of the Welfs (the papal party, known in Italy as Guelfs) in 1080, Henry invaded Italy the following year and laid siege against Rome. The city held out heroically, even after the fall of the Vatican and St. Peter's in 1083. Once established in the Vatican—Gregory VII fled to the castle of St. Angelo—Henry bribed key officials and thereby secured the surrender of Rome in 1084. Henry entered the city and installed the antipope Clement III (c. 1030–1100), who promptly named Henry IV Holy Roman Emperor.

At this point, Robert Guiscard (c. 1015–85), ruler of Apulia and Calabria, answered the pope's call for aid by leading a large army—mostly Norman, but including a motley assortment of men, even Muslim soldiers of fortune—against Rome. Overwhelmed, Henry's troops offered no resistance and returned to Germany. Unfortunately, Robert Guiscard's army did not merely liberate

Rome, but sacked it, causing much destruction. Pope Gregory VII was liberated, only to find himself effectively a prisoner of Robert Guiscard's men, who escorted him to exile in Salerno. There he was presumably to wait out the storm sweeping Rome in the aftermath of its sacking, but Gregory's health rapidly deteriorated, and he died in Salerno in 1085.

Although Gregory personally was a victim of the war, it ended as a victory for the power of the papacy over that of the Holy Roman Empire. In 1073, Gregory had issued a decree banning lay investiture—that is, the practice whereby lay rulers awarded churches to prelates. The 1081–84 war enforced this decree, thereby depriving the kings and princes of the Holy Roman Empire of important power over ecclesiastics, reserving that to the pope.

See also Holy Roman Empire–Papacy War (1228–1241).

Further reading: H. E. J. Cowdrey, *Pope Gregory VII, 1073–1085* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1998).

Holy Roman Empire–Papacy War
(1228–1241)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II vs. Pope Gregory IX (with the Lombard League)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Holy Roman Empire and the papacy struggled for political supremacy.
OUTCOME: Largely undecided, although Frederick II made significant inroads into Italy
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: The Peace of San Germano, 1230, brought an uneasy truce, which was soon broken.

The German Civil War (1077–1106) and the Holy Roman Empire–Papacy War (1081–1084) were part of an ongoing dispute between the papacy and the Holy Roman Empire, both of which struggled to consolidate dominance over European affairs. The Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II (1194–1250) had been raised under papal care and was crowned in 1220. The assumption of Pope Honorius III (d. 1227) was that here, at long last, was an emperor who would be compliant and submissive to the papal will. On the contrary, Frederick II vigorously asserted the rights and authority of lay rulers. In an effort to control Frederick II, Honorius III ordered him to lead a crusade to Jerusalem; instead, the emperor sent troops under the command of others. The pope then arranged a marriage between Frederick and Isabella (Yolande) of Brienne (1212–28), the heiress to the kingdom of Jerusalem in 1225, and then, two years later, compelled him to undertake the Sixth Crusade. This time, Frederick went, but, falling ill, returned early—and was promptly excommunicated by Honorius's successor, Gregory IX (c. 1143–1241).

In 1228, Gregory offered Frederick restoration to grace if he would sail to the Holy Land again. Although Frederick fought valiantly and successfully, recovering Jerusalem and becoming its king, Gregory incited rebellion in his territories. When, on his return to Europe, Frederick warred against papal forces in order to regain Sicily, Gregory once again excommunicated him—only to come to a grudging accommodation in the Peace of San Germano in 1230.

The peace was an uneasy one. Although Sicily remained quiet, Frederick fought throughout Italy in an effort to unite it under his rule. He was victorious against papal-sponsored Lombard resistance in 1231, then boldly summoned the Diet of the Empire at Piacenza in 1236 to compel Italian cooperation with him. Following this, he annexed church lands, thereby bringing upon himself yet another excommunication decree.

During 1236–37, Frederick conquered the Veronese March (borderlands) and routed the Welf (called Guelf in Italy) forces of the Lombard League at the Battle of Cortenuova on November 27, 1237. From this triumph, he went on to smash Milan. The following year, however, Frederick failed to take Brescia after a long siege. The pope, in the meantime, issued yet another excommunication and allied himself, secretly, with Genoa and Venice. Frederick laid siege to Milan, which also failed, and then, in 1240, he opened an assault on Rome. This served to initiate peace negotiations, which Gregory cut short in 1241, summarily summoning a General Council. Frederick asserted himself by forcibly preventing the council delegates from assembling. The war ended, suddenly, without further resolution when Pope Gregory IX died later in 1241. The struggle would resume just three years later.

See also Holy Roman Empire–Papacy War (1243–1250), Lombard League, Wars of the.

Further reading: David Abulafia, *Frederick II: A Medieval Emperor* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1992); Paul Wiegler, *The Infidel Emperor and His Struggles against the Pope: A Chronicle of the Thirteenth Century* (New York: E. P. Dutton, 1930).

Holy Roman Empire–Papacy War
(1243–1250)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II vs. papal-sponsored rebels, and Pope Innocent IV
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This war was a continuation of the seemingly endless struggle between the papacy and the Holy Roman Empire for control of the European (especially Italian) political sphere.

OUTCOME: The balance of victory seesawed between the belligerents, but, on balance, favored the Holy Roman Empire, pointing to a future in which the power of the papacy would be confined to matters of religion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The death of Pope Gregory IX (c. 1143–1241) brought an abrupt end to the HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE–PAPACY WAR 1228–41, which proved nothing more than an intermission in the ongoing conflict between the lay rulers of the Holy Roman Empire and the ecclesiastical authorities of the papacy. In 1241, a new pope, Celestine IV (d. 1241), was elected to replace Gregory, only to die himself just 17 days later. Frederick II (1194–1250), the Holy Roman Emperor, took advantage of the chaos within the papacy to subdue the Papal States that had not been subdued during the war just concluded, and he planned a major naval assault on the papal strongholds of Genoa and Venice. In the meantime, he also lobbied for election of a compliant pope. But Innocent IV (d. 1254), sophisticated, smooth, and ruthless, was anything but compliant.

While Frederick negotiated with Innocent, seeking to lift his excommunication, the pope laid siege to Viterbo, hitherto an independent Italian city, in 1243. At the same time, Innocent stirred up a rebellion against Frederick in Lombardy, and then, in 1244, marched his forces into Rome in an effort to awe the emperor. Frederick responded by essentially renouncing the agreement he and the pope had negotiated beginning in 1239. This escalated to a military threat that called Innocent's bluff in Rome, and the pope retreated first to Genoa and then to Lyon. Innocent convened an ecumenical council in Lyon in 1245. The delegates managed to evade all of Frederick's attempts to prevent their reaching Lyon, including his blockade of all Alpine passes. They endorsed Innocent's new excommunication of Frederick and his order that the emperor be deposed on charges of violating the peace, sacrilege, and heresy. In 1246, the pope called on the German princes to elect a new emperor, and they selected Henry Raspe (c. 1202–47), landgrave of Thuringia. Upon his death, the princes selected William (1228–56) of Holland. Meanwhile, the pope engineered a rebellion against the Holy Roman Empire in Sicily. For their part, the Germans continued to support Frederick and rebelled against his replacement.

Frederick, in the meantime, concentrated on defeating the pope in Italy. In 1245, he invaded and sacked Viterbo, attacked Piacenza, and, the following year, decisively defeated the Welfs (papal forces known in Italy as Guelfs) at Parma. His attempt to take that city by storm, however, resulted in a prolonged siege, which was lifted under counterattack in 1248. After this, the situation in Italy worsened for Frederick. He suffered massive defeat in Tuscany, which he relinquished in 1249, then suffered the capture of his son in Sardinia. Yet the emperor refused to yield. Later in the year, he crushed a new rebellion in Sicily and retook Parma. The following year, 1250, the war suddenly ended with Frederick's death, much as the 1228–41 war had ended with the death of Gregory IX.

Although the war ended without full resolution of the struggle between the papacy and the Holy Roman Empire, Frederick's example pointed toward a future in which the role of the papacy would become increasingly limited to the ecclesiastical or spiritual realm, whereas the affairs of temporal politics would rest with lay rulers.

See also CRUSADE, SEVENTH; MONGOL INVASION OF EUROPE.

Further reading: David Abulafia, *Frederick II: A Medieval Emperor* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1992); Paul Wiegler, *The Infidel Emperor and His Struggles against the Pope: A Chronicle of the Thirteenth Century* (New York: E. P. Dutton, 1930).

Honduran Civil War (1909–1911)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conservatives led by Manuel Bonilla vs. liberals led by incumbent president Miguel R. Dávila
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nicaragua
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bonilla and the conservatives wanted to overthrow and replace the liberal Dávila, who had been placed in office by the dictator of Nicaragua.
OUTCOME: The war itself was inconclusive, but, following the armistice, Bonilla defeated Dávila in a peaceful election.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Armistice of February 8, 1911

This low-level conflict ensued after Nicaraguan dictator José Santos Zelaya (1853–1919) virtually installed Miguel R. Dávila (d. 1927) in the presidency of Honduras following Honduran defeat in the HONDURAN-NICARAGUAN WAR. The former Honduran president, Manuel Bonilla (1849–1913), led conservative supporters in a rebellion against the liberal Dávila, touching off an inconclusive civil war that was ended by mutual agreement to an armistice on February 8, 1911. New elections were called, and Bonilla was elected to replace Dávila.

See also NICARAGUAN CIVIL WAR (1909–1912).

Further reading: Dario Euraque, *Region and State in Honduras, 1870–1972: Reinterpreting the Banana Republic* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1997); Harvey Kessler Meyer and Jessie H. Meyer, *Historical*

Dictionary of Honduras, 2nd ed. (Lanham, Md.: Rowman and Littlefield, 1994); Nancy Peckenham and Anne Streets, eds. *Honduras: Portrait of a Captive Nation* (New York: Praeger, 1985).

Honduran Guerrilla War (1981–1990)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Communist guerrillas (supported by Nicaragua's Sandinistas) vs. Honduran government forces (aided by the United States)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Honduras
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Leftist guerrillas sought to topple the right-wing Honduran government, which supported anti-Sandinista forces (or "contras") in El Salvador and Nicaragua.
OUTCOME: The war ended after Sandinista power diminished following the Nicaraguan elections of 1990.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable
CASUALTIES: In the thousands, principally civilian
TREATIES: None

The NICARAGUAN CIVIL WAR (1982–90) and the SALVADORAN CIVIL WAR produced large numbers of refugees, many of whom fled to Honduras. As a consequence of this influx, the Honduran government feared that Honduras would be exposed to attack by guerrillas from El Salvador and Nicaragua. The fears rapidly proved well founded as Cuban-trained guerrillas hit Honduran military and police installations and terrorized the Honduran capital of Tegucigalpa, even attacking the U.S. embassy there. The United States supplied large amounts of military hardware to Honduran government forces in an effort to combat the rebels.

In the meantime, the anti-Sandinista (the Sandinistas were the revolutionaries who had seized power in Nicaragua) Nicaraguan Democratic Force (FDN) formed within Honduras and, from bases there, launched raids into Nicaragua. This provoked the Sandinistas to invade Honduras to raid the FDN bases. In response, the United States provided helicopters and pilots to carry Honduran troops to the border regions to repel the invasion. The United States then sent 3,200 combat troops to assist the anti-Sandinista forces, which were collectively called *contras*. This, however, provoked left-wing violence within Honduras, as many objected to the American military presence in the country.

In actuality, the United States had a deeper and more extensive involvement in the Honduran war than was generally known at the time. The administration of Ronald Reagan (1911–2004) came into office in 1981, with two of its top priorities being an end to the war in El Salvador and aiding the contra guerrilla war against the Sandinistas in Nicaragua. Honduras, located between El Salvador and Nicaragua and embroiled in a guerrilla warfare spawned by the conflicts of its neighbors, effectively became the base for all U.S. operations in Central America. The U.S. Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) supported covert operations, including the U.S.-trained Battalion 316, a secret Honduran army intelligence unit formed in 1982. Battalion 316 soon became notorious for committing human rights abuses. With U.S. support, the Honduran army suppressed the small Honduran guerrilla movement between 1980 and 1984, typically by the most brutal means available, including imprisonment and torture, in addition to outright murder.

By 1990, the Honduran war quickly wound down after the Sandinistas were defeated in the Nicaraguan elections. Revelations concerning the Reagan administration's illegal covert support of the contras prompted the U.S. Congress to eliminate much of the U.S. military presence in Central America at this time as well. Nevertheless, the end of the war did not bring an immediate end to the killing. Peasants seeking land reforms and threatening to seize land in default of government action were attacked and killed in 1991 after they began farming idle land. When this outrage was exposed, publicly contrite government officials pledged to bring an end to human rights abuses in Honduras and to introduce land reform.

Further reading: Thomas P. Anderson, *Politics in Central America: Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua* (New York: Praeger, 1988); Jonathan R. Barton, *Political Geography of Latin America* (New York: Routledge, 1997); Harvey Kessler Meyer and Jessie H. Meyer, *Historical Dictionary of Honduras,* 2nd ed. (Lanham, Md.: Rowman and Littlefield, 1994); Nancy Peckenham and Anne Streets, eds. *Honduras: Portrait of a Captive Nation* (New York: Praeger, 1985); Donald E. Schulz and Deborah Sundloff Schulz, *The United States, Honduras, and the Crisis in Central America* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1994).

Honduran-Nicaraguan War (1907)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Honduras vs. Nicaragua
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Honduras
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ostensibly, Nicaragua was responding to a Honduran violation of its sovereignty; however, the war was a product of Nicaragua president Zelaya's desire to gain control of his Central American neighbors toward the eventual end of uniting Central America under his rule.
OUTCOME: Honduras accepted the installation of Zelaya's handpicked candidate for Honduran president.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After José Santos Zelaya (1853–1919) became president of Nicaragua as a result of a liberal revolt in 1893, he not only assumed dictatorial authority within his own borders, but sought to unite other Central American countries under his leadership. Toward this end, he often interfered in the internal affairs of his neighbors. When, in 1903, the conservative Honduran politician Manuel Bonilla (1849–1913) led a successful coup against the liberal government Zelaya had supported in Honduras, Zelaya enthusiastically supported Honduran rebels who sought to topple Bonilla. When a 1906 revolt failed, Honduran troops pursued fleeing rebels across the border with Nicaragua. An indignant Zelaya demanded reparations from Honduras for having violated Nicaraguan sovereignty. Honduras refused, and, in response, Nicaraguan forces invaded. The resulting war is notable for the Battle of Namasigue, fought on Honduran territory on March 18, 1907, using (among other weapons) machine guns. It was the first use of this weapon in Central America.

The Nicaraguans prevailed at Namasigue and went on to overrun Tegucigalpa, the Honduran capital. Bonilla sought refuge in the United States, and Zelaya installed Miguel R. Dávila (d. 1927) as his handpicked president of a new liberal Honduran regime. This led to the HONDURAN CIVIL WAR.

Further reading: Dario Euraque, *Region and State in Honduras, 1870–1972: Reinterpreting the Banana Republic* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1997); Harvey Kessler Meyer and Jessie H. Meyer, *Historical Dictionary of Honduras,* 2nd ed. (Lanham, Md.: Rowman and Littlefield, 1994); Thomas W. Walker, *Nicaragua,* 4th ed. (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 2003).

Honduran-Salvadoran War

See SOCCER WAR (FOOTBALL WAR).

Hono Heke's War

See BAY OF ISLANDS WAR (1844–1847).

Hottentot Uprising (1904–1907)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Germany vs. the "Hottentots" (including Herero, Ovambo, Nama, and Oorlam tribes)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): German Southwest Africa (Namibia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tribal resistance to German colonial incursions and outrages
OUTCOME: Resistance was ultimately crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Germany, 80,000; tribes, 100,000
CASUALTIES: Germany, 6,000; tribes, 30,000
TREATIES: None

Early in the 20th century, German settlers arrived in great numbers in southwest Africa, mainly to exploit copper and diamond mining. Beginning in 1904, a group of tribes, generally called Hottentots by the Germans, rose up in rebellion.

The first tribe to rebel was the Herero—and, in a single encounter, the Ovambo, who attacked Fort Namutoni near the Etosha Pan. The first phase of the war ended when General Lother van Trotha (1848–1920) defeated the main force of Herero warriors at the Battle of Waterburg. The German victors took no prisoners, but instead drove the survivors of the battle into the Kalahari Desert, where most died. These in effect mass execution tactics were typical of the German approach to warfare in the region. Although the tribes came close to expelling the Germans from the region, the German response was vigorous and ruthless. Mass execution and confinement in squalid concentration camps were common. By the end of the war, the population of the Herero tribe was reduced by some 80 percent.

The later phases of the uprising were dominated by resistance from the Nama tribe. This uprising was crushed by 1907, and Nama survivors were confined to concentration camps, which were, in fact, death camps. Starvation, disease, and general privation killed two-thirds of the Nama confined.

See also HERERO UPRISING.

Further reading: Helmut Bley, *Namibia under German Rule* (Hamburg and Windhoek, Namibia: Namibia Scientific Society, 1996); Jon Bridgman, *The Revolt of the Hereros* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1981); San-Bart Gewald, *Herero Heroes: A Socio-Political History of the Herero of Namibia, 1890–1923* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 1999).

Hot Water War

See FRIES'S REBELLION (HOT WATER WAR).

Huguenot Revolt

See BÉARNESE REVOLT, SECOND (1625–1626).

Huguenot Wars

See RELIGION, FIRST WAR OF; RELIGION, SECOND WAR OF; RELIGION, THIRD WAR OF; RELIGION, FOURTH WAR OF; RELIGION, FIFTH WAR OF; RELIGION, SIXTH AND SEVENTH WARS OF; RELIGION, EIGHTH WAR OF; RELIGION, NINTH WAR OF.

Hukbalahap Rebellion (1946–1954)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: "Huk" guerrillas vs. Japan (during its World War II occupation of the Philippines) and, after the war, the newly independent Filipino government

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Philippines
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: During World War II, the Huks resisted the Japanese occupiers of the islands; after the war, they sought to introduce a communist presence in the newly independent Philippine government.
OUTCOME: Although the Huks were highly effective against the Japanese and, initially, against the postwar government, they were no match for U.S.-supplied weaponry and the reform government of Ramón Magsaysay.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Much of the resistance to the Japanese occupation of the Philippines during WORLD WAR II came from "Huks," members of the Hukbalahap, translated as "People's Anti-Japanese Army." The origin of the Hukbalahap may be found in various communist and socialist grassroots political groups that flourished in the Philippines beginning in the 1930s. The Huks became a highly effective guerrilla force, responsible for the deaths of thousands of Japanese soldiers, as well as Filipinos who collaborated with the invaders.

The Huks came to control most of central Luzon by 1945 and created a functioning government that collected taxes and administered laws. Although some of those who collaborated with the Japanese had also secretly helped the guerrillas, many Huks—especially the rank-and-file who had remained in the hills—came out of the war bitterly against those who appeared to have benefited from the occupation. The differences between these two extreme groups would mark the politics of the postwar Philippines.

After the war, the Huks took part in the elections that followed Philippine independence on July 4, 1946, but managed to gain only a single seat in Congress. The newly constituted government refused to seat the Huk representative, however, and the Huks reactivated their guerrilla organization, this time in opposition to the new government. The guerrilla movement fed off a growing sense of social injustice among tenant farmers, especially in central Luzon. Soon, government forces proved virtually powerless against the sophisticated guerrilla organization, and in 1950 the Huks ventured out of their jungle encampments to make an assault on Manila. This time, however, government forces were ready, having identified the location of the Huk headquarters within the city. On the eve of the attack, government troops raided the headquarters and arrested all the principal Huk leaders. The attack was called off.

To forestall further Huk activity, the United States sent weapons and other military equipment to the government forces, which made them far more effective in combating the guerrillas—although a low-level state of civil insurrection persisted through 1954. Even more effective against the Huks than U.S. weapons was the presidency of Ramón Magsaysay (1907–57), whose bold political and economic reforms, beginning in 1953, quickly eroded popular support for the communist movement. The last leader of the Huks surrendered in 1954.

See also WORLD WAR II: PACIFIC.

Further reading: Lawrence M. Greenberg, *The Hukbalahap Insurrection: A Case Study of a Successful Anti-Insurgency Operation in the Philippines, 1946–1955* (Washington: D.C.: Analysis Branch, U.S. Army Center of Military History, 1987); Edward Geary Lansdale, *In the Midst of Wars: An American's Mission to Southeast Asia* (New York: Fordham University Press, 1991).

Hundred Days' War (1815)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. the allied countries of Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: The allies declared Napoleon an international outlaw after he returned to France and reclaimed the throne.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Napoleon sought to regain rule of France.
OUTCOME: Napoleon's forces were defeated, and he died in exile.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 188,000 troops in the field, 100,000 in garrisons; allies, 721,000
CASUALTIES: France, 43,000 killed or wounded; Allies, 11,400 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Second Peace of Paris, November 20, 1815

While in exile on Elba, Napoleon (1769–1821)—brooding over his fate and unhappy with his treatment—became aware of France's dissatisfaction over the restoration of the Bourbon dynasty, and he returned to France in 1815. Landing at Cannes on March 1, with a detachment of his guard, he was greeted by many not as a fallen emperor but as the embodiment of the spirit of the Revolution and the returning savior of the nation's glory. As he crossed the Alps, the republican peasantry rallied round him, and near Grenoble, he won over the soldiers sent to arrest him. King Louis XVIII (1755–1824) fled in terror, and Napoleon marched into Paris on March 20, commencing the period known as the "Hundred Days." Napoleon knew that his exhausted nation and greatly reduced army were in no condition to take on all of Europe. Accordingly, he proclaimed peaceful intentions. But the allies—Austria, Great Britain, Russia, and Prussia—meeting at the Congress of Vienna, declared him an outlaw, summarily prepared for renewed war, and made plans to invade France.

To rally the French masses to his cause, he probably should have allied himself once more with the Jacobins, but he was afraid to do so and alienate the bourgeoisie whose support was critical and whose predominance he himself had always assured. The bourgeoisie feared above everything a revival of the socialist experiments France had suffered at the hands of Jacobin radicals in 1793 and 1794. Thus, all Napoleon had to offer was a political regime not unlike that of Louis XVIII, except with himself at the top. Enthusiasm ebbed, and his latest adventure seemed a dead end. In these circumstances, Napoleon, as always, chose action. Rather than adopt a defensive posture, Napoleon determined that his only chance was to separate the Prussian and Anglo-Dutch armies in order to defeat them in detail in what is now Belgium.

He took the field at the head of a 125,000-man army and marched north. He captured Charleroi and, on June 16, 1815, defeated the Prussians, led by Field Marshall Gebhard von Blücher (1749–1819), at Ligny. That same day, the British under Sir Arthur Wellesley, Lord Wellington (1769–1852), defeated another French force at Quartre-Bras but in so doing was prevented from rushing to von Blücher's defense. Buoyed by his victory Napoleon attacked the combined forces of the Lord Wellington and von Blücher at Waterloo on June 18, 1815, and was utterly defeated in one of the most famous battles in history. The routed French fled, and the allies marched on to Paris unopposed.

Returning to Paris ahead of the enemy, Napoleon abdicated for the second time on June 23. He took flight to Aix, where he surrendered to the captain of the British warship *Bellerophon* and was exiled, as a prisoner of war, to the island of St. Helena, where he died on May 5, 1821.

See also COALITION, WAR OF THE FIRST; COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND; COALITION, WAR OF THE THIRD; FRENCH REVOLUTION (1789–1799); FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS; NAPOLEONIC WARS; NAPOLEON'S INVASION OF RUSSIA; NAPOLEON'S WAR WITH AUSTRIA; PENINSULAR WAR.

Further reading: Donald Frederick, *Imperial Sunset: The Fall of Napoleon, 1813–1814* (New York: Cooper Square Press, 2001); Peter Hofschoröer, *1815, The Waterloo Campaign: Wellington and His German Allies and the Battles of Ligny and Quatre Bras* (Mechanicsburg, Pa.: Stackpole Books, 1998) and *1815, the Waterloo Campaign: The German Victory: From Waterloo to the Fall of Napoleon* (Mechanicsburg, Pa.: Stackpole Books, 1999).

Hundred Years' War (1337–1453)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King Edward III of England sought to press his claim to the throne of France; his successors, though they relinquished the claim, wanted to preserve England's holdings in Guyenne (Guienne) and Calais.
OUTCOME: England was crippled by the cost of war that lasted for more than 100 years, while France became more unified and less feudal in nature.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Size of the armie varied over time, Edward probably had 10,000 men on his 1359 campaign; Henry V 15,000.
CASUALTIES: Unknown but they were enormous. Some estimate that the war and the plague reduced Europe's population by half.
TREATIES: Treaty of Brétigny (1360), Peace of Paris (1396), Treaty of Troyes (1420)

When Charles IV (1249–1328) died in 1328 with no male children, a crisis of succession was sparked in France. Before his death, Charles had made plans to forestall such a crisis by stipulating that Philip of Valois (1293–1350), his cousin, would be named king in the event that his wife, pregnant at the time of his death, gave birth to a girl. Philip indeed claimed the throne as Philip VI upon the death of Charles, but also entering the fray was Isabella (1292–1358), Charles's sister and the mother of Edward III (1312–77) of England. The French assembly, despite the closer line of descent of Isabella, recognized Philip's claim, sparking a period of war between France and England that lasted until 1453.

When Edward III succeeded to the English throne, he lacked the power to press his claim to France, but he did have control of Guienne, a long strip of coastline from La Rochelle to Bayonne and the Pyrenees. Vital to England for trade, this region had been held by England as feudatory to the king of France since 1259. England also held Ponthieu, whose major towns were Abbeville and Crécy. Not only was Edward III determined to hold Guyenne and Ponthieu, he was also intent on punishing Philip VI for giving refuge to David II (1324–71), king of Scotland, England's enemy to the north.

In 1337, Edward claimed the French throne, while Philip negated England's right to Guienne. The ensuing war occurred in four phases.

Between 1337 and 1360, Edward was victorious at several battles but at last had to renounce his claim to the French throne. At the Battle of Sluys, Edward won a major victory at sea. In the daylong fight, the English fleet of 150 ships gained command of the English Channel and sank or captured 166 out of the total 190 French ships. A truce between the warring nations lasted for about two years. At the Battle of Crécy, the English army defeated a French force nearly three times its size. The French made 15 or 16 separate attacks in their attempt to push Edward from the field, but by the end of the fighting on the night of August 26, 1346, France had lost 1,542 lords and knights and 10,000 to 20,000 men-at-arms, crossbowmen, and infantry. England lost two knights, and 40 men-at-arms and archers,

and an unknown but small number of Welsh infantrymen. Edward reached Calais on September 4, 1346, and laid siege on the city. After a year, the city was England's.

Over the next several years, England and France were unable to mount significant campaigns due to the ravages of the Black Death. But in 1355, Edward was once again ready to cross the Channel and lead his army in devastating raids across northern France. In the meantime, Edward's sons, John of Gaunt (1340–99) and Edward (1330–76), prince of Wales (known as the Black Prince) raided Brittany and Languedoc, respectively.

The war took a new turn with the capture of French king John II (1319–64) (who had been crowned at the death of Philip VI in 1350) at the Battle of Poitiers on September 19, 1356. In this battle, the Black Prince sent a small party to attack the French rear lines, and this proved too much for the French soldiers, whose ranks had been riddled by arrows from English longbows. Both John II and his son, the dauphin, later to be crowned as Charles V (1337–80), were captured and taken to England under a ransom of 3 million crowns.

Among those most affected by the uncontrolled sweep of the English army were French peasants, who could not work in the fields without posting a watchman and who had given up their homes for the relative safety of caves and forests. In 1358, the French peasants rose in rebellion, protesting the inability of the nobility to protect them against English depredations and the costly demands of the army for food and money. Known as the revolt of the JACQUERIE after the scornful nickname "Jacques" for French peasants, the revolt ended when Charles II (1332–87) of Navarre and other French nobles massacred the peasant mob near Meaux.

Meanwhile, Edward's raids continued right up to the gates of Paris. Edward rarely had trouble filling the ranks of his invading army because of the success of the raids. In fact, many Englishmen of less than noble status made fortunes from looting and pillaging northern France. On October 24, 1360, Edward negotiated the Treaty of Brétigny, by which English holdings in southwestern France, known as Aquitaine, were increased significantly and were to be held in full sovereignty, and France recognized English control of Calais and Ponthieu. Edward renounced his claim to the throne, and John II was ransomed.

The second phase of the war began with the death of John II. He was succeeded by Charles V (1337–80), and over the span of his reign (from 1360 to 1380) he defeated England and regained control of Aquitaine. John of Gaunt set out to reverse the tide of English losses, but defeats continued to mount up—at Poitiers, Poitou, and La Rochelle. By 1373, Aquitaine no longer existed. The French under Charles V made raids on English soil, penetrating as far as Rye, Lewes, Plymouth, Hastings, Winchelsea, and Gravesend. At the deaths of the Black Prince in 1376, Edward III of England in 1377, and Charles V of France in 1380, the tide had turned in the war, which by 1380 had been raging for 43 years.

The following year, England was plagued with a peasant revolt similar to the Jacquerie in France. (See ENGLISH PEASANT REVOLT.) Spreading from Essex to Kent and then to all of England, the peasant rebels marched to London and beheaded Simon of Sudburg (d. 1381), archbishop of Canterbury and chancellor, and Sir Robert Hales, the treasurer. Eventually the rabble was dispersed, and King Richard II (1367–1400), in retaliation, reneged on his promises of relief to them.

Between 1386 and 1396, periods of truce were interspersed with periods of fighting. Then in 1396, the Peace of Paris was negotiated. Richard II of England and Charles VI (1380–1422) of France agreed to abide by a truce for the next 30 years. By the terms of the treaty, England retained control of Calais and part of Gascony between Bordeaux and Bayonne.

However, peace lasted only a short time. The French continued raiding the southern coast of England and providing aid to Scotland and Wales in their struggles with England. In the meantime, John the Fearless (1371–-1419), duke of Burgundy, and Louis I (1372–1407), duke of Orléans, engaged in a power struggle that ultimately grew to a full-scale civil war in France. Then in April 1415, Henry V (1387–1422) of England declared war on Charles VI of France and set sail with an army of 12,000 men to Normandy in phase three of the war. After capturing Harfleur and winning a battle at Agincourt, Henry captured Rouen in 1419. The French government then signed the Treaty of Troyes in 1420. Control of northern France went to Henry V and the duke of Burgundy, and Henry became the heir of Charles VI. Married to Charles VI's daughter Catherine, Henry V spent much of his time consolidating his holdings in northern France. In 1422, he died, leaving nine-month-old Henry VI (1421–71) king of England and France. South of the Loire, however, the French recognized the dauphin, Charles VII (1403–61), as king, and a rival government was created in Bourges. Between 1423 and 1426, the English won battles at Cravant, Verneuil, and St. James, and by 1428, they had consolidated their control of northern France. In 1428, the English set out from Paris toward Orléans, where they laid siege against the town (*see* ORLÉANS, SIEGE OF). Jeanne d'Arc (1412–31) (Joan of Arc) as 17-year-old peasant girl from Champagne, came to the aid of the dauphin and convinced many in the French army that her divine mission was to expel the English from French soil. Jeanne was ultimately victorious at Orléans, and the dauphin was crowned Charles VII at Rheims on July 16, 1429. Captured by the Burgundians and turned over to the English, Jeanne was convicted of heresy and was burned at the stake on May 30, 1431. Though she had helped him become king, Charles VII did nothing to aid her.

The final phase of the war began when the English lost control of Paris in 1436, Normandy in 1449 and 1450,

and Guienne in 1451. Recovering to a degree, the English captured Bordeaux in 1452, but on October 19, 1453, Bordeaux fell to the French, and the Hundred Years' War came to a close.

By the end of the war, the government of England was bankrupt, and the Lancastrian dynasty was discredited. Civil war in the form of the Wars of the Roses would soon follow in 1455. For the French, the Hundred Years' War brought national unity and the beginnings of a dismantling of feudalism.

See also Breton Succession, War of the; Black Prince's Navarette Campaign; Gascon Nobles' Revolt; "Güglers" War; Henry of Bolingbroke's Revolt; Norman Conquest; Edward, the Black Prince, Raids of.

Further reading: Christopher Allmand, *The Hundred Years War: England and France at War, c. 1300–1450* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1988); Anne Curry, *The Hundred Years War* (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Robin Neillands, *The Hundred Years War* (New York: Routledge, 2001); Jonathan Sumption, *The Hundred Years War* (Boston: Faber and Faber, 1999).

Hungarian-Bohemian Wars

See Bohemian-Hungarian War (1260–1270); Bohemian-Hungarian War (1468–1478).

Hungarian Civil War (1301–1308)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Aspirants to the Hungarian crown following the death of King Andrew III vs. last of the Árpád dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Hungarian throne
OUTCOME: After much strife, Charles Robert of Naples was elected by the Hungarian diet as king.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Hungary's Árpád dynasty had come dangerously close to extinction when the death of Stephan V (1239–72) left the country in the hands of his Cuman widow Elizabeth, whose regency (1272–77) was bedeviled by a wild and unruly son and much civil unrest. Ladislav IV (1262–90), kidnapped by rebels as a child, grew up so nearly pagan that Pope Nicholas IV (d. 1292) called for a crusade against him when he reached his majority. When he was assassinated by Cuman tribesmen following years of upheaval and uncertainty, the Hungarian throne was left without a legitimate heir. Those in the female line—including some of Europe's important houses in Bohemia, Bavaria, and Naples—quickly prepared to stake their claim.

Then one male of Árpád descent was discovered in Italy. Although some impugned his legitimacy, his supporters smuggled him into the country, where he assumed the throne as the surprisingly adept and wise Andrew III. However, when he died without male issue in 1301, the national dynasty did indeed become extinct. Though Hungary was now entitled to choose a successor, bloodlines remained a major concern. The maneuverings of those basing their hopes yet again on claims of descent from an Árpád in the female line touched off a war of succession.

Those fighting to seize the Hungarian throne were Bohemia's Wenceslaus III (1289–1306), Bavaria's Duke Otto III (d. 1312), and Naples's Charles Robert of Anjou (1288–1342), who was aided by his uncle, King Albert I (c. 1250–1308) of Germany, as well as Pope Boniface VIII (c. 1235–1303). Albert called upon Bohemia's King Wenceslaus II (1271–1305), father of Wenceslaus III, to renounce all claim to Hungary's crown of St. Stephen and to remove his son from the Hungarian throne—despite the fact that the Hungarian diet had elected Wenceslaus III in 1301. Wenceslaus II refused Albert's demand, whereupon Albert invaded Bohemia in 1304. However, he met stiff resistance from the armies of Wenceslaus II, which not only pushed Albert's forces back but were about to take the offensive and invade Austria when Wenceslaus II died. At this point, in 1305, Wenceslaus III, now king of Bohemia, relinquished the Hungarian throne to Duke Otto. Far from resolving the civil strife, this led to a period of intense disorder until the Hungarian diet elected Charles Robert as King Charles I in 1308; he was crowned in 1310. During the first 15 years of his reign, Charles I was engaged in continuous struggles to subdue the Hungarian nobles.

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *Hungary, a Short History* (Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, 1962); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982).

Hungarian Civil War (1439–1440)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Contenders for the Hungarian throne following the death of King Albert II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the throne
OUTCOME: Backed by a powerful general, Ladislas III, whom the majority of nobles supported, became king.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When King Albert II (1397–1439), monarch of Hungary and Bohemia, died, he left a pregnant widow whose unborn son had a claim to the Hungarian throne. But his death sparked a war of succession, in part because the fatherless newborn came under the guardianship of Frederick III (1415–93), king of Germany and subsequently the Holy Roman Emperor. Frederick was despised by the Hungarian nobility, led by General John Hunyadi, hero of the HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1437–1438), and they turned instead to Poland's King Ladislav III (1387–1456). Civil war erupted, but Hunyadi's faction succeeded in placing the Polish pretender on the throne as Uladislas I in 1440. His reign would last for only a few years, and after his death at the battle of Varna in 1444 during the HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1444–1456), the now four-year-old son of Albert II, also known as Ladislav, was proclaimed Hungary's King Ladislav V (sometimes called Ladislav V Posthumous) (1440–57) with Hunyadi serving as regent.

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Joseph Held, *Hunyadi: Legend and Reality* (Boulder, Colo., and New York: East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 1985); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *Hungary, a Short History* (Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, 1962); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982).

Hungarian Civil War (1526–1529)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of John Zápolya (with Ottoman aid) vs. forces of Frederick III of Germany
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ascension to the Hungarian throne
OUTCOME: With Ottoman aid, John Zápolya regained the throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the wake of the HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1521–1526), John Zápolya (1487–1540) of Transylvania was elected king of Ottoman Hungary. However, Austria's Archduke Ferdinand (1503–64)—subsequently Holy Roman Emperor—asserted his claim to the throne as the brother-in-law of the preceding Hungarian king, Louis II (1506–26). He persuaded the Hungarian diet, which approved him king in 1527. Thus authorized, Ferdinand invaded Hungary, capturing Raab, Gran (Esztergom), and Buda. The decisive battle was fought at Tokay in 1527 and resulted in the defeat of Zápolya and his army.

At this juncture, John Zápolya appealed to the Ottoman sultan Süleyman I the Magnificent (1496–1566), who responded by invading Hungary. After recapturing Buda, Süleyman returned Zápolya to the throne in 1529, and the restored monarch accompanied the sultan on his campaign against Vienna in the AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1529–1533).

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Hungarian Civil War (1540–1547)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Archduke Ferdinand of Austria vs. John II Sigismund (with Ottoman aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Hungarian throne
OUTCOME: Hungary was partitioned among Austria's Ferdinand, Hungary's John II Sigismund, and the Ottoman Empire's Sultan Süleyman I the Magnificent.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce of 1547

The AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1537–1547) produced the secret Treaty of Nagyvárad, by which Hungary was partitioned: Austria's Archduke Ferdinand (1503–64) received Croatia, Slavonia, and western Hungary, whereas John Zápolya (1487–1540) retained the title of king of Hungary and the remainder of the country, including the capital, Buda. The secret treaty further stipulated that the title, throne, and Zápolya's lands would go to Ferdinand on

Zápolya's death. When John Zápolya died, however, it was his infant son who was named king as John II Sigismund (1540–71). Ferdinand invoked the secret treaty, claimed the kingdom, and laid siege to Buda, whereupon Zápolya's widow appealed to the Ottoman sultan Süleyman I (the Magnificent; 1496–1566) for help.

Süleyman did not want Austria to make any gains in Hungary and eagerly dispatched an army to seize Buda, as well as other cities. He set up a Turkish administration throughout the country while fighting raged through 1547. At that point, the demands of the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1526–1555) forced Süleyman to conclude a five-year truce, which gave Ferdinand control of Austrian Hungary in return for tribute paid to the Ottomans. John II Sigismund received Transylvania and neighboring areas, along with the title "prince." The Ottomans held southern and central Hungary.

See also AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1551–1553).

Further reading: Pál Fódor and Géza Dávid, eds., *Ottomans, Hungarians, and Hapsburgs in Central Europe* (Boston: Brill, 2000); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *Hungary, a Short History* (Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, 1962); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976).

Hungarian Civil War (1921)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Former Austro-Hungarian emperor Charles I vs. the government forces of Admiral Horthy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Charles I wanted to regain the Hungarian throne.
OUTCOME: Charles was defeated and exiled; Austrian claims on the Hungarian throne were nullified.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The former Austro-Hungarian emperor Charles I (1887–1922) had fled to Switzerland in 1919 during KUN'S RED TERROR. In March 1921, he returned to Hungary in a bid to recover his throne and called on the current regent and de facto head of state, the aristocratic, anticommunist Admiral Nicholas Horthy de Nagybánya (1868–1957), to step down.

Popular opposition to Charles was intense, and even the monarchists challenged the legitimacy of his title to the throne. His attempts to return to power set the stage for the rise of Count István Bethlen (1874–1946), who dominated Hungarian politics for the next 10 years. In effect, Charles's return split Hungary's main tradition-minded political parties between conservatives who favored a return to Hapsburg rule and radical right-wing nationalists who supported the election of a Hungarian king. Bethlen was a right-wing member of the parliament, but he was unaffiliated with a major party, and he took advantage of this rift. He persuaded the Christian National Union, a party opposed to Charles's restoration, to merge with the Smallholders' Party and form a new Party of Unity. When Bethlen emerged as the leader of this new party, Horthy was forced to appoint him prime minister.

In October 1921, frustrated by the resistance to his return, Charles led troops from Odenburg (Sopron), Hungary, and marched on Budapest. He was met by government forces, which pushed his army back and placed Charles under arrest. The former monarch was exiled to Madeira, and the Hungarian diet summarily and officially nullified all Austrian (Hapsburg) claims to the throne. In May 1922, the Party of Unity captured a large parliamentary majority. Later that year, Charles died in exile.

See also HUNGARIAN REVOLUTION (1918); WORLD WAR I: EASTERN FRONT.

Further reading: Jörg K. Hoensch, *A History of Modern Hungary, 1867–1994,* trans. Kim Traynor, 2nd ed. (New York: Longman, 1996); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *Hungary, a Short History* (Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, 1962); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976); John C. Swanson, *The Remnants of the Hapsburg Monarchy: The Shaping of Modern Austria and Hungary, 1918–1922* (Boulder, Colo., and New York: East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 2001).

Hungarian-Czechoslovakian War

See KUN'S RED TERROR.

Hungarian Pagan Uprising (1046)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungarian pagans and others vs. Peter Orseolo, unpopular successor to the Hungarian throne
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Hungarian throne
OUTCOME: Peter Orseolo was overthrown, and a quasi-pagan king was installed on the Hungarian throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The death of Hungary's King Stephen I (Saint Stephen) (c. 975–1038) left much of the work he began—Christianizing Hungary—unfinished. Even his own Árpád dynasty was not fully converted, and Stephen had exiled recalcitrant family members. Since his only son, Emeric, died before he did, Stephen had chosen Peter Orseolo (1011–46), son of the doge of Venice and a distant relative, as a safe Christian successor. Peter arrived in Hungary only to fall victim to various court plots against him. The nation rebelled against this designated but foreign successor, and he fled for his life in 1041 to the Holy Roman Emperor Henry III (1017–56).

Peter assembled an army of Henry's troops and returned to Hungary to reclaim his throne in 1044 from the "national" king, Samuel Aba, who had taken his place. However, many Hungarians regarded him as an interloper and Henry's vassal, who would bring about Hungary's domination by foreign powers. The church likewise disapproved of him. It was not difficult for two of the exiled Árpáds to find support for an invasion in 1046. Supported by Russian troops from Kiev, they also garnered pagan backing in the country and marched on Peter's palace. The mob massacred a delegation of bishops and Hungarian nobles, who supported their proposed overthrow of the hated king, then stormed the palace, captured Peter, blinded him, and cast him into prison, where he died of his wounds.

Andrew I (d. 1060), an Árpád, converted to Orthodox Christianity while he was in Russia. It was he who became the Hungarian king (1047), but he exploited the country's paganism to keep himself in power, maintaining only the merest show of Christianity in order to appease the converted nobility. During this period, he resisted domination by the Holy Roman Empire.

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *The Magyars in the Ninth Century* (reprint, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1968); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976).

Hungarian Peasants' Revolt *See* DÓZSA'S REBELLION.

Hungarian Revolt (1956)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungarian freedom fighters and police vs. Soviet troops
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: On October 24, 1956, Hungary's prime minister Imre Nagy defied the USSR by announcing an end to one-party rule, thereby igniting the movement to remove Hungary from the Soviet sphere of influence established in Eastern Europe at the end of World War II, a movement the West came to call the Hungarian Revolution.
OUTCOME: Soviet troops and tanks invaded Hungary and crushed the revolution.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown number of Hungarian students, workers, and freedom fighters; 200,000 Soviet troops
CASUALTIES: Unknown but in the tens of thousands; nearly 250,000 fled the country; Soviet losses, 669 killed, 1,540 wounded, 51 missing
TREATIES: Agreement for continued Soviet control signed in 1957

The Treaty of Versailles that ended WORLD WAR I not only penalized Germany but dismembered the tottering Austro-Hungarian Empire, leaving Hungary a nation greatly shrunken. The Treaty of Trianon, which followed the Versailles document in 1920, stripped the empire of nearly three-quarters of its territory. Between 1920 and 1944, Admiral Nicholas Horthy de Nagybánya (1868–1957), the Magyar regent of Hungary, worked to regain the nation's former lands, securing from Germany some revision of its frontiers in exchange for an alliance in WORLD WAR II. The territorial gains were short-lived, and the alliance meant that Hungary was defeated with Germany and, like other eastern European nations, was overrun by a Soviet occupation force.

Following the war, an uneasy coalition government was formed for three years, after which, the communists established a one-party dictatorship under Mátyás Rákosi (1892–1971)—which they, of course, called the Hungarian Revolution. In Stalinist fashion, the party imposed forced collectivization of farms and a program of industrialization, both enforced by terror tactics and the secret police. Rákosi, however, was forced out after the death of Soviet premier Joseph Stalin (1879–1953) and replaced by Imre Nagy (1896–1958), who introduced more liberal policies. The "thaw" was short-lived: in 1955, Rákosi returned to oust Nagy and reintroduced unalloyed Stalinism. Because of his open criticism of Soviet influence in Hungary, Nagy was expelled from the Communist Party in early 1956.

But the brief breath of democracy had emboldened the Hungarian resistance to communism, and opposition to Rákosi mounted. On October 23, students, workers, and others began a march in Budapest. They protested the Hungarian government's draconian tactics, demanding free elections, economic reforms, the withdrawal of Soviet

troops stationed in Hungary since the war, and the reinstatement of Nagy. The police fired on a peaceful student demonstration; street fighting broke out and soon spread across the country. Most Hungarian soldiers joined the demonstrators, which left the government virtually helpless. Within a very few days, revolutionary elements had seized control of many important institutions and facilities, including the radio stations, and freed the imprisoned anticommunist leader Cardinal Josef Mindszenty (1892–1975). Soviet troops pulled back, withdrawing from Hungary, and Nagy (who had been reinstated as prime minister on October 24) announced an end to one-party rule—a second Hungarian "Revolution" in little more than a decade.

The pro-Western new democratic regime renounced the Warsaw Pact, a COLD WAR Soviet defense alliance with Hungary and other Eastern bloc countries, and asked the United Nations to grant it status as an internationally neutral country. Despite the United States's stance on the "containment" of communism as expressed in the Truman Doctrine, the Eisenhower government declined to intervene in the anti-Soviet revolution, and—much to the shock of the Hungarians—announced that it would offer no aid to the new government. Accordingly, the Soviets, who had been quietly building up their forces on the border, attacked on November 4 with 200,000 troops and 2,800 tanks. Despite impassioned radio pleas to the United States and Nagy's personal plea to the UN for aid, no help was forthcoming. Hungarian freedom fighters put up a valiant resistance, but within weeks, the revolution was destroyed, and Hungary, barely recovered from the devastation of the world war, was in shambles. Nagy fled, only to be seized later by the Soviet secret police, and the Soviets replaced him with János Kádár (1912–89) as premier. The Soviets killed tens of thousands of people and imprisoned more. Almost a quarter-million Hungarians fled the country. The Soviets legitimized their military occupation through signed agreements with Kádár, which they then used to justify communist control for decades.

The 1956 Hungarian Revolt was one of the earliest indications that the Soviet juggernaut was not unstoppable, but it also tested—and found wanting—the West's resolve to act against a Soviet superpower armed with nuclear weapons. To many in the West, after 1956, the Iron Curtain seemed more impenetrable than ever. Indeed, a period of extreme repression followed the revolt. Yet Hungary's willingness to stand up to the Soviets led the USSR to treat the country more cautiously than it did many of its other Eastern-bloc puppets and, by the late 1960s, the Hungarians had succeeded in establishing a more liberal regime under János Kádár, who over time transformed Hungary into the most economically and politically successful nation of the Soviet bloc. When the East European bloc began to crumble in the late 1980s, the Kádár regime was supplanted by the Reform Communists, who reintroduced multiparty government, which, in turn, ousted the Communist Party and replaced it with the Hungarian Democratic Forum in 1990.

See also CZECHOSLOVAKIA, SOVIET INVASION OF.

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Hungarian Revolution (1848–1849)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungarian nationalists vs. Russian-allied Austria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Hungary wanted to achieve autonomy and, ultimately, full independence from Austrian rule.
OUTCOME: Initially, the revolution was successful, but counterattacks from Austrian and Russian forces crushed it, and a new, even more repressive regime was installed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Hapsburg forces, 370,000; Hungarian forces, 152,000; Russian forces, 360,000
CASUALTIES: Hapsburg forces, 16,600 killed or wounded, 14,200 prisoners, 41,000 dead of disease; Russian forces, 903 killed, 1,585 wounded, 13,554 dead of disease; Hungarian forces, an estimated 45,000 dead from all causes.
TREATIES: None

The tumultuous year 1848 saw revolution sweep through Europe. In Hungary, the great nationalist leader Louis (Lajos) Kossuth (1802–94) brought simmering Hungarian nationalism to a boil with his March 3, 1848, speech before the Hungarian Diet, denouncing life under the Austrian monarchy. He did not call for independence, but for a democratic constitution, under which Hungary would enjoy a significant degree of autonomy. In this, Kossuth was in sync with the AUSTRIAN REVOLUTION, which likewise demanded constitutional monarchy.

Kossuth rallied behind him a broad cross-section of the Hungarian people, including peasants, workers, students, and the Magyars, the Hungarian upper class. The Diet enacted the March Laws, which effectively set up an autonomous government for Hungary, still under Austrian auspices. The beleaguered Emperor Ferdinand (1793–1875) reluctantly accepted the March Laws.

The new imperial government, however, was beset by enemies—conservatives resented its land reforms and centrists in Vienna its threat to the integrity of the Hapsburg monarchy. They found common cause with many among the empire's disaffected nationalities, notably the Serbs and Romanians, but especially with the Croats, whose leader was a Croatian noble and a general in the Austrian army named Joseph Jellačić (1801–59). Jellačić rejected the Diet's authority and started a movement for Croatian independence. This, in turn, prompted independence movements in Serbia, Slovakia, Bohemia, and Romania. Alarmed by the imminent disintegration of the empire, Ferdinand withdrew his support for Hungarian premier Louis Batthyány (c. 1806–49), head of Hungary's independent government, and turned to Jellačić instead. He coopted the rebel leader by naming him to command imperial forces set to invade Hungary. Batthyány and others immediately resigned in protest, leaving Kossuth in charge, and he rallied Hungarians to resist the invasion, which they did, improvising a national army. However, the Austrian forces continued their relentless advance through Hungary, prompting the Diet to remove Debrecen as city after city fell and Budapest was threatened. In January, Budapest did fall to the Austrian invaders, and Batthyány and others were arrested.

In the face of the Austrian advance, the outnumbered Hungarian force, commanded by a young soldier of genius named Arthur von Görgey (1818–1916), withdrew to positions in the mountains north of Budapest. In the meantime, Henry Dembinski (1791–1864), a Pole, led another Hungarian force in an attempt to liberate Budapest but met defeat at the Battle of Kápolna during February 26–27, 1849. The rebels had held firm through the 26th, but when the Austrians, under Prince Alfred Windischgrätz (1787–1862), counterattacked, the Hungarians fell back in disorder.

Next, Austria called on Russia for aid in suppressing the rebellion. A small Transylvanian force under Joseph Bem (1794–1850) held off the Austrians until the onslaught of the Russians in July 1849. By that time, however, General Görgey had reorganized his forces and, fighting a series of small actions, managed to push Windischgrätz out of Austria by April. This led to the proclamation of the independent republic of Hungary on April 13, 1849, with Kossuth as governor-president. However, a new Austrian invasion, this time bolstered by the Russians, swept through Hungary during June and July 1849, driving Görgey's forces into southeastern Hungary. The new government followed him there. But the Austro-Russian army kept the pressure on, and, on August 9, 1849, General Julius von Haynau (1786–1853) led an Austrian force that completed the defeat of Görgey at the Battle of Temesvár. Kossuth relinquished the reins of government to Görgey, then fled to the Ottoman Empire. Görgey surrendered to Russian forces two days afterward.

The repercussions against Hungary were vicious and iron-handed. At the direction of the emperor, Haynau ordered the execution of Batthyány and hundreds of others. Still more Hungarian leaders were imprisoned. All pretense of Hungarian nationalism was stripped away, as Austria installed a German-speaking bureaucracy to govern the recalcitrant province, the so-called Bach regime after Alexander Bach (1813–93), Austria's draconian minister of the interior.

See also HUNGARIAN REVOLUTION (1918).

Further reading: István Deák, *The Lawful Revolution: Louis Kossuth and the Hungarians, 1848–1849* (London: Phoenix, 2001); Ian W. Roberts, *Nicholas I and the Russian Intervention in Hungary* (Houndsville, Basingstoke, Hampshire: Macmillan, in association with the School of Slavic and Eastern European Studies, University of London, 1991); György Spira, *The Nationality Issue in the Hungary of 1848–49* (Budapest: Akadémiai Kiadó, 1992); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Hungarian Revolution (1918)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungarian nationalists vs. Austro-Hungarian Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: No official declaration, but the rebellion was triggered by the establishment of a Hungarian national council on October 25, 1918
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Hungary sought to achieve its long-held goal of independence from the Austro-Hungarian Empire.
OUTCOME: With the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Empire immediately following the end of World War I, Hungary successfully declared its independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None—although the Treaty of Versailles and other treaties relating to the end of World War I affirmed the dismantlement of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and the independence of Hungary

As WORLD WAR I ground to its end, Hungarian nationalists saw an opportunity to make a break for independence from the Austro-Hungarian Empire. In the early autumn of 1918, the Hungarian Diet defiantly recalled its troops from the front, and Count Michael Károlyi (1875–1955) created a national council, to replace the Diet altogether, on October 25, 1918. The public rallied to Károlyi in open demonstrations of rebellion, calling for an immediate end to Hungarian participation in the war, the dismissal of the

Austrian-sanctioned Diet, universal suffrage, and an end to the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. On October 31, Austrian emperor Charles I (1887–1922) named Károlyi Hungarian premier in an effort to appease the revolutionaries and restore order, and a genuine radical-socialist coalition came into power. However, as had occurred during the HUNGARIAN REVOLUTION (1848–1849), ethnic nationalism undermined the unity of the Hungarian revolution. Slovaks, Serbs, and Romanians threatened to withdraw from the Hungarian coalition. Károlyi acted quickly to restore unity by concluding a separate peace between Hungary and France. As part of the agreement, he withdrew Hungarian troops from the southeastern portion of the nation, allowing Serbs to occupy the south, Romanians to occupy Transylvania, and Bohemian troops to hold Slovakia. At this point, World War I ended, and, with its end, the Austro-Hungarian Empire collapsed, the emperor withdrawing from all state affairs. This left the way open for Hungary to declare its independence as a republic on November 16, 1918, just five days after the World War I armistice.

While the separation from Austria was popular, it proved disastrous for Károlyi and his government. Serb, Czech, and Romanian troops took control of various sections in two-thirds of the prostrate country, destroying any possibility of orderly political development or social reform. The government itself moved steadily to the left until, on March 21, 1919, it was replaced by a soviet republic controlled by the revolution-minded Béla Kun (1885–c. 1939).

See also HUNGARIAN CIVIL WAR (1921); KUN'S RED TERROR.

Further reading: Jörg K. Hoensch, *A History of Modern Hungary, 1867–1994,* trans. Kim Traynor, 2nd ed. (New York: Longman, 1996); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *Hungary, a Short History* (Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, 1962); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976); John C. Swanson, *The Remnants of the Hapsburg Monarchy: The Shaping of Modern Austria and Hungary, 1918–1922* (Boulder, Colo., and New York: East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 2001); Rudolf L. Tökés, *Béla Kun and the Hungarian Soviet Republic: The Origins and Role of the Communist Party in the Revolutions of 1918–1919* (New York: Praeger, 1967).

Hungarian-Turkish War (1437–1438)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary vs. the Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Belgrade area and Romania
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Hungary resisted an Ottoman invasion.
OUTCOME: The Ottomans were cleared from Hungary and Romania.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Ottoman invasion of Hungary was blocked by the Transylvanian leader John Hunyadi (1387–1456), who had overseen the highly effective fortification of Belgrade and then the relief of the siege of the Sememdria (Smederevo) fortress on the Danube. After breaking the siege here, Hunyadi went on the offensive and achieved great success in pushing the Turks out of Hungary. In recognition of his victories, he was named *bán,* military governor, of Severin, Wallachia (now part of Romania) and, from this post, continued to fight the Turks in the HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1441–1444).

See also HUNGARIAN CIVIL WAR (1439–1440); HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1444–1456); HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1483); HUNGARIAN-VENETIAN WAR (1378–1381).

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Pál Fódor and Géza Dávid, eds., *Ottomans, Hungarians, and Hapsburgs in Central Europe* (Boston: Brill, 2000); Joseph Held, *Hunyadi: Legend and Reality* (Boulder, Colo., and New York: East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 1985); Colin Imber, *The Ottoman Empire, 1300–1650: The Structure of Power* (New York: Palgrave, 2002); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982).

Hungarian-Turkish War (1441–1444)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungarians vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Balkan region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hungarian forces sought to repel an Ottoman invasion.
OUTCOME: Hungarian forces were consistently and overwhelmingly successful against the invaders.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Szeged (Hungary), July 12, 1444

After having been ejected from Hungary in the HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1437–1438), the Ottomans invaded Hun-

gary again in 1441. John Hunyadi (1387–1456), who had successfully repelled the Ottomans during the last war, led an army of Slavs and Magyars (Hungarian gentry) against the new invasion, which had been mounted ostensibly to punish Hungary for having supported the claim of the "false Mustafa" to the Ottoman throne held by Murad II (c. 1403–51).

Hunyadi prevailed at the Battle of Semendria (Smederevo), site of an important Hungarian fortress, in 1441 and at the Battle of Herrmannstadt the following year. After the Ottomans were also defeated at Vassag and Nagyszeben, Pope Eugenius IV (1383–1447) persuaded King Ladislas III (1424–44) of Hungary and Poland that the time was ripe for a full-scale crusade against the Muslim Turks. Ladislas's army drove the Ottomans from Semendria in 1442, and, the next year, Hunyadi defeated Turkish forces at Nish, Serbia, then captured Sofia. After this victory, Hunyadi united his army with that of King Ladislas and, together, they engaged the Ottomans at Snaim (Kustinitza), scoring a spectacular victory in 1443 that broke the Ottoman hold on the Balkans. Murad sued for peace and, at Szeged, Hungary, concluded a 10-year truce on July 12, 1444. By the terms of this treaty, Hungary acquired control over Serbia and Wallachia.

Almost immediately after signing the treaty, Murad II abdicated, and, within a few days, Hungary violated the "10-year" truce by starting the HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1444–1456).

See also HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1483); HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1492–1494).

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Pál Fódor and Géza Dávid, eds., *Ottomans, Hungarians, and Hapsburgs in Central Europe* (Boston: Brill, 2000); Joseph Held, *Hunyadi: Legend and Reality* (Boulder, Colo., and New York: East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 1985); Colin Imber, *The Ottoman Empire, 1300–1650: The Structure of Power* (New York: Palgrave, 2002); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982).

Hungarian-Turkish War (1444–1456)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Balkans, especially Serbia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Encouraged by the pope, Hungary mounted a "crusade" against the Ottomans with the object of driving them out of the Balkans.
OUTCOME: For the present, the Ottoman forces withdrew to Constantinople, but the death of the Hungarians' principal commander, John Hunyadi, prevented the Hungarian forces from further capitalizing on their victory.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the Battle of Kosovo: Hungary, 24,000; Ottoman Empire, about 30,000
CASUALTIES: At Kosovo: Hungary, about 12,000 killed and wounded; Ottoman Empire, about 10,000 killed and wounded
TREATIES: None

Just 19 days after signing a treaty ending the HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1441–1444), Hungary exploited the disarray in Ottoman leadership caused by the sudden abdication of Sultan Murad II (c. 1403–51) by mounting an all-out attack against Turkey—in violation of the truce just concluded and slated to last 10 years. Encouraged by Pope Eugenius IV (1383–1447) (who wanted a new Crusade against Islam) King Ladislas III (1424–44) of Hungary and Poland formed an alliance with Venice and, with John Hunyadi (1387–1456) and Cardinal Julian Cesarini (1398–1444), led an army through Bulgaria to the Black Sea, where they destroyed most of the Turkish fleet, and then went on to capture Sunium, Pezech, and Kavanna. After this, the Hungarian-Venetian force laid siege to Varna, the Turks' key Black Sea port. The plan was to meet here the ships of Venice, but they remained at Gallipoli and did not even attempt to prevent Murad, recalled to the throne in this crisis, from rushing back to Europe from Asia Minor. The sultan and his army arrived at Varna on November 10, 1444. Hunyadi engaged the force in a bold but desperate frontal assault, which Murad beat back. Then the sultan counterattacked, rapidly routing the Europeans and killing both Ladislas and Cesarini. Hunyadi managed to escape what became a general slaughter.

As a result of Varna, Murad reclaimed control of Serbia and Bosnia, and when Hunyadi led a new army of 24,000 men against him in 1448, the Hungarian commander was defeated in the two-day Battle of Kosovo, during October 16–17. Murad's forces were considerably larger and well organized. On the first day, Murad used his Janissary infantry and spahi cavalry against Hunyadi's center-positioned German mercenary infantry, armed with guns and pikes, and flank-positioned hussars (cavalry). (A unit of Wallachian troops had deserted him). Neither side carried the day, and both suffered heavy losses. On the second day, however, Murad's heavily armored spahis broke through Hunyadi's hussars, and the Hungarian-German force turned in retreat and withdrew from the field. Hunyadi had lost about half of his force, whereas Murad lost perhaps a third.

Hunyadi returned to raid the Turks in Serbia in 1449, causing considerable damage. Muhammad II (1430–81), Murad's son and successor, terrorized Serbia in 1453, abducting 50,000 Serb Christians. The following year, Hunyadi invaded the region again and ultimately pushed the Ottomans out of Semendria (Smederevo) and back to

Kruševac. There Hunyadi met with Muhammad II to negotiate peace terms. None were forthcoming, and, in July 1456, Muhammad laid siege to Belgrade. After three weeks, however, the siege was lifted when Hunyadi broke through a naval blockade on the Danube, defeated the Ottoman forces, and secured the city.

Muhammad withdrew to Constantinople. On August 11, 1456, Hunyadi succumbed to an illness, probably cholera, which was epidemic in his camp. Without their commander, the Hungarian forces failed to pursue the Turks or otherwise exploit their hard-won victory.

See also HAPSBURG DYNASTIC WARS; VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1443–1453).

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Pál Fódor and Géza Dávid, eds., *Ottomans, Hungarians, and Hapsburgs in Central Europe* (Boston: Brill, 2000); Joseph Held, *Hunyadi: Legend and Reality* (Boulder, Colo., and New York: East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 1985); Colin Imber, *The Ottoman Empire, 1300–1650: The Structure of Power* (New York: Palgrave, 2002); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982).

Hungarian-Turkish War (1463–1483)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bosnia and Herzegovina
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hungarians (with some Venetian and papal support) sought to check Ottoman advances in Bosnia.
OUTCOME: The Hungarians reclaimed northern Bosnia, but the remainder of the country fell to the Ottomans, as did Herzegovina.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Under papal auspices, Hungary and Venice allied against the Ottoman Empire to counter Turkish conquests in Serbia after the Turks took Bosnia in the BOSNIAN-TURKISH WAR. Under King Matthias Corvinus (1440–90), Hungarian forces poured into Bosnia and scored several victories against the Ottomans, unseating them from a number of fortresses. An Ottoman army under Muhammad II (1429–81) besieged the town of Jajce, but Hungarian forces held the town and reclaimed much of northern Bosnia. The rest of the country remained firmly in Ottoman hands, although the Hungarians did score a significant victory in taking the large Turkish fortress at Sazbács, on the Sava River. With Muhammad's death in 1481, the war assumed the character of a low-level conflict, although the Ottomans made one more significant inroad in 1483, conquering Herzegovina, south of Bosnia.

See also HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1444–1456); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1479).

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Pál Fódor and Géza Dávid, eds., *Ottomans, Hungarians, and Hapsburgs in Central Europe* (Boston: Brill, 2000); Colin Imber, *The Ottoman Empire, 1300–1650: The Structure of Power* (New York: Palgrave, 2002); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982).

Hungarian-Turkish War (1492–1494)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Region of Belgrade, Transylvania, Croatia, and southern Austria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottomans wanted to extend their dominion in Europe and were opposed by Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian I.
OUTCOME: Maximilian was unable to muster sufficient support from other European rulers to drive the Turks from the Balkans.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Bayazid II (1447–1513), the Ottoman sultan, made a surprise assault on Belgrade in 1492, but the Hungarian forces holding the city stood firm, and an army under Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian I (1459–1519) defeated the Ottoman invaders at the Battle of Villach, in Carinthia (the southern region of Austria). Bayazid did not withdraw from the region following his defeat, however, and instead invaded Transylvania, Croatia, Styria, and Carniola (the latter two in Austria). Overwhelmed, Maximilian appealed to the Christian rulers of other European states but was unable to raise a force sufficient to dislodge the Turks. Despite this, Bayazid did not mount a full-scale war in the Balkans and Austria, but contented himself with skirmishing against whatever low-level resistance he encountered.

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Pál Fódor and Géza Dávid, eds., *Ottomans, Hungarians, and Hapsburgs in Central Europe* (Boston: Brill, 2000); Colin Imber, *The*

Ottoman Empire, 1300–1650: The Structure of Power (New York: Palgrave, 2002); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982).

Hungarian-Turkish War (1521–1526)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Süleyman I sought tribute from Hungary.
OUTCOME: Hungarian forces were disastrously defeated; Süleyman left a Transylvanian puppet to rule over Magyar Hungary.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Hungary, 20,000–30,000; Ottomans, 100,000–200,000
CASUALTIES: At Mohacs: Hungary, 10,000–15,000 killed; Ottoman losses were described as "heavy." The Ottomans took 105,000 Hungarians captive.
TREATIES: None

When Vladislav II (1456–1516), king of Bohemia and—as Ladislas II—of Hungary, died, his nine-year-old son, Louis II (1506–26), was proclaimed king. The defenses of the kingdom grew weaker under Louis's minority rule as the Hungarian magnates took advantage of his youth to disband the king's standing army—known since the days of Matthias Corvinus (1440–90) as the dreaded Black Army (after its original commander "Black John" Haugwitz).

In 1521, the new Ottoman sultan, Süleyman I the Magnificent (c. 1496–1566) recognized the realm's subsequent vulnerability and demanded tribute from the teenaged ruler of Bohemia and Hungary. Louis petulantly refused and deliberately insulted the Turkish ambassador. To these affronts, Süleyman responded with an invasion, thus renewing the chronic warfare between Hungary and the Ottoman Empire.

Hungary's powerful magnates, suddenly aware of the renewed threat, voted to reestablish a standing army. None of the various factions, however, wanted to pay for its upkeep and kept trying to slough the burden onto the shoulders of their rivals. Thus nothing was done to raise the army, and most Hungarian forces were quickly demolished or captured, when the sultan advanced into Hungary in 1526. Belgrade fell to the Turks, who used it as an advanced base of operations into the north. In the meantime, Hungary called on an alliance with Persia and the Holy Roman Empire for help, but France threw its support behind the Ottomans—despite their being Muslims.

Süleyman's forces were huge. He fielded 100,000 to 200,000 men against 20,000 to 30,000 Hungarians (with some assistance from Sigismund I [1467–1548] of Poland) on the plain of Mohacs, along the Danube, on August 29, 1526. Louis foolishly unleashed a frontal assault against these massively superior forces, using a mixed force of knights and peasants, neither of which was well disciplined. The Turks, in contrast, were a highly trained force commanded with intelligence. They beat the Christians thoroughly on August 29, then swept them from the field on August 30. European losses numbered at 10,000 to 15,000 dead, including King Louis II (who drowned while fleeing), seven bishops, and many high nobles. Losses among the Ottomans were also heavy.

From Mohacs, Süleyman advanced to Buda, which he occupied unopposed, but, despite his stunning victory, the sultan soon withdrew to Turkey to attend to the Turko-Persian War (1526–1555). He took with him 105,000 Hungarian captives and appointed a Transylvanian, John Zápolya (1487–1540), to rule over the Magyars. This led to the Hungarian Civil War (1526–1529).

See also Austro-Turkish War (1529–1533).

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Pál Fódor and Géza Dávid, eds., *Ottomans, Hungarians, and Hapsburgs in Central Europe* (Boston: Brill, 2000); Colin Imber, *The Ottoman Empire, 1300–1650: The Structure of Power* (New York: Palgrave, 2002); Metin Kunt and Christine Woodhead eds., *Suleyman The Magnificent and His Age: The Ottoman Empire in the Early Modern World* (New York: Longman, 1995).

Hungarian-Venetian War (1171)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary vs. Venice
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dalmatian coast
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Hungary attempted to take and hold various Venetian-held Dalmatian-coast seaports.
OUTCOME: The Hungarians were initially successful in taking the Dalmatian-coast seaports, but they were quickly recaptured by Venice.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Hungary's aggressive King Stephen III (d. 1172) exploited the Venetian-Byzantine War to grab up Venetian-held towns along the Dalmatian coast during 1171. With Norman allies, Venice recaptured the seaports of Zara (Zadar) and Ragusa (Dubrovnik), ending the war. Later, in 1173, Hungarians under King Béla III (r. 1173–96) twice attempted to recover the lost Dalmatian territory and

met with limited success, retaking Zara and a few lesser objectives.

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *Hungary, a Short History* (Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, 1962); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976).

Hungarian-Venetian War (1342–1346)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary vs. Venice
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dalmatia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Hungary wanted to recover Dalmatian territories lost to Venice.
OUTCOME: The Venetians repelled the Hungarian invasion and defeated the Hungarians decisively at the Battle of Zara.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Hungary yielded most of Dalmatia to Venice during the reign of Hungary's Charles I (1288–1342). His successor, Louis I (1326–82) (known as Louis the Great) immediately invaded Dalmatia in an effort to regain the territory, but was defeated in the Battle of Zara (Zadar) in 1346.

See also HUNGARIAN-VENETIAN WAR (1357–1358); HUNGARIAN-VENETIAN WAR (1378–1381).

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *Hungary, a Short History* (Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, 1962); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982).

Hungarian-Venetian War (1357–1358)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary vs. Venice
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dalmatia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Hungary wanted to recover Dalmatian territories lost earlier to Venice.
OUTCOME: Hungary obtained the cession of most of Dalmatia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Zara, February 1358

Thanks to the efforts of King Louis I (1326–1382)—known as "Louis the Great" or Lajos Nagy—Hungary recovered some of its former power and prestige during 1357–58. Louis invaded Venetian-held Dalmatia and rapidly seized many towns, which he himself had lost to Venice in the HUNGARIAN-VENETIAN WAR (1342–1346). Venice, unable to mount a credible defense, ceded most of Dalmatia to Hungary in February 1358 by the Treaty of Zara (Zadar). This bolstered Hungary's prestige and put it in position to expand at the expense of the Turks in northern Bulgaria. Moreover, Casimir III (1310–70) named Louis as his successor to the Polish throne.

See also HUNGARIAN-VENETIAN WAR (1378–1381).

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press), 1971); C. A. Macartney, *Hungary, a Short History* (Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, 1962); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982).

Hungarian-Venetian War (1378–1381)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary (with Genoese allies) vs. Venice
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dalmatian coast
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Having taken inland Dalmatia in the War of Chioggia, Hungary aimed at acquiring control of the coast as well.
OUTCOME: Venice ceded the Dalmatian coast to Hungary.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Turin, August 8, 1377

Hungary's King Louis I (1326–82) suffered defeat at the hands of Venice in the HUNGARIAN-VENETIAN WAR

(1342–1346) and was forced to yield some territory and cities. He fared much better in his second war against Venice, the HUNGARIAN-VENETIAN WAR (1357–1358), and managed to recover some Dalmatian coastal towns. Next, in the War of CHIOGGIA (1378–81), he succeeded in recovering inland Dalmatia. But this time, Louis also allied Hungary with Genoa (longtime rival of Venice) to capture those parts of the Dalmatian coast he had not taken in the 1357–58 war. The Genoese did not fare well in this war, but Hungary wrested control of the Balkans from the Ottoman Empire, which thereby put Louis I in a position of sufficient strength to force Venice to yield the Dalmatian seacoast by the 1381 Peace of Turin.

The final conquest of all Dalmatia, coupled with Hungary's hard-won dominion over the Balkans, made the Hungarian kingdom the most powerful in eastern Europe. Louis, king of Poland as well as Hungary since 1370, emerged as the most significant ruler of the region.

Further reading: Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *Hungary, a Short History* (Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, 1962); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982).

Hungarian War with the Holy Roman Empire (1477–1485)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungary vs. the Holy Roman Empire (chiefly Austria)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Austria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Holy Roman Emperor Frederick III wanted to assume the throne of Hungary; Matthias Corvinus, elected to that throne, resisted.
OUTCOME: Matthias Corvinus's resistance to the Holy Roman Empire was highly successful, and Hungary dominated much of central and southeastern Europe from 1485 until the death of Matthias in 1490.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When, as a child, Ladislav V (Posthumous; 1440–570) was proclaimed king of Hungary by its ruling magnates, the great Hungarian general and hero John Hunyadi (1387–1456) was appointed his guardian and became, for a while, the country's governor. Upon Hunyadi's death, however, Ladislav's powerful uncle, Ulrich of Cilli (d. 1456), well aware of the country's devotion to the general, had his eldest son assassinated and his younger son, Matthias Corvinus (1440–90), imprisoned in Prague. Ladislav died suddenly, unmarried and childless, the following year, and the Hungarian nobility proclaimed Matthias king at a Diet convened in 1458 in Buda and Pest. Matthias proved a most able monarch, not only quelling dissension within Hungary, but successfully defending against Ottoman incursions with the help of a 30,000-strong standing army, made up of mercenaries (most of them defeated Hussites) and known, after its commander "Black John" Haugwitz, as the Black Army.

The Hapsburgs, however, under Holy Roman Emperor Frederick III (1415–93) repeatedly contested Matthias's right to rule. At last, in 1477, when the marriage of Frederick's son Maximilian (1459–1519) to Mary of Burgundy (1457–82) dramatically enhanced the power of the House of Hapsburg, Frederick pushed harder for control of Hungary. In response, Matthias secured allies from among Frederick's enemies in Austria and Germany, and launched a series of highly destructive raids into Austria during 1477, 1479, and 1482. In 1485, Matthias laid siege to Vienna, which soon fell to him. Matthias occupied Vienna for the next five years—until his death in 1490. Only after the dynamic Hungarian king had died was Maximilian able to retake Vienna and, subsequently, other Austrian territory taken by Matthias. Maximilian became Holy Roman Emperor in 1490.

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); Pál Engel, *The Realm of St. Stephen: A History of Medieval Hungary, 895–1526,* trans. Tamás Pálosfalvi (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2001); Domokos Varga, *Hungary in Greatness and Decline: The 14th and 15th Centuries,* trans. Martha Szacsvay Lipták (Corvino Kiadó and Stone Mountain, Ga.: Hungarian Cultural Foundation, 1982); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Hun Invasion of Gothic Empire (376)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Huns vs. the Ostrogoths and Visigoths
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gothic Empire (southeastern Europe)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Huns overran the Gothic realm, as the Goths sought refuge within the Roman Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In the hundreds of thousands on both sides; the Gothic warrior class numbered more than 200,000.

CASUALTIES: As many as 1 million Gothic refugees were created by the invasion.
TREATIES: None, save a disarmament agreement between Rome and the Visigoths.

Ermanaric (d. c. 370–376), leader of the Ostrogoths, was killed (or committed suicide) during the onslaught of the Huns, who invaded the Gothic Empire by way of the Dnieper River. Withimer assumed leadership of the embattled Ostrogoths but soon fell in battle and was replaced by Alatheus and Saphrax, who could offer nothing more than leadership in an Ostrogoth flight across the Dniester.

In contrast to the Ostrogoth leaders, Athanaric (d. 381), leader of the Visigoths, was determined to take a stand against the Hun invasion. Unfortunately, the majority of his people emulated the Ostrogoths and fled toward the Danube, led by Fritgern and Alavius. Perhaps as many as 1 million Ostrogoths and Visigoths were displaced as refugees, including 200,000 warriors. With a minority following, Athanaric sought refuge in the forests of Carpathia and Transylvania.

The Visigoths appealed to Valens (c. 328–378), Roman emperor of the East, for refuge. The Roman agreed, on condition that the Visigoths disarm and further surrender their male children under military age as hostages. By the time the Ostrogoths arrived at the frontier of the Roman Empire and likewise appealed for refuge, the Romans refused. However, preoccupied with the influx of Visigoths, the Romans could not prevent the Ostrogoths from crossing the Danube.

See also HUN RAIDS.

Further reading: Thomas S. Burns, *A History of the Ostro-Goths* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1984); Arther Ferrill, *The Fall of the Roman Empire: The Military Explanation* (New York: Thames and Hudson, 1986); Peter Heather, ed., *The Visigoths from the Migration Period to the Seventh Century* (Rochester, N.Y.: Boydell Press, 1999); Otto J. Maenchen-Helfen, *The World of the Huns* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973); E. A. Thompson, *The Huns* (Cambridge, England: Blackwell, 1996).

Hun Raids: Hun Invasion of Thrace (409)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Huns vs. Eastern Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Eastern Roman forces repulsed the Hun invasion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

From 408 to 450, the Eastern Roman Empire (Byzantine Empire) was menaced by Hun incursions, invasions, and raids. One of the biggest was led by the Hun king Uldin against Thrace in 409. Anthemius (d. 472), the Praetorian prefect who, with his sister Pulcheria (399–453), had taken over the imperial government as regents for the infant Theodosius II (401–450) on the death of Arcadius (c. 377–408), led a defensive force against the Hun onslaught. Anthemius was able to repulse the Huns, who were driven back across the Danube.

See also HUN INVASION OF GOTHIC EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S EASTERN CONQUESTS; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S FIRST INVASION OF EASTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S SECOND INVASION OF EASTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S INVASION OF WESTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: EASTERN EMPIRE'S ITALIAN EXPEDITION; HUN RAIDS: EASTERN EMPIRE'S AFRICAN EXPEDITION.

Further reading: Arther Ferrill, *The Fall of the Roman Empire: The Military Explanation* (New York: Thames and Hudson, 1986); Otto J. Maenchen-Helfen, *The World of the Huns* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973); E. A. Thompson, *The Huns* (Cambridge, England: Blackwell, 1996).

Hun Raids: Eastern Empire's Italian Expedition (against John) (424–425)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Eastern Roman Empire vs. John, Hunnish usurper of the Western Roman throne
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy, principally Ravenna
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Overthrow of the usurper, and elevation of a Roman to the throne
OUTCOME: The usurper was deposed, and Valentinian enthroned as a puppet of his mother, Placidia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Constantius (d. 421), leading general of the Eastern Empire, died in 421, whereupon his widow, Placidia (c. 390–450), having become estranged from her brother Honorius (384–423), emperor of the West, fled to Constantinople and, with her son Valentinian III (419–455), found refuge in the court of Theodosius II (401–450), emperor of the East. Soon after this, Honorius died, and his vacant throne was usurped by his prime minister, John. Theodosius resolved to unseat the usurper and sent Ardaburius and Aspar (d. 471), father and son generals, at the head of an army to depose John at his court in Ravenna.

The fleet of Ardaburius was dispersed by a storm en route, and although the general survived, he was taken prisoner. Aspar, having taken the overland route, approached Ravenna and, with the help of agents and allies within the city, captured it in 425. Moving swiftly, Aspar's forces captured and killed John. Valentinian was enthroned in his place, and, through him, his mother Placidia ruled the Western Empire. Theodosius picked up Illyricum as a reward for his aid in overthrowing the usurper.

See also HUN INVASION OF GOTHIC EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S EASTERN CONQUESTS; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S FIRST INVASION OF EASTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S SECOND INVASION OF EASTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S INVASION OF WESTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: EASTERN EMPIRE'S AFRICA EXPEDITION; HUN RAIDS: HUN INVASION OF THRACE.

Further reading: Arther Ferrill, *The Fall of the Roman Empire: The Military Explanation* (New York: Thames and Hudson, 1986); Thomas Hodkins, *Huns, Vandals, and the Fate of the Roman Empire* (Mechanicsburg, Pa.: Stackpole Books, 1996); Otto J. Maenchen-Helfen, *The World of the Huns* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973); E. A. Thompson, *The Huns* (Cambridge, England: Blackwell, 1996).

Hun Raids: Eastern Empire's African Expedition (431)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome and the Eastern Empire vs. the Vandals and Alans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northwestern Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The barbarians sought to conquer northwestern Africa.
OUTCOME: Under Gaiseric, the barbarians came to control most of northwestern Africa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Vandals and Alans (barbarians), 50,000; Roman and East Roman forces were similar in number.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the Huns' attacks on Rome's eastern lands from 424 to 425 (*see* HUN RAIDS: EASTERN EMPIRE'S ITALIAN EXPEDITION [AGAINST JOHN]), Bonifacius, a Roman-barbarian general in service to the Eastern Empire, remained loyal to Valentinian III (419–455) and Placidia (c. 390–450) and opposed the uprising of John. For this, Placidia rewarded Bonifacius with the governorship of Africa. Bonifacius subsequently rebelled against the Eastern Empire and invited Gaiseric (Genseric, 390–477) and some 50,000 Vandals and Alans to invade Africa in 429. Within a short time, however, Bonifacius reconciled with Placidia and the Eastern Empire but now found that he could not eject the barbarians in his midst. He requested military aid from Placidia, who, in turn, appealed to Theodosius II (401–450) and Pulcheria (399–453) to send a force to Africa.

In 431, a land and naval force was sent under the Roman general Aspar (d. 471) to reinforce the army of Bonifacius. Bonifacius assumed overall command of the combined Roman–East Roman force, which was quickly defeated by Gaiseric's barbarians. They resumed the siege of Hippo, which the African expedition had interrupted, and Aspar, apparently after a dispute with Bonifacius over command, withdrew his forces back to Constantinople. By 435, the Vandals were in control of all northwestern Africa, except for eastern Numidia (Tunisia).

See also HUN INVASION OF GOTHIC EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S EASTERN CONQUESTS; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S FIRST INVASION OF EASTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S SECOND INVASION OF EASTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S INVASION OF WESTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: EASTERN EMPIRE'S ITALIAN EXPEDITION; HUN RAIDS: HUN INVASION OF THRACE.

Further reading: Arther Ferrill, *The Fall of the Roman Empire: The Military Explanation* (New York: Thames and Hudson, 1986); Thomas Hodkins, *Huns, Vandals, and the Fate of the Roman Empire* (Mechanicsburg, Pa.: Stackpole Books, 1996); Otto J. Maenchen-Helfen, *The World of the Huns* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973); E. A. Thompson, *The Huns* (Cambridge, England: Blackwell, 1996).

Hun Raids: Attila's Eastern Conquests (433–441)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Huns vs. Scythia, Media, and Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scythia, Media, and Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Huns came to control Scythia, Media, and Persia
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Between the Eastern Empire and the Huns, renewed 433

In 432, Theodosius II (401–450), emperor of the East, concluded a treaty with Ruas, king of the Huns, intended to prevent conflict between the Huns and the Byzantines. With the death of Ruas in 433, Attila (c. 406–453) and Bleda (d. 445), his nephew, jointly assumed the Hun throne. The pair renewed the treaty, and Attila and Bleda turned their attention to making conquests in Scythia, Media, and Persia, all beyond the bounds of the Eastern Empire.

See also HUN INVASION OF GOTHIC EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: HUN INVASION OF THRACE; HUN RAIDS: EASTERN EMPIRE'S AFRICA EXPEDITION; HUN RAIDS: EASTERN EMPIRE'S ITALIAN EXPEDITION; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S FIRST INVASION OF EASTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S SECOND INVASION OF EASTERN EMPIRE; HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S INVASION OF WESTERN EMPIRE.

Further reading: Roger Carintini, *Attila* (Paris: Hachette, 2000); Arther Ferrill, *The Fall of the Roman Empire: The Military Explanation* (New York: Thames and Hudson, 1986); Otto J. Maenchen-Helfen, *The World of the Huns* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973); E. A. Thompson, *The Huns* (Cambridge, England: Blackwell, 1996); Robert N. Webb, *Attila, King of the Huns* (New York: F. Watts, 1965).

Hun Raids: Attila's First Invasion of Eastern Empire (441–443)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Huns vs. the Eastern Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Balkans
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hun raids were aimed chiefly at extracting massive tribute from the Eastern Empire.
OUTCOME: After defeating and nearly destroying the imperial army under General Aspar, Attila prevailed, extensively raiding the Balkan Peninsula and forcing a new and exorbitant tribute from Emperor Theodosius.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but catastrophic for imperial forces
TREATIES: Peace and tribute agreement, August 443

Attila (c. 406–453) violated the Hun treaty with the Eastern Empire (*see* HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S EASTERN CONQUESTS) after the Vandal leader Gaiseric (Genseric, 390–477) bribed and cajoled him. Attila launched an invasion into Illyricum in 441. The Eastern Empire responded by suing for a truce, which was quickly concluded and endured for less than a year before Attila invaded Moesia and Thrace, then advanced to the walls of Constantinople itself.

Attila's forces pushed the imperial army, led by the Roman general Aspar (d. 471), into retreat to the Chersonese Peninsula. There, without room for maneuver, the Eastern army was all but completely destroyed. Aspar and a small number of others made their escape by sea.

In the absence of an opposing army, Attila raided the Balkan Peninsula fiercely. Only at Asemus (Osma, near Sistova) did the Huns encounter serious resistance. A local force repulsed them, forcing Attila to fall back with significant losses. This was hardly sufficient to counterbalance the losses suffered by the Eastern Empire. In August 443, Theodosius II (401–450), the Eastern emperor, sued for peace, agreeing to a massive increase in tribute money paid to Attila.

Further reading: Roger Carintini, *Attila* (Paris: Hachette, 2000); Arther Ferrill, *The Fall of the Roman Empire: The Military Explanation* (New York: Thames and Hudson, 1986); Otto J. Maenchen-Helfen, *The World of the Huns* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973); E. A. Thompson, *The Huns* (Cambridge, England: Blackwell, 1996); Robert N. Webb, *Attila, King of the Huns* (New York: F. Watts, 1965).

Hun Raids: Attila's Second Invasion of Eastern Empire (447)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Huns vs. the Eastern Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace and Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Attila extracted from the Eastern Empire three times the earlier tribute, together with an extensive cession of territory along the Danube.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of 447

In 445, Attila (c. 406–453) murdered Bleda (d. 445) to become the sole ruler of the Huns, who now commanded an empire of vast extent. Two years later, Attila led a new invasion of the Eastern Empire, despite the highly favorable peace terms that had been reached with Emperor Theodosius II (401–450) after his first invasion of the Eastern Empire (HUN RAIDS: ATTILA'S FIRST INVASION OF EASTERN EMPIRE, 441–443).

So feared were the Huns that, even as they advanced toward Thrace, there was panic in Constantinople. This was not without good reason: a recent earthquake had damaged the city's walls, making it that much more vulnerable to assault.

Theodosius dispatched an army to intercept the advance of the Huns. The Battle of the Utus was ultimately indecisive, but it did temporarily halt the Hun advance. Although the Eastern Roman army withdrew, the action put the Huns off their Constantinople-bound course and sent them toward Greece. Encountering the formidable fortifications of Thermopylae, a narrow pass, the Huns were halted.

At this juncture, Theodosius sued to renew the peace. The price he paid was catastrophically high: a tribute assessed at three times the earlier exorbitant amount, together with the cession of a 50-mile-wide swath of the

right bank of the Danube, from Singidunum (Belgrade) to Novae (Svistov, Bulgaria).

Further reading: Roger Carintini, *Attila* (Paris: Hachette, 2000); Arther Ferrill, *The Fall of the Roman Empire: The Military Explanation* (New York: Thames and Hudson, 1986); Otto J. Maenchen-Helfen, *The World of the Huns* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973); E. A. Thompson, *The Huns* (Cambridge: Blackwell, 1996); Robert N. Webb, *Attila, King of the Huns* (New York: F. Watts, 1965).

Hun Raids: Attila's Invasion of Western Empire (450–452)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Huns vs. the Western Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France and Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Attila's failure to prevail at the Battle of Châlons forfeited his main opportunity to seize control of the Western Empire and thereby introduce Asian rule into Europe; his later withdrawal from Italy ended his western European invasion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Huns, perhaps as many as 500,000 or as few as 100,000 men; the armies of the Eastern Empire and its allies never numbered more than about half the troops the Huns fielded.
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but certainly heavy among the Huns as a result of the Battle of Châlons and, later, in Italy, as a result of epidemic disease.
TREATIES: None

It was at the behest of his ally, the Vandal leader Gaiseric (Genseric, 390–477), that Attila (c. 406–453) ventured into the Western Empire. Gaiseric needed a diversion against Theodoric (d. 534) of Toulouse, who was about to invade North Africa. Moreover, Attila wanted to avenge himself against the Western emperor, Valentinian III (419–455), who had rebuffed a suit for the hand of his sister, Honoria—and for half of the Western Empire.

Thus motivated, Attila was on the march in 450 and crossed the Rhine in 451 with the greatest army he had ever led—reportedly 500,000 warriors (modern historians believe the actual figure was no more than 100,000).

The Rhine crossing came just north of Moguntiacum (Mainz), which was in the territory of his allies, the Franks, and thus there was no resistance to his crossing. The front of the advance was vast, nearly 100 miles across. With this great scythe, Attila swept through the cities and towns of northern Gaul, sacking all save Paris (spared, it was said, through the intercession of St. Geneviève). While ravaging the countryside, Attila repeatedly invited Theodoric to join him in a united campaign against Roman rule in Gaul.

The Roman general Aetius (d. 454) mustered a large army consisting of Gauls and Romans, with Franks, Burgundians, Germans, and Alans. Despite the diversity of those recruited, Aetius commanded no more than half the strength of Attila. Theodoric considered whether to join Attila, but, persuaded by the charisma and conviction of Aetius, he sided with Rome against the Huns.

Attila marched through Metz on April 7, 451, and swept through the valley of the Loire, then set up a siege of Orléans using about half of his army. The other half Attila deployed in a massive raid of northern France. Just as Orléans was about to surrender to the besiegers, Aetius and Theodoric attacked. However, after brief skirmishing, Attila suddenly broke off the siege, retreated, and called for the rest of his army. In the meantime, Aetius gave chase. Attila reunited his forces between Troyes and Châlons. He quickly set up a great redoubt near Méry-sur Seine, digging into massive entrenchments. It was in this fortified position that Aetius found the Huns in June. A titanic battle—the Battle of Châlons—ensued. Aetius and Theodoric held out against Attila's massive assaults on the center and right. The allies mounted an offensive with their left against Attila's right. Theodoric fell, but Attila was forced to withdraw.

Attila assumed that Aetius would give chase, but his troops had taken heavy losses, and he did not attack. This is understandable, but it is unclear why Aetius also failed to blockade the Huns to cut them off and starve them into submission. The Roman general was not usually prone to such strategic lapses. Attila withdrew from Gaul, quietly and without further destruction to the countryside. Had he prevailed at the Battle of Châlons, Attila would have conquered the Western Empire, and it is quite possible that the subsequent course of European history would have been dominated by Asian peoples.

As it was, Attila returned to his home base in Pannonia (Hungary). He once again asked Valentinian for the hand of Honoria and was again refused. He launched a new foray into western Europe, this time by way of the Julian Alps into northeastern Italy. Attila laid waste to Aquileia and cleaned out Venetia, whose inhabitants (it is said) withdrew to the coastal islands and founded Venice. Padua was sacked, and the Mincio was devastated.

Aetius, rushing back from Gaul, reached Italy in time to take up positions at the Po River. Although Aetius's force was much smaller than Attila's, he managed to hold the Po crossings, probably because Attila had by this time decided to withdraw from Italy. He faced a rebellion in northeastern Illyricum, which needed attending to, and his army was swept by pestilential disease in Italy. The Catholic Church holds that a visit by Pope Leo I (c. 400–474) persuaded Attila—awed by his presence—to

quit Italy. This tradition is almost certainly apocryphal. Faced with a pressing emergency elsewhere and fearing destruction by disease, he withdrew—and died the following year.

Further reading: Roger Carintini, *Attila* (Paris: Hachette, 2000); Arthur Ferrill, *The Fall of the Roman Empire: The Military Explanation* (New York: Thames and Hudson, 1986); Otto J. Maenchen-Helfen, *The World of the Huns* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973); E. A. Thompson, *The Huns* (Cambridge, England: Blackwell, 1996): Robert N. Webb, *Attila, King of the Huns* (New York: F. Watts, 1965).

Hurrian Conquests (c. 1700–c. 1500 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hurrians vs. Hittites and Egyptians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mesopotamia, Anatolia, Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hurrians expanded from their original migratory settlements between Lake Van and the Zagros Mountains in western Iran.
OUTCOME: By 1500 B.C.E., Hurrians had settled as far west as Anatolia and as far north as Syria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No surviving documents

By about 1700 B.C.E., the Hurrians, whose origin lay in the Caucasus, had migrated into northern Mesopotamia and had become sufficiently well established to overthrow their Semitic overlords. They took over the region between Lake Van and the Zagros Mountains, then expanded west and south into eastern Anatolia (Turkey) and northern Syria. This expansion was complete by about 1500 B.C.E. Very little is known about the course of the wars that must have accompanied this expansion.

In Anatolia and Syria, the Hurrians established the kingdom of Mitanni, which frequently warred with Egypt and with the Hittites (*see* HITTITE CONQUEST OF ANATOLIA and HITTITE-HURRIAN WARS).

The greatest of the Hurrian kingdoms, Mitanni, declined during the two centuries following the period of these conquests. After 1350 B.C.E., Mitanni encompassed no more than Hanigabat, which was overrun by Assyria around 1245 B.C.E. The Mitanni and the Hurrians generally ceased to exist as an ethnically recognizable people by 1000 B.C.E.

See also ASSYRIAN-HURRIAN WARS.

Further reading: Trevor Bryce, *The Kingdom of the Hittites* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1998); Ignace Gelb, *Hurrians and Subarians* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944); O. R. Gurney, *The Hittites* (New York: Penguin Books, 1990); J. G. Macqueen, *The Hittites and Their Contemporaries in Asia Minor* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1986).

Hussite Civil War (1423–1434)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Utraquist Hussites vs. Taborite Hussites
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bohemia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The radical Taborites wanted to suppress the moderate Utraquists to make a break with the Catholic Church and the ruling government of Bohemia.
OUTCOME: For most of the war, the Taborites prevailed until the Utraquists reached an accommodation with the church and thereby acquired allies among the Bohemian nobility.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: The Compactata of 1433 created the alliance that enabled the Utraquists to defeat the Taborites.

The Hussite Civil War was partly contemporaneous with the HUSSITE WARS from 1419 to 1436) that followed the martyrdom of the Bohemian religious reformer John Huss (1369–1415). Huss sought to reform the Catholic Church and, in particular, held that the pope was not divinely placed in authority, but was elected by the rule of men. Huss was burned as a heretic, but his followers were legion among the Bohemian knights and nobility, who not only published a protest against Huss's martyrdom but also offered protection to those persecuted for their faith. However, his followers became factionalized within a few years of death. The radical Taborites (named after their stronghold, Tabor, located south of Praque) were uncompromising in their demands for reforms, whereas the moderate Utraquists saw the possibility of coming to an accommodation with church and government in Bohemia. The Taborite leader John Ziska (c. 1360–1424) sought to suppress the Utraquists and defeated them at the battles of Horid and Strachov in 1423. In 1424, Taborite forces under Ziska were victorious at the Battle of Skalic and then the Battle of Malesov. Despite what amounted to a long truce, from 1424 to 1433, the Utraquists remained stubbornly active, and when Ziska died in 1424, his successor, Andrew Prokop (c. 1380–1434, also known as Prokop the Great), was unable to prevent their reemergence. In 1433, the civil war heated up again. The Utraquists agreed to the Compactata, a 1433 compromise with the Catholic Church that not only readmitted them into the church but created a military alliance with the Bohemian nobility. Thus allied, the Utraquists defeated the

Taborites at the Battle of Lipany on May 20, 1434, combat in which Prokop the Great was killed.

See also BOHEMIAN CIVIL WAR (1390–1419; GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1400–1411).

Further reading: Frabtisk Michalek Bartos, *The Hussite Revolution, 1424–1437* (Boulder, Colo., and New York: East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 1986); Josef Kalvoda, *The Genesis of Czechoslovakia* (Boulder, Colo., and New York: East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 1986).

Hussite Wars (1419–1436)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hussite rebels vs. German (Holy Roman Empire) forces of King Sigismund
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bohemia, Hungary, Austria, and Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hussites wanted independence from the Holy Roman Empire and the Roman Catholic Church.
OUTCOME: Despite overwhelming military victories against Sigismund, the Hussites were ultimately undermined by the Hussite Civil War (1423–34) between the Taborite and Utraquist Hussite factions; this led to the destruction of the Bohemian military, and capitulation to Sigismund.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Hussites, 25,000; Sigismund's forces, 50,000
CASUALTIES: Hussite losses at Český-Brod, 18,000 killed; Sigismund's losses often ran between 30 and 50 percent of his forces, well into the tens of thousands.
TREATIES: The Compactata of 1433

John Huss (1369–1415), a Bohemian priest and religious reformer, sought to reform the Catholic Church, in the process attacking the doctrine that the papacy is divinely decreed. Huss argued that popes are elected by men, not placed in office by God. This, among other doctrines he proposed, earned Huss a trial for heresy and, ultimately, execution at the stake in 1415. By the time of his death, Huss had attracted many followers, the Hussites, who endured persecution that seemed only to strengthen their resolve to resist state-sponsored religious tyranny. In 1419, the Hussites rebelled against Catholics and German king Sigismund (1368–1437), who had inherited the Bohemian throne and who was believed to have condoned the execution of Huss.

Pope Martin V (1368–1431) proclaimed a crusade against the Hussite rebels, sanctioning Sigismund to send troops of the Holy Roman Empire to Prague. The Hussites rallied behind the dynamic leader John Ziska (c. 1360–1424), head of the radical Taborite Hussite faction. Ziska closed the gates of the city and deployed his forces in trenches outside the walls of Prague on the commanding Hill of Witkov. Sigismund's forces attacked on July 14, 1420. With only 9,000 men under his command, Ziska repelled the invaders.

Following this repulse, Sigismund took personal command of the imperial troops, arriving in Bohemia late in 1421 leading a massive German army—estimated at tens of thousands of men—against a significantly smaller Hussite force of no more than 25,000 led by John Ziska. Ziska was, however, a natural military genius, who knew how to make the most of the resources he had. Not only were his men well trained, they were incredibly mobile. Ziska made use of mobile artillery—unheard of at the time—and he used his baggage wagons as mobile forts. When Sigismund confronted the Hussite army at Kutná Hora, 45 miles southeast of Prague, on January 6, 1422, he was stopped by a ring of wagon-forts. After pounding against these to no avail—and suffering heavy losses in the process—Sigismund suddenly found himself under heavy attack by a Hussite charge. Sigismund had no choice but to fall back. He withdrew 15 miles to the southeast, taking a stand at Nemecky-Brod. There, on January 10, 1422, Ziska attacked with about 11,000 troops against Sigismund's 23,000. When it was over, Sigismund had lost more than half of his army and was forced to flee to avoid capture.

While fighting Sigismund, Ziska was also embroiled in the HUSSITE CIVIL WAR (1423–34), and died in 1424. Andrew Prokop (c. 1380–1434) or Prokop the Great, replaced Ziska as leader of the Taborite Hussites, who, despite the death of Ziska, still wholly intimidated Sigismund's Germans. For two years, neither Sigismund nor the pope was able to form an army willing to confront the Hussites. Finally, in 1426, a large force of 50,000 Germans made a stand at Ústí nad Labem, only to be defeated by the smaller Hussite force, which inflicted some 15,000 casualties on the enemy, forcing the Germans to flee in panic. After this, the Hussites took the offensive, invading Hungary, Austria, and Germany, burning a swath of destruction along the way.

But the Hussite Civil War continued to take its toll. The moderate Utraquists, opposed to the radical Taborites, made an accommodation with the Catholic Church and struck up an alliance with conservative Bohemian nobles. The combined Utraquist-Bohemian army met Prokop the Great's Taborite force at Český-Brod on May 30, 1434, 19 miles east of Prague. Casualties on both sides included some 18,000 dead, including Prokop. With the Bohemian army thus shattered, the path was clear to ultimate surrender to Sigismund, which occurred two years later. In 1436, Bohemia recognized Sigismund as its king.

See also BOHEMIAN CIVIL WAR (1390–1419); GERMAN CIVIL WAR (1400–1411).

Further reading: Frabtisk Michalek Bartos, *The Hussite Revolution, 1424–1437* (Boulder, Colo., and New York:

East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 1986); Josef Kalvoda, *The Genesis of Czechoslovakia* (Boulder, Colo., and New York: East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 1986).

Hyksos Invasion of Egypt (c. 1674–1567 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hyksos vs. Egyptians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lower Egypt
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hyksos invaded or infiltrated Egypt for the purpose of taking over leadership of its government.
OUTCOME: The Hyksos assumed power in Egypt as the concurrent 15th and 16th dynasties.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No surviving documents

The Hyksos were a Semitic people who invaded Egypt about 1700 B.C.E. and founded the 15th and 16th Egyptian dynasties. They laid siege to Memphis around 1674 B.C.E., while ruling Egypt from a Nile delta capital they called Avaris.

Was the Hyksos invasion a full-scale war? Manetho (fl. c. 300 B.C.E.), an Egyptian historian, portrays the Hyksos progress into Egypt as nothing less. Using archaeological evidence, modern scholars have suggested that the "invasion" was more in the nature of a gradual infiltration, which led to a coup d'état in lower Egypt. After the coup—which may or may not have been particularly violent—the Hyksos apparently ruled Egypt peacefully. The lower kingdom they ruled directly, governing the upper kingdom through a series of vassals.

However the Hyksos came to power, their reign seems to have ended rather abruptly in 1567, when native Egyptian forces retook Memphis and expelled the Hyksos from it. Egyptian records make no mention of the Hyksos after 1567, and archaeologists have found no traces of this ethnic group after this year.

Further reading: William C. Hayes, *Hyksos Period and the New Kingdom, 1675–1080 B.C.* (New York: Metropolitan Museum of Art, 1959); Sabatino Moscati, *Ancient Semitic Civilizations* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, Capricorn Books, 1960).

I

Iconoclastic War, First (726–731)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Leo III, Byzantine emperor opposed to holy icons, vs. Byzantine rebels who supported icon worship
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece and Ravenna, Italy
DECLARATION: No declaration, but the war was begun by Leo's proclamation of his opposition to the worship of holy icons.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Leo III wanted to end icon worship in the Byzantine Empire.
OUTCOME: Inconclusive, except that parts of the Byzantine Empire slipped further from imperial control
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Byzantine emperor Leo III (c. 680–741) came to power by overthrowing, in March 717, Emperor Theodosius III (d. after 717). Leo's early reign was marked by continual resistance to Arab invasion, alternating with Byzantine counterinvasion into Arab territory. By the mid-720s, however, the Arab threat had been reduced, and Leo turned his attention to the realization of his own religious campaign. In the Eastern Roman Empire, the veneration of holy icons had become an overwhelmingly important part of religious ritual, growing into what Leo deemed spiritually and politically dangerous cult status. Supported by like-minded "Iconoclastic"—literally, "icon-destroying"—clergymen, Leo made public his opposition to the veneration of icons in 726. At first, he confined his opposition to making speeches, but these speeches incited troops to destroy, in Constantinople, a particularly important icon depicting Christ. The act nearly provoked a popular revolt, when a mob killed the officer who had brought down the icon. Amid papal denunciation of the Iconoclasts, this incident triggered a revolt of the troops of the Theme of Hellas (Greece) in 727. The Greek sent a rebel fleet to Constantinople, one of the ship bearing a proposed anti-emperor. Leo's navy intercepted the fleet and destroyed it.

In 730, Leo ordered the destruction of all holy icons in the empire. When the head of the Eastern Orthodox Church, the patriarch of Constantinople, refused to comply, Leo deposed and replaced him. These actions created stiffening resistance throughout the Byzantine Empire, and, in 731, the populace of Ravenna, Italy, a Byzantine exarchate (or province), revolted, prompting Leo to dispatch a fleet to capture the rebellious city. A storm ravaged the fleet, however, and the defenders of Ravenna turned it back. Having failed to restore order by military means, Leo declared Calabria, Sicily, and Illyria to be under the control of the new Eastern Orthodox patriarch of Constantinople, thereby denying the Roman Catholic pope's authority in these places. With this, the First Iconoclastic War came to an uneasy end.

See also BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752); ICONOCLASTIC WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Stephen Gero, *Byzantine Iconoclasm during the Reign of Leo III* (Louvain, Belgium: Secretariat du Corpus SCO, 1973); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2003); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); Mark Whittow, *The*

Making of Byzantium, 600–1025 (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1996).

Iconoclastic War, Second (741–743)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Icon-worshiping rebels led by Artavasdos vs. Constantine V, Iconoclast Byzantine emperor
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Byzantium
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Artavasdos led a rebellion against the Iconoclast emperor Constantine V with the aim of installing himself on the Byzantine throne and restoring icon worship throughout the realm.
OUTCOME: Constantine V put down the rebellion and recovered the throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Constantine V (718–775), the successor of Byzantine emperor Leo III (c. 680–741), who had started the First ICONOCLASTIC WAR in 726, intensified the persecution of icon worshipers, thereby stirring elements of the empire to rebellion. When Constantine was off fighting the BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (741–752), Artavasdos (fl. 740s), his brother-in-law, incited and led a military and religious revolt in favor of the icon worshipers. Against reduced imperial forces, the rebels scored a victory that emboldened Artavasdos to proclaim himself emperor. He immediately restored icon worship throughout the realm. His reign, however, was brief. At the battles of Sardes and Modrina, both fought in 743, imperial forces, personally led by Constantine, easily defeated the rebels. Constantine reclaimed the throne and, by way of punishment, blinded his brother-in-law. The iconoclastic movement resumed.

Further reading: Stephen Gero, *Byzantine Iconoclasm during the Reign of Constantine V* (Louvain, Belgium: Corpussco, 1977); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2003); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); Mark Whittow, *The Making of Byzantium, 600–1025* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1996).

Illyrian War, First (229–228 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Illyria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece, mainly Corfu
DECLARATION: Roman Senate against Illyria, 229 B.C.E.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome wanted to put an end to Illyrian piracy, which menaced Roman trade with Greece.
OUTCOME: The Illyrians were quickly—and almost bloodlessly—defeated at Corcyra (Corfu); they renounced territorial claims, and piracy was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

The Illyrians, who lived on the eastern shore of the Adriatic on the Balkan Peninsula, were a warlike people, who regularly sent pirate fleets to prey on Roman and Greek shipping. The Greeks generally ignored the Illyrians and did their best to avoid them. The Romans, however, sought to establish a trading relationship. In 230 B.C.E., a Roman trading fleet fell victim to Illyrian pirates, and when the Romans sent a delegation to negotiate with the queen of Illyria, Teuta (fl. 230s–220s B.C.E.), the ambassadors were not only treated with contempt at court, but were set upon and assassinated on their return trip. This provoked the Roman Senate to declare war.

Roman legions attacked the Illyrians while they were in the process of laying siege to a number of Greek city-states. At Corcyra (Corfu), Greece, the Romans attacked the Illyrians in 229 B.C.E. Awed by the Roman legion and fleet, the Illyrian besieging force surrendered with hardly a fight, and the haughty Queen Teuta capitulated the following year. She renounced territorial claims and agreed to pay a war indemnity to Rome. To ensure the longevity of its victory, Rome struck an alliance with Macedonia, which would serve as a buffer on Illyria's flank.

See also ILLYRIAN WAR, SECOND; MACEDONIAN WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: M. Cary, *A History of the Greek World from 323 to 146 B.C.* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1963); F. W. Walbank, *The Hellenistic World* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1993).

Illyrian War, Second (219 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Illyria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dinale and Pharos, Illyria (on the Balkan Peninsula)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When Illyria violated the peace imposed by Rome after the First Illyrian War, Roman legions swiftly attacked.
OUTCOME: The war ended in one week, and the Roman-imposed peace was reestablished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

Roman victory in the First ILLYRIAN WAR, from 229 to 228 B.C.E. resulted in a firm peace with the warlike Illyrians; however, Demetrius of Pharos (d. 214 B.C.E.), the new ruler of Illyria, violated the peace in 220 B.C.E. by invading various Roman-protected territories and by resuming the piracy that had long preyed upon Roman and Greek shipping. In 219, Roman legions laid siege to two major Illyrian fortress cities, Dinale and Pharos. Dinale was besieged for a week before it surrendered. Pharos, which was attacked by legions from two sides, held out for less than a day. Demetrius of Pharos fled the city before it fell; however, the Romans successfully reestablished the peace that had been won in the First Illyrian War.

See also PUNIC WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: M. Cary, *A History of the World from 323 to 146 B.C.* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1963); F. W. Walbank, *The Hellenistic World* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1993).

Inca Revolt (1535–1536)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Incas vs. the Spanish conquistadores
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peru, especially Cuzco and vicinity
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Incas wanted to oust the Spanish invaders from their country.
OUTCOME: Ultimately, the rebellion was put down after the failure of the Inca siege of Spanish-held Cuzco.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Desiring, as many Spanish did, to emulate the success of Hernán Cortés (1485–1547) enjoyed in the SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO (1519–21), the Spanish conquistador Francisco Pizarro (c. 1475–1541) successfully invaded the realm of the Peruvian Incas in 1531, having twice failed in the 1520s. He landed at Tumbez on the Pacific coast, just south of the equator, and from there marched to Cuzco, the Inca capital. Along the way, he avoided most armed clashes by exploiting an ongoing civil war among tribal factions allied to rival heirs to the chieftainship. Pizarro explained to each group he encountered that he was the enemy of the other. At Cajamarca, en route to Cuzco, Pizarro captured Atahualpa (c. 1500–33), one of the candidates for chief. While Pizarro's soldiers busied themselves plundering Inca treasure, Pizarro negotiated with Atahualpa's rival, Manco Capac II (c. 1500–44), even as Atahualpa managed secretly to assemble a force to expel the Spanish. But before Atahualpa could muster his forces, Pizarro had him tried for usurpation, idolatry, and polygamy, found him guilty, and had him executed. With Atahualpa disposed of, the Spanish crowned Manco, as the more pliable puppet chief.

Yet Manco had an agenda of his own. When Pizarro and his lieutenant, Diego de Almagro (c. 1475–1538), were absent, Manco organized an Inca revolt. The resulting uprising resulted in the slaughter of a number of conquistadores, and the Incas laid siege to Spanish-held Cuzco, holding that city in thrall for 10 months. At length, however, the Spanish prevailed, breaking the siege. Once this happened, the Inca revolt abruptly folded, as the Indians went home to tend to their crops. The revolt collapsing around him, Manco Capac II fled to the hills with a band of loyal followers. There he decreed what was in effect an Incan government in exile and directed an ongoing campaign of raids against the Spanish. In 1544, some of his followers turned on him and assassinated him.

See also SPANISH CONQUEST OF PERU.

Further reading: John Hemming, *The Conquest of the Incas,* rev. ed. (New York: Penguin Books, 1983); Alfred Métraux, *The History of the Incas,* trans. George Ordish (New York: Pantheon Books, 1969); Fred Ramon, *Francisco Pizarro: The Exploration of Peru and the Conquest of the Inca* (New York: Rosen Publishing Group, 2003).

India, Mongol Invasion of

See MONGOL INVASIONS OF INDIA.

Indian Civil War (1947–1948)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hindus vs. Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The two religious groups each wanted to dominate newly independent India.
OUTCOME: The civil war was largely a fight between civilians and led to no definite conclusion but ended, uneasily, after the assassination of Gandhi.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Millions of civilians were involved in the rioting.
CASUALTIES: The "war" created some 7 million refugees, at least 1 million of whom perished in rioting.
TREATIES: None

Born in India, Mohandas Gandhi (1869–1948) studied law at Oxford and practiced at the bar in Bombay before taking a job with an Indian firm in South Africa. Appalled by the politics of apartheid, he perfected the techniques of his "progressive nonviolent noncooperation" in demon-

strations against the racist white government of South Africa. Returning to India in 1915, he became a labor organizer and a thorn in the side of the British colonial government as he used his peculiar style of political protest in a series of strikes, boycotts, and dramatic demonstrations to agitate constantly for India's independence.

Frequently imprisoned, Gandhi turned even that into an instrument of protest, resorting to widely publicized hunger strikes as part of his program of civil disobedience. Although Great Britain had begun to make some concessions by the 1930s, the British threw the troublesome leader back in jail during WORLD WAR II, and from 1942 to 1944 the world-famous prisoner demanded complete withdrawal of the British colonial forces from India, directing this "Quit India" movement from his cell.

The movement he fostered ultimately prevailed, because Great Britain, subtly but persistently pressed by the United States after the war to give up much of its empire, granted India's independence in 1947. Yet for Gandhi, this victory was tempered by what he took as his personal failure to unite India's Hindu majority with the new nation's many minorities, especially its large Muslim population.

Led by Muhammad Ali Jinnah (1876–1949) the Muslim League and the Hindu-dominated Congress went their separate ways over the issue of religion in the new state. Riots between Hindus and Muslims broke out, the worst of which was the "Great Calcutta Killing" of August 16–20, 1946, which spread throughout much of the subcontinent. To many, and especially the British, the only resolution seemed to be partition of the new nation into a predominantly Hindu India and a predominantly Muslim Pakistan.

The British sanctioned the partition which was set for August 14, 1947. Two days after it was effected, civil war broke out between the Hindus and Muslims in the Punjab. From there, fighting spread throughout the country. The nation suddenly experienced a mass movement of refugees unprecedented in history. Some 5.5 million people moved between Pakistan and India, Muslims one way, Hindus another. Another 1.25 million moved from eastern Pakistan into western Bengal, while 400,000 Hindus left Sind (in western Pakistan) and settled in India. The movement of refugees was accompanied by continual rioting, and deaths among the refugees amounted to perhaps 1 million persons. Britain offered to intervene militarily, but Indian prime minister Jawaharlal Nehru (1889–1964), whose country had so recently won its independence, refused to accept help from the former oppressor.

The civil war was made worse by the outbreak of the INDO-PAKISTANI WAR (1947–1948), which erupted over a dispute concerning the partition of Kashmir. Throughout the firestorm, Gandhi, father of Indian independence, who had accepted no office in new India, pleaded for order. He walked barefoot through riot-torn Bengal and Bihar, trying by his simple presence to stop the slaughter. Then he returned to New Delhi, where he preached nonviolence daily until he was assassinated on January 30, 1948 by an orthodox Hindu Brahmin fanatic, who felt that Gandhi had betrayed his allegiance to India. So venerated was Gandhi, that his murder—a martyr's death—did much to bring an end to the rioting and to unify the government of India, albeit as a nation separate from Pakistan.

See also INDO-PAKISTANI WAR (1965); INDO-PAKISTANI WAR (1971).

Further reading: Allen Hayes Merriam, *Gandhi vs. Jinnah: The Debate over the Partition of India* (Calcutta: Minerva, 1980); C. H. Phillips and Mary Doreen Wainwright, eds., *The Partition of India: Policies and Perspectives, 1935–1947* (Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press, 1970); Rajan Mahan Ramakant, ed., *India's Partition: Preludes and Legacies* (Jaipur, India: Rawat Publications, 1998).

Indian Mutiny (1857–1859)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Indian rebel groups (initially led by the sepoys) vs. Great Britain (the East India Company government)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Indian rebels sought to overthrow British colonial rule.
OUTCOME: The extremely brutal uprising was largely suppressed in 1858 and definitively ended in 1859.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 160,000 total, many of whom rebelled against the British; loyal British forces at any one place and time numbered about 30,000; rebel forces typically outnumbered the British but were less well equipped
CASUALTIES: Britain, 2,034 killed in battle, 8,987 died of disease and other causes; Indian, unknown
TREATIES: None

Also called the Sepoy Rebellion, the Great Mutiny, and the First Indian War of Independence, this was an uprising against the British colonial regime in India begun by Indian troops—called *sipahi,* anglicized to *sepoys*—in service to the British East India Company.

By the middle of the 19th century, the East India Company controlled the region of modern India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Burma (Myanmar), and Ceylon (Sri Lanka). The Great Mogul emperor of India was now no more than a figurehead; the real government was contained within a British civil and military administration and the British-controlled army numbering 160,000 men, of whom only 24,000 were British. The rest were native troops in the British service. Over the years, friction developed between

the native troops and their East India Company employers. The British refused to respect Indian religious and cultural traditions. In an atmosphere of growing discontent there arose a rumor among the sepoys late in 1856 that the cartridges for the newly issued Lee-Enfield rifles were greased with the fat of cows and pigs. Cows are sacred to Hindus and must not be eaten, whereas pigs are regarded by Muslims as unclean—and must not be eaten. Prior to loading a rifle of the period, it was necessary to bite off the end of the paper cartridge; for the Hindu or Muslim soldier, doing so meant coming into contact with cow or pig and was, therefore, a grave pollution. In the Bengal army, some soldiers refused to use the new cartridges, but a full-scale mutiny broke out in Meerut, northeast of Delhi, where 85 men of the third light cavalry refused to use the cartridges on April 23, 1857. Convicted of mutiny, they were sentenced to imprisonment, publicly fettered, and ceremonially stripped of their military insignia. This served only to incite further rebellion. Members of the 11th and 20th infantry regiments revolted on May 10, freeing their imprisoned comrades—and many civilian prisoners as well. Following this, they rioted, killing 40 British officers and civilians in Meerut. From here, they marched to Delhi, where other Indian regiments joined the mutiny. In the city, the sepoys slaughtered many more British soldiers and civilians and restored to power the aged Mogul emperor, Muhammad Bahadur Shah (1775–1862).

News of the rebellion exploded throughout the subcontinent. Regiments throughout the Bengal army mutinied, and north and central India generally rose up against British rule. At first, the British were overwhelmed and at a loss for a response. In the Punjab, British commanders disarmed the sepoys and assembled a small army to advance on Delhi. The force took up a position outside the city. In Kolkata, the British contained the rebellion and managed to retain control of the Ganges River and communications lines as far upriver as Allahabad. In central India, several thousand British troops fought many pitched battles against the forces of local princes and Rani (Queen) Lakshmibai (c. 1830–58) of Jhansi, all of whom had joined the uprising.

In the central Ganges River valley, Oudh, recently annexed by the British, became an area of intense rebellion. On May 30, 1857, rebels besieged Europeans along with loyal Indians at the British Residency in Oudh's capital, Lucknow. Shortly after this, the British garrison at Cawnpore (Kanpur) came under siege through June 27, when the survivors negotiated with the rebel leader, Nana Sahib (c. 1821–c. 1858), for safe passage. Despite this, they were attacked while evacuating to boats on the Ganges River. Most of the British soldiers were killed. Some 200 British women and children, captured, were subsequently slain in prison. In retaliation, the British forces authorized a brutal pogrom of similar atrocities directed against Indian combatants and noncombatants alike.

In the meantime, outside the walls of Delhi, inconclusive battles were fought until the British army was sufficiently reinforced to attack the city on September 15. After five days of bitter fighting, the British retook Delhi. On September 25, a relief column reached the Lucknow residency, but it was pinned down there through late November, when a second relief force arrived, broke the siege, and evacuated the survivors. When the British returned to Oudh in February 1858, it was with an army of more than 30,000 men, including Nepalese troops. Lucknow fell to the British on March 23, 1858, and the rebel forces in north India dispersed. The rebel fort at Jhansi capitulated in April, and the rani was subsequently killed in battle. With this, the mutiny, for all practical purposes, ended; however, sporadic fighting continued into the next year, as British forces engaged small rebel forces. Early in the year, rebel leader Nana Sahib's leading general, Tantia Topi (1819–59), was captured, and, with his execution in April 1859, the revolt was completely ended.

The consequences of the Indian Mutiny were profound. The British government officially abolished the Mogul Empire once and for all, exiling the aged emperor Muhammad Bahadur Shah to Burma. Equally significant was the assumption of British direct rule of India, ending the administration of the East India Company. British military recruiters now looked to the Punjab and Nepal for new native troops, for these regions had remained steadfastly loyal during the rebellion. Perhaps most far reaching was the general change in attitude of the British administration toward Indians. The relationship was now pervaded by distrust, and the policy of the British turned from exploitive paternalism to frank repression.

Further reading: Agha Humayun Amin, *The Sepoy Rebellion of 1857–59, Reinterpreted* (Lahore, Pakistan: Strategies and Tactics, 1998); C. Hibbert, *The Great Mutiny: India 1857* (London: Allen Lane, 1978).

Indian-Nepalese War

See GURKHA WAR.

Indian War

See MARYLAND AND VIRGINIA'S WAR WITH THE SUSQUEHANNOCKS.

Indonesian-Malaysian War (1963–1966)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Indonesia vs. Malaysia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Malaysia, especially Sabah and Sarawak (both in Borneo), and Singapore Harbor
DECLARATION: Indonesia against Malaysia, 1963
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Indonesia refused to recognize the Republic of Malaysia.

OUTCOME: Drained by internal dissension, Indonesia agreed to peace in 1966; Malaysia endured as an independent republic.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: During the period, 150,000–500,000 Indonesian communists were killed.
TREATIES: Treaty of Jakarta, August 11, 1966

Achmed Sukarno (1901–70), president (and dictator) of Indonesia, refused to recognize the newly proclaimed Federation of Malaysia (the union of Malaya, Sabah, Sarawak, and—until 1965—Singapore). Sukarno stirred his nation to war against Malaysia, which sought and received military aid from Great Britain when Indonesian guerrillas penetrated Sabah and Sarawak. Sukarno fought no set battles but waged a low-level guerrilla war, using paratroopers behind Malaysian lines and underwater demolition teams to mine the harbor of Singapore. During the war, dissension broke out at home, as communists staged a coup d'état (which failed) on September 30, 1965. General Suharto (b. 1921), Sukarno's general in chief, led Indonesian forces against the communist insurgents, then launched a nationwide purge of communists and leftists.

The purge, ostensibly in retaliation for the communist abduction and killing of six top Indonesian generals, was carried out by a combination of the Indonesian army and right-wing Muslim political groups. It was a slaughter, in which an estimated 150,000 to as many as 500,000 communists were killed (the most widely accepted figure puts the toll at between 200,000 and 250,000). Most of the deaths occurred within eight weeks after the September 30, 1965, coup attempt, but the killings continued well into 1966. The death toll on Indonesian-held Bali was at least 50,000 and, on east Java, 100,000. The leftist leader Dipoa Nusuntara Aidit (d. 1966) was killed, and those communists who were not executed or murdered were imprisoned in untold numbers. By 1976, there were still 70,000 political prisoners from this period being held.

Although the communist takeover was crushed, the effort monopolized Indonesian military resources, and Sukarno agreed to open peace negotiations with Malaysia at Bangkok. An armistice was concluded on June 1, 1966, followed by a formal treaty, signed at Djakarta, on August 11, 1966. Nor did Sukarno retain true power in Indonesia. On March 11, 1966, the army compelled him to relinquish much authority on army chief of staff Suharto.

See also INDONESIAN WARS.

Further reading: Benedict R.O.G. Anderson, ed., *Violence and State in Suharto's Indonesia* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Southeast Asia Program Publishing, Cornell University Press, 2001); J. A. C. Mackie, *Konfrontasi: The Indonesia-Malaysia Dispute, 1963–1966* (Kuala Lumpur and New York: Published for the Australian Institute of International Affairs by Oxford University Press, 1974).

Indonesian War in East Timor (1975–1999)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: East Timorese rebels vs. Portugal, then various factions in East Timor and Indonesia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): East Timor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence of East Timor, first from Portugal, then from Indonesia
OUTCOME: With United Nations intervention, independence was achieved (2002), but East Timor was left in ruins.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: More than 200,000 East Timorese died during the long struggle for independence from Indonesia. Almost 1 million became refugees in 1999.
TREATIES: Various UN agreements, the most important of which was concluded in 1999 among Portugal, Indonesia, and East Timor

East Timor, the eastern portion of Timor Island, in the Malay Archipelago, was settled by the Portuguese in 1520 and became a Portuguese colony in 1859. Through the 20th century, Portuguese rule on East Timor became a dictatorship, which was overthrown in 1974 in a bloodless military coup. In the absence of the Portuguese, rival political parties quickly formed, and, in 1975, a civil war broke out, triggered by military intelligence operations and a declaration of independence of FRETILIN (Revolutionary Front for the Independence of East Timor). Exploiting the disarray in East Timor, Indonesian forces invaded in 1975. The following year, East Timor was incorporated as Indonesia's 27th province. However, the United Nations refused to recognize Indonesia's claim on what it considered an independent nation. Through 1999, East Timor would be torn by violence between the independence-seeking factions and the Indonesian military presence in the region. Between 1975 and 1999, it is estimated that more than 200,000 East Timorese were killed.

During 1977–78, the Indonesian air force conducted heavy bombardment of East Timor. This was followed by years of essentially guerrilla warfare. In 1988, the European Union (EU) voted its support of East Timor's right to self-determination, and the United Nations followed suit in 1989. Nevertheless, Indonesia continued to assert its claim, and in 1991 more than 250 mourners and demonstrators were cut down by Indonesian army forces at the Santa Cruz Cemetery in East Timor's capital city of Dili.

Although the Indonesian government launched a formal inquiry into the massacre, issuing a 1992 report condemning the military. The troops and officers involved were given light sentences whereas East Timorese protesters were sentenced to as much as 10 years imprisonment. The following year, 1993, FRETILIN leader Xanana Gusmão (b. 1946) was captured and sentenced to a 20-year term. His leadership role in the Revolutionary Front was assumed by Konis Santana.

Throughout the 1990s, the Indonesian military presence was increased in East Timor, and in 1997, the Indonesian army clamped down on pro-independence demonstrations that came in the wake of the announcements that internationally recognized independence leaders Bishop Carlos Belo (b. 1948) and José Ramos-Horta (b. 1949) were to be awarded jointly the Nobel Peace Prize. At this point, in 1998, the Catholic Church convened a conference of Timorese leaders in the town of Dare to avert clashes among factions fighting for independence and to map out a road to reconciliation with Portugal and Indonesia. At last, on May 5, 1999, an agreement was signed at the United Nations, among Portugal, Indonesia, and the Timorese leadership regarding a resolution to the East Timor crisis. On June 11, 1999, UNAMET (United Nations Mission in East Timor) was established to assist in the holding of a plebiscite on the question of East Timorese independence. On August 30, 1999, East Timor voted for independence. The results were announced on September 4, 1999: 78.5 percent of East Timorese favored complete independence from Indonesia.

Despite the UN-brokered agreements, Indonesia armed pro-Indonesian East Timorese militia forces, which brought a reign of terror on pro-independence supporters. The result was a chaotic, anarchic renewal of civil war, which killed thousands and left the capital city of Dili in ruins. It is estimated that 85 percent of the buildings in the country, including virtually all schools and nearly all businesses, were destroyed in the 1999 violence. Approximately 1 million East Timorese became refugees, fleeing to West Timor, other Indonesian islands, and Australia.

On September 20, 1999, a UN-sanctioned International Force for East Timor (INTERFET) entered East Timor to restore peace and order and to protect UNAMET, so that it could carry out its mandate to assist in enforcing East Timorese independence.

On October 25, 1999, a United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor (UNTAET) was created to act as an interim government until an election could be held. At the start of 2002, East Timor was declared an independent nonself-governing territory under United Nations supervision, and in February the provisional government drafted a constitution, which was subsequently approved. In April, under the new constitution, Xanana Gusmão, who had been imprisoned in 1993, was elected East Timor's first president, and on May 20 the nation became fully independent.

Further reading: Geoffrey C. Gunn, *East Timor and the U.N.: The Case for Intervention* (Trenton, N.J.: Red Sea Press, 1997); Matthew Jardine, *East Timor: Genocide in Paradise* (Tucson, Ariz.: Odonian Press, 1999); Michael G. Smith, *Peacekeeping in East Timor: The Path to Independence* (Boulder, Colo.: Lynne Rienner Publishers, 2003).

Indonesian War of Independence
(1945–1949)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Indonesian republicans vs. the Netherlands; also Indonesian Muslim fundamentalists and (separately) the People's Democratic Front (Indonesian communists) vs. Indonesian republicans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Indonesia, especially Java
DECLARATION: Independence proclaimed, August 17, 1945
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Indonesian republicans wanted independence from Dutch colonial rule (and to suppress rival agitators for Muslim and for communist government).
OUTCOME: Independence was fully recognized in 1949.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The Netherlands, 175,000; Indonesia, 160,000 plus 175,000 irregulars
CASUALTIES: The Netherlands, 2,526 military casualties, 22,000 civilian casualties; Indonesia, 80,000
TREATIES: Cheribon Agreement of 1946, followed by The Hague Accord, November 2, 1949

In the years between the two world wars, the Dutch East Indies witnessed the rise and rebuff of two challenges to colonial rule, a communist revolt and an Islamic nationalist movement. In 1927 a new challenge was mounted by a young engineer, fresh out of school, named Achmed Sukarno (1901–70), who founded a "general study club" in Bandung, which became the nucleus of the independence-minded Indonesian Nationalist Party (Partai Nasional Indonesia, or PNI). Arrested, tried, and imprisoned by the Dutch in 1929, Sukarno was ultimately exiled to southern Sumatra in 1933, but a reconstituted PNI under the leadership of Mohammad Hatta (1902–80) and Sutan Sjahrir (1909–66) continued to agitate for independence until the Japanese invaded and occupied the country in 1942.

Initially hailed by many Indonesian nationalists as liberators, the Japanese established themselves as vicious overlords, and the East Indies' dreams of independence vanished into the fog of WORLD WAR II. Then, in late 1944, as the war was clearly turning against it, Japan announced its intention to prepare the Indies for self-government. On the eve of the Japanese surrender, Terauchi Hisaichi (1879–1945), commander of Southeast Asia, summoned Sukarno and Hatta to Saigon, where he

promised them an immediate transfer of independence. Pressured by their own followers to act, Sukarno proclaimed independence—after confirming the news of the Japanese surrender—early on the morning of August 17, 1945. The proclamation sparked a series of uprisings that worried the British who arrived to accept the Japanese surrender. As the self-proclaimed government began to draft a constitution and install an ad hoc parliament called the Central Indonesian National Committee under President Sukarno, the Netherlands refused to recognize the independence of the East Indies. In conjunction with the British, Dutch troops landed at Batavia (Jakarta, Java) with the dual mission of disarming and repatriating Japanese soldiers still in the islands and restoring the status quo ante bellum (the way things were before the war), that is, a Dutch government in the East Indies.

The Dutch-British force soon found itself under attack by the Indonesian People's Army, which was concentrated in Bandung and Surabaya, Java. The violence was sufficient to prompt the Netherlands to enter into negotiations with the Indonesians, producing the Cheribon Agreement of 1946, whereby the Netherlands allowed the creation of a United States of Indonesia as a dominion under the Netherlands Crown. The agreement was signed, but soon sharp differences of interpretation broke out and were expressed in violence in Java and elsewhere. On July 20, 1947, Dutch troops (the British left in November 1946) cracked down with a "police action" of considerable brutality—and effectiveness.

The republicans—those who favored an independent Indonesian democracy—were forced to fight not only the Dutch but also Muslim extremists, who wanted to create a fundamentalist Islamic state. Into this melee was added the communist People's Democratic Front. The republican government was able to crush the communists at Madioen, Java, in September 1948, but failed in its resistance against the Dutch, who captured the rebel capital, Jogjakarta, during the same year and placed key republican leaders under arrest. In the villages, however, at the grassroots, guerrilla resistance to Dutch occupation continued.

The Dutch eventually realized the impracticability of suppressing the republican movement. From August 23 to November 2, 1949, Dutch representatives met with Indonesians at The Hague and negotiated the transfer of full sovereignty to Sukarno's United States of Indonesia. Guerrilla warfare between Indonesian republicans and the Islamic fundamentalists continued, especially after 1950, when the nation officially became the Republic of Indonesia.

See also INDONESIAN-MALAYSIAN WAR; INDONESIAN WARS.

Further reading: William H. Frederick, *Visions and Heat: The Making of the Indonesian Revolution* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 1989); George McTurnan Kahin, *Nationalism and Revolution in Indonesia* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Southeast Asia Program Publications, Cornell University, 2003); Anthony Reid, *The Indonesian National Revolution, 1945–1950* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1986).

Indonesian Wars (1957–1962)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Indonesia vs. the Netherlands
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): West New Guinea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Indonesia wanted possession of Dutch-held West New Guinea (Irian Jaya)
OUTCOME: Negotiated peace included an orderly transfer of West New Guinea from Dutch authority, through the agency of the United Nations, and ultimately into Indonesian authority.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Indonesian-Dutch Agreement of August 15, 1962

In 1949, when Indonesia achieved full independence from the Netherlands (*see* INDONESIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE), Achmed Sukarno (1901–70) was named president for life. His rule was dictatorial and gave rise to a number of military revolts in 1957. Sukarno's response was swift and decisive. He used the army to crush these rebellions; in 1959, he dropped all pretense of democratic rule by dissolving the assembly and giving himself full dictatorial powers. He also aligned the government increasingly with the communists.

In the meantime, while bringing iron-fisted order to the new republic, Sukarno called on the United Nations to intervene in resolving the republic's dispute with the Netherlands over possession of West New Guinea, which was still under Dutch rule, but which Indonesia claimed as the state of Irian Jaya. When the UN failed to reach a solution to the crisis, Sukarno called a general strike against all Dutch-owned businesses in Indonesia, expelled Dutch nationals, and seized and nationalized many Dutch holdings. Immediately, some 40,000 Netherlanders fled the country, and the army was drawn into the management of their abandoned enterprises. As a result, military entrepreneurs would come to play an ever-increasing role in the economic affairs of Sukarno's Indonesia.

Meanwhile, under the pressure applied by Sukarno, the Netherlands opened talks with Indonesia concerning West New Guinea. When the negotiations broke down, the Dutch prepared defenses in West New Guinea. Indonesian paratroopers landed in 1962 and coordinated with indigenous guerrillas an offensive against the Dutch. The Dutch responded with stiff and effective resistance. The violence rapidly escalated, and, in a bid to forestall all-out war, both the United States and the United Nations sponsored new peace talks. Negotiations led to the

Indonesian-Dutch Agreement of August 15, 1962, by which the Netherlands agreed to transfer administration of West New Guinea to the United Nations, which would later transfer it to Indonesia. The final transfer occurred in 1963.

See also INDONESIAN-MALAYSIAN WAR; INDONESIAN WAR IN EAST TIMOR.

Further reading: Herbert Feith, *The Decline of Constitutional Democracy in Indonesia* (Ithaca N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1962); Audrey R. Kahin and George McTurnan Kahin, *Subversion as Foreign Policy: The Secret Eisenhower and Dulles Debacle in Indonesia* (New York: New Press, 1995); J. D. Legge, *Sukarno: A Political Biography* (New York, Praeger, 1972); Daniel S. Lev and Ruth McVey, eds., *Making Indonesia* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Southeast Asia Program, Cornell University, 1996); Rex Mortimer, *Indonesian Communism under Sukarno: Ideology and Politics, 1959–1965* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1974).

Indo-Pakistani War (1947–1948)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: India vs. Pakistan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Jammu and Kashmir
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: India and Pakistan disputed governance of Jammu and Kashmir.
OUTCOME: A 1948 cease-fire created a de facto partition of the region at the current battle line.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: India, 1,500 killed, 3,500 wounded, 1,000 missing; Azad Kashmir and Pakistan, 1,000 killed; Pathan tribesmen and Kashmir; civilians, 5,000 killed
TREATIES: United Nations cease-fire, April 1948

The INDIAN CIVIL WAR resulted, in part, in the partition of the Indian subcontinent into Hindu-dominated India and Muslim-dominated Pakistan; however, Jammu and Kashmir (commonly known as Kashmir) remained an independent kingdom bordering West Pakistan. Its situation was complicated by the fact that, while its population was chiefly Muslim, its maharaja was a Sikh named Hari Singh (r. 1925–48). He wished the nation to remain both independent and neutral, and while this was in essence acceptable to Kashmir's Hindu-Muslim national conference, the members wanted to bring democracy to the country first. Tensions exploded in October 1947 when the Pathan Muslims of Poonch rebelled against the Hindu landowners of Kashmir. On October 22, Pakistan sent troops into the region, brutally taking Muzaffarabad and Uri, burning a swath of destruction wherever they marched, and killing Hindu civilians. As the troops closed in on the Kashmiri capital of Srinagar, the Kashmiri ruler summarily ceded Jammu and Kashmir to India on October 27, 1947, simultaneously pleading for Indian military aid. In response, Sikh troops entered the region and pushed the invaders back toward the Pakistani border. Pakistan prepared to send more troops to fight it out in Pakistan, but the British officers who commanded the Pakistani army in the field threatened to resign. Pakistan then withdrew its regular army and sent instead "volunteers" to defend what they now called *Azad Kashmir*—Free Kashmir. This incursion created a flood of Hindu refugees pouring out of Kashmir and greatly exacerbating the ongoing civil war in India.

As the war between Pakistan and India and the civil war in India both escalated out of control, the father of Indian independence, Mohandas Gandhi (1869–1948) embarked on a campaign to bring about Muslim-Hindu conciliation and harmony. In the midst of this, a Hindu extremist assassinated the great leader, on January 30, 1948, an action that suddenly brought a degree of unity to the warring factions. More fighting broke out in April 1948, but United Nations intervention brought a cease-fire after three weeks. The battle line as of April 1948 became a de facto border in the region between Pakistan and India as the two sides held to an uneasy armistice.

See also INDO-PAKISTANI WAR (1965); INDO-PAKISTANI WAR (1971).

Further reading: M. J. Akbar, *India: The Siege Within: Challenges to a Nation's Unity* (New Delhi: UBSPD, 1996); Balraj Puri, *Jammu and Kashmir: Triumph and Tragedy of Indian Federalism* (New Delhi: Sterling Publishers, c. 1981); Robert Wirsing, *India, Pakistan, and the Kashmir Dispute: On Regional Conflict and Its Resolution* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1994).

Indo-Pakistani War (1965)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: India vs. Pakistan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rann of Kutch and Pakistan-India border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: India feared that Pakistan's friendship with China would compromise the integrity of Kashmir's border with China.
OUTCOME: A cease-fire reestablished earlier battle lines, and India renewed its promise of a Kashmiri plebiscite.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: India, 900,000; Pakistan, 233,000
CASUALTIES: India, 3,712 killed, 7,638 wounded; Pakistan, 1,500 killed, 4,300 wounded
TREATIES: Conference at Tashkent, 1966

In 1958, General Muhammad Ayub Khan (1907–74), with substantial military backing from the United States, seized power in Pakistan. By the time India's powerful first prime minister, Jawaharlal Nehru (1889–1964), died and was

succeeded by the lackluster Lal Bahadur Shastri (1904–66), Ayub was ready to test India's frontier outposts in Kashmir. Since the IINDO-PAKISTANI WAR (1947–1948), the Kashmir region had existed as a state divided between Pakistan and India. About a third of it was under Pakistani administration as *Azad Kashmir*—Free Kashmir—and about two-thirds was occupied by Indian forces—despite an Indian promise, never fulfilled, of a Kashmiri plebiscite. Always a flashpoint, Kashmir became a renewed cause of conflict when Ayub signed a treaty of friendship with China. As India saw it, this put in jeopardy the boundary between Kashmir and China. Fevered talks began between India and Pakistan, but predictably broke down, and a border war flared in the Rann of Kutch during April 9–30, 1965. Pakistan's American-supplied Patton tanks rolled to an easy victory over India's British Centurions, and the country's new prime minister quickly turned to the United Nations for succor. The United Nations engineered a cease-fire and both sides withdrew their troops.

Despite this mutual acceptance of the borders established in 1948, Pakistan believed that it had actually won the war and that India's army was weak. At least, those were the reasons Ayub's foreign minister, Zulfikar Ali Bhutto (1928–79), gave when he argued for another campaign in Kashmir during the summer of 1965. Pakistan launched "Operation Grandslam"—aimed at cutting off Kashmir along its narrow south neck before India could respond with its ragtag tanks—in mid-August.

Now, the long-simmering dispute rapidly escalated into a major war on September 6, 1965, when India sent 900,000 troops across the border toward Lahore, Pakistan. The city was in range of the Indian tanks when the United Nations was able to broker a new cease-fire on September 27—but not before a large number of Pakistani tanks had been destroyed and a number of troops killed.

During the cease-fire, both sides withdrew to the battle lines established before August. The cease-fire also kept China out of the war, and it gave sufficient breathing space for mediation. The United States, Britain, and the Soviet Union met at a Tashkent conference sponsored by the Russians, which resulted in a pledge of cooperation and a new Indian promise of a Kashmiri plebiscite. Unfortunately, Indian prime minister Lal Bahadur Shastri died just after the conference. His successor, Indira Gandhi (1917–84), followed through on most of Shastri's promises, but not all of them. Most significantly, the plebiscite remained unimplemented. War would be renewed in 1971 (*see* INDO-PAKISTANI WAR, 1971).

Further reading: M. J. Akbar, *India: The Siege Within: Challenges to a Nation's Unity* (New Delhi: UBSPD, 1996,); Balraj Puri, *Jammu and Kashmir: Triumph and Tragedy of Indian Federalism* (New Delhi: Sterling Publishers, c. 1981); Robert Wirsing, *India, Pakistan, and the Kashmir Dispute: On Regional Conflict and Its Resolution* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1994).

Indo-Pakistani War (1971)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: India vs. Pakistan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): West Pakistan and East Pakistan (Bangladesh)
DECLARATION: India on Pakistan, December 3, 1971
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: India sought to establish the independence of Bangladesh from Pakistan.
OUTCOME: Bangladesh gained its independence, at great cost to Pakistan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: India, unknown; Pakistan, 90,000 POWs
TREATIES: Cease-fire of December 17, 1971

In December 1970 Pakistan held its first general elections since independence in 1947. President Muhammad Ayub Khan (1907–74), who seized power in a military coup in 1958, had resigned in 1968 and passed the reins of power on to General Agha Yahya Muhammad Khan (1917–77). When the Awami League, headed by East Pakistan's popular Bengali leader, Sheikh Mujib (Mujibur Rahman) (1920–75), won a majority of seats in the new assembly two years later, the West Pakistan general simply turned his back on his nation's first-time voters. He refused to honor the election or even to lift the martial law imposed back when Ayub initially seized power.

Negotiations between General Yahya and the duly elected Mujib failed to lead anywhere when the latter demanded virtual independence for East Pakistan. By March 1971, the talks had collapsed, and at the end of the month Yahya directed a massacre in Dhaka, in East Pakistan. During the slaughter, his military arrested Mujib and spirited him by air to West Pakistan. But the Pakistanis failed to silence Mujib before he called upon his followers in the east to rise up, seize power, and declare their independence as Bangladesh, which means "Land of the Bengalis."

These events sparked a massive surge of some 10 million refugees from East Pakistan—Bangladesh—into West Bengal, India, one of the most impoverished districts of one of the world's poorest nations. Over the next eight months the Indian government appealed to the world for assistance in coping with the refugee crisis but received little help. Worse, U.S. president Richard M. Nixon (1913–94) took a hard line against India and in favor of the U.S. client state, Pakistan. Nixon declared that the Pakistani civil war had resulted from Indian efforts to undermine and destabilize its neighbor. Accordingly, in the midst of the refugee crisis, Nixon cut off India's American credit.

Thus encouraged, Pakistan sent air force planes after the monsoon season to attack Indian airfields in Kashmir on December 3, 1971. This triggered a 12-day war in which India seized and held the initiative. Indian troops

invaded both West Pakistan and East Pakistan and marched virtually unopposed to the gates of Dhaka. On December 6, 1971, India recognized Bangladesh as a newly independent nation, then, on December 16, launched a combined ground and air assault on Dhaka. The city fell to Indian forces, and Pakistani troops surrendered in Bangladesh. Some 90,000 Pakistani soldiers became Indian prisoners of war, prompting Pakistan to agree to a general cease-fire on December 17, 1971. Mujib, released by the Pakistanis, flew home a hero to become the first prime minister of the People's Republic of Bangladesh in January 1972.

India was able to achieve a triumph so swift and stunning because of military and diplomatic backing from the Soviet Union, to which India had naturally turned, given the American infatuation with Pakistan. Under the 1971 Treaty of Peace, Friendship, and Cooperation, the USSR provided India with the firepower it deployed to win the war. Thus, not only did the victory give birth to Bangladesh, it made India the dominant power in South Asia, and caused its foreign policy—still officially nonaligned—to tilt more dramatically toward the Soviet Union.

Richard Nixon was not ready to give up so easily. He dispatched a nuclear-armed aircraft carrier from the Pacific Fleet, purportedly to help evacuate refugees from Dhaka, but in truth to stiffen the backs of the Pakistani military leaders. The war ended before the U.S. Navy could do much of anything, but India took notice. By 1972, India had launched its own nuclear program in response to this American nuclear saber rattling, making the entire world a much more dangerous place.

Although the United States extended aid to Pakistan, the nation was devastated by the brief war. With the loss of Bangladesh, Pakistan's population was halved, and its economy, never strong, was on the verge of total collapse. The United States held off recognizing Bangladesh until April 4, 1972, and Pakistan recognized its independence, grudgingly, two years later.

See also INDO-PAKISTANI WAR (1947–1948); INDO-PAKISTANI WAR (1965).

Further reading: G. W. Choudhury, *The Last Days of United Pakistan* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1974); Kathryn Jacques, *Bangladesh, India and Pakistan: International Relations and Regional Tensions in South Asia* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1999); Lawrence Lifschultz, *Bangladesh, The Unfinished Revolution* (London: Zed Press, 1979); Taluder Maniruzzaman, *The Bangladesh Revolution and Its Aftermath* (Dacca: Bangladesh Books International, 1980).

Indochina War

See FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1858–1863); FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1873–1874); FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1882–1885); FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1946–1954).

Ionian Revolt (c. 500–493 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs, the Ionian city-states (with Athenian and Eretrian aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ionia (Asia Minor)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ionians sought independence from oppressive rule by Persian-sponsored tyrants.
OUTCOME: After initial triumph, the rebellion was crushed and Ionia retaken by the Persians.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Greek city-states of Ionia (the region along the coast of Asia Minor in present-day Turkey) were, during the sixth century B.C.E., under the ruthless domination of Persia and under the immediate government of Persian puppet tyrants. About 500 B.C.E., the Ionian port city of Miletus rose up against the tyranny and was eagerly assisted by Athens and Eretria, Sparta demurring. The revolt in Miletus soon spread to other city-states in Ionia, which not only removed the Persian tyrants, but, in 498, drove Artaphernes (r. 513–493), the Persian satrap (governor of the region), out of his capital, Sardis. The rebels then sacked and destroyed the city.

The rebels, poorly organized, failed to capitalize on their victories. After ousting the satrap and destroying the capital, they dispersed, making it easy for fresh Persian forces to retake all of the Ionian city-states. The land battles ended by 499. At sea, the culminating battle took place in 494, when the Persians blockaded Miletus. Hoping to raise the blockade, a Greek fleet of 353 Lesbian, Samian, and Chian vessels attacked the Persian fleet off the island of Lade. From the beginning, it was a desperate effort, as the allied Greek fleet was significantly outnumbered. Worse, panic-stricken Samians and Lesbians deserted the attack at the last minute, leaving the remaining Greek ships vulnerable. The Greek fleet was destroyed, and the Persians landed at Miletus, sacking and destroying the city. With this, the Ionian revolt was crushed, leaving Artapheres' brother and Persian king Darius (c. 558–486) free to punish Athens and Eretria for their complicity in the revolt (*see* GRECO-PERSIAN WARS.

Further reading: J. M. Cook, *The Greeks in Ionia and the East* (New York: Praeger, 1963).

Iranian Revolution (1979)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Iranian revolutionaries vs. the shah of Iran

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Iran
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A coalition of liberals and conservatives united under the Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini to overthrow the government of the shah of Iran.
OUTCOME: With the shah in self-imposed exile, the government fell and Khomeini established an Islamic republic in its place.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Millions of Iranian demonstrators; the shah's army declared neutrality and refused to fight
CASUALTIES: At least 10,000 opponents of the Khomeini regime were killed in rioting or executed by 1983.
TREATIES: None

Shah Muhammad Reza Pahlavi (1919–80) governed Iran as an autocrat and even a dictator, aligning himself with the Western democracies, but keeping order through a loyal corps of secret police. Liberal and intellectual elements in Iran bridled under his repressive rule; the most conservative, fundamentalist Islamic elements also objected to the shah, not necessarily because of his repressiveness, but for his pro-Western stance. In mutual opposition to the shah, the liberals and conservatives found common ground and rallied behind an elderly religious leader living in Parisian exile, Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini (1902–89). By the end of the 1970s, rioting had compelled the shah to seek refuge in Egypt in January 1979. He named a regency council to rule during his absence, a sign of weakness that the exiled Khomeini was quick to exploit. From Paris, Khomeini urged the overthrow of the government. Demonstrations assumed spectacular proportions, often massing more than 1 million marchers. When the army refused to fight the protesters, Khomeini returned to Iran, and by February 1979, the government had collapsed. In its place, Khomeini declared Iran to be an Islamic republic and ruled through a revolutionary council. A reign of terror ensued, in which thousands of "subversives" and "counterrevolutionaries" were paraded through show trials and led to imprisonment or execution.

As the ayatollah's regime grew increasingly repressive, dissidents risked their lives to protest. Women, who objected to being repressed by a return to Muslim fundamentalism, were in the forefront of the protests, as were ethnic groups such as the Kurds. Yet Khomeini pointed to the results of a popular referendum, which, he said, revealed that 99 percent of the people of Iran supported his revolution and reforms. Nevertheless, disorder and rebellion increased, prompting the revolutionary council to create the Army of the Guardians of the Islamic Revolution on May 6, 1979. This new force moved even more vigorously against dissidents, and the number of trials and executions increased. Iran became increasingly cut off from the West—and also from the rest of the Islamic world in the Middle East.

Americans became instantly aware of the magnitude of the Iranian revolution on November 4, 1979, when Iranian "students" stormed the U.S. embassy at Tehran and took hostage the embassy staff, 66 people. The mass abduction had been triggered when President Jimmy Carter (b. 1924) allowed the shah, who had been diagnosed with cancer, to enter the United States for treatment. The president refused to yield to the terrorists' demands to surrender the shah to them; however, the shah left the United States voluntarily early in December. Fifty-three hostages remained in captivity; 13 African Americans and women had been released on November 19 and 20. President Carter authorized a U.S. Army Special Forces unit to attempt a rescue on April 24, 1980, but a combination of mechanical problems with helicopters and other equipment and human blunders caused the mission to be aborted. The failed mission did not result in harm to the hostages, but it was a great embarrassment to the United States, and it served to embolden the Iranians.

It was not until November 1980 that the Iranian parliament proposed conditions to secure the release of the hostages. Among these was a U.S. pledge not to interfere in Iranian affairs, an agreement to release Iranian assets frozen by presidential order in the United States, the lifting of all U.S. sanctions on Iran, and the return of the shah's property to the people of Iran. An agreement was signed in January 1981, but Khomeini, as a gesture of insult to President Carter, delayed the release of the hostages until January 20, the day Carter left office and Ronald Reagan (1911–2004) was inaugurated. President Reagan asked Carter to serve as a special envoy to greet the returning hostages at a U.S. air base in West Germany. They had been held captive for 444 days.

See also IRAN-IRAQ WAR; PERSIAN REVOLUTION (1921).

Further reading: Haleh Afshar, ed., *Iran: A Revolution in Turmoil* (Albany: State University of New York Press, c. 1985); Mohammed Amjab, *Iran: From Royal Dictatorship to Theocracy* (New York: Greenwood Press, 1989); David Lesch, *1979: The Year That Shaped the Modern Middle East* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 2001); Mohsen M. Milani, *The Making of Iran's Islamic Revolution: From Monarchy to Islamic Republic,* 2nd ed. (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1994).

Iran-Iraq War (1980–1988)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Iraq vs. Iran
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Iraq and Iran
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: On September 21–22, 1980, Saddam Hussein launched Iraqi warplanes and troops on an invasion of Iran in an attempt to topple the regime of the Ayatollah Khomeini.

OUTCOME: Both sides claimed victory, but with the United States helping to tip the balance in Iraq's favor, Khomeini's forces suffered more damage, whereas Hussein came out of the war somewhat poorer but more inclined to exercise his muscle in the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Iraq: 500,000 men; Iran: 2 million
CASUALTIES: Iran, 262,000 killed, 600,000 wounded, 45,000 captured; Iraq, 105,000 killed, 400,000 wounded, 70,000 captured
TREATIES: None

Iraq and Iran had long disputed control of a 120-mile-long tidal river, the Shatt al-Arab, which flows past the important Iraqi port of Basra and Iran's Persian Gulf port of Abadan. Following the IRANIAN REVOLUTION, which overthrew Shah Muhammad Reza Pahlavi (1919–80) and elevated the fundamentalist Shi'ite Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini (1902–89) to power, the dispute grew into a holy war of terror aimed against Iraq's president, Saddam Hussein (b. 1935). Members of the Iranian terrorist group Al Dawa ("the Call") targeted Hussein and also made an attempt on the life of Iraq's deputy premier. Iran backed civil disturbances in Baghdad, attacked Iraq's embassy in Rome, attempted to incite Iraq's Shi'ite minority to rebellion, and shelled Iraqi border towns, killing civilians. At last, during September 21–22, 1980, Saddam Hussein launched fighter planes and ground troops against Iran, hoping for a quick victory, which would bring an end to the Khomeini regime.

Initially, Iraq did deal Iran severe blows, sinking gunboats in the Shatt al-Arab and destroying airfields and oil refineries. But Khomeini, whose revolutionary nation was by no means unified behind him, saw the attacks as an opportunity to bring his people together against a common threat. Accordingly, Khomeini called for an all-out military response, including suicidal attacks on the more technologically advanced Iraqi forces, which were equipped with the latest Soviet-built tanks, missiles, and artillery as well as French-made fighter planes. The Iraqi military, however, with some 500,000 men under arms was vastly outnumbered by the Iranians, who mustered an ill-equipped army of 2 million.

The result was neither the quick victory Hussein had hoped for nor the overwhelming victory Khomeini had urged, but a long stalemate that evolved into one of the bloodiest, most extended, and most futile wars ever fought in this volatile region. Iraq threatened to disrupt oil shipments through the Strait of Hormuz in the Persian Gulf, and both the United Nations and an Islamic conference, including most of the important powers in the Middle East, tried but failed to put a stop to the war.

The Iraqis soon found themselves on the defensive, hunkered down behind fortifications of earthworks and sandbagged bunkers stretching across a 300-mile front as Iran threw wave after wave against them, using everything from regular army troops to teen-aged Revolutionary Guards, inflicting heavy losses while incurring even heavier losses. A measure of Iran's fanaticism came in March 1984, when 10,000 children were roped together and sent into an Iraqi minefield ahead of assault troops. Iraq responded with chemical warfare, launching mustard gas shells against the children—something that had not been used (except by Iraq against rebellious Kurdish tribesmen) since WORLD WAR I. Two years later, Iraq used nerve gas as well as mustard gas against the Iranians.

Because neither side proved capable of mounting a decisive offensive, the war settled into a contest of attrition and great suffering. But it was precisely in the attrition that Saddam Hussein found his secret weapon: the willingness to endure substantial losses and take great punishment while exhausting the enemy. Both powers at length tried to cut the other's economic lifeline, which in the Middle East meant bombing oil shipments. Their attacks against various tankers plying the Gulf dangerously escalated the war of attrition, and the United States—already inclined to hold Iran responsible for much of the terrorism against Americans in the region—eventually tilted the political balance intentionally toward Iraq. Promising to keep the Persian Gulf open to international trade, the Americans made clear they intended to safeguard the main source of oil for Western Europe and Japan.

For now, Hussein's military was like some third-rate boxer, outclassed but able to take punishment until his opponent fell from sheer exhaustion. With some trepidation, the United States began selling military equipment to Iraq, hoping, like Hussein, that the Khomeini regime would fall. The quasi-alliance between the two countries was tested in May 1987 when an Iraqi fighter struck an American destroyer, the USS *Stark* with a French-made Exocet anti-ship missile. Although the United States officially accepted Iraq's explanation that the attack had been an accident, President Ronald Reagan (1911–2004) soon acted to "reflag" Kuwaiti oil tankers leaving the Gulf—temporarily giving them U.S. registry—to legitimate armed escorts.

In general, the result was a buildup of U.S. warships in the region. On April 14, 1988, one of the vessels, the USS *Samuel B. Roberts,* escorting a reflagged Kuwaiti tanker, struck an Iranian mine. In response, President Reagan authorized Operation Praying Mantis, a combined raid by army helicopters and marine commandos, supported by naval gunfire and air strikes, against Iranian oil facilities and military installations. The Iranians threw their small naval forces—four combat ships and a few patrol boats—against the U.S. fleet in the Gulf. Following a 10-hour battle, Iran lost three of its principal ships and suffered severe damage to the fourth.

Defeated at sea, Iran launched a missile attack against Baghdad, using 60 Soviet-made "Scud" medium-range ballistic missiles. Iraq retaliated by launching more than 200 Scuds in what came to be called the Battle of the Cities. The missile battles and the earlier naval losses were the prelude to a campaign the Iraqis called "Tawakalna Ala Allah," a final offensive in which Hussein laced his regular troops with 100,000 crack Republican Guards in an invasion of Iran. The invasion began on April 17, 1988, and the long and costly war was over within four months.

Officially, both sides claimed victory, but, in fact, Iran emerged from the conflict with its armed forces shattered and its people exhausted, whereas Iraq, despite the heavy losses it had incurred, was strengthened in its resolve to prevail at any cost. Tactically, Saddam Hussein had lost the war, yet, for all practical purposes, he had prevailed, and that taught him a style of international thuggery that would prompt him to invade Kuwait and touch off the PERSIAN GULF WAR, where the United States, determined to protect the region's oil, would itself fight Iraq.

Further reading: Shahram Chubin and Charles Tripp, *Iran and Iraq at War* (New York: I. B. Tauris, 1988); Dilip Hino, *The Longest War: The Iran-Iraq Military Conflict* (New York: Routledge, 1991); Majid Khadduri, *The Gulf War: The Origins and Implications of the Iraq-Iran Conflict* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1988); Edgar O'Ballance, *The Gulf War* (London and Washington, D.C.: Brassey's Defence Publishers, 1988).

Irish Convict Revolt

See AUSTRALIAN IRISH CONVICT REVOLT (1804).

Irish Raids in Britain (395–405)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Irish raiders vs. Britain and Wales
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Roman Britain and Wales
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The raiders wanted goods and slaves.
OUTCOME: When northern Wales mounted an effective defense, the raiding ended.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Roman Britain was the target of raids by Saxons and Picts as well as from Ireland, under the leadership of Niall (d. 405) of the Nine Hostages. His bands attacked from Strathclyde into Wales, concentrating on the coast and abducting thousands of prisoners as slaves. Among the captives was one Patricius, who was abducted about 400, pressed into service as a swineherd, subsequently escaped, then returned to Ireland as the missionary Saint Patrick (c. 389–c. 461).

Around 400, Gwynedd, the northernmost Welsh kingdom, mounted an effective defense against the Irish raiders and expelled them. This brought raiding to an end by 405.

See also SAXON RAIDS.

Further reading: Jacqueline O'Brien and Peter Harbison, *Ancient Ireland: From Prehistory to the Middle Ages* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001).

Irish Rebellion, Great (1641–1649)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Irish rebels vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ireland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Irish rebelled against English despotism.
OUTCOME: The war ended with an Irish victory over English forces, but, subsequently, Oliver Cromwell brutally suppressed the rebellion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Rathmines, Irish rebels, 5,000; English and royalists, 19,000
CASUALTIES: At Rathmines, English and royalists, 4,000 killed or wounded, 2,000 captured; Irish casualties unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1641, 40 years after TYRONE'S REBELLION, the Irish rose once again in revolt, first in Ulster, then throughout the entire island. Some 3,000 English and Scottish settlers were killed in the initial uprising on the Plantation lands, though the Puritan-dominated English Parliament wildly inflated the figure in its propaganda to hundreds of thousands massacred by Catholic savages and refused to entrust King Charles I (1600–49) with an army to put down the rebellion. Fearing that Charles would not only make peace with the Irish, but use them against the Puritans in the First (Great) ENGLISH CIVIL WAR that broke out in 1642, Parliament recruited volunteers at large to quell the revolt, promising them Irish lands in return for their service. Parliament also sent Scottish troops into the country, which, by this time, had fallen almost entirely under the control of the rebels, who established a provisional government in Kilkenny. The English forces were at first commanded by James Butler (1610–88), duke of Ormonde and lord lieutenant of Ireland, whom King Charles ordered to negotiate an end to the rebellion. Both the Parliament in London and a newly constituted parliament in Dublin rejected the terms produced by the negotiations. In 1645, with Charles

in the clutches of an Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658)–dominated Parliament, Ormonde himself now was leading the rebellion as the head of the Confederacy, an alliance of all Royalists in Ireland. Some among the Irish chose not so to be led, such as Murrough O'Brien, baron of Inchiquin (d. 1551), who was an Irish Protestant stationed in Munster. He not only rejected the leadership of the Confederacy, but also laid waste to Munster for Parliament, which earned him the everlasting spite of his fellow Irishmen and the memorable if somber sobriquet "Murrough of the Burnings." Some, however, such as Owen Roe O'Neill (1582–1649), were simply pure Irish Catholic rebels and disliked riding with their former enemies, the English overlords. O'Neill, the nephew of Hugh O'Neill, earl of Tyrone (1540–1616), and a veteran of the Spanish army, kept his Ulster followers from joining Ormonde. Then, in 1647, for no discernible reason, Baron Inchiquin switched sides and joined the duke of Ormonde.

A turning point came in 1649, when Colonel Michael Jones landed with 2,000 troops, expelled Ormonde from Dublin and defeated him and his Royalist-Catholic forces at the Battle of Rathmines on August 2. Ormonde's power was broken, but there remained a number of rebel strongholds either in Confederate or Irish hands. It was to capture these and completely crush the rebellion that Oliver Cromwell set sail for Ireland on August 13, 1649 (*see* CROMWELL'S IRISH CAMPAIGN).

See also ENGLISH CIVIL WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Padraig Lenihan, *Confederate Catholics at War, 1641–49* (Cork, Ireland: Cork University Press, 2001); John O'Beirn Ranelagh, *A Short History of Ireland* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2000).

Irish Tithe War (1831)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Irish "Catholic Association" vs. the British government in Ireland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ireland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Catholic Association sought relief from an Anglican tithe imposed on them.
OUTCOME: The tithe was partially rescinded.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At least 22 protesters and 26 police officials were killed.
TREATIES: None

Irish Catholics bridled under the law that forced them to pay tithes to the Church of England. A group of them banded together in the Catholic Association, founded in 1823 by Daniel O'Connell (1775–1847), and began a campaign of resistance to the tax.

Using techniques of passive resistance, the Catholic Association succeeded in crippling the Anglican Church in Ireland. But the group's protests turned violent in 1831. At Newtownforbes, Ireland, a dozen men protesting the impoundment of cattle were killed by British soldiers. At Carrickshook, Irish farmers used their farm implements to kill 18 police officers. At Castlepollard, police officers shot 10, and at Gortroche, a Catholic priest ordered his parishioners to fire on officials: eight died, and another 13 were wounded. The British army briefly redoubled its collection efforts but soon withdrew. At this, the Catholic Association returned to predominantly peaceful methods of resistance, and the so-called Tithe War came to an end following new legislation partially abolishing the tax in 1836.

See also IRISH REBELLION, GREAT.

Further reading: Christopher Haigh, ed., *The Cambridge Historical Encyclopedia of Great Britain and Ireland* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1985); Alvin Jackson, *Ireland, 1798–1998: Politics and War* (London: Blackwell, 1999); R. B. McDowell, *Public Opinion and Government Policy in Ireland, 1801–1846* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Irish War (1689–1691)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Irish Jacobites (with French allies) vs. an Anglo-Dutch force in support of William and Mary
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ireland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Irish Catholics aided James II in his bid to regain the English throne.
OUTCOME: The Jacobites were suppressed but granted amnesty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anglo-Dutch army, 36,000; Irish-French army, 28,600
CASUALTIES: At Londonderry, Anglo-Dutch: 3,000 killed or wounded; Irish-French, 5,000 killed or wounded. At Newtown Butler, Irish-French, 2,000. At Boyne River, Anglo-Dutch, 500; Irish-French, 1,500. At Limerick, Anglo-Dutch, 2,000. At Aughrim, Anglo-Dutch, 1,600 Irish-French, 7,000.
TREATIES: Treaty of Limerick, October 3, 1691

When King James II (1633–1701) of England was forced off the throne in 1688 by the GLORIOUS REVOLUTION, he turned to the Irish for aid in regaining power. The Irish, having suffered at the hands of Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658) (*see* CROMWELL'S IRISH CAMPAIGN) from 1649 to 1650, were willing to help. In 1689, therefore, when James landed in Ireland with soldiers and cash supplied by France's Louis XIV (1638–1715), he was acknowledged king by an Irish parliament convened in Dublin. The parliament confiscated

Protestant lands in Ireland, assembled an Irish-French army, and advanced on Londonderry, a predominantly Protestant town that had affirmed loyalty to King William III (1650–1702) and Queen Mary II (1662–94). The Irish-French army laid siege against Londonderry for 15 weeks, but the town held firm. Then, in 1690, William led an Anglo-Dutch army against James, landing at Carrickfergus and marching south with 35,000 troops to the Boyne River, which marked the battle line held by James's army. The Irish-French army was supported by the Irish Jacobite Patrick Sarsfield, Earl of Lucan (d. 1693).

On July 11, 1690, William sent a detachment under Duke Friedrich Herman von Schomberg (1615–90) to cross the Boyne three miles west of Drogheda. Simultaneously, he dispatched another detachment to cross the river upstream. James's army was flanked, and he was routed, losing more than 1,000 men. James fled the field to France, and William returned to England, leaving his army under the command of the Dutch-born general Godard van Reede, Heer van Ginkel (1644–1702/1703). After completing the conquest of Athlone, along the upper Shannon River, Ginkel marched west and, on July 12, 1691, engaged the rebel forces at Aughrim, about 30 miles east of Galway. The Irish-French forces were led by the Earl of Lucan and French general Charles Chalmont, marquis de Saint-Ruth. Although they fought valiantly, Ginkel out-generaled his rivals and managed to turn the rebel flank. After Saint-Ruth fell when Ginkel's forces stormed the defensive entrenchments, the rebels fled the field, making no attempt to fight a rearguard action and thereby incurring heavy losses numbering in the thousands. In fact, Aughrim was the bloodiest battle ever fought on Irish soil. One general, three major-generals, seven brigadiers, 22 colonels, 17 lieutenant-colonels, and over 7,000 others were killed, and so devastating were the losses that the Jacobite rebellion in Ireland was effectively finished (*see* JACOBITE REBELLION [1689–1690]).

Nevertheless, after the battle, Lucan kept some hope alive when he holed up in Limerick, headquarters of the Jacobite rebellion. Ginkel laid siege against Limerick, and, on October 3, 1691, the garrison there surrendered. In the so-called pacification of Limerick, King William, always a practitioner of toleration, allowed the Irish Jacobites to take an oath of allegiance to William and Mary or to leave the country—transportation to France was provided. On their own, however, the Protestant Irish parliament passed a series of anti-Catholic laws, which amounted to state-sanctioned persecution. Still, following the treaty of Limerick, which Lucan signed on October 3, 1691, a century of peace ensued in Ireland.

See also GRAND ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE; IRISH REBELLION, GREAT.

Further reading: R. F. Foster, *Modern Ireland, 1690–1792* (New York: Penguin USA, 1989); Christopher Haigh, ed., *The Cambridge Historical Encyclopedia of Great Britain and Ireland* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1985).

Iroquoian Beaver Wars

See BEAVER WARS.

Iroquois-French Wars (1642–1696)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Iroquois tribes vs. French settlers and traders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Region of St. Lawrence and Ottawa rivers; Montreal area
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In part, Iroquois desire for vengeance against the French; in part, Iroquois strategy to eliminate trading competition
OUTCOME: Despite a 1701 treaty, fighting remained chronic.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: 1701 treaty with France, pledging Iroquois neutrality in French and English disputes

In 1609, the French explorer Samuel de Champlain (c. 1567–1635), in company with a Huron Indian war party, encountered, engaged, and killed some Iroquois Indians. This incident created bad blood between the Iroquois and the French, and after Champlain died in 1635, Iroquois raiders set about terrorizing French settlements along the St. Lawrence and Ottawa Rivers, including the Jesuit missions. The Hurons, allies of the French, were also targets of Iroquois aggression and were all but wiped out in the IROQUOIS-HURON WAR from 1648 to 1650.

After the Iroquois defeated the Hurons, they established bases of operation at various strategic points along the St. Lawrence and Ottawa Rivers. From these centers, they attacked the French by water as well as by land. Traditionally, most Indian tribes fought only in the warmer seasons and then only during the day. Remarkably, the Iroquois fought relentlessly and continuously, in all seasons, sometimes attacking by day, and sometimes by night. Reeling from ceaseless attack, the French repeatedly attempted to come to peace terms with the Iroquois. Brief truces were concluded but quickly broken. Moreover, Dutch traders at Fort Orange (Albany, New York), rivals of the French for the Indian trade, ensured that the Iroquois were well supplied with weapons and ammunition. The Dutch actively worked to perpetuate the war.

By the mid-17th century, the issue had gone far beyond mere vengeance for the deeds of Samuel de Champlain. The war between the Iroquois and the French was a struggle for control of the profitable beaver fur trade. The

Iroquois objective was to monopolize the trade, diverting it from French outposts exclusively to the Dutch at Fort Orange (*see* BEAVER WARS, of which the Iroquois-French Wars may be seen as an aspect). At this point, the Iroquois had carried the war almost to Montreal, and it was not until 1666 that soldiers were sent from France to take the offensive.

The arrival of French regulars turned the tide of the war, pushing the Iroquois not only out of Canada but into their homelands, where they were repeatedly defeated. Within months, it was the Iroquois who sued for peace. The truce hammered out lasted nearly two decades, until French settlement began to expand westward. This aggravated chronic, violent rivalry with the English, who were allied with the Iroquois. A new French governor, the marquis de Denonville (d. 1710), arrived in 1685 and decided that the time was ripe for an offensive move against the Senecas, westernmost of the Iroquois tribes. The governor led a large force into western New York and destroyed four Seneca villages in 1687. Far from subduing the Senecas, however, this action moved them to vengeance. In 1689, Seneca warriors advanced down the St. Lawrence River in large numbers to attack the French-Canadian settlement of Lachine, which was all but destroyed, many of its inhabitants brutally massacred. From the site of this victory, Seneca war parties fanned out to terrorize the countryside as far as Montreal.

The Senecas returned repeatedly to attack Lachine. They also targeted other French forts, towns, and small settlements. When the comte de Frontenac (1620–1698) returned as governor of New France in 1689, he devoted himself to an organized campaign against the Iroquois generally and the Seneca in particular. Peace was restored in 1696, and, in 1701, the Iroquois signed a treaty with France, by which they pledged neutrality in the various colonial wars between the French and English, which culminated in the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR. No treaty, however, could repair the damage the Iroquois-French Wars had done to Iroquois unity. Despite the Iroquois pledge to maintain a policy of neutrality, individual Iroquois tribes often violated these terms, siding with the English, in the empty hope of regaining the military and economic dominance they had formerly enjoyed in western New York and the Ohio country.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); José Antonio Brandas, *Your Fyre Shall Burn No More: Iroquois Policy toward New France and Its Native Allies to 1701* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1997).

Iroquois-Huron War (1648–1650)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The English-allied Iroquois vs. the French-allied Huron
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ontario, Canada
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Traditional enmity and competition for trade
OUTCOME: Great reduction of the Huron tribe
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Huron Indians, who, in the 17th century, inhabited present-day Ontario, Canada, were longtime trading partners with the French and traditional enemies of the Iroquois. In 1648, the Dutch traders at Fort Orange (Albany, New York), desiring to preempt French trade, began supplying the Iroquois—their chief trading partners—with guns and ammunition to enable them to mount a major invasion of Huron territory. The invasion was swift and destructive. Two French Jesuit missionaries, Jean de Brébeuf (1593–1649) and Gabriel Lalemant (1610–49), were tortured to death, and the Huron tribe was decimated, the survivors sent fleeing to various neighboring tribes in search of refuge.

The traditional battle tactics of the East Coast Indians employed short, violent attacks, followed by withdrawal. In this war, however, the Iroquois relentlessly pursued the Huron refugees, in the process also attacking and virtually wiping out the Tobaccos, who had given shelter to many Hurons. The Iroquois went on to destroy much of the so-called Neutral Nation in 1650.

Historians sometimes treat the Iroquois-Huron War as a phase of the BEAVER WARS.

See also FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR; IROQUOIS-FRENCH WARS.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); José Antonio Brandas, *Your Fyre Shall Burn No More: Iroquois Policy toward New France and Its Native Allies to 1701* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1997).

Isaurian War (492–498)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Isauria vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Anatolia and Isauria (Turkey)
DECLARATION: Byzantine Empire on Isauria, 492
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Isauria rebelled against the removal of Isaurians from powerful imperial office.
OUTCOME: The Byzantine forces consistently proved victorious, but the Isaurians continued stubbornly to resist until virtually all of their strongholds had been captured or destroyed and the survivors forcibly relocated.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Eastern Roman (Byzantine) emperor Zeno (426–491), a native of Isauria (south-central Turkey), appointed many kinsmen and other Isaurians to key positions in the empire. When Zeno died, Anastasius (c. 430–518), a powerful financial administrator (who would later perfect the Byzantine monetary system), was chosen by Zeno's widow, Aviadne (fl. fifth century), to succeed him. As Emperor Anastasius I, he summarily removed all of the Isaurian officials and expelled all Isaurian troops from the Byzantine capital city of Constantinople. In response to these actions, the Isaurians revolted, invading western Anatolia (encompassing much of modern Turkey). The emperor responded by declaring war on Isauria and sent his army, recruited mostly from among the Goths, to engage the Isaurians at the Battle of Cotyaeum in 493. The Isaurians were badly defeated in this battle and withdrew into the mountains of Isauria.

Although beaten and consistently outnumbered, the Isaurians refused to break off the war and continued to battle imperial forces. When, at last, all of the Isaurian strongholds had been captured or destroyed, Anastasius I resettled the survivors in Thrace, where they could be controlled and where they presented little threat to Anatolia.

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2003).

Israeli-Arab Wars

See ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1948–1949); ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1956); ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1967); ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1973).

Israeli Invasion of Lebanon

See LEBANESE CIVIL WAR (1975–1992).

Italian Revolts (1831–1834)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Italian republicans vs. papal and Austrian forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Modena, Parma, Romagna, the Marches, Umbria
DECLARATION: The declaration of Modena, 1831, triggered the series of revolts.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A group of Italian states wanted to unite under a single republican government, independent from Austrian autocracy.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed by Austrian intervention.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Prior to the arrival of Giuseppe Mazzini (1805–72) on the stage of Italian politics, liberal uprisings in the 19th century had been mostly the purview of the Carbonari, members of a secret political association first organized about 1811 with the goal of establishing a republic. By 1831, the hopes raised by the July 1830 revolution in Paris (*see* FRENCH REVOLUTION [1830]), had set afoot in Italy a conspiracy led by two Carbonari—Enrico Misley (1801–63) and Ciro Menotti (1758–1831). As a result, Mazzini advocated the union of the disparate Italian states under a republican government. In Modena, in 1831, an assembly declared the overthrow of the Austrian puppet government of Duke Francesco IV (1779–1846). This triggered similar declarations in Parma, Romagna, the Marches, and Umbria, all of which set up new provisional republican governments, then united to create a provincial government headquartered at Bologna. Bologna had been governed by a papal legate, who was forced to step down. The Vatican responded by asking for Austrian intervention. Austrian forces quickly put down the revolt, restoring all the autocrats to power.

The abject failure of the latest attempts to foment change left Italy's moderate liberal leaders, most of them Carbonari, disheartened and leery of Jacobin-style revolution. Not only were they ready to work with an absolute monarchy, they had come to deeply abhor those republicans and democrats who sought to achieve unification and social reform through force of arms.

Thus it fell to the young Genoese Mazzini, who had been exiled to France at the age of 25, to pick up the mantle of French liberalism. In distinction to the Carbonaria, Mazzini's organization—Giovane Italia (Young Italy)—advocated the union of disparate Italian states under a republican government.

Young Italy and Mazzini put their trust in the education and participation of the people, but the group had no radically egalitarian leanings. This new faction spread like wildfire, especially in upper Italy, absorbing Carbonari and old Jacobin alike.

In 1833 and 1834 came the earliest, quickly quelled, Mazzinian uprisings in Savoy and at Genoa, the latter organized by Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807–82), who afterward fled to France. By the end of 1834, the Austrian police had a list of some 2,000 members of Young Italy in Lombardy alone. Although the revolts failed, Mazzini, who had been living in exile in Switzerland, became as a result enough of a revolutionary celebrity to establish firm relationships with radicals in other countries. In 1836,

many of them joined him in founding Giovane Europa (Young Europe), after which he resettled in London.

See also ITALIAN REVOLUTION (1848–1849).

Further reading: Christopher Duggan, *A Concise History of Italy* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994); Raymond Grew, *A Sterner Plan for Italian Unity* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1963).

Italian Revolution (1848–1849)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Italian nationalists vs. Austria and Austrian-dominated Italian rulers (with French and Spanish allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: Sardinia against Austria, 1848
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Italian nationalists wanted to unify the states of Italy in independence from Austrian domination.
OUTCOME: Despite successes, the revolution was crushed by Austrian forces allied with those of France and Spain.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Republican fighters across Italy numbered in the 100,000s if rebellious city mobs are included, but well-armed patriots numbered in the 10,000s. The total for the Austrian army reached 70,000. In Rome, forces backing the Vatican totaled between in excess of 35,000 (15,000 Austrian, 7,000 French, 12,000 Neapolitan, 6,000 Spaniard, and 2,000 Tuscan soldiers fought there at some point) against 18,600 Republicans, including 5,000 of Garibaldi's Red Shirts. In Venice, 30,000 Austrians besieged 17,000 Civic Guards supported by a 4,000-man navy.
CASUALTIES: Varied across Italy. In the siege of Rome, Republicans lost 4,300-plus, the French around 2,000. In Venice, 900 defenders died in battle, but 8,000 fell sick, while the Austrians lost 1,200 in battle and 8,000 wounded, with like numbers (8,000) contracting cholera.
TREATIES: Austria and Piedmont, August 9, 1849

In a year of revolution throughout Europe (in France, Germany, and Hungary), Italians rose up under the leadership of King Charles Albert (1798–1849) of Sardinia, who proposed a *Risorgimento,* a movement that would not only liberate Italy from Austrian domination but unify the Italian states under a single government. Milan rebelled against Austrian government in the "FIVE DAYS" REVOLT of 1848, which inspired Charles Albert to declare war on Austria. This, in turn, triggered a revolt in Venice, with the proclamation of an independent republic under the leadership of Daniele Manin. In Piedmont, Count Camillo Cavour (1810–61) supported Sardinia's declaration of war, as did Pope Pius IX (1792–1878), and political leaders in Modena, Parma, Tuscany, and Naples. Charles Albert was thus able to assemble a large allied Italian army, which he fielded against the smaller, 70,000-man Austrian army under Field Marshal Joseph Radetzky (1766–1858). Radetzky, however, was a brilliant commander, who deployed his forces in very strong defensive positions in a region bounded by Mantua, Verona, Peschiera, and Legnago. Frequently, he would take the offensive against Charles Albert, who proved to be an indecisive military commander. The Tuscans were quickly routed, and Radetzky seized the entire papal force, holding it hostage. These two defeats unnerved the united armies of Italy. Naples recalled its forces, leaving Piedmont to fend for itself. On July 24, 1848, Radetzky's force met the Piedmontese army at the Battle of Custoza, 11 miles southwest of Verona. The result was an overwhelming defeat for the outnumbered Italians, who were driven out of Lombardy altogether. This led to an armistice on August 9 and Austria's resumption of control over all of its lost territory, save Venice. Radetzky occupied Milan.

The armistice was displeasing to both sides, and the war resumed after a seven-month intermission after Charles Albert denounced the truce on March 12, 1849. In response, Radetzky seized the fortress of Mortara, which precipitated a battle at nearby Novara, 28 miles west of Milan, on March 23. Radetzky and his superbly trained Austrian regulars took and never relinquished the initiative, decisively defeating the ragtag Piedmontese force. A week after Novara, Radetzky's subordinate, Baron Julius von Haynau (1786–1853), defeated the Italians at Brescia, 54 miles northeast of Milan. This prompted Charles Albert to abdicate in favor of his son Victor Emmanuel II (1820–78) (who was destined later to become the first king of unified Italy). On August 9, 1849, Victor Emmanuel II concluded a treaty with Austria, agreeing to harsh terms imposed by the Austrians, including a punishing financial indemnity.

Elsewhere in Italy, disorder continued to reign—although the revolution as such had died. In the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, King Ferdinand II (1810–59) ordered artillery fire against Messina and Palermo to suppress civil disorder there. In Rome, governed by a revolutionary tribunal, Pius IX asked to be reinstated, and Louis Napoleon (1808–73) dispatched a French army to restore order. Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807–82) led 5,000 Italian legionnaires—the celebrated Red Shirts—and forced the French to withdraw from Rome in April 1849, whereupon the Austrians, Neapolitans, and Spanish converged on Rome to aid the French. Garibaldi led the Roman resistance against the Neapolitans, driving them back and prompting the Spanish likewise to withdraw. But the continual reinforcement of the French finally compelled Garibaldi to withdraw. Rome fell in June, and the papal government was restored.

In the meantime, Manin held out against the siege in Venice from May to August 1849, but Radetzky's bombardment was relentless and his blockade impregnable. The people of Venice languished under starvation and disease (epidemic cholera). Two weeks after Victor Emmanuel II signed his treaty with Austria, Manin surrendered

Venice, and Italy's great war for independence came to an end, crushed not just by Austria but the combined forces of European aristocratic conservatism.

See also ITALIAN REVOLTS (1831–1834).

Further reading: Christopher Duggan, A *Concise History of Italy* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994); Raymond Grew, *A Sterner Plan for Italian Unity* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1963); Denis Mack Smith, *Cavour and Garibaldi, 1860: A Study in Political Conflict* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1985).

Italian Uprisings (1914)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Italian socialists vs. government troops
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Romagna and the Marches, Italy
DECLARATION: Romagna declared itself a republic in June 1914.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Laborers and socialists agitated for a government more responsive to their needs.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was put down by a major show of force.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 100,000 Italian regulars were dispatched to restore order in the region.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

"Red Week" was a series of popular socialist uprisings beginning on June 7, 1914, in the Marches and Romagna (often referred to as "Red Romagna") in response to the formation of a new, fairly conservative government by Premier Antonio Salandra (1853–1931). The demonstrators demanded higher wages, lower taxes, and an abandonment of militarism (as Europe drifted toward WORLD WAR I). Red Week saw the rise of such popular leaders as Benito Mussolini (1883–1945), who began his political career not as an anticommunist but as a radical socialist. Rioting was general, with a massive workers' strike, destruction of private property, and vandalism of telegraph lines and railroad tracks. Romagna declared itself an independent republic, and the governments of Ferrara and Ravenna surrendered to the rebels. Order was restored by some 100,000 troops transported into the region. Italy's determination to remain neutral after World War I began at the end of July (this despite Italian membership in the Triple Alliance with Germany and Austria) pacified some of the workers' concerns.

See also FASCIST MARCH ON ROME.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Life and Work of Benito Mussolini* (New York: Alpha, 2002); R. J. B. Bosworth, *Mussolini* (London: Edward Arnold, 2002); Christopher Duggan, A *Concise History of Italy* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994).

Italian War *See* GOTHIC (ITALIAN) WAR.

Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, First (1521–1525)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French king Francis I and his Swiss and Venetian allies vs. the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V with his Spanish, English, Italian, and Papal allies
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mostly Lombardy and northern Italy
DECLARATION: Francis I invaded Luxembourg and Navarre in May and June 1521.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France tried to establish hegemony in Italy but found herself opposed by the Holy Roman Empire and the pope.
OUTCOME: French ambitions were stymied, and Charles V took Francis I prisoner, forcing him to renounce all claims to Italy and to surrender French territory to the Hapsburgs.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France and allies, 41,000; Holy Roman Empire and allies, 20,000
CASUALTIES: At Bicocca, 3,000 Swiss killed; 200 Imperial forces killed
TREATIES: Treaty of Madrid, January 14, 1525

For the first half of the 16th century, the French tried repeatedly to gain ascendancy in Italy. For four decades, beginning with the accession of Charles V (1500–58) to the Hapsburg throne, the struggle for supremacy was not merely between the states of the Holy Roman Empire and France but also a personal feud between the emperor and Francis I (1494–1547). Usually, not only were the Hapsburgs—that is the Empire and Spain—allied against the French, but so too were the English and most of the Italian city-states. The Swiss, and an Italian city-state, seeing here or there an advantage, would occasionally line up behind the French. By 1521, Charles had managed to enlist the Vatican to his cause as well, and that year it moved to replace French rule in Milan with the pope's ally and client, Francesco Maria Sforza (1491–1530).

On April 22, 1522, the 15,000-strong French army, led by Marshal Odet de Lautrec (d. 1528) and backed by some 8,000 Swiss and 10,000 Venetians, met the imperial forces—20,000 men (German, Spanish, and papal) led by a condottiere general named Prosper Colonna—at the decisive battle of Bicocca near Milan. Colonna had set up in a strong defensive position, and the Swiss troops, their pay in arrears and seeing the lay of the land, threatened to depart unless they got their back wages immediately. Instead, Lautrec wheedled them into one battle before they withdrew, thus giving himself little choice but to attack. Prudently planning to maximize the use of his

artillery, Lautrec could not control the impatient Swiss, who attacked without orders before he could get his guns into position. They were caught short at the Hapsburg entrenchments and cut to shreds by the Spanish harquebusiers: in half an hour, 3,000 Swiss lay dead and the charge had been repulsed. French heavy cavalry tried a diversionary strike, but the horsemen too were driven off. Lautrec retreated into Venetian territory, while the Allies celebrated a victory that cost them only a few hundred men.

The battle struck a massive blow at Swiss morale and was one of the earliest demonstrations of the effectiveness of gunpowder small arms. Although Italy was the main battleground for the war, some of the combat occurred in Navarre, in northern Spain, where back in 1521 an invading French army had lost to the Spaniards near Pamplona and was driven out. Also, in 1522 and 1523, the English, based in Calais, first under the earl of Surrey and then the duke of Suffolk, launched raids into Picardy. By 1523, the Venetians had had enough, and sued for peace, forcing the remnants of the French army to withdraw from Italy entirely back into France. There, they planned to invade Italy again, but were stymied when the treasonous Prince Charles of Bourbon (1490–1527), constable of France, fled to Germany to join Charles V.

In 1524, Francis did indeed launch another invasion of Italy to regain lost territory. At the Battle of Pavia on February 24, 1525, an Italian-Spanish-German army defeated the French in a two-hour pitched battle that could easily have gone the other way. Instead, Francis was captured and imprisoned in Madrid, where he signed a treaty giving up all his claims in Italy and surrendering Burgundy, Artois, and Flanders to Charles V. Despite the defeats here and in most of the future Hapsburg-Valois wars (*see* ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CARLES V AND FRANCIS I, SECOND; ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V AND FRANCIS I, THIRD; ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V AND FRANCIS I, FOURTH), the constant adversity France faced in these struggles helped to temper and hone the French national spirit, which had in effect been created by Joan of Arc (1421–31) during the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR. The surprise was not that the French lost, but that they came so close to winning so often.

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); William Peter Blockmans, *Emperor Charles V, 1500–1558,* trans. Isola van den Hoven-Varden (London: Arnold, 2002); Francis Hackett, *Francis the First* (New York: Greenwood Press, 1968); Julius Kirshner, ed., *The Origins of State in Italy, 1300–1600* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1996); Robert Jean Knecht, *Francis I* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Second (1526–1530)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The League of Cognac (France, Milan, Venice, Florence, and the papacy) led by Francis I vs. Spanish and German mercenaries in the hire of Charles V.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: Francis I repudiated the Treaty of Madrid on May 22, 1526.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When the pope, alarmed by the Hapsburgs' growing power, joined Francis I in the League of Cognac, Holy Roman Emperor Charles V sent troops into Italy to destroy the new alliance.
OUTCOME: A draw in which Francis I and Charles V returned to the status quo, while most of the Italian city-states fell under the control of the Spanish Hapsburgs.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In the sack of Rome, German and Spanish mercenaries, 22,000. At Naples, League of Cognac forces, 25,000
CASUALTIES: In the sack of Rome, 4,000 civilians killed. During the League's retreat from Naples, 18,000 killed.
TREATIES: Treaty of Cambrai and Treaty of Barcelona, both in 1529

On May 22, 1526, France repudiated the Treaty of Madrid, which had ended the First ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V AND FRANCIS I, because the French king Francis I (1494–1547) claimed he had been forced to sign it under duress (he was a captive of the Holy Roman Empire at the time). That same year, Pope Clement VII (1478–1534), alarmed by the increasing power of the Hapsburgs as a result of the recent war, withdrew papal support from Emperor Charles V (1500–58) and formed the League of Cognac with Francis. Also joining the league were Francesco Maria Sforza (1495–1535), an erstwhile ally whom Charles V had made ruler of Milan after ousting the French, and the rulers of Venice and Florence. Spanish and German mercenaries, led by the French turncoat Charles of Bourbon (1490–1527), then invaded Italy in 1526 to oppose the league.

The defending French forces and their allies had the worst of a war of attrition, and the Hapsburg mercenaries sacked Rome in early May 1527. When their leader, Charles of Bourbon, constable of France, was killed, the hired soldiers, starving and unpaid, committed horrible atrocities in the city, briefly imprisoning the pope himself. In 1528, a revolt in Genoa, led by Andrea Doria (1466–1560), cost the French their most important base in Italy, and a French army was decisively defeated at the Battle of Landriano. Despite a late rally led by the Vicomte Odet de Foix Lautrec (d. 1528), the disastrous defeats and Genoa's alliance with Charles V made the French anxious for peace. In 1529, Francis I and Charles V signed the

Treaty of Cambrai, known as the "Ladies' Peace" because it was reached through the efforts of Charles's aunt, Margaret of Austria (1480–1530), and Francis's mother, Louise of Saray (1476–1531). Charles, as it turned out, was as anxious to sign as Francis, due to a growing threat from the Turks at his rear. The treaty restored the status quo, with Francis agreeing to pay a nominal indemnity and again renouncing his claims in Italy, whereas Charles withdrew his claim to Burgundy under the Treaty of Madrid.

As for the pope, Clement realized his long-term interest lay with Hapsburg Spain, and he signed the Treaty of Barcelona in 1529 in return for imperial help from Charles in fighting the still rebellious Florentine republic. Though suddenly abandoned by France in the unexpected "Ladies' Peace," Florence was led by an able soldier, Francesco Ferruccio (1489–1530), who continued to fight the empire's forces under Philibert de Chalon, prince of Orange (d. 1530). Both leaders were killed at the Battle of Gavinana on August 2, 1530, and on August 12, Florence surrendered. As a result Alessandro de' Medici (1510–37) became duke, and the independent Italian states—except for Milan and Genoa—came under Spanish control. Pope Clement crowned Charles king of Lombardy in 1530. Meanwhile, Francis was reorganizing his army. He established infantry legions, standing units of 6,000 mixed pikemen and harquebusiers, of Picardy, Languedoc, Normandy, and Champagne—clearly preparing for the next war.

See also Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Third; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Fourth.

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); William Peter Blockmans, *Emperor Charles V, 1500–1558,* trans. Isola van de Hoven-Varden (London: Arnold, 2002); Francis Hackett, *Francis the First* (New York: Greenwood Press, 1968); Julius Kirshner, ed., *The Origins of State in Italy, 1300–1600* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1996); Robert Jean Knecht, *Francis I* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Third (1535–1538)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Charles V vs. Francis I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northwestern Italy and southeastern France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When Charles V made his son Philip duke of Milan, Francis I invaded Italy to retake the city-state but fell short of his goal, seizing only Turin; Charles responded by invading France.
OUTCOME: A truce was declared before any major engagements, reestablishing the status quo, except that France remained in control of Turin.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce of Nice, 1538

Under the Treaty of Cambrai, which ended the Second Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V (1500–58) was to take possession of Milan upon the death without issue of its ruler, Duke Francesco Maria Sforza (1495–1535). When the duke died in 1535, Charles made his son Philip (1527–98)—later King Philip II of Spain—the duke. Seeking to regain at least some control of Italy, a large French army unexpectedly invaded and captured Turin but was unable to reach Milan. In response, Charles V attempted two counterattacks against Francis I (1494–1547), personally leading one through Provence and sending the other through Picardy. The northern invasion bogged down, but Charles continued his march through southeastern France, advancing as far as Aix. But when he discovered that Francis was ensconced at Avignon and ready to fight, the emperor suddenly declined the challenge and withdrew. A temporary peace was patched up under the Truce of Nice, intended to restore the status quo for 10 years, although the status quo now meant that Francis retained his toehold in northwest Italy.

See also Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, First; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Fourth.

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); Archdeacon William Coxe, *History of the House of Austria,* 3rd ed. 4 vols. (reprint, New York: Arno Press, 1971); Francis Hackett, *Francis the First* (New York: Greenwood Press, 1968); Robert Jean Knecht, *Francis I* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Fourth (1542–1544)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Charles V, emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, Henry VIII, king of England vs. Francis I, king of France, Süleyman the Magnificent, sultan of the Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy and much of France
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After Francis I, seeking to take advantage of Charles V's troubles with the Turks, allied with Ottoman Sultan Süleyman and attacked Nice, Charles joined Henry VII to invade France.
OUTCOME: After an inconclusive French victory at Ceresole and a poorly coordinated dual invasion by the Germans and the English, Charles and Francis signed a peace returning to the status quo ante bellum.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: imperial forces, 59,000; France, 45,000
CASUALTIES: At Ceresole, imperial forces, 6,000 killed, 3,200 wounded; France, 2,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Peace of Crépy, September 18, 1544

To the horror of many French and the astonishment of others throughout Europe, Francis I (1494–1547) took advantage of a number of setbacks for the Holy Roman Empire to ally himself with Charles V's (1500–58) enemy, Süleyman I the Magnificent (c. 1496–1566), sultan of the Ottoman Turks. For the first two years, the fighting—centered mostly in northern Italy and Roussillon—was inconclusive. A joint Franco-Turkish fleet under Ottoman admiral Khair el-Din sailed on Nice, bombarding, besieging, and sacking the imperial port in 1543. In September Charles invaded Picardy and besieged Landrecies in northern France. Francis approached with a large army the following month, and—after some futile maneuvering—both sides retired to winter quarters. Meanwhile, Charles had colluded with Henry VIII (1491–1547) of England to advance from Calais while Imperial forces invaded through Lorraine and Champagne (*see* Anglo-French War [1542–1546]).

At Ceresole, south of Turin, the 20,000-strong imperial forces under the Spanish Marqués del Vasto met 15,000 French, Swiss, and Italian troops under Francis of Bourbon on April 14, 1544. After a prolonged harquebus skirmish and a long-range artillery duel, both infantries became locked in a sanguinary battle. The 7,000 imperial *landsknechts* (German mercenary soldiers) were almost completely destroyed by the combined efforts of the Swiss infantry and the French cavalry. At the same time, the French infantry was being overwhelmed by hardened Spanish and German veterans before Bourbon saved the day with an enveloping cavalry charge. In the less-than-complete French victory at the Battle of Ceresole, del Vasto was forced to retreat after losing more than 6,000 dead and 3,200 wounded, compared to French losses of some 2,000. The battle reaffirmed the lessons being learned in the Hapsburg-Valois conflicts: the infantry of the time—whether harquebusiers, landsknechts, or pikemen—could repulse any cavalry attack. But if an army deployed its cavalry against the flank of an enemy infantry already doing battle with its own infantry, the maneuver was likely to be decisive.

In general, because the English and imperial advances were slow and not well coordinated, the French could mass their forces and stop them. In May and August of 1544, for example, Charles's invasion of eastern France was delayed by the gallant defense at St. Dizier, which gave Francis time to recall his troops from Italy and reinforce them at home in defense of Paris. Thus, the imperial army halted after seizing Épernay, Château-Thierry, Soissons, and Meaux. Meanwhile, Henry's 40,000-man English army, including many foreign mercenaries, made a leisurely crossing to Calais in July, giving Francis more than adequate warning. Though Henry managed to capture Boulogne, he made no attempt to coordinate with Charles's Germans.

A discouraged Charles was more than eager to accept Francis's offers of peace, which left the English suddenly without allies. Henry returned home, leaving a garrison in Boulogne. The Peace of Crépy on September 18 reaffirmed the status quo. The French retained northwest Italy, but for the third time, Francis gave up all claims to Naples.

See also Hapsburg-Valois War; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, First; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Second; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Third.

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); William Peter Blockmans, *Emperor Charles V, 1500–1558,* trans. Isola van den Hoven-Varden (London: Arnold, 2002); Francis Hackett, *Francis the First* (New York: Greenwood Press, 1968); Julius Kirshner, ed., *The Origins of State in Italy, 1300–1600* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1996); Robert Jean Knecht, *Francis I* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Italian War of Charles VIII (1494–1495)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Naples and the papal League of Venice
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Charles VIII wanted to annex Naples as an Angevin possession.
OUTCOME: Pope Alexander VI's League of Venice defeated Charles, foiling his plan for annexation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 25,000
CASUALTIES: At Fornovo, France, 400 killed or wounded; League of Venice, 3,350 killed
TREATIES: None

In the last decade of the 15th century, Lodovico ("the Moor") Sforza (1451–1508) usurped the duchy of Milan from his nephew, Gian Galeazzo (1469–1494), whom Lodovico had served as regent, setting in motion events that would soon bring to an end the independence of the Italians until the 19th century.

Years before Lodovico laid claim to Milan, the legitimate heir had married the granddaughter of Ferrante of Naples (1458–94), Isabella of Aragon, who in 1490 gave birth to a son. Thus, the direct interest of Naples in the disposition of the Milanese duchy left the new duke feeling vulnerable. As a result Sforza—ignoring the larger interests of Italy—invited the French king, Charles VIII (1470–98), to press his Angevin claim to Naples.

Charles was interested in the offer for reasons beyond the outstanding claims he had against both Naples and Milan—the latter of which both rulers chose conveniently to ignore. He apparently accepted the medieval notion that it was France's mission to save Italy from its own corruption and purify Rome. From this renewed Italy, he dreamed of leading a crusade against the Turks. Accordingly, a French army augmented by Swiss mercenary troops and heavy artillery invaded Italy by way of the Alps in 1494.

The army toppled Pietro de' Medici (1471–1503) in Florence, replacing his autocratic rule with a constitutional republic sponsored by the popular leader Girolamo Savonarola (1452–98), a powerful demagogue who preached hellfire and damnation as a result of God's wrath against Italy, and thus the need for not only repentance but also democratic reforms. Savonarola had strongly denounced Pope Alexander VI (1492–1503) and called for the intervention of a foreign scourge of God to invade and chastise Italy and open a new age of righteousness.

Not surprisingly, the pope soon became one of Savonarola's direst enemies. Nor is it surprising that he formed the League of Venice to oppose Charles, who was also plagued by disease among his troops as well as military reversals. He broke off his conquest of Naples and returned to France in 1495, barely escaping annihilation at the Battle of Fornovo (Taro) on July 6. Following Charles's withdrawal, the pope awarded King Ferdinand II (1452–1516) of Aragon governance of Naples.

From Charles's point of view, the war was costly and utterly futile. To the rest of Europe, however, it revealed just how vulnerable Italy was. The fragmented states refused to unite, even to defend the common good. It was a lesson that later French rulers headed well, and the independence of the Italian states was doomed.

See also ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V AND FRANCIS I, FIRST; NEAPOLITAN REVOLT (1485–1486).

Further reading: David Abulafia, *The French Descent into Renaissance Italy, 1494–1495: Antecedents and Effects* (Brookfield, Vt.: Ashgate Publishing, 1995); Gene A. Bruckner, *Florence, the Golden Age, 1138–1737* (Berkeley: University of California Press, c. 1998).

Italian War of Independence (1848–1849)

See ITALIAN REVOLUTION.

Italian War of Independence (1859–1861)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Italian nationalists (mainly Piedmontese) with French allies vs. Austria and the Austrian-controlled Kingdom of the Two Sicilies
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: Austria against Piedmont, April 1859
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Piedmont sought to unite Italy under a single ruler, independent of Austria.
OUTCOME: Union and independence were achieved, except for Rome and Venetia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the biggest battle, Solferino: Franco-Piedmontese, 100,000; Austrian, 100,000
CASUALTIES: At Solferino: Franco-Piedmontese, 20,000 killed, wounded, and missing; Austrian losses were comparable
TREATIES: Peace of Zurich (France and Austria), 1859

Camillo Cavour (1810–61) had been a young Piedmontese politician who supported the ITALIAN REVOLUTION (1848–49). After the revolution, he became known as a moderate. Seeking to solve the problems of the Piedmont (a part of the Kingdom of Sardinia) and of Italy as a whole not so much by revolution as through international politics, he had by 1857 established a new monarchist-unionist party, the Italian National Society (Società Nazionale Italiana). Boasting revolutionary firebrands Daniele Manin (1804–57) and Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807–82) as president and vice president, respectively, the party appealed to the radicals although it was controlled by the more cautious Count Cavour, who as Piedmont's prime minister struck an alliance on December 10, 1858, with Napoleon III (1808–73) of France specifically designed to expel Austria from the region. The arrangement with Napoleon called for the French to intervene should the Piedmont be invaded by Austria, which—as Cavour hoped—did indeed provoke just such an invasion. Austria declared war on the Piedmont in April 1859.

Austrian forces of some 50,000 men were met by a Franco-Piedmontese army and defeated at the Battle of Magenta on June 4. In chaotic combat, the losses to both sides were heavy, but the French-Piedmontese alliance pushed the Austrians back. For his victory, the French marshal Comte Marie-Edmé-Patrice de MacMahon (1808–93) was named duke of Magenta.

Following its defeat at Magenta, the Austrian army withdrew east across Lombardy, taking up a position at Solferino, five miles before the Mincio River. Here, the 100,000-man force was deployed in entrenchments on a series of hills, and Austrian emperor Franz Josef (1830–1916) arrived to assume personal command. The Franco-Piedmontese army, now also numbering about 100,000, had pursued the Austrians from Magenta. On June 24, 1859, these forces prepared to attack—led, like the Austrians, by the monarchs themselves, Napoleon III of France and Victor Emmanuel II (1820–78) of Piedmont, although field command was actually handled by the French generals.

The allies concentrated on the Austrian center, smashing through it after a full day of combat. Franz Josef ordered his troops to withdraw across the Mincio, having lost 20,000 killed, wounded, and missing. Losses among the Franco-Piedmontese forces were comparable, prompting Louis Napoleon to conclude a separate peace—the Treaty of Zurich—with Austria, which left the Piedmontese in the lurch. Austria ceded Lombardy to France, which, by way of compensating its ally, allowed Piedmont to annex it. France received Nice and Savoy. Austria retained Venetia, dominated by Venice.

Despite the loss of the French alliance, the Italians continued the fight. On April 15, 1860, Cavour held a plebiscite, by which Modena, Parma, Romagna, and Tuscany united with Piedmont. In this way, the Kingdom of Sardinia, of which Piedmont was a part, became the Kingdom of Italy—a union of most of northern and central Italy.

Italian democrats, however, refused to concede that the national revolution was complete—not with so many states in Italy still under the control of their old, traditional sovereigns. Sicily, where revolutionary opposition to the Bourbon government was endemic, ranked high on the radicals' list for democratic revival. Though a popular insurrection in Palermo in April 1860 had been quickly suppressed, revolutionaries had spread underground throughout the island's cities and countryside. In May 1860, Italian democrats from all over the peninsula—from Lombardy and Venetia, from all the old states—overcame the deep rifts that had divided them for a decade or more and, with the tacit approval of Cavour, lined up behind the great nationalist Giuseppe Garibaldi.

Garibaldi landed on May 11, 1861, with his "Thousand Red Shirts" at Marsala, Sicily, and led the Red Shirts and another 1,000 Sicilians against the Austrian puppet Francis II (1836–94), king of the Two Sicilies (Sicily and Naples), fighting the Neapolitan army at Calatafimi on May 15. After defeating Francis, the rebels took Palermo 12 days later. For his part, Cavour had not believed Garibaldi would succeed in the south. Now that he had, Cavour took steps to annex the Two Sicilies to the Kingdom of Italy. Garibaldi did not trust Cavour and quickly seized Naples, only to be checked by the Bourbon army at the Liri River.

Cavour now invaded the Papal States, taking Umbria and the Marches after defeating papal forces at Castelfidardo on September 18, 1860. From this victory, he advanced to Naples, hoping that Garibaldi would relinquish his territory to him. Garibaldi did so after plebiscites indicated a popular desire to join the Kingdom of Italy. He bowed out, retiring to Caprera.

In February 1861, a provisional government was formed, which declared Victor Emmanuel II king of Italy, under a constitution. Venetia (occupied by Austria) and Rome (occupied by France) remained outside the new Kingdom of Italy. Upon Cavour's death later in 1861, Garibaldi emerged from retirement to lead an assault on Rome, but was now checked by the new Italian government, which was loath to precipitate a crisis with France. The war of independence was over, but Garibaldi did battle with government forces and was wounded at the Battle of Aspromonte on August 29, 1862. His forces defeated, he was captured and imprisoned, but subsequently pardoned.

See also "Five Days" Revolt; Italian Revolution.

Further reading: Arnold Blumberg, *A Carefully Planned Accident: The Italian War of 1859* (Cranbury, N.J.: Associated University Presses, 1990); Denis Mack Smith, *Cavour and Garibaldi, 1860: A Study in Political Conflict* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1985).

Italian War of Louis XII (1499–1504)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (with Venetian, Swiss, and Aragonese allies) vs. Lodovico Sforza, duke of Milan; subsequently, France vs. Aragon
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Milan and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France wanted control of Milan and, subsequently, Sicily and Naples.
OUTCOME: Milan and Genoa fell to France, the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies to Aragon.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France and allies, 22,000; Milan and Aragon, 15,000
CASUALTIES: French losses, 3,000–4,000 killed; other losses unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Granada, 1500; Treaty of Blois, 1504

When Louis XII (1462–1515) succeeded Charles VIII (1470–98) as king of France in 1498, he determined to conclude an alliance with Venice and the Swiss to help him press his claim to the throne of Milan, which he had inherited from his grandmother Valentina Visconti (1366–1408). The duke of Milan, Lodovico Sforza

(1451–1508), quickly fled Milan to assemble an army of Swiss mercenaries to resist the French and their allies. But when he returned to the city, he found it occupied by Gian Giacomo Trivulzio (c. 1441–1518), condottiere (mercenary) in service to France. When Sforza's mercenaries confronted the condottiere at Novara in 1500, the Swiss refused to fight the other mercenary force, and Louis XII won virtually by default, becoming duke of Milan. Sforza was made a prisoner and taken to France.

After this victory, Louis, allied with Ferdinand II Ferdinand II (Ferdinand the Catholic; 1452–1516), king of Aragon, conquered Naples in 1501. Following this victory, Louis and Ferdinand quarreled. In 1500, the two had agreed by the Treaty of Granada that the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (that is, Sicily and Naples) would be divided, which canceled Aragon's claim on the kingdom. After the joint victory, however, Ferdinand insisted on French recognition of the Two Sicilies under the Spanish Crown. Now Louis fought his Aragonese ally at the Battle of Cerignola on April 28, 1503. The French (and their Swiss mercenaries) were defeated largely by Spanish harquebusiers—musketeers—who, under the leadership of Gonzalo de Cordoba (1453–1515), known as the "Great Captain," cut down the enemy's swordsmen. The rout was so swift and thorough that Louis's artillery was captured before it could even be put into action. As many as 4,000 French troops died. Naples was abandoned to Aragon on May 13 as the French retreated. Louis signed the Treaty of Blois on September 22, 1504, by which he acknowledged Spanish rule of the Two Sicilies. Genoa and Milan, however, came under French control.

See also ITALIAN WAR OF CHARLES VIII; ITALIAN WARS BETWEEN CHARLES V AND FRANCIS I.

Further reading: Christopher Duggan, A *Concise History of Italy* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994); Geoffrey Trease, *The Condottieri, Soldiers of Fortune* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971).

Italo-Ethiopian War (1887–1889)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Italy vs. Eritrea and Ethiopia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eritrea
DECLARATION: Italy on Emperor Yohannes IV of Ethiopia, 1887
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Italy wanted to acquire control of Ethiopia and Eritrea.
OUTCOME: Italy believed it had acquired a protectorate over Ethiopia, a conclusion disputed by Emperor Menelik II, Yohannes's successor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Italy, 20,000; Ethiopian and Eritrean forces, variable
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Dogali, Italian losses were 500 killed; most other losses were the result of disease.
TREATIES: Treaty of Uccialli, May 2, 1889

Italy acquired a colonial foothold in Africa by establishing a colony at Assaf on the Eritrean coast in 1882. Massawa, also part of Eritrea, was added in 1885. Wanting to expand their African holdings, the Italians marched inland in 1887, seeking a foothold in Ethiopia. From their bases in Assaf and Massawa, Italy reached an agreement with the leader of the Shewa (who would go on to become the Ethiopian emperor Menelik II [1844–1913]) allowing penetration into the Eritrean interior. The advance, however, was opposed by Ethiopian forces under Emperor Yohannes IV (1831–89), who defeated the Italians at the brutal Battle of Dogali on January 26, 1887, killing 500 Italians. In response to this defeat, Italy invaded Eritrea with 20,000 men, who were established in garrisons. However, this proved an even greater disaster. Yohannes generally avoided battle with the Italians, instead allowing diseases endemic in the region to take their toll among the Italian troops. He understood that, confined to close quarters in garrisons, Europeans in Africa died like flies. The surviving Italian troops were recalled.

While the Italian garrison languished, Yohannes fought a Mahdist (messianic Muslim) invasion in the north and was killed at the Battle of Metemma on March 12, 1889. With the death of Yohannes, Menelik, the Shewa ally of the Italians, assumed the throne of Ethiopia and concluded the Treaty of Uccialli with Italy on May 2, 1889. The ambiguous wording of the document would give rise to the ITALO-ETHIOPIAN WAR (1895–1896): Italy interpreted the treaty as giving it a protectorate over Ethiopia, whereas Emperor Menelik II asserted Ethiopia's absolute sovereignty.

Further reading: Harold G. Marcus, *The Life and Times of Menelik II, Ethiopia, 1844–1913* (Lawrenceville, N.J.: Red Sea Press, 1995).

Italo-Ethiopian War (1895–1896)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Italy vs. Ethiopia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ethiopia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Italy wanted to enforce what it interpreted as its right to a protectorate over Ethiopia.
OUTCOME: Ethiopia decisively defeated Italy, which relinquished all claims except in Eritrea.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Italy, 20,000; Ethiopia, 80,000
CASUALTIES: Italian losses at the decisive Battle of Adwa were 6,500 killed and 2,500 taken prisoner
TREATIES: Treaty of Addis Ababa, October 26, 1896

This war flowed from a disputed reading of the Treaty of Uccialli, May 2, 1889, which was concluded at the end of

the ITALO-ETHIOPIAN WAR of 1887–89. Italy interpreted the treaty as awarding it a protectorate over Ethiopia, an interpretation rejected by Ethiopia's Emperor Menelik II (1844–1913), who asserted the absolute sovereignty of his victorious kingdom. With positions irreconcilable and Italians wanting to avenge their defeat in the earlier war, a force of 2,400 was deployed to invade the Ethiopian district of Tigre in 1895. Menelik responded with an army that defeated the Italians at the Battle of Menkele. This prompted Italy to send 20,000 men, who were met at the Battle of Adwa on March 1, 1896, by an Ethiopian force of 80,000. Approximately 6,500 Italians were killed and another 2,500 made prisoner. Following this humiliating defeat, Italy concluded the Treaty of Addis Ababa on October 26, 1896, by which Italy recognized Ethiopian independence but held the coastal colony of Eritrea. Subsequently, in 1900, Italy agreed to further reductions in its Eritrean holdings. The humiliations of 1896 and 1900 simmered among Italian imperialists for decades, motivating Benito Mussolini (1883–1945) to embark on the ITALO-ETHIOPIAN WAR (1935–1936).

Further reading: Harold G. Marcus, *The Life and Times of Menelik II, Ethiopia, 1844–1913* (Lawrenceville, N.J.: Red Sea Press, 1995).

Italo-Ethiopian War (1935–1936)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Italy vs. Ethiopia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ethiopia
DECLARATION: Italy invaded without declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Italy wanted to annex Ethiopia, partly to avenge its humiliation in the Italo-Ethiopian War of 1895–1896.
OUTCOME: Ethiopia was ravaged and annexed to Italy's other African holdings.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Italian, 500,000; Ethiopian, 350,000 (but only one-quarter of these with any military training)
CASUALTIES: Italy: 4,359 killed (2,323 italians, 1,086 Eritreans, 507 Somalis, 453 Italian workingmen); Ethiopia: estimates reach 275,000 military and civilian dead (many from mass bombings and mustard gas attacks)
TREATIES: Formal annexation, 1936

Benito Mussolini (1883–1945), made dictator of Italy in 1922, sought to restore Italy to its ancient glory as the Roman Empire. More specifically, he wanted to avenge the humiliating loss of Ethiopia in the ITALO-ETHIOPIAN WAR (1895–1896). Through the manipulation of previous treaty documents, most notoriously the Treaty of Addis Ababa (October 26, 1896), Mussolini persuaded the League of Nations to recommend partition of Ethiopia by the Hoare-Laval Plan, which would have delivered most of the country into Italian hands. The North African nation indignantly rejected this fraud, and, in December 1934, Italian and Ethiopian forces clashed at the Battle of Ualual in a disputed region of the border between Ethiopia and Italian Somaliland. Although Ethiopian emperor Haile Selassie I (1891–1975) wanted to avoid war with Italy and pulled his troops back 20 miles from the Eritrean border, Mussolini seized on the incident as a pretext for launching an invasion of Ethiopia on October 3, 1935. He did so without declaring war.

The invasion was led by Generals Rodolfo Graziani (1882–1955) and Pietro Badoglio (1871–1956), and brought to bear large forces with modern weapons, including intensive use of assault aircraft. The Ethiopians were poorly equipped and essentially defenseless against a modern army. The major Italian breakthrough came at the Battle of Lake Ashanga on April 9, 1936, which was followed by the fall of Addis Ababa, the Ethiopian capital, on May 5. Emperor Haile Selassie had fled on May 2 and, with great and moving dignity, appealed to the League of Nations for intervention. Italian forces executed the archbishop of the Ethiopian Coptic Church, murdered Coptic monks, and sacked Addis Ababa. But the emperor's pleas were in vain. Mussolini arranged it so that Italy's King Victor Emmanuel III (1869–1947) was now designated "emperor of Ethiopia," which was formally united with Eritrea and Italian Somaliland to form Italian East Africa.

Italy was destined to lose its Italian empire early in WORLD WAR II, when Ethiopia was liberated by British, Free French, and Ethiopian troops, and Haile Selassie was restored to power on May 5, 1941.

See also ITALO-TURKISH WAR (1911–1912).

Further reading: S. K. B. Asante, *Pan-African Protest: West Africa and the Italo-Ethiopian Crisis, 1934–1941* (London: Longman, 1977); Thomas M. Coffey, *Lion by the Tail: The Story of the Italian-Ethiopian War* (New York: Viking Press, 1974).

Italo-Turkish War (1911–1912)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Italy vs. Turkey
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Libya, Rhodes, and the Dodecanese Islands
DECLARATION: Italy against Turkey, September 29, 1911
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Italy wanted to establish a North African empire.
OUTCOME: Turkey ceded Libya, Rhodes, and the Dodecanese to Italy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Italy, 50,000; Turkey, far fewer, including native Arab troops
CASUALTIES: Italy, 4,000 killed, 6,000 wounded, 2,000 died from disease; Turkey, 14,000 killed or died from disease
TREATIES: Treaty of Ouchy, October 17, 1912

At the end of the 19th century, Italy felt itself woefully behind other nations in acquiring colonial holdings. With the Ottoman Empire crumbling, Italy targeted the Turkish provinces of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica (eastern Libya) in North Africa as prizes ripe for the picking. Italy began by sending merchants and immigrants into the region during the 1880s. By 1911, these areas had accumulated a substantial population of Italian nationals, and on September 28, 1911, the Italian government, claiming that its nationals were being abused, presented the Sublime Porte (the Ottoman government) with a 24-hour ultimatum, threatening immediate invasion. Receiving no satisfactory reply, Italy declared war and invaded North Africa the next day with 50,000 troops. Caught by surprise, the Turks could do little as Italian forces bombarded Tripoli with 10 battleships and cruisers for two days. A landing force occupied Tripoli on October 5, encountering little resistance.

Having declared itself neutral, Egypt refused passage to Ottoman troops, so that Turkey had to enlist the aid of Arabs, who occupied coastal regions and brought the war to a standstill in November 1911. Italy sought to break the stalemate with the naval bombardment of Beirut and Smyrna, then followed this by occupying Rhodes, Jos, and other islands of the Dodecanese. Italian vessels bombarded Turkish fortifications protecting the Dardanelles, which forced the closure of the straits. The toughest battle the Italians faced in Libya was not against the Turks, however, but against pro-Turkish Senussi tribal warriors, who made a fierce attack on Tripoli during October 23–26, 1911, in an attempt to retake the Libyan capital. The Italian defenders lost 382 killed and 1,158 wounded in repulsing the attack. The tribesmen lost about 1,000 killed and wounded, but were forced to withdraw.

If the Italians faced fierce "primitive" opposition, they themselves employed some very modern weapons. In addition to naval bombardment, the Italians introduced into the land war the first armored fighting vehicle. The Bianchi, a wheeled armored car, fought in Libya in 1912 with good results. The Bianchi heralded the use of armored cars and tracked vehicles—tanks—in WORLD WAR I.

Despite the Senussi resistance, the Ottoman forces were simply overwhelmed. Moreover, the Sublime Porte was reeling in the aftershock of the recently concluded YOUNG TURKS' REVOLT from 1908 to 1909. Therefore, the Ottoman government concluded the Treaty of Ouchy on October 17, 1912, by which the Turks ceded Libya, Rhodes, and the Dodecanese to Italy.

See also ITALO-ETHIOPIAN WAR (1895–1896); ITALO-ETHIOPIAN WAR (1935–1936).

Further reading: Denis Mack Smith, *Italy, a Modern History* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1969); Rachel Simon, *Libya between Ottomanism and Nationalism: The Ottoman Involvement in Libya during the War with Italy 1911–1919* (Berlin: K. Schwarz, 1987).

J

Jacobite Rebellion (1689–1690)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scottish government forces (favoring William and Mary) vs. Jacobite rebels (favoring the restoration of James II)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scottish Highlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Jacobites sought to restore James II to the English throne, which was occupied by William and Mary.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Scottish government, 4,000; Jacobites, a lesser number
CASUALTIES: At Killiecrankie Pass, 2,000 government troops died in the single greatest loss of the war; throughout the rest of the war, losses among the Jacobites were heavy.
TREATIES: None

In 1688, the British Parliament invited William of Orange (1650–1702) to come from Holland and replace James II (1633–1701) as king of England. He did so in the GLORIOUS REVOLUTION of 1688, but a body of Tories and Stuarts rejected William and Mary II (1662–94) and were determined to restore James II to the throne. These Jacobites staged a rebellion in the Scottish Highlands, although James himself was off elsewhere, leading an army in the IRISH WAR (1689–91). Throughout most of Scotland, William and Mary had been accepted as Britain's new monarchs, and Scots authorities sent troops to suppress the Jacobites. At Killiecrankie Pass, in the Grampian Mountains, on July 27, 1689, 4,000 government troops under General Hugh Mackay (c. 1640–92) were ambushed by a smaller Jacobite force led by John Graham (c. 1649–89), viscount Dundee. Dundee's swift surprise attack killed half of Mackay's men, but the brilliant Dundee fell in the attack, rendering this a Pyrrhic victory because, leaderless, the Jacobites dispersed.

The Jacobites reformed and attacked at Dunkeld but were this time severely beaten and retreated into the hills. In 1690, the Battle of Cromdale also proved disastrous to the Jacobites. In the meantime, on July 1, James's forces were decisively defeated in Ireland at the Battle of the Boyne, and James fled to France, where he died in 1701 without again attempting to retake the English throne. Although William's forces had prevailed in Scotland, the new monarchs were never able to win the full loyalty of the Highlanders.

See also GRAND ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE; JACOBITE REBELLION (1715–1716).

Further reading: Leo Gooch, *The Desperate Faction?: The Jacobites of North-East England, 1688–1745* (Hull, England: University of Hull Press, 1995); Bruce Lenman, *The Jacobite Risings in Britain, 1689–1746* (London: Scottish Cultural Press, 1995.

Jacobite Rebellion (1715–1716)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Jacobites (supporters of James Edward, the Old Pretender) vs. British supporters of King George I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland and northern England
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dissatisfied with Hanoverian rule in Britain and the Union of England and Scotland, the Jacobites rallied to the cause of James Edward, the Old Pretender, seeking his elevation to the English throne as James III.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed, its leaders executed or exiled.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Combined Scots and English Jacobite force, 12,000; government forces were larger
CASUALTIES: At Preston, rebels, 42; loyalists, 276. At Sheriffmuir, rebels, 150; loyalists 490. Overall estimate of fatalities, 3,000.
TREATIES: None

Popularly called "The Fifteen," this revival of the effort to restore the Stuarts to the throne of England (*see* JACOBITE REBELLION [1689–1690]) began in response to the plea of James II's (1633–1701) son James Edward (known as the "Old Pretender"; 1688–1766) for a clan uprising in Scotland a year after George I (1660–1727), the first of the House of Hanover to rule Great Britain, arrived in London. The Jacobites, who had unsuccessfully opposed the Union of Scotland and England in 1707 and then lost a vote to repeal the union in 1713, answered James Edward's call. John Erskine (1675–1732), the earl of Mar, proclaimed James Edward James III of England and James VIII of Scotland, and denounced the union. Some 18 Scottish lords rallied behind the Pretender's banner when it was raised by Mar, bringing with them 5,000 men. At that point government troops in Scotland numbered only about 1,500, so had Mar acted forcefully at the start of the rebellion it might have turned out differently. Instead, he marched on Perth, which his forces seized, but he did not continue on to Sterling, the next logical target. Instead he delayed as he waited for reinforcements. It was a blunder that gave the English time to rally and march north.

King George's government was also afforded the time to concentrate on the Jacobite threat in England proper. Parliament granted the new king the right to imprison anyone he suspected of conspiring against him, and beginning in September 1715, he did so with alacrity. The first arrest was an officer in the Guards, accused of enlisting men for the Stuart cause, but soon six members of Parliament were also rounded up, including Sir William Wyndham (1687–1740), suspected of plotting a revolt in the West Country.

Another MP, Thomas Forster (c. 1675–1738), did indeed lead a rising in the north along with James Radcliffe (1689–1716), third earl of Derwentwater. Together they marched about 2,000 men south hoping to hook up with Mar but were intercepted on November 14 and defeated by the government on November 15, 1715, at the battle of Preston. Meanwhile, Mar—with some 10,000 troops—had engaged 3,500 soldiers under General John Campbell (1678–1743), second duke of Argyll, at Sheriffmuir on November 13 in an indecisive battle whose outcome was nevertheless enough, along with the defeat at Preston, to herald the collapse of the Jacobite challenge.

By the time James himself reached Scotland in December, Mar's army had withered away even as Argyll's was reinforced, including the arrival of a Dutch contingent. James abandoned his lost cause, leaving England never to return, and taking with him back to France the earl of Mar. "The Fifteen" collapsed, and Derwentwater, along with 29 others, was executed in 1716. Other Jacobite leaders were deported, peerages were forfeited, and clans were disarmed.

See also JACOBITE REBELLION (1745–1746).

Further reading: Leo Gooch, *The Desperate Faction?: The Jacobites of North-East England, 1688–1745* (Hull, England: University of Hull Press, 1995); Bruce Lenman, *The Jacobite Risings in Britain, 1689–1746* (London: Scottish Cultural Press, 1995).

Jacobite Rebellion (1745–1746)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Jacobites (supporters of the Young Pretender, Charles Edward Stuart, "Bonnie Prince Charlie") vs. English government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scottish Highlands and northern England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Jacobites wanted to bring Charles Edward Stuart to the English throne.
OUTCOME: After scoring many victories against the English, the Jacobites were definitively crushed at the Battle of Culloden Moor, and the last Jacobite rebellion ended.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: English, 10,000; Jacobite, 8,000
CASUALTIES: At Culloden: English, 300 killed; Jacobite losses approached 8,000 at this battle
TREATIES: None

This renewal of Jacobite support for the restoration to the British throne of descendants of James II (1633–1701) (*see* JACOBITE REBELLION (1689–1690]) and JACOBITE REBELLION (1715–1716]) was popularly called "The Forty-Five." In 1745, Charles Edward Stuart (1720–88), son of the "Old Pretender," James Edward Stuart (1688–1766), and grandson of King James II, came to Scotland with just seven followers, but, when his father was again proclaimed by the Jacobites King James III, "Bonnie Prince Charlie" or the "Young Pretender" (as Charles Edward was dubbed) drew to him a large following from among the Scottish clans, about 2,000 men. He led them

skillfully, this last feudal army to be raised in Europe, capturing Perth, then defeating two regiments of the Hanoverian king's troops at Coltbridge. General Sir John Cope (d. 1760) marched north from Stirling with a 4,000-troop-strong British army to intercept the Scottish forces. When he found them entrenched and apparently impregnable along the Corrieyairack Pass, he turned for Inverness, giving Charles leave to proceed on to Edinburgh, where he took the town but not the castle. Meanwhile, Cope sailed from Inverness to the Firth of Forth, landing his army to engage the Jacobites at Prestonpans on September 21, 1745. Although outnumbered, the Highlanders charged into Cope's command and routed the government forces. The royalists lost 1,000 as prisoners, and hundreds were killed or wounded.

After the victory at Prestonpans, Bonnie Prince Charlie invaded Lancashire, England, with an army now some 5,500 strong, including elements of Scots and Irish regiments under French command. To avoid a superior force at Newcastle, which included some 6,000 Dutch soldiers, Charles turned south, capturing Carlisle and Manchester. From there he raided Derby on December 4.

With British forces confused and ill-deployed, nothing—no army, at least—now stood between the Pretender to the throne and the throne itself in London. The 4,000 regulars deployed in the city were quickly mobilized to protect its northern approach at Finchley, but on December 6 Charles and his advisers—having recruited fewer to their cause than they'd hoped and cognizant that hostile and superior forces were perhaps a day's march away—decided to retreat to Scotland, a decision whose soundness would be debated down through the ages.

In any case, Charles returned to Scotland, with English forces in pursuit. On January 17, 1746, at Falkirk, the Jacobite army, now numbering about 8,000 men, suddenly turned on its pursuers, whose numbers were approximately equal. The Jacobites charged, breaking the English line and inflicting heavy casualties: 600 killed, 700 captured. The English also lost their baggage and artillery. Losses to the Jacobites were about 150 killed and wounded.

From Falkirk, the Jacobites marched north to occupy Inverness. The English army was reorganized under King George II's (1683–1760) son the duke of Cumberland (1721–65) (William Augustus), who skillfully deployed his 10,000 men, with artillery, at Culloden Moor on April 16, 1746. Thus positioned, he allowed the Highlanders to do what had served them so well in the past—charge—only, this time, the English defenses were so well prepared that each charge proved costly to the Jacobites, reducing their already outnumbered forces. Finally, Cumberland's cavalry charged and swept all before them. The Scots ran, only to be cut down. Cumberland, determined to put an end to the rebellion, had ordered that no quarter be given, and thus even the wounded were slain. Most of the Jacobite force at Culloden was killed, whereas Cumberland—dubbed "the Butcher"—lost no more than 300 men. With this battle, "the Forty-Five" ended, but Bonnie Prince Charlie escaped. He hid in the Highlands until he eventually returned to France, where he died, a permanent exile.

Further reading: Jeremy Black, *Culloden and the '45* (Gloucester, England: Palgrave Macmillan, 1991); Leo Gooch, *The Desperate Faction?: The Jacobites of North-East England, 1688–1745* (Hull, England: University of Hull Press, 1995); Bruce Lenman, *The Jacobite Risings in Britain, 1689–1746* (London: Scottish Cultural Press, 1995); F. J. McLynn, *The Jacobite Army in England, 1745: The Final Campaign* (Atlantic Highlands, N.J.: Humanities Press, 1983); Stuart Reid, *1745: A Military History of the Last Jacobite Rising* (Staplehurst, Kent: Spellmount, 1996).

Jacquerie (1358)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French peasant groups vs. French nobility
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Countryside near Paris
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Oppressed during the Hundred Years' War, a large group of French peasants sought vengeance on their overlords.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quickly and cruelly crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Jacquerie was the name given to a French peasants' revolt, which took place during the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR. The name derives from the mocking sobriquet the French nobility bestowed upon the peasants, whom they sneeringly referred to as Jacques or Jacques Bonhommes, a common term of contempt during this period.

The Hundred Years' War was ruinous to many in Europe. But none suffered more than the French peasantry. They were beset by both the invading English soldiers and their own lords. Many lost their homes. Few could work their land, unless sentinels were present. Many retreated to caves and forests for shelter. The invaders robbed and raped or simply extorted money and food on pain of death. Turning to their own lords, the people were met with demands for crops and animals to pay ransoms, finance military actions, or recover losses incurred during the Black Death, which had become epidemic in the course of the war.

At last, on May 21, 1358, near Compiègne, north of Paris, peasants led by Guillaume Calé (d. 1358) rampaged throughout the countryside, putting castles to the torch and murdering whatever nobles they encountered. The

rebellion spread to Paris itself, then farmers joined urban rebels, who were led by Étienne Marcel (d. 1358). Whereas the peasants wanted revenge and justice, Marcel had a more focused political objective: the overthrow of King Charles V (1338–80).

Even with their forces combined, the revolt was short-lived. Charles II (1332–87) of Navarre, with others, organized an army against the peasants and the forces of Marcel. The Parisian rebels were defeated at Meaux by Gaston Phoebus of Foix (1331–91) and Jean III de Grailly (d. 1376–77) on June 9. Charles II himself defeated Calé at Clermont-en-Beavais the following day. Following these battles, Marcel was murdered, and Charles led a punitive expedition throughout the countryside, rounding up those identified as leaders, who were summarily executed or, indeed, slaughtered.

See also ENGLISH PEASANTS' REVOLT.

Further reading: Christopher Allmand, *The Hundred Years' War: England and France at War, c. 1300–1450* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1988); Anne Curry, *The Hundred Years' War,* 2nd ed. (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Robin Neillands, *The Hundred Years' War* (New York: Routledge, 2001); Jonathan Sumption, *The Hundred Years' War* (Boston: Faber and Faber, 1999); Nicholas Wright, *Knights and Peasants: The Hundred Years' War in the French Countryside* (Rochester, N.Y.: Boydell and Brewer, 2001).

Jamaica, Seizure of

See ANGLO-SPANISH WAR (1655–1659).

Jameson Raid (1895–1896)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: "Renegade" Englishman L. Starr Jameson and 500 adventurers vs. the Boer commandos from the Republic of South Africa (Transvaal).
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Transvaal south of Johannesburg.
DECLARATION: No formal declaration.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Jameson, under instructions from Cecil Rhodes, planned to spark an uprising among those the Boers considered outsiders in Johannesburg. The idea was "unofficially" to destabilize the Boer republic, thus requiring Great Britain to intervene, reestablish order, and add the Boer lands once again to the British Empire. The Boers sought not only to defeat Jameson and prevent the uprising, but to receive assurances from the British government that it respected their autonomy.
OUTCOME: Jameson was captured, turned over to Britain, tried, convicted, and given a slap on the wrist. Rhodes was removed as prime minister of the Cape Colony. Suspicion of British intentions grew among the Boers, paving the way for the Boer War three years later.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Jameson's force, 494; Boers, 2,000–3,000.
CASUALTIES: Jameson's forces, 17 dead, 55 wounded, 35 missing; Boers, negligible.
TREATIES: None

In 1886, five years after the Boers—descendants of early Dutch settlers in South Africa—had won autonomy from the British in the First BOER WAR, a huge gold deposit was discovered a few miles south of Johannesburg. Overnight, a city of tents sprang up, housing the largest concentration of white men in Africa—several thousand Britons, Americans, Germans, and Scandinavians, whom the Boers dubbed derisively *Uitlanders*—"outsiders" in Afrikaans, the dialect of Dutch spoken in South Africa. The area was called the Witwatersrand, the Rand for short, and it was fast becoming the greatest source of gold in the world, exceeding the combined production of the United States, Russia, and Australia. The Transvaal Republic's president, S. J. Paul Kruger (1825–1904) viewed the Uitlanders askance from his clean and manicured capital in Pretoria. They seemed to him a godless lot—lawless, violent, and dirty. To make sure the Boers remained in control of these men, whom Kruger publicly referred to as "thieves and murderers," he set up a five-year residency requirement for citizenship, then increased it to 14 years. The Boers discriminated against the miners, taxing them liberally, insisting their children attend Boer schools and learn to speak Afrikaans.

Talk of an armed uprising against the Boers began to spread, and in such talk, Cecil Rhodes's name always seemed to crop up.

Cecil John Rhodes (1853–1902) was the son of a stern vicar and a doting mother, the sixth of nine children, and he had come to Africa at age 20 in 1873 to help his brother grow cotton. He fell in love with the country when diamonds were discovered in the northern reaches of the Cape Colony, and he was lucky enough to stake a claim that made him rich. After buying himself an Oxford education, he had returned in 1881 to consolidate his mining interests and to fulfill his dream of establishing a federation of South African states within the British Empire. By 1890, his company, De Beers Consolidated Mines, Ltd., owned 90 percent of the world's production of diamonds, and he was prime minister of the Cape Colony. He was reported to have exclaimed one night, as he stared up at the African heavens, that he would annex the planets if he could. Now he was willing to settle for the Transvaal and the Orange Free State, the major obstacles to his plans for expanding the Cape Colony northward, creating a British federation of South African states, building a Cape Town-to-Cairo railway, and opening eastern Africa to Rhodesian colonizing.

The trouble was that one British prime minister, Benjamin Disraeli (1804–81), listening to the siren calls of imperialists like Rhodes, had already tried back in 1877 to annex the Boer lands and failed. Since the Treaty of Pretoria in 1881, the official position of the British government in London was that the Boer republic was independent in its internal affairs, though in matters of foreign policy it was supposed to seek approval of the Crown. Armed rebellion thus seemed the only decent alternative, and by 1895 Rhodes had launched a plot against the Transvaal government. He had seen to it that 4,000 rifles, three machine guns, and more than 200,000 rounds of ammunition had been smuggled into Johannesburg under loads of coal and in false-bottom oil tanks. In the spring, he entertained three Uitlander leaders on his wicker-bedecked veranda in Cape Town, conspiring against Kruger. British troops, of course, could not be used, at least officially, he told them, but he had recruited a private army to help out. It consisted of mercenaries who worked for the South Africa Company, of which he was chair, and he had already used them to good effect in Matabeleland. At their head would be a man he trusted, his best friend and factotum, Leander Starr Jameson (1853–1917)—known thereabouts as "Doctor Jim."

Later Jameson would claim that all the thinking and planning about Africa came from Rhodes. At Rhodes's request, he had taken on and defeated the Matabele, capturing their king, then treating him for gout. Now, in October 1895, he was gathering men at Mafeking on the western border of Transvaal, about 140 miles from Johannesburg, declaring that anyone could take the Transvaal from the arrogant and stuffy Boers with half a dozen revolvers. And *he* had 494 men—including a number of British officers "on leave" from the regular army—as well as six machine guns, and the three pieces of artillery. Two months Jameson waited for word from the Uitlanders to launch his raid, but they procrastinated and fretted over such questions as whether the uprising could succeed, what would be their future relationship to the Cape Colony, how London might respond to such an undertaking. At length, they fixed December 28, 1895, as the date, then postponed it at the last moment indefinitely. Jameson, always impatient, announced he was through waiting. The next night he led his little band on its fantastical dash into the Transvaal.

It was military madness, a four-day opéra-bouffe performance in which Jameson's raiders slowly fought their way against the Boers—who dropped their plows and picked up their rifles—to within 14 miles of Johannesburg. There, at Krugersberg, exhausted from four nights without sleep, his ranks thinned—17 dead, 55 wounded, 35 missing—by hard-bitten, straight-shooting Boer commandos, surrounded, outnumbered nearly six to one, Jameson raised a white flag and let his men be rounded up like cattle. The Uitlander leaders in Johannesburg never showed their faces, and the half-baked uprising failed without ever starting. The Boers turned Jameson and those left of his men over to the Cape government on the Natal border. From there, the whole bunch was shipped off to England for trial.

The British government immediately repudiated the raid and the colonial secretary promised to bring Jameson and five of his officers into the dock of the Old Bailey to answer charges they had infringed on the Foreign Enlistment Act. In the months before the trial, the defendants remained free, however, and Jameson became a celebrity. Margot Tennant, who would one day marry future Liberal prime minister H. H. Asquith, confessed that "Doctor Jim had personal magnetism and could do what he liked with my sex." Even during the nine-day trial in July 1896, Jameson remained the toast of the town. The lord chief justice had to suppress pro-Jameson demonstrations in the courtroom, and the *Times* of London mused that Doctor Jim's only real crime was an "excess of zeal." Nevertheless, he was convicted and sentenced to 15 months in a comfortable jail. His officers served less time and were stripped of their regular army commissions. Cecil Rhodes was forced to step down as the Cape Colony's prime minister because of the controversy. Jameson grew despondent and fell ill, whereupon Queen Victoria (1819–1901) pardoned him and sent him home. He had served four months of his sentence. Within a decade, the good doctor was himself prime minister of the Cape Colony. In 1911, King George V (1865–1936) made him a baronet. In 1912, Sir Leander Starr Jameson left Africa for good and settled in England.

Meanwhile, the Boers recognized a mere slap on the wrist when they saw one. Kruger and his minions, never the most trusting of men, felt utterly betrayed by the British. The ill will from Jameson's raid paved the way to open warfare between England and the Boers of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

See also BOER WAR, SECOND.

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Janissaries' Revolt (1621–1622)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Janissaries vs. Sultan Osman II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Royal court, Constantinople

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Janissaries overthrew a sultan they no longer considered competent.
OUTCOME: Osman II was assassinated, and the queen mother was installed to rule through her imbecile son, Mustafa I.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Osman II, the chief eunuch of the seraglio, and the grand vizier were assassinated.
TREATIES: None

The Janissary corps was formed by Ottoman sultan Murad I (1319–89) in the 14th century as a non-Turkish elite mercenary force, originally staffed by young Christian converts to Islam, drawn from the Ottoman Empire's Balkan provinces. Murad II (1403–51) restyled the Janissaries as a palace guard under his direct control in the 15th century. The idea was to create a militarily effective force that would be absolutely loyal to the sultan because it owed family or clan allegiance to no one else. By the end of the 16th century, however, the Janissaries became a major political force in Turkish court life and politics, with a deep allegiance only to themselves. The Ottoman rulers lived under continual threat of a Janissaries' revolt, especially in times of external peace, because these mercenaries were paid only during war. At the very heart of Ottoman government was a nest of vipers.

In 1618, it was the Janissary corps that deposed Sultan Mustafa I (1591–1639), who was mentally retarded, and replaced him with Osman II (1604–22), a teenager animated by dreams of conquest. His campaign against the Poles in 1621 produced Turkish losses so substantial that the troops eventually mutinied. At this, Osman simply returned to Constantinople and boasted of his "victory." The Janissaries—as yet unpaid—were outraged by the young sultan's false claim and threatened revolt. In response, Osman decided to eliminate the Janissaries once and for all. He set about creating a militia with the stated purpose of campaigning in Asia; secretly, however, Osman instructed them to march off, double back, then make a surprise attack on the Janissaries, killing all of them. In the climate of intrigue that was the Ottoman court, secrecy was nearly impossible, and word of the sultan's plot leaked out. The Janissaries made good on their threats and staged a revolt. In a panic, Osman promised to call off the militia, but this was to no avail. Unforgiving, the Janissaries seized the deposed sultan Mustafa I, killed the grand vizier and the chief eunuch of the seraglio, crowned the retarded Mustafa, and brought Osman back to their barracks. Here, they strangled the hapless monarch to death—the traditional mode of execution in Ottoman official circles. It was the first regicide in the history of the Ottoman Empire.

The revolt was not merely a spontaneous expression of anger, but had been planned in consultation with Valide (fl. 17th century), the queen mother. She approved of Osman's assassination and planned to rule, through Mustafa, as the power behind the throne. The Janissaries sent Valide Osman's ear as proof that the deed had been done.

However, as for Valide and Mustafa, the Janissaries did not long approve of their reign and backed instead the ascension of Murad IV (1609–40) in 1623. With that support, he did ascend the troubled Ottoman throne.

See also JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1703); JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1730); JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1807–1808); JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1826).

Further reading: Godfrey Goodwin, *The Janissaries* (London: I. B. Tauris, 1997); Lord Kinross, *The Ottoman Centuries: The Rise and Fall of the Turkish Empire* (New York: Morrow, 1977); Kemal H. Karpat, ed., *The Ottoman State and Its Place in World History* (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill, 1974); Stanford J. Shaw and E. K. Shaw, *History of the Ottoman Empire and Modern Turkey,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976–1977).

Janissaries' Revolt (1703)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Janissaries vs. Sultan Mustafa II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople and Adrianople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Unpaid, the Janissaries rebelled against Mustafa II.
OUTCOME: Mustafa II was forced to abdicate in favor of Ahmed III.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Janissaries were an important military asset to the Ottoman sultans, but also a continual threat to them. The Janissary corps was paid only in time of war, and often Sultans reneged on that payment. When the Sublime Porte (Ottoman government) failed to pay in 1703, the Janissaries revolted for six weeks in an action that nearly escalated to full-scale civil war. The response of Sultan Mustafa II (1664–1704) was to go into hiding in Adrianople, where he assembled an army to confront the Janissaries. In the meantime, he refused all demands that he return to Constantinople, whereupon the Janissaries took possession of the Prophet's sacred standard, the chief symbol of authority, assumed the offensive, and sought Mustafa II out in his hiding place. Finding him, they compelled his abdication in favor of Ahmed III (1673–1736).

Raised to power by the Janissaries, Ahmed III was destined also to fall from power, likewise through their agency, in the JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1730).

See also JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1807–1808); JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1826). For an explanation of the Janissaries' role in the Ottoman military and politics, *see* JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1621–1622).

Further reading: Godfrey Goodwin, *The Janissaries* (London: I. B. Tauris, 1997); Lord Kinross, *The Ottoman Centuries: The Rise and Fall of the Turkish Empire* (New York: Morrow, 1977); Kemal H. Karpat, ed., *The Ottoman State and Its Place in World History* (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill, 1974); Stanford J. Shaw and E. K. Shaw, *History of the Ottoman Empire and Modern Turkey,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976–1977).

Janissaries' Revolt (1730)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Janissaries and Albanian rebels vs. Sultan Ahmed III and, subsequently, Sultan Mahmud I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Janissaries wanted to unseat Sultan Ahmed III and then decided to support a general revolt against the Sublime Porte (Ottoman government).
OUTCOME: Ahmed was deposed and replaced by Mahmud I, who put down the rebellion by killing or exiling many of the rebels, thereby persuading the Janissaries to return to his service.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Albanian rebels, 12,000
CASUALTIES: In a single campaign, Mahmud I killed 7,000 rebels.
TREATIES: None

Sultan Ahmed III (1673–1736), who had been placed on the throne as a result of the JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1703), failed to call the Janissaries into action during the PERSIAN CIVIL WAR (1725–1730). Not committed to the war, the Janissaries were not paid—a situation that always produced great discontent, and that, inexplicably, the sultans never addressed. When the Persian Civil War prompted incursions into Ottoman territory, the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR of 1730–36 broke out. This time, Ahmed called on the Janissaries, who rebelled by delaying their deployment for two months while they supported a rebellion against the sultan by 12,000 Albanian troops. During this time, the Janissaries assassinated (by strangulation—traditional Ottoman mode of execution) the grand vizier, the admiral in chief, and other government and military officials. The life of the sultan they spared, but forced him to abdicate in favor of his nephew, Mahmud I (1696–1754).

Yet the installation of the new sultan did not quell the revolt. Mahmud did not act directly against the Janissaries, but instead moved against the rebels they supported. Ahmed invited the rebel leader, under a promise of safe conduct, to meet with him and the Divan (his privy council). Treacherously, Mahmud took the leader prisoner, then had him strangled as he looked on. This accomplished, the sultan oversaw the systematic slaughter of the rebels, some 7,000 of them over the course of three bloody weeks, in a display of brutality that rapidly diminished the passion for rebellion among the Albanians and prompted the Janissaries to withdraw their support. By the time the sultan had finished disposing of rebels—through either execution or banishment—his empire's military assets had been reduced by 50,000 men; nevertheless, the remaining Janissaries were now prepared for service against the Persians.

See also JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1807–1808); JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1826). For an explanation of the Janissaries' role in the Ottoman military and politics, *see* JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1621–1622).

Further reading: Godfrey Goodwin, *The Janissaries* (London: I. B. Tauris, 1997); Lord Kinross, *The Ottoman Centuries: The Rise and Fall of the Turkish Empire* (New York: Morrow, 1977); Kemal H. Karpat, ed., *The Ottoman State and Its Place in World History* (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill, 1974); Stanford J. Shaw and E. K. Shaw, *History of the Ottoman Empire and Modern Turkey,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976–1977).

Janissaries' Revolt (1807–1808)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Janissaries vs. Sultan Selim III and Mustafa IV
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Janissaries fought to preserve their position and livelihood.
OUTCOME: The Janissaries remained a terror to the sultans.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1805, Sultan Selim III (1761–1808) decided to neutralize the always troublesome Janissaries once and for all by forming an army according to a "New Order," based on Western-style (i.e., Napoleonic) regimental organization, discipline, weaponry, and uniforms. The Janissaries threatened revolt, however, and Selim withdrew the New Order decree, although reform of uniforms was still advanced. This alone was sufficient to prompt a rebellion, in 1807, among the Yamaks, the sultan's second-line or auxiliary troops. The Janissaries decided to join them, as did the grand mufti, who ruled that the Western-style uniforms were contrary to Muslim law because they were Christian garb. This ruling gave the rebels the moral basis from

which they promoted legal prosecution of the reformers in the sultan's government. Tried, they were all executed, and Selim III himself deposed.

Mustafa IV (1779–1808), a relative of Selim, agreed to ascend the throne, but soon found himself under attack by Selim's supporters. When they discovered that Mustafa had ordered Selim strangled, the Janissaries turned on Mustafa, dragged him from the throne, and strangled him. They now saw to the elevation of Mahmud II (1784–1839) to the throne. The new sultan judiciously appointed the leader of the Janissaries to the post of grand vizier. He now reintroduced Selim's New Order. This time, the Janissaries held off open revolt and made a show of acceptance. Once the grand vizier had been lulled into confidence that the reform had been accomplished, the Janissaries effected his arrest and execution. In this way, through intrigue and ruthless terror, the Janissaries staved off their demise.

See also JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1703); JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1730); JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1826). For an explanation of the Janissaries' role in the Ottoman military and politics, *see* JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1621–1622).

Further reading: Godfrey Goodwin, *The Janissaries* (London: I. B. Tauris, 1997); Lord Kinross, *The Ottoman Centuries: The Rise and Fall of the Turkish Empire* (New York: Morrow, 1977); Kemal H. Karpat, ed., *The Ottoman State and Its Place in World History* (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill, 1974); Stanford J. Shaw and E. K. Shaw, *History of the Ottoman Empire and Modern Turkey,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976–1977).

Janissaries' Revolt (1826)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Janissaries vs. Sultan Mahmud II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople and the Turkish provinces
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mahmud II wanted to rid the government of the Janissary menace once and for all.
OUTCOME: The Janissaries were slain, virtually to a man.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mahmud's forces, 14,000
CASUALTIES: Janissary losses, 4,000 killed in barracks; many more slain throughout the provinces
TREATIES: None

Like Sultan Selim III (1761–1808) before him [see JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1807–1808)], Mahmud II (1784–1839)—Mahmud the Reformer—wanted to neutralize the dangerous Janissary corps, which had repeatedly shown itself to be the greatest threat to the sultan within the empire. Moreover, in the GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE from 1821 to 1832, the Janissaries had performed so poorly that Mahmud had had to call in Egyptian mercenaries. Nevertheless, Mahmud was all too aware that "reforming" the Janissaries out of existence was a dangerous proposition, bound to incite them to rebellion. Accordingly, he proceeded carefully, ensuring himself of the support of the grand mufti, then improving his own personal army by building up a 14,000-man force equipped with the latest Western artillery, and finally decreeing a highly modified version of Selim's "New Order" military. The Janissaries would not be dismissed, but they would be separated and dispersed. Mahmud decreed that 150 from each Janissary battalion would be integrated into each division of the new corps he was creating under the New Order. This, Mahmud explained, was actually a revival of an *old* Ottoman military order, not a reformist innovation.

Despite Mahmud's assurances and deceptions, the Janissaries revolted. On June 14, 1826, they assembled in the Constantinople Hippodrome and demanded an audience. By way of response, Mahmud used his new artillery, firing against Janissaries with grapeshot, forcing them to retreat to their barracks. Once they were concentrated there, Mahmud opened up on them in earnest, subjecting the barracks to an intensive artillery bombardment. This action incited Turkish mobs to attack the hated Janissaries as well, and Mahmud did not interfere with them. Indeed, he allowed the rioters free rein. In the end, 4,000 Janissaries died in and around their barracks, and many more thousands who fled to the provinces fell victim to mob violence.

Having eliminated the Janissaries, Mahmud II decided to obliterate their legacy as well, outlawing even the use of the word *Janissary* and banning the Bektashi dervishes, the Janissaries' allies and abettors from the empire.

See also JANISSARIES REVOLT (1703); JANISSARIES REVOLT (1730). For an explanation of the Janissaries' role in the Ottoman military and politics, *see* JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1621–1622).

Further reading: Godfrey Goodwin, *The Janissaries* (London: I. B. Tauris, 1997); Lord Kinross, *The Ottoman Centuries: The Rise and Fall of the Turkish Empire* (New York: Morrow, 1977); Kemal H. Karpat, ed., *The Ottoman State and Its Place in World History* (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill, 1974); Stanford J. Shaw and E. K. Shaw, *History of the Ottoman Empire and Modern Turkey,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976–1977).

January Insurrection

See POLISH REBELLION (1863–1864).

Japanese Civil War (672)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Prince Otomo vs. Prince Oama
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Omi province, Shiga prefecture, Japan
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This was a contest for succession to the Japanese throne.
OUTCOME: Oama's forces defeated those of Otomo, and Oama ascended the throne as Emperor Temmu Tenno.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In Japan, the war is called *Jinshinno-ran.* It broke out over the issue of imperial succession following the death of Emperor Tenchi (626–671). Tenchi had struggled valiantly to centralize Japanese government, enhancing the authority of the emperor over that of the noble families. Throughout his reign, the Nakatomi and Soga families had done their utmost to block the aggrandizement of imperial authority. Tenchi had designated Prince Otomo as his successor. Obediently, Tenchi's other son, Oama (673–686), retired to a secluded life in a Buddhist monastery. Doubtless, he realized that he might be killed if he remained in court.

Upon Tenchi's death, the Nakatomi and Soga put Prince Otomo (fl. 672) on the throne. Oama returned from the monastery and raised an army to fight the supporters of Otomo in a single battle that took place just outside of Otomo's capital in Omi province, Shiga prefecture. Otomo was defeated in their Battle of Jinshin, and Oama's way to the throne was thereby cleared. He ruled as Temmu Tenno, establishing his capital at Asuka, Yamato Province, Nara prefecture, a location remote from the seats of the Nakatomis and Sogas.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan: From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Japanese Civil War (764–765)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Oshikatsu (Nakamato), minister under Emperor Junnin, vs. Dokyo, favorite of the "retired" but still powerful empress, Koken (Shotoku)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Japanese throne and government
OUTCOME: Oshikatsu and his adherents were defeated and killed; Koken reascended the Japanese throne (as Empress Shotoku), deposed Emperor Junnin, and made Dokyo prime minister.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 758, Empress Koken (718–770) retired to life as a nun, abdicating the Japanese throne in favor of Emperor Junnin (d. c. 766). However, as was often true in the case of "retired" Japanese monarchs, Koken retained considerable actual power. Moreover, she exercised this power not simply in her own right, but with the advice and under the influence of a Buddhist priest, Dokyo (d. 772), who was almost certainly her lover. Although the Japanese court was willing to accept the power arrangement between Koken and Junnin, the emperor's principal minister, Oshikatsu (Nakamaro) (d. 765), soon became jealous of the degree of power Dokyo was attaining. The conflict grew and developed into a civil war by 764.

After brief but intense fighting, Oshikatsu and most of his adherents were killed. Seeking to avert further warfare, Koken reascended the throne, now as Empress Shotoku, and moved quickly against Junnin, who was placed under arrest, then exiled to the island of Awaji. With the hapless emperor thus disposed of, Koken/Shotoku called Dokyo to court and appointed him prime minister. He was also anointed with a special title, *Ho-o,* a religious distinction roughly translated as "pope." This theoretically put him into position to assume the throne on the death of Koken in 770, but opposition was too strong, and Dokyo was banished.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan: From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); Richard J. Miller, *Japan's First Bureaucracy: A Study of Eighth-Century Government* (Ithaca, N.Y.: China-Japan Program, Cornell University, 1978); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Japanese Civil War (936–941)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: In the west, Fujiwara Sumitomo vs. Kyoto government; separately, in the east, Masakado vs. a rival Taira chieftain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Japan's western and eastern provinces
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of portions of Japan
OUTCOME: Sumitomo's rebellion was crushed by imperial forces; Masakado's rebellion was neutralized by other members of the Taira family.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The 903 revolt of Taira-no-Masakado (d. 903), a leader of the Kanto district, destabilized the Kyoto government and

encouraged various acts of disobedience, including piracy off the coast in the Inland Sea. In 936, the pirate attacks grew to unprecedented intensity, and the Kyoto court dispatched Sumitomo (d. 941), of the powerful Fujiwara family, to combat the pirates. He did this with great success but then led his followers in raids throughout the western provinces. When Sumitomo failed to obey the emperor's command to cease and desist, imperial troops were sent against him. Joining the imperial forces was the chief of a western military family, the Minamoto, and, together, the combined imperial and Minamoto forces crushed Sumitomo's rebellion and killed Sumitomo himself.

Although the defeat and death of Sumitomo brought peace in the western provinces, the eastern region of Kanto erupted into rebellion. There Masakado (d. 940), of the Taira family, having steadily expanded his territorial holdings, declared himself emperor of Kanto in 939. The following year, however, another Taira chieftain vied for the new Kanto throne and deposed Masakado. With this, the eastern region also returned to peace.

Further reading: Karl Friday, *Hired Swords: The Rise of Private Warrior Power in Early Japan* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1992); John W. Hall, *Japan: From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Japanese Civil War (1156) *See* HOGEN WAR.

Japanese Civil War (1159–1160) *See* HEIJI WAR.

Japanese Civil War (1180–1185) *See* GEMPEI WAR.

Japanese Civil War (1221) *See* JOKYU WAR.

Japanese Civil War (1331–1333)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hojo shogunate vs. Emperor Daigo II (subsequently aided by Hojo defectors)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Japan, especially Kamakura
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Japanese government
OUTCOME: The shogunate forced the exile of the emperor; he returned, raised an army, and ended the power of the Hojo shogunate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By the 14th century, Japanese government was sharply divided between the imperial court at Kyoto and the military, headquartered at the Bakufu in the Kamakura district. Although the emperor enjoyed high status, it was the Hojo shogunate—the military authority—that wielded the greater power. This situation—the emperor divine, yet with little secular power, the military all powerful—endured for a long while, but by the 14th century it began to show signs of eroding. In 1331, a crisis came when shogunate agents discovered that Emperor Daigo II (Go-Daigo; 1288–1339) was plotting to attack and destroy Kamakura. Once apprised of this, the shogunate acted quickly and dispatched an army to Kyoto, Daigo II offered resistance, but his forces were no match for those of the shogun. Quickly overwhelmed, he was taken prisoner, and he was exiled to the island of Oki the next year.

Doubtless because of his divine status, Daigo II escaped death, which was unfortunate for the shogunate, because, in 1333, he escaped from exile and rallied an army to the cause of his restoration. Warriors poured in, and at the Bakufu, many troops defected to the emperor. Ashikaga Takauji (1305–58), a general of the Minamoto family, long the chief supporters of the shogunate, turned his Bakufu army against the military and placed himself and his forces in the emperor's service. With another Bakufu defector, he launched an incendiary attack against Kamakura, burning the city down. This brought a sudden end to the rule of the Hojo shogunate—but it proved only a prelude to the JAPANESE CIVIL WARS (1336–1392).

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan: From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); Jeffrey Mass, *Warrior Government in Early Medieval Japan* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1974); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Japanese Civil Wars (1336–1392)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Yoshino-based government vs. Kyoto-based government (south versus north)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): All Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Japan
OUTCOME: The struggle between northern and southern rivals brought utter chaos to Japan, nearly destroying the country's economy; with great patience, order was

restored by the ascendancy of the Ashikaga shogun Yoshimitsu.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown

TREATIES: New treaties concluded with China and Korea by the 1390s

The Minamoto general Ashikaga Takauji (1305–58) had defected from the *bakufu,* or shogunate (military dictatorship), to aid Emperor Daigo II (Go-Daigo; 1288–1339) in overthrowing the Hojo-controlled regime and reestablishing Daigo on the imperial throne in the JAPANESE CIVIL WAR (1331–1333). In 1335, however, he changed sides again, their time against Daigo II, joining a new rebel movement in Kanto. These forces were opposed to both the Hojo shogunate and to the emperor. As commander of the rebel army, Ashikaga captured the Kyoto capital and took Daigo II prisoner. Although the ever-resourceful emperor subsequently escaped and took refuge in the mountains, Ashikaga Takauji set up a puppet on the throne, who compliantly named him shogun.

From exile, Daigo denounced Ashikaga Takauji and his puppet, and he rallied to himself the constituents of a rival court he set up in the south of Japan, at Yoshino. Now Kyoto and Yoshino became the poles around which a series of civil wars was generated. All of Japan erupted into combat, and the government was reduced to anarchy. The allegiances of the feudal lords shifted with the wind in a period dubbed the "Age of the Turncoats." In the absence of strong central authority, the countryside was torn by general lawlessness and rapine. It was the nadir of medieval Japanese life.

At last, in 1367, Yoshimitsu (1358–95), the most charismatic and able of the Ashikaga shoguns, emerged as dominant among the warlords. Gradually, he was able to reestablish a central government. He resumed trading relations with Korea and China in an effort to restore Japan's battered economy, and he launched numerous campaigns against pirates and other brigands. Having brought a significant measure of order back to the country, in 1392 he possessed sufficient credibility to persuade the ruler at Yoshino to abdicate in favor of the ruler at Kyoto. In return, the southern ruler was granted a large pension and official state status. Although low-level warfare and interclan feuding persisted, Japan generally began to recover.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan; From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63); H. P. Varley, *Imperial Restoration in Medieval Japan* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1971).

Japanese Civil Wars (1450–1550)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rival warlords (daimyo) of Japan

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): All Japan

DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In a time of anarchy, rival warlords continually fought with one another to claim more territory and power.

OUTCOME: The war resolved no issue; it ended with the rise of the powerful daimyo Oda Nobunaga.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown

TREATIES: None

The century between 1450 and 1550 is called in Japanese history the Warring States Period. During this time, civil war was continual, creating anarchy that spawned piracy and brigandage, as well as interclan feuding. Both of the traditional rivals for power, the imperial government and the shogunate (military dictatorship), lost control of the country. Rebels and warlords vied for pieces of territory, and the only semblance of stable government was to be found in and around the ancient imperial capital of Kyoto. Beyond this region, the force of government, whether imperial or shogunate, was hardly felt.

Amid the chaos, a new warrior class grew to prominence, the samurai. Instead of aligning themselves with either the shogunate or the emperor, the samurai gave their allegiance variously to local warlords, some of whom amassed sufficient power to become territorial rulers, or daimyo. Each daimyo created a private empire, wholly independent of central authority and maintained by means of a private army. Although chronic instability generally weakened the national economy, the existence of the private armies afforded the peasantry unprecedented opportunity for rising to power. Moreover, the samurai introduced their own rigid moral code, which probably represented what little order existed across the country during this long period. Nevertheless, with so many daimyo controlling so many private armies, strife was frequent. The daimyo continually warred against one another. These disputes often developed into interclan feuds. The spirit of war was so powerful in Japan during this period that rival Buddhist monasteries began feuding and warring with one another.

The Warring States Period came to an end with the rise of the powerful daimyo Oda Nobunaga (1534–82).

See also JAPANESE CIVIL WARS (1560–1584); MONKS, WAR OF THE; ONIN WAR.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan: From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); Thomas Keirstead, *The Geography of Power in Medieval Japan* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press,

1992); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Japanese Civil War (1467–1477)

See ONIN WAR.

Japanese Civil Wars (1560–1584)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Oda Nobunaga vs. rival daimyo; after Nobunaga's death, the fight was taken over by his able general Toyotomi Hideyoshi
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The unification of Japan under a single ruler
OUTCOME: After a long war, most of Japan was effectively unified under Hideyoshi.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Probably the largest army fielded at any one time was the 30,000 men Hideyoshi led against Kyoto.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty between Hideyoshi and his potential chief rival, Tokugawa Iyeyasu, 1584

Out of the chaos of the JAPANESE CIVIL WARS (1450–1550), 16-year-old Oda Nobunaga (1534–82) emerged as daimyo (warlord) of Owari, eastern Japan. The head of the Imagawa family Imagawa Yoshimoto (1519–60), daimyo to the north of Owari, decided to exploit Oda Nobunaga's inexperience by attempting what he believed would be an easy conquest. Nobunaga led a defense with extraordinary skill and defeated Imagawa, who was slain in battle.

The attack moved Nobunaga to further action. He concluded an alliance with Tokugawa (1542–1616) the daimyo of Mikawa, and another alliance with the daimyo of Kari. These alliances secured his position in the east. Thus emboldened, Nobunaga decided to move aggressively and, in 1562, advanced against the province of Mino to the west. After a two-year campaign, the province fell to him. He moved next to the south and invaded Ise. Here he met powerful resistance and was never able to conquer the territory completely. But the performance of his leading general, Toyotomi Hideyoshi (1536–98), was so brilliant that most of the provincial daimyos flocked to Nobunaga's side.

Ogimachi (1517–93), the emperor himself, recognized Oda Nobunaga's great power and influence when, in 1567, he asked him to come to the imperial capital, Kyoto, to quell the violence of an uprising triggered by a dispute over the succession of the shogun (military overlord). Within a year Nobunaga had brought order to Kyoto and was named vice shogun. He used this position as a springboard to what amounted to control of all Japan. However, his rapid rise met with resistance. Those who had formerly allied with him feared that he would become a tyrant, and they rebelled against him. Of all the daimyos, only Iyeyasu and a few minor daimyos remained loyal.

Nobunaga and his small coterie of allies fought the other daimyos between 1570 and 1573. Although he faced superior numbers, Nobunaga emerged victorious and, flushed with victory, advanced against Kwanto in the northeast. He conquered this province, then also took the territory between Kwanto and the outlying vicinity to Kyoto. With this region secured, Nobunaga turned next against the Buddhist monasteries in the hills of Hiyesia above Kyoto, for these had been centers of resistance against him. Toward the militant monks Nobunaga was ruthless, massacring them and destroying their settlements.

Nobunaga himself fell to an assassin in 1582, while he was marching to fight alongside Hideyoshi on the island of Shikoku. A vassal, Akechi (fl. 16th century), wounded Nobunaga, who subsequently committed suicide. Akechi then proclaimed himself shogun. In the meantime, Hideyoshi made peace with his rivals on Shikoku and returned quickly to Kyoto at the head of 30,000 men. He swiftly avenged the death of his great ally, then assumed the office of *kwampaku,* effectively regent. This incited jealousy among the heirs of the slain Oda Nobunaga, who now rebelled against Hideyoshi. The alliance fragmented, but Hideyoshi combined adroit diplomacy with brilliance at arms to put down the rebellion and reunite the daimyo. By 1584, he had become the chief ruler of Japan. To secure this position, Hideyoshi concluded a treaty with a potential rival, Iyeyasu, and, thanks to a generous and conciliatory policy toward his many former enemies, Hideyoshi succeeded in forging a genuine unified nation out of what had been a collection of feuding warlord territories.

See also MONKS, WAR OF THE.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan: From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); John W. Hall, Bagahari Keiji, and Kozo Yamamura, eds., *Japan Before Tokugawa: Political Consolidation and Economic Growth, 1500–1650* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1981); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Japanese Civil War (1863–1868)

See MEIJI RESTORATION.

Japanese Earlier Nine Years' War
(1051–1062)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Abe family vs. the governors of Mutsu and Dewa provinces as well as imperial-sanctioned troops led by Minamoto Yoriyoshi
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northeastern Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of northeastern Japan and assertion of imperial control over the rebellious Abe clan
OUTCOME: After over a decade of struggle (of which only nine years was spent actually fighting), the Abe rebellion was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The refusal of the Abe family, ruling clan of the portion of Mutsu Province bordering the Kitakami River in northeastern Japan, to pay taxes owed to the province created enmity with other clans and warlords. When the Abe then began to expand their holdings, the governors of Mutsu Province and Dewa, the neighboring province, pooled their resources and marched against the Abe's army. The Abe forces were victorious, however, and pushed the governors' armies into retreat.

News of the warfare in the provinces reached the emperor, Go-Reizei (1045–68), who dispatched an army under Minamoto Yoriyoshi (988–1075) and his son Yoshiie (1039–1106) to Mutsu to deal once and for all with the upstart Abes. At the first battle, in 1056, Abe Yoritoki (d. 1056), the patriarch of the clan, was fatally wounded by an arrow, but his son Sadato (1019–62) immediately assumed command of the army, which was able to continue the fight. Under Sadato, the Abe forces defeated Minamoto at Kawasaki in 1058. The timely commencement of a snowstorm provided concealment for a small fraction of the defeated army to escape. Only after a hiatus of four years was Minamoto able to recruit a new army, augmented by a contingent from the Kiyohara family (based in Dewa), to mount a fresh attack on the Abes.

One Abe army, under Yoritoki's second son, Abe Muneto, quickly folded, but Abe Sadato continued to resist. He was twice defeated, yet refused to capitulate. At last, the Minamoto forces overran his base in Kuriyagawa, his fort was set ablaze, and Sadato was killed. A triumphant Minamoto delivered his severed head to the emperor. More than a decade after it began, after nine years of actual fighting, the war was over.

See also JAPANESE LATER THREE YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan: From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); Jeffrey Mass, *Warrior Government in Early Medieval Japan* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1974); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Japanese Invasion of Korea (1592–1599)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Japan vs. Korea (with Chinese aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Korea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Japan sought conquest of Korea.
OUTCOME: Korea was occupied for a time, but Japan's failure to gain control of the sea made its triumph only temporary; ultimately, the Japanese invaders withdrew from the country they had devastated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Japan, 138,900 (plus 51,950 reserves); Korea, 70,000; China, 80,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but in the thousands
TREATIES: Truce of 1592; armistice of 1599

Toyotomi Hideyoshi (1536–98) emerged from the JAPANESE CIVIL WARS (1560–1584) as the leader of a unified Japan. Having achieved this titanic and seemingly impossible feat, he decided to move next on a great campaign of conquest to include Korea and China.

Hideyoshi assembled a vast army of 138,900 men, plus a reserve force of 51,950 more, to advance across the Straits of Tshushima and attack Pusan, principal port of southeast Korea. He would have to overcome the superb Korean navy, especially the fleet of Cholla Province, which included history's very first ironclad vessels, called "turtles." Driven by galley oars, they carried mounted iron rams as well as at least two cannon each. Archers on board were armed with incendiary arrows. Although the Japanese would later be known as a seafaring people, this was not the case in the late 16th century. Thus Korean admiral Yi Sun Sin (fl. late 16th century), with 45 formidable ships, won the first battle of the invasion, destroying 26 of 50 Japanese ships on May 7, 1592. Eighteen more Japanese vessels were sunk the next day.

Despite Yi's magnificent victories, a Japanese force was able to land at Pusan on May 24. A 5,000-man vanguard assaulted Pusan Castle, which was defended by about 10,000 Koreans; however, whereas the Japanese were armed with modern muskets, the Koreans had nothing but lances and bows. The castle fell, and the Japanese invaders reportedly collected the heads of 8,000 garrison members.

On May 25, 10,000 Japanese defeated 20,000 Koreans at Tong-Nae Castle, with the loss of 5,000 of the defenders and only 100 Japanese (plus 400 wounded). Following this, the Japanese began deploying their main forces; 39,500 men were sent in two columns to attack Seoul. They were met by a 70,000-man Korean army at Chung-Ju on June 7, but the outnumbered Japanese managed a flank attack, which killed some 3,000 Koreans and forced the surrender of the rest. Some 11,000 Japanese advanced northward to the city of Pyongyang. Here they encountered 5,000 Chinese, whom they swept aside on October 3, killing at least 3,000.

The Chinese disaster at Pyongyang prompted the Ming government to order full-scale intervention in Korea. Li Ju-Sung (fl. 16th century) led 51,000 Chinese against the Japanese. However, on February 25, 1593, the Chinese cavalry became mired in the mud at Pyokchegwan and were exposed to furious Japanese swordsmen. At this place, perhaps 70,000 Chinese and Korean troops faced 40,000 Japanese. At least 10,000 Chinese and Koreans fell before withdrawing.

Despite the overwhelming success of the Japanese on land, Admiral Yi gained mastery of the sea, virtually destroying the Japanese navy in the course of several battles. Hideyoshi, realizing that his army, however victorious, was now cut off for lack of ships, agreed to a cease-fire. During this period, from 1593 to 1596, negotiations ground on without result. At last, in March 1597, Hideyoshi resumed the war, deploying a new invasion of some 149,000 men in 500 ships. Admiral Yi was not present when the Japanese vessels surprised the Korean fleet in a night attack on July 16, 1597. Of 180 Korean ships, only 12 escaped destruction. The Japanese not only failed to rescue drowning crews, they beheaded the survivors they encountered.

A landing force swept ashore, took the fortress of Nam-won, and collected 3,726 Chinese heads. At this juncture, Admiral Yi returned to command, and with 12 capital ships he managed to force the Japanese fleet into the narrow waters of the Myongyang Strait. On September 16, 1597, he attacked and destroyed the Japanese flagship, then displayed the severed head of Admiral Kurushima Michifusa (d. 1597) on a Korean mast. The sight so demoralized the rest of the Japanese fleet that they fled in panic, crashing into a chain the Koreans had laid across the strait. More than 100 Japanese vessels foundered and were lost.

Yi's victory at sea halted the Japanese land advance 17 miles outside of Seoul. A Chinese army of 80,000 attacked the Japanese camp at Uru-san in January 1598. The Japanese held out until the arrival of Chinese reinforcements persuaded Hideyoshi to evacuate the Korean Peninsula.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan: From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); Mikiso Hane, *Modern Japan: A Historical Survey,* 3rd ed. (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 2001); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63); Conrad Totman, *Early Modern Japan* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993).

Japanese Later Three Years' War
(1083–1087)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kiyowara clan vs. Mutsu Province (with aid from Fujiwara clan)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The provincial governor of Mutsu sought to suppress the perpetually warring Kiyowara clan.
OUTCOME: The Kiyowara were defeated and stability restored to Mutsu.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The ruling clan of Mutsu Province in northern Japan, the Kiyowara, splintered into various branches and factions, which habitually quarreled. Often, the fighting was violent, causing great hardship in the province. Minamoto Yoshiie (1039–1106), the provincial governor, repeatedly tried to quell the violence but ultimately decided that his military intervention was called for. In 1086, he led an assault on a winter fort harboring Iyehira and his Kiyowara faction. Minamoto Yoshiie laid a siege, but it failed as many of his men succumbed to the hardships of a harsh northern winter. Calling his men into retreat, Yoshiie regrouped and reinforced his army with troops from his younger brother and from the Fujiwara family, rivals to Kiyowara. The united forces chose a new target, the great Kiyowara fortress at Kanazawa. The defenders capitulated after an arduous four-month siege. However, the Kiyowara leaders made a break for it and were promptly killed. The war is called the "Three Years' War" because, although the period of hostility spanned a full four years, the actual fighting occupied only in three.

See also JAPANESE EARLIER NINE YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan: From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); Jeffrey Mass, *Warrior Government in Early Medieval Japan* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1974); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Javanese-Chinese-Dutch War (1740–1743)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dutch East India Company vs. Chinese on Java; some Javanese sided with the Chinese, some with the Dutch
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Java
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dutch East India Company deportations of Chinese on Java incited a rebellion against the Dutch.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was put down and peace was restored between the Dutch and Chinese on Java.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Totals unknown, but in 1741, the Dutch post at Semarang was besieged by 23,500 Chinese and Javanese rebels.
CASUALTIES: About 10,000, on all sides died.
TREATIES: None

Chinese trade with Java was a long-established fact centuries before the Dutch entered the Javanese trade under the auspices of the Dutch East India Company. Chinese traders became integrated into the Dutch-Javanese trade after the Dutch East India Company established its headquarters at Batavia (Djakarta). The Chinese population in Batavia and vicinity grew, so that, by the mid-18th century, it greatly outnumbered Dutch residents. Dutch colonial administrators feared that the Chinese, many of whom were impoverished and unemployed, would rise in rebellion. To forestall this, officials began deporting Chinese to Ceylon (Sri Lanka) and the Cape of Good Hope (Cape Town, South Africa). This action served only to incite an uprising. In 1740, the Chinese of Batavia rebelled and, initially, were mowed down by well-armed Dutch East India Company military forces. However, Javanese dissidents, who had long resented the Dutch imperial presence, joined the Chinese cause, and the rebellion soon spread beyond Batavia to engulf all of Java. In 1741, the Dutch post at Semarang withstood a siege by 23,500 Chinese and Javanese rebels.

The impact on the Dutch was both military and economic, as the sugar industry came to a standstill. There was a real question as to whether the Javanese royal government, in the person of King Pakubuwono II (d. 1743), ruler of Mataram, would back the Chinese or the Dutch. At first, he sided with the Chinese, participating in the slaughter of the Dutch garrison at Kartosuro, but, realizing that the Dutch had far more resources than the Chinese, he changed allegiance and allied himself with the Dutch. In 1743, Pakubuwono ceded to the Dutch the northern coastal region of Java, which effectively hemmed in the Chinese. With this, the rebellion ended—as did the deportations. The war had reduced the Chinese population, but those who remained functioned peacefully as participants in the Javanese-Dutch trade.

See also JAVANESE WAR OF SUCCESSION, FIRST; JAVANESE WAR OF SUCCESSION, SECOND; JAVANESE WAR OF SUCCESSION, THIRD.

Further reading: Lucas Wilhemus Nagtegaal, *Riding the Tiger: The Dutch East Indies Company and the Northeast Coast of Java, 1680–1743* (Leiden, Netherlands: KITLV Press, 1996); Y. Stamford Raffles, *The History of Java* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985).

Javanese Invasion of Malacca (1574)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Javanese Muslims vs. Portuguese colonial forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Malacca
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Javanese Muslims sought to drive the Christian Portuguese from the region.
OUTCOME: The Portuguese drove off the attack.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1574, Muslim raiders from Java attacked Portuguese-held Malacca in an attempt to eject Christians from the region. Portuguese reinforcements were summoned from Goa in sufficient force to drive the raiders off.

Further reading: Y. Stamford Raffles, *The History of Java* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985).

Javanese War of Succession, First (1704–1707)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Javanese rebels vs. Dutch East India Company
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Java
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Javanese rebels sought independence from Dutch domination.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Dutch East India Company was founded in 1602 and, in the course of the century, became a major economic and political power in Java, dominating the chief coastal city of Batavia (Djakarta) and often intruding itself into the affairs of local kings and sultans, as well as rulers throughout the East Indies (the Malay archipelago). This

incited several uprisings against the Dutch presence in the region. In turn, that presence destabilized Javanese government and issues of succession. The Dutch frequently took advantage of this instability to gain a stronger hold on Java.

In 1704, Surapati (d. 1707), a fugitive Balinese slave, rallied a band of natives against Dutch traders. Dutch East India Company forces attempted to capture him, which drove Surapati to seek refuge from King Amangkurat III (fl. 1703–08) of Mataram, the key central Javanese kingdom. Amangkurat harbored Surapati for a time, and then the former slave moved to northeastern Java, where he declared himself a king. In the meantime, the Dutch sought vengeance against Amangkurat for having sheltered the fugitive troublemaker, and they sponsored a rival to the throne, Pakubuwono I (d. 1719), Amangkurat's uncle. His followers united with Dutch East India Company troops to defeat Amangkurat in battle. The deposed king fled to the northeast, where he now sought refuge with Surapati.

But the Dutch were not through. They relentlessly pursued Amangkurat and ran him to ground in the northeast, along with Surapati. The fugitive slave was executed in 1708, and Amangkurat was exiled to Ceylon (Sri Lanka).

See also JAVANESE WAR OF SUCCESSION, SECOND; JAVANESE WAR OF SUCCESSION, THIRD.

Further reading: Lucas Wilhemus Nagtegaal, *Riding the Tiger: The Dutch East Indies Company and the Northeast Coast of Java, 1680–1743* (Leiden, Netherlands: KITLV Press, 1996); Y. Stamford Raffles, *The History of Java* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985).

Javanese War of Succession, Second
(1719–1723)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dutch East India Company vs. Javanese leaders hostile to the company
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Java
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Dutch East India Company sought to ensure a friendly government in Java.
OUTCOME: Rivals were killed or exiled, and the company expanded its influence and control throughout most of Java.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The Dutch employed more than 1,000 men on Java; Javanese numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but described as massive by historians
TREATIES: None

In the First JAVANESE WAR OF SUCCESSION, from 1704 to 1707, the forces of the Dutch East India Company had placed on the throne of Mataram, most important of the Javanese kingdoms, King Pakubuwono I (d. 1719), who was compliant with the company's wishes. His death in 1719 brought a number of claimants to succession. The Dutch allied themselves to whatever they perceived as the winning side, then were determined to eliminate all rivals hostile to their presence and commercial prosperity. Accordingly, they conducted a campaign to find and kill or exile all potential rivals for power. In the course of this campaign, the Dutch East India Company expanded its control of Java.

See also JAVANESE WAR OF SUCCESSION, THIRD.

Further reading: Lucas Wilhemus Nagtegaal, *Riding the Tiger: The Dutch East Indies Company and the Northeast Coast of Java, 1680–1743* (Leiden, Netherlands: KITLV Press, 1996); Y. Stamford Raffles, *The History of Java* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985).

Javanese War of Succession, Third
(1746–1757)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dutch East India Company vs. rivals to King Pakubuwono III
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mataram, Java
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Dutch helped their puppet, Pakubuwono III, resist challenges by two rival claimants to the throne of Mataram.
OUTCOME: The kingdom was partitioned to satisfy all claimants to the throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Dutch numbers unknown; rebel forces, 13,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Gianti Agreement, 1755

Through the First JAVANESE WAR OF SUCCESSION, from 1704 to 1707, the Second JAVANESE WAR OF SUCCESSION, from 1719 to 1723, and the JAVANESE-CHINESE-DUTCH WAR, from 1740 to 1743, the central Javanese kingdom of Mataram had become a client or vassal realm of the Dutch East India Company, which supported rulers friendly to it and suppressed those who dared to oppose it. When King Pakubuwono III (fl. 1743–57) was assailed by rivals to the throne, mainly Mangkubumi (1717–92) in 1746, the company sided with the compliant king. War became chronic, and by 1747, the Dutch faced some 13,000 rebels. In 1751, the Dutch suffered a serious setback in a battle at the Bogowonto River. At last, in 1755, by the Gianti Agreement, the company agreed to allow the partition of Mataram. Pakubuwono continued to rule in the east, from his capital Surakarta, and Mangkubumi took over the western portion of the kingdom, ruling from Jogjakarta. This left sporadic guerrilla warfare raging against the Dutch through 1757 in the east. However, the Dutch

bided their time, understanding that warfare among the Javanese ultimately strengthened their position as a colonial power.

Further reading: Lucas Wilhemus Nagtegaal, *Riding the Tiger: The Dutch East Indies Company and the Northeast Coast of Java, 1680–1743* (Leiden, Netherlands: KITLV Press, 1996); Y. Stamford Raffles, *The History of Java* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985).

Java Revolt (1849)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Javanese vs. Netherlands Indies forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Java
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Suppression of anticolonial rebellion in Java
OUTCOME: Java came under the full control of the Dutch.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Dutch East India Company was granted virtual sovereignty over Java by the government of the Netherlands during the 17th century. Relations between the Javanese natives and the Dutch were often strained and violent during the centuries of colonial occupation. In 1849, a major revolt developed, to which the colonial authorities responded by sending a major Netherlands Indies military force to Bali in April. The Javanese military leader Gusti Ketut Jilantik was killed in a clash with these forces, and the Netherlands colonial government assumed control of Buleleng and the north coast of Bali.

In May, the Netherlands Indies forces advanced into southern Bali for the first time. They marched through Karangasem and Klungkung and put down resistance in these places. Forces under the raja of Lombok, allied to the Dutch, attacked and took Karangasem while the Netherlands Indies forces assumed full control in Palembang. By 1850, Dutch missionaries were beginning their work among Bataks of north Sumatra, and a great famine in central Java ended all hope of renewed resistance. The Dutch further consolidated their hold on Java in 1850 by purchasing the remaining Portuguese posts on Flores.

Further reading: C. A. Bayly and D. H. A. Kolff, eds., *Two Colonial Empires: Comparative Essays on the History of India and Indonesia in the Nineteenth Century* (Norwell, Mass.: Kluwer Academic Pub., 1986); George Musselman, *The Cradle of Colonialism* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1963); Y. Stamford Raffles, *The History of Java* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985).

Java War, Great (1815–1830)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dutch East India Company forces vs. Javanese guerrillas led by Dipo Negoro
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Java
DECLARATION: Jihad proclaimed, 1815
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dipo Negoro's rebels wanted to suppress Dutch economic and political domination of Java.
OUTCOME: The rebels were ultimately defeated, at great cost, but the Dutch did liberalize administration of Java.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Dutch forces, 100,000
CASUALTIES: Dutch losses may have been as high as 15,000 killed; Javanese losses, 200,000, including 20,000 battlefield deaths
TREATIES: None

The war is sometimes referred to as Dipo Negoro's War, after Prince Dipo Negoro (c. 1785–1855), the disgruntled eldest son of the king of Jogjakarta, who was passed over for succession to the throne when the Dutch East India Company, under Governor Johannes Bosch (fl. early 19th century), supported a younger and more compliant rival. Dipo Negoro recruited support for his war against the Dutch by appealing to indigenous Muslim property owners, who had lost land to Dutch policies of land reform and redistribution. Dipo Negoro further bolstered his cause by transforming it into a jihad, a Muslim holy war against the infidel Dutch. This cause came to the fore after the Dutch built a road beside a sacred tomb, an act of sacrilege. It united Muslim aristocrats and common folk alike.

Dipo Negoro led a low-level guerrilla war against the Dutch from 1815 to 1828, when the Dutch at last managed to force a major battle in the open. Better equipped than the prince's forces, the Dutch scored a significant victory, which gained them the momentum needed to support a major effort. The Dutch government financed the building of stronghold forts throughout the region, linked by good roads. Now forces could be concentrated quickly anywhere resistance was met. Although costly to maintain, the fortress network ended Dipo Negoro's effectiveness. In 1829, two of his chief lieutenants surrendered, and on March 28, 1830, the prince himself offered to negotiate. When he drew the line at relinquishing his title of protector of Islam, Dutch authorities violated their pledge of safe conduct, arrested Dipo Negoro, and exiled him to the Celebes. From the Javanese point of view, the war had not been fought entirely in vain, however. Having experienced heavy losses and having been forced to invest expensively in defense, the Dutch now deemed it prudent to bend in their administration of Java, and fairer economic and political policies were instituted.

See also Anglo-Dutch War in Java; Javanese War of Succession, Second; Padri War.

Further reading: C. A. Bayly and D. H. A. Kolff, eds., *Two Colonial Empires: Comparative Essays on the History of India and Indonesia in the Nineteenth Century* (Norwell, Mass.: Kluwer Academic Pub., 1986); George Musselman, *The Cradle of Colonialism* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1963); Y. Stamford Raffles, *The History of Java* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985).

Jenkins' Ear, War of (1739–c. 1743)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England and the English colony of Georgia vs. Spain and the Spanish colony of Florida
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Georgia and Florida
DECLARATION: Great Britain declared war on Spain, October 19, 1739.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: British outrage over an assault on a merchant captain by Spanish authorities seeking to regulate trade with Spanish colonies, set against European conflicts and alliances
OUTCOME: Inconclusive, an event in the War of the Austrian Succession (1740–48)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In Florida, Oglethorpe commanded 1,300 regulars and militia plus 500 Indian allies; Spanish forces, 1,100
CASUALTIES: At St. Augustine, Oglethorpe lost 122 men killed, 50 wounded, 20 captured; Spanish losses, 200 killed, wounded or captured
TREATIES: No treaty, one of a series of actions of the War of the Austrian Succession

As with KING WILLIAM'S WAR and QUEEN ANNE'S WAR, the causes of KING GEORGE'S WAR were rooted in European alliances and conflicts that profoundly affected the farthest-flung colonies of empire. The War of Jenkins' Ear was a kind of overture to King George's War, as the American theater of the War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION was called. At the conclusion of Queen Anne's War (the European phase of which was the War of the SPANISH SUCCESSION) in 1713, Great Britain concluded a treaty with France's ally Spain. It included a provision called the "Asiento," a contract that permitted and regulated English trade in slavery and goods with the Spanish colonies.

English traders were quick to violate the regulatory provisions of the Asiento, thereby provoking Spanish officials to deal harshly with British merchant sailors in the West Indies. Robert Jenkins (fl. 1730s), captain of the merchant ship *Rebecca,* claimed that Spanish coast guards had cut off his ear while interrogating him. When word of this—and other incidents—reached Great Britain, outrage ignited open hostilities.

On October 19, 1739, Great Britain declared war on Spain, and in January 1740, James Oglethorpe (1696–1785), the principal founder of the English colony of Georgia, invaded Spanish-held Florida. Spanish abuses of the Creek, Cherokee, and Chickasaw Indians in the region sent them into the English camp, and, with their aid, Oglethorpe captured Fort San Francisco de Pupo and Fort Picolata, both on the San Juan River. He next laid siege to Saint Augustine from May through July but was forced to break off at the approach of Spanish relief forces. Oglethorpe repelled a Spanish counterattack on Saint Simon's Island, Georgia, in the Battle of Bloody Marsh, June 9, 1742, but the Georgians' second attempt to capture Saint Augustine, in 1743, also failed. Oglethorpe then withdrew from Florida.

The War of Jenkins' Ear did not formally end but was swallowed up in the much larger conflict over the Austrian succession fought in Europe.

Further reading: Phinizy Spalding, *Oglethorpe in America* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1977); Philip Woodfine, *Britannia's Glories: The Walpole Ministry and the 1739 War with Spain* (Rochester, N.Y.: Boydell and Brewer, 1998).

Jericho, Fall of (c. 8000 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Israelites vs. Canaanites
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Canaan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of Canaan
OUTCOME: Jericho fell, thereby opening the way for the Israelite conquest of all Canaan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown; according to the Old Testament, Jericho was virtually annihilated.
TREATIES: None

According to the Book of Joshua (Old Testament), Joshua became leader of the Israelite tribes after the death of Moses. Under Joshua, the Israelites conquered Canaan, and it was Joshua who distributed Canaan's lands to the 12 tribes of Israel.

Joshua was apparently a very able military leader, who sent spies into Canaan to assess the Canaanites' morale. Based on this intelligence, Joshua led the Israelites in an invasion across the Jordan River. The first obstacle to be overcome was the walled city of Jericho, which, even then, was one of the oldest known cities, having been established at least as early as 9000 B.C.E. Joshua's forces breached the walls of Jericho and took the city. This accomplished, the Israelites were able to capture other towns in the north and south until most of Palestine was brought under Israelite control.

As far as can be determined, following its destruction by the Israelites, Jericho was abandoned until Hiel the

Bethelite established himself there in the ninth century B.C.E. (as recorded in 1 Kings 16:34).

Further reading: David Neev, *The Destruction of Sodom, Gomorrah, and Jericho: Geological, Climatological, and Archaeological Background* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1995).

Jewish-Philistine Wars (1028–c. 1000 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Israel vs. the Philistines
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Israel
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Israel sought to drive out the Philistine oppressors and overlords.
OUTCOME: Under King Saul, Israel enjoyed limited but significant success against the Philistines; under King David, the Philistines were entirely neutralized.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Between 1080 and 1028 B.C.E., the Philistines rose, invaded, and came to dominate the territories of Israel. Under the reign of King Saul (fl. c. 1021–1000 B.C.E.), the Jews rebelled against their Philistine overlords. Saul had significant success against the Philistines; however, internal struggles and factionalism within Israel ultimately impeded the struggle, and Saul was never able to drive the Philistines completely out of Israel. Saul was killed at the important Battle of Mount Gilboa.

David (d. c. 962 B.C.E.) succeeded to the throne vacated on the death of Saul, and from 1010 to about 1000 B.C.E., he succeeded in neutralizing the Philistine threat. He did this by three means: prowess at arms, an ability to unite the always fractious Israelites, and the diplomatic daring to recruit soldiers from among the very Philistines he had defeated. This last step co-opted Philistine resistance and also provided Israel with an army to combat other external threats and to expand the kingdom.

Further reading: Neal Bierling, *Philistines: Giving Goliath His Due* (Warren Center, Pa.: Shangri-La Publications, 2002); Trude Krakauer Dothan and M. Dothan, *People of the Sea: The Search for the Philistines* (New York: Macmillan, 1992); Carl S. Ehrlich, *The Philistia in Transition, A History from ca. 1000–730 BCE* (Boston: Brill Academic, 1996).

Jewish Revolt (168–143 B.C.E.)

See MACCABEES, REVOLT OF THE.

Jewish Revolt (66–73)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Palestine vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Jerusalem and the deserts of Palestine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A band of Jewish rebels sought to expel the Romans from Palestine.
OUTCOME: After much effort, the rebellion was crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 3,600 Jerusalemites killed
TREATIES: None

Cestius Gallus (fl. first century), the governor of first-century Rome's Middle Eastern possessions, was a rash and inept administrator, easily antagonized by a band of Jewish zealots bent on expelling the Romans from Palestine. An explosive situation soon developed. It took only the additional ineptitude of Judea's Roman procurator, Gessius Florus (fl. first century), to light the fuse. As the result of a dispute in Caesarea, the capital of Judea, Florus imposed a heavy fine on the Temple at Jerusalem. When the Jews refused to pay the fine, Gessius Florus met with a Jewish delegation in Jerusalem. The Jews protested the procurator's looting of the land, whereupon Florus brought the meeting to an end by ordering the deaths of 3,600 Jerusalemites. Instead of cowering in fear, the Jews revolted against the Romans. The rebellion spread rapidly through Palestine as zealots took a series of Roman frontier fortresses, most notably Masada, in 66.

In response to the spreading conflict, Gallus led troops to Jerusalem, where he attacked the temple, but was beaten back. Retreating through the Jerusalem suburb of Bezetha, he lost 6,000 men, equipment, and a siege train to Jewish forces. News of the loss outraged the Roman emperor Nero (37–68), who dispatched an army under Titus Flavius Vespasian (9–79) to crush the revolt.

Vespasian was an able professional commander. He began his campaign systematically, in Galilee, where he laid siege to Jotapata, an important Jewish-held Galilean fortress. After a 47-day siege, Jotapata fell, and its commander, Joseph Ben Matthias (37–c. 95), became a Roman prisoner. Changing his name to Flavius Josephus, he wrote *The Jewish War,* an extraordinary eyewitness account of the rebellion.

After the fall of Jotapata, Vespasian sought an early end to the bloodshed through a peace conference but was rebuffed. His forces were met in battle at Tiberias, Gischala, and the fortress Gamala. Victorious in each, his troops laid waste to many rebel cities as they inexorably advanced on Jerusalem in 68. That city was already beset by civil strife; for the zealots had slaughtered not only Roman residents but many of the Jews who supported

them. However, Jerusalem was given a reprieve when Vespasian, who would become emperor, was obliged to withdraw from the field of battle and return to Rome following the murder of Nero.

Vespasian turned over command of the army to his son Titus (c. 40–81), who arrived from Rome and immediately carried out the siege of Jerusalem in the spring of 70. The city presented a formidable objective because it was enclosed by great walls. Titus breached the outer wall in the north and the west, then, using assault towers, his troops went to work on the inner wall. The city's defenders sent Titus a surrender offer, and the general called a halt to the siege. But it was only a ruse to buy time for the Jewish troops to withdraw into the upper city and the temple areas. Titus resumed the siege, broke through the inner wall, and invaded the city, only to find the immediate area deserted. Deciding that it would be costly to fight it out, Titus instead erected a siege wall around Jerusalem to starve out its defenders. Although a few Jews surrendered, the majority fought on with a fierceness born of desperation. Relentlessly, Titus took increasing numbers of captives, whom he crucified, sometimes 500 at a time, all in full sight of the remaining defenders.

Titus next moved against the Antonia fortress, which defended the temple. Day and night he battered the fortress with rams until it crumbled. At this, the zealots hunkered down in the fortified temple itself. To breach it, the Romans set fire to the gates, unintentionally igniting the entire temple. Once it fell to the Romans, soldiers looted its treasure.

The Jews were still in possession of the Upper City. Titus opened negotiations, but these soon broke down, whereupon the general ordered the burning of the lower city. He next attacked and breached the walls of the upper city. There he found no one left to fight—only the bodies of those who had died in the siege. Putting the rest of Jerusalem to the torch, the Romans took additional prisoners, whom they crucified or enslaved.

In the meantime, Roman forces marched through the desert to root out the rebels hidden in far-flung fortresses. The fortress at Herodium fell quickly. The fortress at Machaerus surrendered after the capture of its leader in 71. But Masada, taken back in 66, resisted capture. Its position was virtually unassailable, perched on a mountaintop 1,400 feet above the level of the Dead Sea and fitted out with two palaces and formidable fortifications, which had been built by Judea's king, Herod the Great (73–4 B.C.E.).

Masada was besieged in 72 (*see* MASADA, SIEGE OF). Defended by fewer than 1,000 men, led by Eleazar ben Yahir, women, and children against a Roman legion consisting of some 15,000 men, the fortress held out for almost two years. The Romans dug a siege wall, set up eight camps, and erected a massive ramp for a siege tower and battering ram. Yet they managed to make only a single breach in Masada's stone wall, which was readily repaired with a wall of wood and earth. The Romans, however, set fire to the wooden wall and finally entered Masada, where they were stunned to find just two women and five children, holed up in a cave, still alive. When the situation was hopeless, the zealots had chosen mass suicide rather than capture and enslavement.

Further reading: Rupert Furneaux, *The Roman Siege of Jerusalem* (New York: D. McKay Co., 1972); Flavius Josephus, *The Jewish War,* in *Complete Works,* trans. William Whitson (Nashville: Nelson Reference and Electronic, 2003); Mikhah Livneh, *The Last Fortress: The Study of Masada and Its People* (Tel Aviv: Ministry of Defense, 1989); John W. Welch, *Masada and the World of the New Testament* (Provo, Utah: Brigham Young University Press, 1997); Yigael Yadin, *Masada: Herod's Fortress and the Zealots' Last Stand* (New York: Random House, 1966).

Jewish Revolt (115–117)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Jewish rebels vs. Roman imperial forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Primarily the Roman province of Cyrenaica; also Egypt, Cyprus, Asia Minor, Judea, and Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Jews sought relief from Roman repression.
OUTCOME: Despite isolated Jewish victories, the rebellion was ruthlessly crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The revolt began in the Roman province of Cyrenaica (eastern Libya), which was populated in large part by Greeks and Jews. The Jews, who had long felt themselves oppressed by the Greeks, now rebelled against the even more oppressive Romans. Zealots instigated a revolt in the city of Cyrene in 115 under the leadership of one Lukuas or Andreas (fl. second century). After Roman citizens were slain and buildings destroyed, the Roman emperor Trajan (53–117) dispatched forces to crush the rebellion and punish the Jews.

In the meantime, the revolt spread to Jews in Egypt, Cyprus, Asia Minor, Judea, and Mesopotamia. In each place, the Romans soon regained control. In Alexandria, the Jewish rebels enjoyed a measure of triumph, especially in the areas outside the city. In the Cypriot city of Salamis, Jewish rebels massacred all non-Jews and then sacked the city. Yet by 117, the rebellion was well under control—although sporadic outbreaks continued beyond the reign

of Trajan, and the prevailing spirit of rebellion and defiance prompted subsequent Roman emperors to appoint repressive governors throughout the region.

See also JEWISH REVOLT (66–73).

Further reading: A. Hayim Ben-Sasson and Haum H. Ben-Sasson, *History of the Jewish People* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1985); Paul M. Johnson, *A History of the Jews* (New York: HarperCollins, 1988); Max L. Margolis and Alexander Marx, *A History of the Jewish People* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1972).

Jewish Revolt (132–135)

See BAR COCHEBA'S REVOLT.

Jin Invasion of South China

See JUCHEN MONGOL INVASION OF THE SONG EMPIRE.

Johnson County War (1892)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Small ranchers and cowboys of Johnson County, Wyoming, vs. the cattle barons of the Wyoming Stock Growers' Association
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Johnson County, Wyoming
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Cattle barons blamed an outbreak of rustling on their former cowhands and other small ranchers, and when the courts refused to act, they took matters into their own hands.
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; no one was convicted of rustling, but neither were others convicted of vigilantism and murder; the "war" polarized politics in the state for generations.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 50 cattle barons and their hired guns; 200 cowboys and small ranchers
CASUALTIES: Two small ranchers
TREATIES: None

The Johnson County War (or "Invasion") in 1892 was one of the more infamous and one of the last of the major vigilante conflicts in the American West of the 19th century. The perpetrators of the incident were the owners of large cattle ranches, many of whom lived in Cheyenne, Wyoming, and left the day-to-day operations of their Wyoming ranches to managers. Most of the big ranchers were members of the Wyoming Stock Growers' Association, a private organization that had received quasi-governmental status through control over roundups and disposition of "mavericks."

By the 1890s, the cattle barons had become accustomed to using state action for their purposes, and they were heard to complain constantly that the courts, particularly in Johnson County, were refusing to convict cattle thieves. They hired former Johnson County sheriff Frank M. Canton (1849–1927) to put a stop to the rustling by any means necessary. Canton—who was later implicated in the murders of two small ranchers who the cattlemen thought were rustlers—became a source of intimidation by the big ranchers against homesteaders in general. Still, the "problem" persisted, and the big operators planned a daring strike by a band of vigilantes they called "Regulators" and the people of Johnson County called "Invaders."

On April 5, 1892, a special train made up of six cars pulled out of the station at Cheyenne bound for Casper. Aboard were 19 cattlemen, 5 stock detectives, 22 Texas gunmen, 1 Idaho gunman, 2 newspaper reporters, and 4 observers. Leading the secret expedition were Frank Canton and cattleman Frank Wolcott. A good number of the Wyoming participants had been prominent in state affairs; five had been delegates to the state constitutional convention three years before. These invaders disembarked at Casper and set out on horses for Buffalo, county seat of Johnson County, some 100 miles to the north. They carried with them a "death list" of men they believed were rustlers or were sympathetic to rustling.

Forty-six miles short of their goal, the invaders came upon two of the men on their list. Nate Champion and Nick Ray were staying in a cabin on the KC ranch, near the present-day town of Kaycee. The invaders surrounded the cabin. Ray was shot and killed, but Champion was able to stand off the 50 gunmen for almost 12 hours. At 4 P.M., the invaders set fire to the cabin and shot Champion dead when he ran from the burning building. During the stand-off, Buffalo editor Jack Flagg and his son happened by in a buggy. They escaped capture and got word to the citizens of Buffalo. The invaders came within six miles of Buffalo but turned back when they were told the town had been warned. They took refuge in a barn at the TA Ranch, 13 miles south of Buffalo.

Led by Red Angus, county sheriff, about 200 Buffalo residents set out to intercept the invading force. On the morning of April 11, 1892, the invaders were surrounded. As they approached Buffalo, they had cut the telegraph lines and persuaded acting governor Amos Barber not to answer calls from Buffalo citizens for military intervention. Now, the invaders needed army protection. They managed to send word to Barber, who immediately sent messages to Washington, D.C., to Senators Francis E. Warren (1844–1924) and Joseph Maull Carey (1845–1924), both sympathetic to the invaders. Some claim that the senators roused President Benjamin Harrison (1833–1901) from bed to give an order to send troops. The cavalry, stationed at Fort McKinney near Buffalo, arrived in time to prevent further casualties.

Most of the invaders waited in the comfort of the officers' quarters at Fort D. A. Russell, where they were held pending trial. Following nine months of delays, the case

was dismissed because Johnson County could no longer afford the high costs of prosecution.

The inept invasion split the state politically for several years, most people taking the side of Johnson County against the wealthy few who supported the big ranchers. It left two generations of hard feelings, and traces of bitterness were said to remain a century later. In the immediate aftermath of the invasion, Cheyenne newspaperman Asa Mercer wrote an exposé, "Banditti of the Plains: The Crowning Infamy of the Ages," condemning the invasion. Owen Wister (1860–1938), a friend of the invaders, canceled a vacation to the area in the summer of 1892, fearing involvement in the fallout, but the "war" became the inspiration for his novel *The Virginian,* as well as the novel and film *Shane* and the movie *Heaven's Gate*.

Further reading: John Clay, *My Life on the Range* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1962); Jack R. Gage, *The Johnson County War* (Cheyenne, Wyo.: Flintrock Pub. Co., 1967); Helena Huntington Smith, *The War on Powder River* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1966).

Jokyu War (1221)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Hojo vs. former emperor Toba II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kyoto, Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Toba wanted to overthrow the Hojo-controlled Bakufu (military government).
OUTCOME: The Hojo quickly crushed Toba's rebellion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the Kamakura period, Japanese political life was a complicated and subtle web of officially constituted authority manipulated by unofficial powers. In 1192, the Bakufu, a military government, was established at Kamakura, ruled by a shogun, a military leader whose authority was hereditary. At this time, the role of emperor had degenerated to that of a mere puppet. Initially, the shoguns enjoyed the real power, but they, too, soon deliquesced to the level of mere instruments of the powerful Hojo family, led by a *shikken* (regent).

Early in the 12th century, Emperor Toba II (1180–1239) abdicated, realizing that, in the present state of Japanese government, he commanded more influence off the throne than on it. In 1221, Toba recruited the support of Japanese monasteries, which possessed great military strength. He led the monasteries against the Bakufu but soon found himself checked by the Hojo—supporters of the Bakufu—at a battle in Kyoto. This effectively crushed the rebellion, and Toba was banished.

To prevent further rebellion, the Hojo boldly installed two of their own military governors in Kyoto and simultaneously seized both the imperial court and the imperial succession. Those loyal to Toba forfeited their estates, which were redistributed to individuals and families friendly to the Hojo. Thus the brief Jokyu War firmly bolstered the feudal nature of Japanese society during this period and linked feudalism to a strong military establishment.

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Jordanian Civil War (1970–1971)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Jordan vs. Palestinian guerrillas
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Jordan
DECLARATION: Martial law decree, September 16, 1970
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Jordan's King Hussein wanted to purge Jordan of Palestinian terrorists.
OUTCOME: The Palestinians were suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Jordanians, 54,000; Palestinians, 20,000
CASUALTIES: Jordan army, 750 killed, 1,250 wounded. Total casualties for both sides are estimated at 3,440 killed and 10,840 wounded.
TREATIES: None

The Six-Day War between Egypt and Israel produced some 400,000 Palestinian refugees, who fled the West Bank when it was forfeited to victorious Israel (*see* Arab-Israeli War [1967]). This vast influx of dispossessed Palestinians joined the even larger Palestinian population already resident in Jordan, which immediately became a base from which Palestinians conducted terrorist attacks on Israel. The most visible and militant of the Palestinian terrorist groups was the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), led by Yasser Arafat (b. 1929). In defiance of Jordan's king Hussein (1935–99), Arafat asserted the PLO's right to conduct war from Jordanian territory with the objective of reclaiming the West Bank as a Palestinian state. Hussein could not long tolerate the threat to his own reign and to the sovereignty of his nation.

In February, 200 were killed and 500 wounded in four days of fighting. This was followed on September 1 by a Palestinian-backed assassination attempt against the Jordanian king. The final straw came with "Black September," a rash of PLO hijackings of commercial airliners during

September 6–9, 1970, which were flown to Amman, Jordan. Risking the alienation of other Arab states—who wanted to see the defeat of Israel and who therefore supported the PLO—Hussein declared martial law on September 16, 1970, and conducted a 10-day campaign against the Palestinians, containing the refugee camps, disarming guerrillas, and deporting key leaders. King Hussein deployed his Bedouin army of 52,000 and his 2,000-man, 40-plane air force against the outclassed forces—about 20,000 men—fielded by the Palestinians. Syria deployed two armored brigades on September 20, threatening out-and-out war, but Hussein did not back down. Some 300 Syrian tanks advanced across the border, only to be pushed back by September 23 with the loss of 60 vehicles. President Gamal Abdel Nasser (1918–70) of Egypt intervened and brokered a cease-fire on September 27.

Low-level guerrilla resistance continued throughout Jordan well into 1971; however, Amman was cleared of Palestinians by April, and, by July, PLO bases throughout Jordan had been destroyed. The PLO and other Palestinian guerrillas moved on to bases in Lebanon.

See also LEBANESE CIVIL WAR (1975–1992).

Further reading: Clinton Baily, *Jordan's Palestinian Challenge, 1948–1983: A Political History* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1984).

Juchen Mongol Conquest of the Liao
(1114–1122)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Juchen Mongols vs. the Liao (Khitan) dynasty; China also attacked the Liao during this period
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Manchuria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of southern Manchuria
OUTCOME: The Juchen Mongols not only took southern Manchuria but penetrated deep into China to establish the Jin (Chin) dynasty at Beijing.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

For many years, the Juchen Mongol tribes of northern Manchuria recognized the suzerainty of the Liao (Khitan) dynasty in southern Manchuria. Then, in 1114, the leader of the Juchen Mongols suddenly severed relations with the overlord of the Khitan tribe that had founded the Liao dynasty. This was the prelude to a Mongol attack on the Liao, which came swiftly and massively as thousands of Juchen tribesmen poured in from the north.

The Liao situation was made worse by an attack by the Chinese from the south; China sought to exploit an opportunity to avenge the disloyalty of people who had been its former vassal.

Squeezed between two great forces, the Liao evacuated Manchuria by 1116. The Juchen Mongols held that territory and continued to pursue the Liao into Shanxi (Shansi) and Zhili (Chihli) in present-day China. By the end of the war, 1122, the Juchen Mongols had taken Beijing and established the Jin dynasty. Liao survivors settled in the west, where they founded Kara-Khitai in the valley of the Ili River. Their once great dynasty, however, was totally obliterated by 1125.

See also CHINESE WAR WITH THE KHITANS; CHINESE WAR WITH THE TANGUTS, FIRST; CHINESE WAR WITH THE TANGUTS, SECOND.

Further reading: Hok-lam Chan, *Legitimation in Imperial China: Discussions under the Jurchen-Chin Dynasty, 1115–1234* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1984); Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3d ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1975); Jing-shen Tao, *The Jurchen in Twelfth-Century China: A Study in Sinicization* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1976); Hogt Cleveland Tillman and Stephen H. West, eds., *China under Jurchen Rule* (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1995).

Juchen Mongol Invasion of the Song Empire (1125–1162)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Juchen Mongols (Jin [Chin] dynasty) vs. Song (Sung) dynasty and, subsequently, Southern Song
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of China
OUTCOME: In the early phases of the war, the Song were defeated and pushed to the south; subsequently, the Southern Song staged a successful counteroffensive campaign, which drove the Chin northward. A treaty was concluded, dividing rule of China between the two dynasties.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaties between Southern Song and Chin, dividing rule, 1141 and 1162

During the JUCHEN MONGOL CONQUEST OF THE LIAO, from 1114 to 1122, the Chinese Song dynasty had helped the Juchen Mongols take the territory of the Liao in southern Manchuria and Shanxi (Shansi). In 1125, however, the Juchen Mongols, who had established the Jin dynasty at Beijing, suddenly turned on the Song by invading Song

holdings north of the Yellow River. In 1126, the Juchen Mongols went on to cross the Yellow River and surround the Song capital of Kaifeng (K'ai-feng). After a year-long siege, that city fell, and the Song emperor, Huizong (Hui Tsung; 1082–1135), was captured, along with his family. All were sent into exile; however, one son, Gaozong (Kao Tsung;1107–87), escaped and fled to Nanjing (Nanking). There he founded the Southern Song dynasty.

In 1129, the Juchen Mongols followed Gaozong. Crossing the Yangtze River, they attacked and captured Nanjing, Gaozong's capital city. The indefatigable Southern Song emperor fled again, this time to Hangzhou (Hangchow), and organized armies under General Yo Fei (Yue Fei; d. 1141). Coordinating a land assault with the Song Yangtze River fleet, Yo Fei scored a victory against the Juchen Mongols—the Jin—pushing them back north across the river. This marked a turning point in the war, as Southern Song forces pushed the Jin farther and farther north.

By the early 1140s, many within the Southern Song hierarchy, weary of war, called for a treaty with the Jin. Yo Fei was adamant that the war should continue, but in 1141, he was relieved of command, recalled, and then executed, whereupon the Song and Jin concluded a treaty dividing China along the watershed of the Yangtze valley and the Yellow River valley. For two decades, an uneasy peace, frequently punctuated by outbursts of violence, prevailed. At last, in 1161, Jin forces mounted an invasion of Southern Song territory, but were devastatingly rebuffed in a battle outside of Nanjing. Military historians believe that this battle was marked by the first use of explosives (gunpowder). Much abashed, the Jin concluded a new treaty with Gaozong and the Southern Song.

See also MONGOL CONQUEST OF THE CHIN EMPIRE; MONGOL CONQUEST OF THE SONG EMPIRE.

Further reading: Hok-lam Chan, *Legitimation in Imperial China: Discussions under the Jurchen-Chin Dynasty, 1115–1234* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1984); Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1975); Jing-shen Tao, *The Jurchen in Twelfth-Century China: A Study in Sinicization* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1976); Hogt Cleveland Tillman and Stephen H. West, eds., *China under Jurchen Rule* (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1995).

Jugurthine War (Numidian War) (112–106 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Followers of Jugurtha vs. Roman and Roman-led African forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Numidia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Romans wanted to depose Jugurtha in favor of the son of the previous king of Numidia.
OUTCOME: Jugurtha was captured and removed from the Numidian throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This conflict, sometimes called the Numidian War, is named for Jugurtha (c. 156–104), the king of Numidia from 118 to 105 B.C.E., who tried to free his North African kingdom from Rome. Jugurtha was an illegitimate grandson of Masinissa (d. 148 B.C.E.), the Numidian ruler who had first allied his country with the Romans, and the nephew of his successor, King Micipsa (d. 116 B.C.E.). As a young man, Jugurtha had become so popular among the Numidians that his uncle felt the need to send him away, and the king placed the youth in the service of Scipio Africanus the Younger (185/184–129 B.C.E.), when the Roman general led an expedition to besiege Spain. Once in Rome, Jugurtha managed to establish close relationships with several powerful Roman senators, who evidently persuaded Micipsa to adopt Jugurtha in 120.

Thus it was that, upon Micipsa's death, Jugurtha came to share rule over Numidia with Micipsa's two sons, Himpsal and Adherbal, the first of whom Jugurtha assassinated, prompting the second to flee to Rome in search of aid. Adherbal had reason to hope, since a change of government in his country required Roman approval, but Jugurtha knew Rome and the Romans better, bribing Roman officials through envoys and obtaining the Senate's authorization to divide Numidia east and west. Jugurtha took the vastly richer western half, saddling Adherbal with the east.

Hardly content to let matters rest there, in 112 Jugurtha attacked Adherbal's diminished kingdom, trusting his influence in Rome to smooth over any senatorial feathers he might ruffle in the process. But when he captured Adherbal's capital at Cirta, he overstepped the boundaries, killing not only his rival king but also a number of Roman businessmen.

Popular outrage at the death of Roman citizens swept the city, forcing the Senate to declare war on Numidia. Even then, however, Jugurtha's contacts helped. In 111, the Roman consul, Lucius Calpurnius Bestia, made a favorable settlement with Jugurtha, though the Senate summoned him to Rome to explain just how he had managed to obtain so generous a treaty. While in the capital, he had a potential rival for the throne assassinated, which led even the staunchest of his Roman friends to wash their hands of him.

In 109, the Roman general Quintus Caesilius Metellus (d. 99 B.C.E.) led a large African army in a sweep through Numidia, devastating much of the kingdom. Unable to defeat the invaders in open battle, Jugurtha resorted to

guerrilla warfare. To combat this, Rome dispatched an army under Gaius Marius (c. 155–86 B.C.E.), who picked up where Caesilius had left off, ravaging the kingdom. This, however, failed to extinguish the flame of resistance. Ultimately, the Jugurthine War was ended not by military victory, but through the treachery of Jugurtha's father-in-law, who delivered the ruler into Roman hands. Marius was thus able to leave Numidia and return to Rome with Jugurtha his prisoner.

Further reading: J. R. Hawthorn, ed., *Sallust, Rome and Jugurtha: Being Selections from Saullust's Bellum Iugurthinum* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1969); Paul MacKendrick, *The North African Stones Speak* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1980); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Julian's First Campaign

See ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (337–363).

Jülich Succession, War of the (1609–1614)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Brandenburg and Palatinate-Neuberg (with Dutch and French support) vs. Austria (Holy Roman Empire); later, Brandenburg vs. Palatinate-Neuberg (with Catholic League support)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Duchies of Jülich, Cleves, Mark, and Berg
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The parties contested succession to the duchies of Jülich, Cleves, Mark, and Berg.
OUTCOME: Rule of the duchies was divided between Brandenburg (Cleves and Mark) and Palatinate-Neuberg (Jülich and Berg).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Xanten, November 12, 1614

The death of Duke John William of Jülich (d. 1609) in 1609 precipitated a war for succession to his territories, the duchies of Jülich, Mark, Berg, and Cleves. Three rulers vied for succession: John Sigismund (1572–1619), the elector of Brandenburg (who claimed title by descent through the female line), Wolfgang William, the count of Palatinate-Neuberg (who made the same claim), and the elector of Saxony (who deemed the duchies his as an imperial fief). A fourth ruler, the Holy Roman Emperor, wanted to deliver the territories to Spain. A confusing conflict then began. The Brandenburg elector and the count of Palatinate-Neuberg agreed to rule the duchies jointly, but Austrian troops commanded by Leopold (1586–1633), the brother of the Holy Roman Emperor, invaded and held the duchies during 1609–10. Dutch and German Protestant troops, allied with the French, invaded in 1610, and pushed the Austrians out, capturing Jülich's fortress on September 1, 1610.

Yet the conflict was not over. In 1613, the elector of Brandenburg and the count of Palatinate-Neuberg fell out, dissolving their agreement for joint rule. The count now appealed to Catholic forces for aid in evicting the Brandenburg elector, and the war began to develop into a religious conflict between Protestants and Catholics. However, before a new outbreak of fighting occurred, Brandenburg and Palatinate-Neuberg concluded the Treaty of Xanten on November 12, 1614, whereby Brandenburg received Cleves and Mark (as well as, separately, Ravensberg) and Palatinate-Neuberg received Jülich and Berg (and Ravenstein). Concerned not to alienate the Catholic League, the count of Palatinate-Neuberg pledged to foster a conversion to Catholicism throughout his realm. Sigismund, the Brandenburg elector, remained faithful to his Calvinist Protestantism but instituted general religious toleration throughout his possessions.

See also THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Geoffrey Barraclough, *The Origins of Modern Germany,* 3rd ed. (Oxford, England: B. Blackwell, 1988); Frank Eyck, *Religion and Politics in German History* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998); Friedrich Heer, *Holy Roman Empire,* trans. Janet Sondheimer (New York: Sterling, 2002); James A. Vann and Steven Rowan, eds., *The Old Reich: Essays in German Political Institutions, 1495–1806* (Brussels: Editions de la librarie encyclopédique, 1974).

July Revolution (1830)

See FRENCH REVOLUTION (1830).

July Revolution (1854)

See SPANISH REVOLUTION (1854).

Justinian's Gothic War

See GOTHIC (ITALIAN) WAR.

Justinian's First Persian War (524–532)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Sassanid Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mesopotamia, at the Persian frontier
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Byzantine emperor Justinian I wanted to end chronic Persian invasions of Byzantine territory.
OUTCOME: The invasions were halted when Persia concluded an "eternal" peace with the Byzantine Empire.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At most, both sides fielded about 40,000 men each.
CASUALTIES: At Dara, Persian losses were 8,000 dead; Byzantine losses are unknown.
TREATIES: "Eternal" peace between Chosroes of Persia and Justinian I of the Byzantine Empire, 532

In the sixth century, Persians continually made incursions into Byzantine territory, and, during 524, they invaded Mesopotamia. Emperor Justinian I (483–565) sent forces to repulse them and, over the next few years, engaged in frontier skirmishes. At last, in 527, Justinian ordered the leading Byzantine general, Belisarius (c. 505–565), to lead a major campaign against the Persians to end the threat to Mesopotamia once and for all. In 528, as part of this campaign, Belisarius built a large fort at Dara, in northern Mesopotamia, and garrisoned it. The construction of the fort provoked Kavadh I (d. 531), Sassanid king of Persia, to mount a major invasion with a combined Persian-Arab army of 40,000 men. Belisarius sallied out of Dara to intercept the invasion, attacking frontally with his own troops and conducting flanking attacks using Hun cavalry. The Persian-Arab force was routed and fled the field, leaving some 8,000 dead behind.

Some authorities date the Battle of Dara at 528, some at 530. What is certain is that, in 531, Kavadh I resumed the offensive, striking Belisarius at Callinicum on the east bank of the Euphrates. This time, the Persians seized the initiative, and it was Belisarius who suffered a severe defeat, saving his army only by taking refuge on islands in the river. Although Belisarius lost, the fact that he had saved most of his army meant that Callinicum was a draw, and it prompted Chosroes (d. 579), son of Kavadh I—who died shortly after the Callinicum battle—to conclude peace with Byzantium. It was not destined to last long (*see* JUSTINIAN'S SECOND PERSIAN WAR).

Further reading: John W. Barker, *Justinian and the Later Roman Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1966); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2003).

Justinian's Second Persian War (539–561)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mesopotamia and Georgia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Justinian I defended the frontiers of his empire against renewed Persian invasion.
OUTCOME: Justinian paid Persia annual tribute money to maintain the peace.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace treaty and subsidy agreement, 561

Chosroes (d. 579), Sassanid king of Persia, concluded an "eternal" peace with Justinian I (483–565), Byzantine emperor, ending JUSTINIAN'S First PERSIAN WAR (524–532), but renewed combat in 539 when he invaded Syria and sacked Antioch, a major city of the Eastern Empire. He held the city for a short time through 540. Chosroes resettled many Antiochan prisoners in a new town near his capital, Ctesiphon. In this way, he could ensure better control of the subject population. Chosroes went on to ravage Mesopotamia and Lazica (western Georgia), finally concluding an armistice with the hard-pressed Justinian I in 545. The Byzantine emperor judged it more expedient to pay Chosroes a hefty annual tribute than to fight him, but even this did not stop the combat, and the war continued at a low level of intensity through 561, when a major treaty was signed. In return for continuation of an annual subsidy, the Byzantines were permitted to maintain fortresses in the Caucasus.

See also NIKA REVOLT; ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (502–506); VANDAL-ROMAN WARS IN NORTH AFRICA.

Further reading: John W. Barker, *Justinian and the Later Roman Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1966); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2003).

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Kaffir War, First (1779)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Boers vs. the Xhosa tribespeople (derisively called Kaffirs)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of farming and pasturage lands
OUTCOME: The Boers succeeded in pushing the Xhosa beyond the Great Fish River; however, no formal boundary resolution was reached.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Kaffir was the disparaging name the Boers—the Dutch farmers of South Africa—gave to native Africans. During the last quarter of the 18th century, Boers began migrating from the coastal regions of the South African colony to inland territory 400 miles northeast of Cape Town. This brought them into conflict with the Xhosa, a Bantu tribe that worked the pastureland along the Great Fish River. Both sides made efforts to demarcate boundaries of settlement, but individual Boers continually violated the boundaries, and in 1779, perhaps motivated by vengeance after Boers killed some tribesmen, the Xhosa raided Boer herders. Cattle were appropriated or slaughtered, and several herdsmen were killed. In response, the Boers organized guerrilla-style raids against the Xhosa. Not only were people targeted, but cattle was stolen in large numbers—reportedly in excess of 5,000 head.

The Boer raids succeeded in driving the Xhosa across the Great Fish River, which served as a natural boundary to settlement, but hardly resolved the underlying conflicts. Boer-Xhosa violence became endemic, and a Second KAFFIR WAR in 1793 ultimately erupted.

See also AXE, WAR OF THE; KAFFIR WAR, THIRD; KAFFIR WAR, FOURTH; KAFFIR WAR, FIFTH; KAFFIR WAR, SIXTH; KAFFIR WAR, EIGHTH; KAFFIR WAR, NINTH.

Further reading: Richard Elphick and Hermann Giliomee, eds., *The Shaping of South African Society, 1652–1820* (Cape Town: Longman, 1979); Noel Mostert, *Frontiers: The Epic of South Africa's Creation and the Tragedy of the Xhosa People* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993); J. B. Peires, *The House of Phalo: A History of the Xhosa People in the Days of Their Independence* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1982); Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa,* 3rd ed. (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2001).

Kaffir War, Second (1793)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Boers vs. the Xhosa tribespeople (derisively called Kaffirs)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dispute over boundary between Boer and Xhosa farming lands
OUTCOME: The war was abortive; after indecisive raids on both sides, the Boer force disbanded over a dispute with its Dutch East India Company leader.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: A boundary treaty between the Boers and the Xhosa had been concluded before the war began but, unenforceable, was without practical effect.

After the First KAFFIR WAR in 1779, violence between the Xhosa tribe and the Boers (Dutch farmers in South Africa) continued. The Boers eventually solicited aid from the Dutch East India Company, the powerful colonizing force in the region. A company agent known to history only as Maynier (fl. 1793) was sent to the Xhosa to negotiate a resolution to the territorial dispute. Although an arrangement was agreed to, it had no practical effect, because the Dutch East India Company furnished no troops or police force to enforce the terms of the agreement. Both Xhosa tribespeople and Boers continued frequently to encroach on one another's territory.

In 1793, a severe drought swept South Africa. Desperate Boer farmers drove their herds into Kaffirland *Kaffir* was the term Boers applied to all African natives) in search of pasturage. A farmer named Lindeque (fl. 1793) organized a group that sought more than pasturage. These renegade Boers, violating the Dutch East India Company agreement, began raiding Xhosa cattle. In response, the Xhosa invaded the Boer territory. Agent Maynier recruited a guerrilla force from among the Boers, but the planned general assault against the Xhosa failed to materialize when the guerrilla force disbanded; Maynier refused to demand that the Xhosa surrender a large number of cattle as reparation for Boer losses.

See also AXE, WAR OF THE; KAFFIR WAR, THIRD; KAFFIR WAR, FOURTH; KAFFIR WAR, FIFTH; KAFFIR WAR, SIXTH; KAFFIR WAR, EIGHTH; KAFFIR WAR, NINTH.

Further reading: Richard Elphick and Hermann Giliomee, eds., *The Shaping of South African Society, 1652–1820* (Cape Town: Longman, 1979); Noel Mostert, *Frontiers: The Epic of South Africa's Creation and the Tragedy of the Xhosa People* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993); J. B. Peires, *The House of Phalo: a History of the Xhosa People in the Days of Their Independence* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1982); Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa,* 3rd ed. (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2001).

Kaffir War, Third (1799–1801)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Boers (with British aid) vs. the Xhosa in alliance with the Khosians *Kaffir* was the Dutch generic term for native Africans.)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dispute over boundary between Boer and Xhosa farming lands
OUTCOME: British diplomatic intervention broke up the alliance between the Xhosa and Khosians, but military campaigning failed to expel the Xhosa from the disputed region; the war petered out, ending indecisively.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Amiens (between France and Britain), 1802, temporarily took Britain out of the chronic conflict between the Boers and the Xhosa.

In 1795, the Boers of Swellendam and Graaf-Reinet, both South African regions, declared independence, but it would not last long. The British, following the defeat of the Dutch by Napoleonic France (*see* COALITION, WAR OF THE FIRST), took over the Boer lands. They inherited not only the territory but also the chronic Boer territorial dispute with the Xhosa tribe. The Third Kaffir War would be the first involving the British and the British regular army. At issue, as always, was farmland and cattle pasturage.

In 1799, the Xhosa made common cause with the Khosian servants of the Boers, a people also known as the Hottentots and generally considered to be the first inhabitants of South Africa. These individuals deserted the Boers en masse, bringing with them guns and horses. Thus allied with the Khosians, the Xhosa raids against the Boers became both more destructive and more effective.

The British intervened with troops in May. They also acted diplomatically, by co-opting and undermining the alliance between the Xhosa and the Khosians. Territorial and other concessions to the Khosians succeeded in breaking the alliance, but the British goal of expelling the Xhosa from the disputed territories was not achieved. Nevertheless, by 1801, the war wound down on its own, and Britain temporarily washed its hands of the conflict by terms of the 1802 Treaty of Amiens (between France and Britain), which returned the Cape region to the Dutch.

See also AXE, WAR OF THE; HOTTENOTOT UPRISING; KAFFIR WAR, FIRST; KAFFIR WAR, SECOND; KAFFIR WAR, FOURTH; KAFFIR WAR, FIFTH; KAFFIR WAR, SIXTH; KAFFIR WAR, EIGHTH; KAFFIR WAR, NINTH.

Further reading: Richard Elphick and Hermann Giliomee, eds., *The Shaping of South African Society, 1652–1820* (Cape Town: Longman, 1979); Noel Mostert, *Frontiers: The Epic of South Africa's Creation and the Tragedy of the Xhosa People* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993); J. B. Peires, *The House of Phalo: A History of the Xhosa People in the Days of Their Independence* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1982); Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa,* 3rd ed. (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2001).

Kaffir War, Fourth (1811–1812)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Boers vs. the Xhosa; British authorities attempted to police both Boers and Xhosa, to enforce a border between them.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dispute over the boundary between Boer and Xhosa farming lands
OUTCOME: The underlying border issue remained unresolved; although the British built a string of forts to protect the border between the Boers and the Xhosa, they lacked sufficient troop strength to ensure an inviolate border.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anglo-Boer-Khosian force, 2,000; Xhosa, 5,500
CASUALTIES: Boers, 15 killed; Xhosa, 500 killed
TREATIES: None

The peace brought by the Treaty of Amiens (*see* Third Kaffir War) was short-lived, and alliances were realigned, such that Holland, formerly allied with Britain, now sided with France. In response, the British Royal Navy sailed into Cape Town harbor and retook control of the entire Cape region of South Africa. Against this background of European colonial conflict, the war between the Boers and Xhosa erupted anew, as "Kaffir" (the Boer term for any native African) refugees from colonial conflicts throughout the region poured into the Cape area in 1811. On December 27 of that year, Xhosa tribesmen massacred 15 Boers at a peace conference in the Zuurberg Mountains. A combined English, Boer, and Khosian (Hottentot) force of 2,000 was raised and pursued 5,500 Xhosa warriors across the Great Fish River by March 1812. Fought to a standstill, 500 Xhosa men were killed.

The British attempted to maintain strict borders between Xhosa and Boers, and they blamed the Boers unilaterally for violating the boundaries. The effort to enforce the borders was largely futile, however, since the British did not have the troop strength to police the region. After driving the Xhosa back across the Great Fish River, the British did establish a loose line of forts in an attempt to keep both sides separated.

See also Axe, War of the; Hottenotot Uprising; Kaffir War, First; Kaffir War, Second; Kaffir War, Fourth; Kaffir War, Fifth; Kaffir War, Sixth; Kaffir War, Eighth; Kaffir War, Ninth.

Further reading: Richard Elphick and Hermann Giliomee, eds., *The Shaping of South African Society, 1652–1820* (Cape Town: Longman, 1979); Noel Mostert, *Frontiers: The Epic of South Africa's Creation and the Tragedy of the Xhosa People* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993); J. B. Peires, *The House of Phalo: A History of the Xhosa People in the Days of Their Independence* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1982); Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa,* 3rd ed. (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2001).

Kaffir War, Fifth (1818–1820)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Boers vs. the Xhosa; Great Britain vs. the Xhosa; Great Britain vs. the Boers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In an effort to settle the chronic land dispute between the Boers and the Xhosa tribe, the British colonial government created a wide neutral zone, on which it settled British farmers; this action only exacerbated, complicated, and enlarged the territorial dispute.
OUTCOME: The boundary remained unresolved, and hostilities in this region were compounded, involving Boers, Xhosa, and the British.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Xhosa, 10,000; Anglo-Boer force, 2,300
CASUALTIES: At Grahamstown, Britain, 3; Xhosa, 1,000
TREATIES: None

The stress of continual warfare (*see* Kaffir War, First, Kaffir War, Second, Kaffir War, Third, and Kaffir War, Fourth) eroded the internal unity of the Xhosa tribe. A power struggle developed between two rival chieftains, Ndlambi (fl. 1810s) and Gaika (fl. 1810s), resulting in a civil war beginning in October 1818. Ndlambi's partisans defeated those of Gaika, slaughtering thousands, but the British Cape government, deciding that Gaika was more compliant with colonial policy, continued to back him. On Christmas 1818, Xhosa warriors crossed the Great Fish River, the boundary between white settlement and Xhosa lands. This gave British authorities a pretext for dispatching troops to attack partisans of Ndlambi. In response, Ndlambi launched an attack on Grahamstown, a Boer settlement. This, in turn, touched off the Fifth Kaffir War.

Violence raged without resolution for about one year, reaching a climax at Grahamstown on April 22, 1819, when 10,000 Xhosa attacked an Anglo-Boer force of 450 men plus 150 friendly Khosians (Hottentots). Thanks largely to British howitzers, the attack was repulsed. About 1,000 Xhosa warriors fell, whereas losses among the defenders were 3 killed and 5 wounded. An Anglo-Boer offensive followed in August 1820, with an army of 2,300, but as usual, the fighting petered out when both sides tired of it. This time, Lord Charles Somerset (fl. early 19th century), the British governor of the Cape Colony, was determined to bring permanent resolution to the chronic and costly conflict between the Boers and Xhosa. He declared not a mere border, but a neutral strip, closed to both sides, between the Great Fish River and the Keiskama River. The idea was to establish a no-man's-land,

a wide buffer. It was, however, a misguided policy: instead of alienating one side or the other, it alienated both. The valuable pasturage, watered by the rivers in an arid land, was badly needed. To make matters worse, Somerset settled *British* farmers in the neutral zone. Immediately, both Xhosa *and* Boers fell upon the settlers, who quickly fled. The war ended without resolution, but with great bitterness—now very much a three-way affair, with the Xhosa, the Boers, and the British locked in mutual hostility.

See also AXE, WAR OF THE; HOTTENOTOT UPRISING; KAFFIR WAR, SIXTH; KAFFIR WAR, EIGHTH; KAFFIR WAR, NINTH.

Further reading: Richard Elphick and Hermann Giliomee, eds., *The Shaping of South African Society, 1652–1820* (Cape Town: Longman, 1979); Noel Mostert, *Frontiers: The Epic of South Africa's Creation and the Tragedy of the Xhosa People* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993); J. B. Peires, *The House of Phalo: A History of the Xhosa People in the Days of Their Independence* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1982); Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa,* 3rd ed. (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2001).

Kaffir War, Sixth (1834–1835)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Boers vs. the Xhosa (derisively called Kaffirs); British intervened against the Xhosa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dispute over the boundary between Boer and Xhosa farming lands
OUTCOME: In an effort to settle the border dispute, the British expelled the Xhosa, then opened their lands to Boer settlement; unable to defend the newly opened territory, the British abandoned the Boers, many of whom migrated northward in the Great Trek. Anglo-Boer relations worsened, as did British relations with the Xhosa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: British forces, 2,000; Xhosa, 15,000
CASUALTIES: Boers and British, 200 killed; Xhosa, 2,000 killed
TREATIES: None

By the 1830s, in the Cape Colony of South Africa, the Boers, whose farmlands baked under prolonged drought, continually moved farther into Kaffirland (as they called the territory of the Xhosa tribe), thus provoking more Boer-Xhosa violence. The British government of the colony, hoping to maintain profitable trade (centered at the British settlement of Port Elizabeth) with both the Boers and the Xhosa, succeeded only in antagonizing both sides and, if anything, intensifying the chronic conflict.

In 1834, Sir Benjamin D'Urban (1777–1849), British governor of the colony, decided to act against the Xhosa by expelling them from the disputed region. This accomplished, he curried favor with the Boers by declaring the Xhosa lands open to settlement. In response, on December 21, 1834, 15,000 Xhosa warriors invaded the Cape Colony along a front 100 miles wide, killing dozens of whites. About 1,200 British troops counterattacked in February 1835, pushing a few thousand Xhosa out of the Fish River bush and killing 100. In April, 2,000 British troops attacked again, forcing the Xhosa into the Amatola Mountains and capturing Chief Hintsa (d. 1835). When he was killed on May 12, 1835, in an escape attempt, the Xhosa resistance collapsed. However, D'Urban realized that he was powerless to defend in the future the lands he himself had opened. He therefore ordered the territory deannexed, leaving the Boer settlers isolated and abandoned, greatly exacerbating tensions with the British. Disgusted with British inconstancy, many Boers began the northern migration known as the Great Trek. As for British relations with the Xhosa, tribal resentment of the annexation would ultimately lead to the War of the AXE in 1846 (the Seventh Kaffir War) and the Eighth KAFFIR WAR in 1850.

See also KAFFIR WAR, FIRST; KAFFIR WAR, SECOND; THIRD; KAFFIR WAR, FOURTH; KAFFIR WAR, FIFTH; KAFFIR WAR, NINTH.

Further reading: Noel Mostert, *Frontiers: The Epic of South Africa's Creation and the Tragedy of the Xhosa People* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993); J. B. Peires, *The House of Phalo: A History of the Xhosa People in the Days of Their Independence* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1982); Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa,* 3rd ed. (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2001).

Kaffir War, Seventh

See AXE, WAR OF THE (1846–1847).

Kaffir War, Eighth (1850–1853)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British colonial forces vs. the Xhosa tribe
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Xhosa resented British annexation of Xhosa territory.
OUTCOME: The Xhosa uprising was defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: British colonials, 1,400 killed; Xhosa, 16,000 killed or captured
TREATIES: Peace of March 2, 1853

As a result of the Sixth KAFFIR WAR, from 1834 to 1835, and the War of the AXE (the Seventh Kaffir War), from 1846 to 1847, the British not only annexed all Xhosa tribal territory but sharply limited the power of the Xhosa chiefs.

British authorities dispatched a force of 650 men to arrest Sandile (fl. 1850s), a Xhosa chief. At Boma Pass, on December 24, 1850, the force was ambushed and 23 British soldiers killed. A second British patrol was ambushed on the same day, with the loss of 15 troops. Then, on Christmas day, Xhosa warriors raided a British settlement, killing 46 civilians.

On December 29, the Xhosa struck again, 1,000 warriors attacking a British patrol of 150 just outside of Fort Hare. The patrol retreated into the fort, but lost 24 killed and 18 wounded. Then some 5,000 warriors attacked the fort on January 21, 1851. The garrison of 1,000 (mostly militia) repulsed the attack, inflicting perhaps 100 casualties on the Xhosa. Simultaneously, rebels of the Khoikhoi tribe attacked other forts and settlements, taking Fort Armstrong and the Khoikhoi Kat River Settlement.

By early 1851, some 20,000 warriors of several Bantu tribes were in rebellion. The British were outnumbered about 2 to 1, but, reinforced by the end of the year, British forces assumed the offensive and penetrated deep into Xhosa country in the Waterkloof region. They destroyed vast herds, some 80,000 head of cattle, the principal source of tribal wealth as well as sustenance, and they captured or killed about 16,000 warriors.

British losses were 1,400 killed or dead from disease. In addition, on February 26, 1852, the steamer *Birkenhead* foundered on rocks off Cape Agulhus with the loss of 445 Royal Navy sailors and army reinforcements. A peace was concluded on March 2, 1853.

See also KAFFIR WAR, FIRST; KAFFIR WAR, SECOND; KAFFIR WAR, THIRD; KAFFIR WAR, FOURTH; KAFFIR WAR, FIFTH; KAFFIR WAR, SIXTH; KAFFIR WAR, SEVENTH; KAFFIR WAR, EIGHTH; KAFFIR WAR, NINTH.

Further reading: Noel Mostert, *Frontiers: The Epic of South Africa's Creation and the Tragedy of the Xhosa People* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993); Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa,* 3rd ed. (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2001).

Kaffir War, Ninth (1877–1878)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain colonials vs. the Xhosa tribe
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Xhosa made a last-ditch effort to recover lands lost in previous wars.
OUTCOME: The British swiftly suppressed this latest rebellion, then cracked down harder than before, seizing and annexing all remaining Xhosa lands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: British colonials, 193 killed; Xhosa, 3,680 killed
TREATIES: None

The Xhosa defeat in the Eighth KAFFIR WAR in 1853 had been total and terrible, driving the already desperate tribe to even greater desperation. At the behest of Chief Sarili (fl. 1870s) and as they had done in preparation for the 1850–53 war, the Xhosa destroyed their own crops and cattle in 1856, persuaded that such a sacrifice would propitiate the spirits of their ancestors and bring them aid in combating the British. The result of this destruction was increased starvation and the deaths of as many as 55,000 Xhosa.

By the 1870s, the self-destruction had ceased, and the Xhosa, though badly depleted, began gearing up again for war. An uprising exploded in August 1877 but was quickly suppressed by June 1878. Chief Sandile (d. 1878) was killed, as was Chief Siyolo (d. 1878), and the Xhosa's remaining lands were annexed by the British, who reduced the proud tribe to total economic dependency. The Xhosa became a conquered people.

See also AXE, WAR OF THE; KAFFIR WAR, FIRST; KAFFIR WAR, SECOND; KAFFIR WAR, THIRD; KAFFIR WAR, FOURTH; KAFFIR WAR, FIFTH; KAFFIR WAR, SIXTH.

Further reading: James Lawrence, *The Savage Wars: British Campaigns in Africa, 1870–1920* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1985); Noel Mostert, *Frontiers: The Epic of South Africa's Creation and the Tragedy of the Xhosa People* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993); Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa,* 3rd ed. (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2001).

Kalmar, War of (1611–1613)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sweden vs. the Kingdom of Denmark and Norway
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Finnmark and southern Swedish coast
DECLARATION: Mutual, 1611
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The two sides fought for possession of the Finnmark region.
OUTCOME: Denmark and Norway gained control of Finnmark.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Knäred, 1613

Sweden's king Charles IX (1550–1611) attempted to wield absolute control over the Finnmark portion of the Scandi-

navian peninsula, the far northern region that offered a bounty in fisheries and fur trapping. Charles coupled this with various other attempts to curtail Danish trade in the Gulf of Riga and the eastern Baltic generally. In response, King Christian IV (1577–1648) of Denmark and Norway dispatched a fleet to defend trade in the Öresund (Danish Sound), then invited negotiation with Charles. The Swedish king refused to attempt peaceful resolution of Swedish-Danish border difficulties, and both nations declared war.

The Danes opened up with an offensive through Västergötland while the Norwegians laid siege against the Swedish port of Kalmar. Charles and his son Gustavus Adolphus (1594–1632) led a relief force to Kalmar, but the Danes then reinforced the assault, and the Swedes fell back to Visby, relinquishing Kalmar to the Danes by the summer of 1611. Incredibly, the frustrated Charles, defeated in battle, challenged Christian to a duel as a means of settling the fate of Kalmar. The king of Denmark and Norway wisely declined, then attacked the Swedes at Visby, but withdrew after a three-day drawn battle.

Charles IX died late in 1611, leaving the war to his son Gustavus II. He fared no better than his father, however, losing Finnmark and the port of Älvsborg in southeastern Sweden in May 1612. Exhausted, Gustavus II concluded the Peace of Knäred early in 1613, yielding to Danish-Norwegian control Finnmark but reclaiming Älvsborg in exchange for an annual tribute. Kalmar was also returned to Sweden.

See also KALMAR CIVIL WAR; THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2002); Michael Roberts, *Gustavus Adolphus: A History of Sweden, 1611–1632,* 2 vols. (London and New York: Longmans, Green, 1953–1958); Franklin D. Scott, *Sweden, the Nation's History* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1988).

Kalmar Civil War (1520–1523)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Swedish rebels vs. the Kalmar Union
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sweden
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sweden wanted to end oppression by the Kalmar Union monarch Christian II.
OUTCOME: Led by Gustavus Eriksson Vasa, the rebellion deposed Christian II, drove the Danes out of Sweden, and put Gustavus on the throne of an independent Sweden.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Christian II ordered the execution of nearly 100 Swedish nobles.
TREATIES: None

By virtue of the Kalmar Union (1397), King Christian II (1481–1559) was king of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. A Swedish rival presented himself, however, in Sten Sture the Younger (c. 1493–1520), regent to the Swedish throne. Christian led a Danish army in an invasion of Sweden in 1520 and was met in battle at Bogesund by Sten Sture. The regent was fatally wounded in the battle, whereupon his widow encouraged the Stockholm garrison to resist a siege, which the garrison did for five months before surrendering on November 4, 1520. Christian II was crowned in Stockholm the next day, on November 5, 1520, and, three days later, convened a "spiritual court" to justify, on religious grounds, a general purge of all opponents. The purge was nothing less than a massacre (later dubbed the Stockholm Massacre or the Bath of Blood) of nearly 100 Swedish noblemen. This provoked a rebellion, beginning among the peasants of the central Swedish province of Dalecarlia, led by a fugitive noble, Gustavus Eriksson Vasa (1496–1560).

Beginning with his peasant army, Vasa gradually conquered Danish-held areas. With each triumph, he attracted more recruits. He progressed through Uppsala and enjoyed such success that the Swedish Diet officially proclaimed Vasa liberator and administrator in August 1521. Thus sanctioned, he laid siege against Stockholm, which fell to him on June 20, 1523, whereupon Christian left the throne and was driven out of Sweden as well as Denmark. Vasa assumed the Swedish throne as Gustavus I later in 1523, thereby dissolving the Kalmar Union and rendering Sweden independent. In 1524, Frederick I (c. 1471–1533), successor to Christian in Denmark, met with Gustavus peacefully to settle lingering boundary differences between Denmark and Sweden. (The Kalmar Civil War is also known as the Swedish Civil War of 1520–23.)

See also DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1563–1570); KALMAR, WAR OF.

Further reading: Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2002); Franklin D. Scott, *Sweden, the Nation's History* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1988).

Kalmar War with Holstein (1409–1435)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kalmar Union vs. Holstein (with the Hanseatic League)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Holstein, Öresund, and Copenhagen and vicinity
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Erik VII, king of the Kalmar Union, wanted possession of Schleswig; the count of Holstein resisted.
OUTCOME: After a very long war, Erik returned Schleswig to Holstein.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: 1435 agreement returning Schleswig to the count of Holstein

The Kalmar Union was a combination of the three crowns of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, which, in 1409 was ruled by Erik of Pomerania as Erik VII (1382–1459). In this year, challenging the count of Holstein's possession of the duchy of Schleswig, Erik seized it, prompting Holstein to the desperate stratagem of opening the ports of Schleswig to the Victualling Brothers, a notorious band of pirates. These men successfully pushed Erik's invading force out of Schleswig. Although Erik suffered further reverses during 1416–18, he regained Fehman Island, which emboldened him to oppose the powerful Hanseatic League. In 1422, he issued an edict permitting only Danes to practice trades and crafts, effectively shutting out Hanseatic League members, whereupon the league allied itself with Holstein in the KALMAR WAR WITH THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE from 1422 to 1435.

Erik now turned his attention to the defense of Pomerania, which he feared would be invaded by the Swedes of Kalmar. Leaving his army to hold Flensburg, he led his navy in the defeat of the Hanseatic League's fleet in the Öresund. He sought to capitalize on this victory by levying in 1428 a heavy toll on ships sailing through the Öresund. This served only to provoke new opposition from the Hanseatic League and Holstein, which besieged the Danish capital of Copenhagen. Copenhagen resisted and withstood the siege, but Flensburg finally fell to Holstein and the league in 1431. Desultory fighting continued for another four years before Erik finally concluded a treaty with Holstein and with the Hanseatic League, by which Schleswig was returned to Holstein. Thus a quarter century of warfare netted Erik nothing at all.

Further reading: Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2002); Franklin D. Scott, *Sweden, the Nation's History* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1988).

Kalmar War with the Hanseatic League (1422–1435)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Erik VII (Kalmar Union) vs. Hanseatic League (with Holstein)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Baltic Sea and Flensburg
DECLARATION: Hanseatic League on King Erik VII of the Kalmar Union
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hanseatic League wanted to break Erik's attempts to monopolize trade with Norway and extort exorbitant taxes on league vessels.
OUTCOME: Erik was defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: 1435 agreement returning Schleswig to the count of Holstein

While Danish King Erik VII (1382–1459), ruler of the Kalmar Union (the three crowns of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway), warred—from 1409 to 1435—with Holstein over possession of Schleswig (*see* KALMAR WAR WITH HOLSTEIN), Holstein's ally, the Hanseatic League declared war on Erik. Erik had levied exorbitant tolls on ships navigating the Öresund (Danish Sound) and had blocked non-Danish trade to Norway. The mercantile Hanseatic League sought to wrest control of the Öresund from Erik by retaking Flensburg, the Baltic port Erik had seized in the war with Holstein. An amphibious assault by the Hanseatic League failed to capture Copenhagen in 1428, but the Battle of Stralsund, on the Baltic, nearly destroyed the Swedish fleet. With the fleet greatly diminished, Erik could no longer effectively defend Flensburg, which surrendered to the Hanseatic League in 1431. Both the war with Holstein and the war against the Hanseatic League dragged on after this in a desultory manner until 1435, when Erik, realizing the futility of the struggle, concluded peace with both Holstein and the league. Holstein regained Schleswig, and the vessels of the Hanseatic League freely traversed the Öresund and traded with Norway. As in the war with Holstein, Erik had gained absolutely nothing in what amounted to a quarter century of war.

See also SCANDINAVIAN REVOLT.

Further reading: Philippe Dollinger, *The German Hansa,* trans. D. S. Ault and S. H. Steinburg (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1970); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2002); Franklin D. Scott, *Sweden, the Nation's History* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1988).

Kampuchean Civil War (1978–1998)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khmer Rouge vs. Vietnam-supported anti–Khmer Rouge forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kampuchea (Cambodia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pol Pot's Khmer Rouge sought to retain its rule over Kampuchea.
OUTCOME: The Khmer Rouge gradually disintegrated under the combined pressure of several anti–Khmer Rouge forces, which formed a coalition government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anti–Khmer Rouge forces (Vietnamese occupiers), 140,000; Khmer Rouge, 40,000
CASUALTIES: Combat casualties pale in comparison to the deaths related to Pol Pot's "cultural revolution": about 2 million.
TREATIES: Paris Peace Agreement, October 23, 1991

Born on May 19, 1928, in Cambodia, Pol Pot (1928–98) became a follower of Vietnam's Ho Chi Minh (c. 1890–1969) and joined Ho's Indochinese Communist Party during World War II. Pol Pot assumed leadership of the Khmer Rouge guerrilla movement, which overthrew the U.S.-backed Cambodian government of Lon Nol (1913–85) in 1975 (*see* CAMBODIAN CIVIL WAR). Pol Pot then became prime minister of Democratic Kampuchea, the new regime's name for Cambodia, in April 1976. Under Pol Pot, the Khmer Rouge sought to implement a radical form of Mao Zedong's (1893–1976) ideal of agrarian communism. Pol Pot's regime appropriated land and sought to refashion society, not only through education and indoctrination, but, more directly, by the mass murder of approximately 2 million Cambodians.

While his Khmer Rouge forces turned the nation into "killing fields," Kampuchea also fended off border attacks from Vietnam. The Vietnamese urged Kampuchean rebels to step up efforts to overthrow the Pol Pot regime. Finally, in 1978, an army of 200,000 Vietnamese troops invaded Kampuchea, taking the capital city of Phnom Penh on January 9, 1979. The Vietnamese installed Heng Samrin (b. 1931), a dissident member of the Khmer Rouge, as president of occupied Kampuchea, but Pol Pot continued to lead a Khmer Rouge guerrilla campaign against the new government and the Vietnamese invaders.

In 1982, three Khmer forces united to oust the Vietnamese invaders and overturn the Vietnamese-bolstered government. Prince Norodom Sihanouk (b. 1922), exiled former ruler of Cambodia, formed a coalition government-in-exile that included the Khmer Rouge and which received United Nations recognition. The government stood ready to replace the Vietnamese-supported regime whenever that proved militarily feasible. In 1984, however, Vietnamese forces campaigned vigorously against Khmer camps along the Thai-Kampuchean border but continued to encounter stiff resistance from the guerrillas. The Vietnamese secured Soviet aid in fighting the guerrillas, but by the late 1980s, the Soviets counseled the Vietnamese to begin withdrawing from Kampuchea. The Khmer Rouge, by the late 1980s about 40,000 strong, attempted to regain territory as the Vietnamese pulled out, but with no success. At last, in 1989, the regime in Phnom Penh restored the country's original name, Cambodia, and, on October 23, 1991, the four Khmer factions, those siding with Sihanouk, the Kampuchean People's National Liberation Front, the Khmer Rouge, and the Phnom Penh government, signed a peace accord in Paris. The United Nations supervised the disarming of at least some of the Khmer factions and repatriated approximately 375,000 refugees who had fled to Thailand. Later in 1991, Prince Sihanouk returned from exile to Phnom Penh as an elected president, replacing Heng Samrin.

All was far from well, however. Almost immediately, in 1992, Khmer Rouge rebels attacked the United Nations forces. Prince Sihanouk failed to introduce unity into the Phnom Penh government, which was torn by dissension. Nevertheless, Khmer Rouge forces suffered severe defeats in Pailin and Phnom Malai, relinquishing bases there in 1996. The Khmer Rouge was falling apart, its constituents fleeing into the jungle.

Yet while the threat from the Khmer Rouge decreased, internal strife in Phnom Penh rapidly escalated. Rival prime ministers, Prince Norodom Ranariddh—Sihanouk's son—and Hun Sen (b. 1951), each sought to recruit dispersed Khmer Rouge rebels to bolster their positions. In July 1997, fighting developed in the capital, and Hun Sen ousted Ranariddh, who barely escaped with his life. His father, President Sihanouk, was soon forced to leave the country as well—though not for political reasons so much as medical ones: he had cancer.

With Ranariddh out of the way, Hun Sen had little use now for the Khmer Rouge, whose disintegration became more rapid. Those who were left in the organization turned against Pol Pot, whom they replaced with Ta Mok (b. 1918). In 1997, the Khmer Rouge remnants tried Pol Pot in absentia and sentenced him to house arrest for life. As the Khmer Rouge continued to disintegrate, Pol Pot met his death on April 15, 1998, either at the hands of the Khmer Rouge or from illness. He had never been officially brought to trial for genocide. In December, the last of the Khmer Rouge surrendered to the government and voluntarily disarmed. Ta Mok was placed under arrest in 1999 and held in prison, where he remained for years awaiting trial by a United Nations tribunal on war crimes.

See also KAMPUCHEAN-THAI BORDER WAR.

Further reading: Ben Kiernan, *How Pol Pot Came to Power* (London: Verso, 1985); William Shawcross, *Cambodia's New Deal: A Report* (Washington, D.C.: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Brookings Institution, 1994) and *The Quality of Mercy: Cambodia, Holocaust, and Modern Conscience* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1984).

Kampuchean-Thai Border War (1977–1995)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kampuchea (including occupying Vietnamese forces) vs. Thailand
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thai-Kampuchean borderlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Thailand sought to defend its border against incursions by various Cambodian factions and Vietnamese occupying forces.
OUTCOME: Thanks in part to United Nations intervention, the border war wound down without ultimate resolution.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable on all sides; the United Nations effectively policed the borderlands with about 16,000 peacekeepers.
CASUALTIES: Unknown; approximately 375,000 Kampuchean refugees crossed the Thai border.
TREATIES: None

The reign of terror of Pol Pot (1928–98) and the KAMPUCHEAN CIVIL WAR from 1978 to 1998 created hundreds of thousands of Kampuchean (Cambodian) refugees beginning in 1975. Pol Pot's radical and fierce Khmer Rouge frequently attacked the Thai border near Aranyaprathet, and Thailand responded by closing its borders and using aircraft and artillery to repel the enemy attacks. During 1979–80, Vietnamese forces occupying Kampuchea also invaded Thai borderlands in an effort to find Khmer Rouge guerrillas, who reportedly infiltrated the refugee camps and hid in them. Thailand found itself fighting Khmer Rouge and Vietnamese forces in addition to rebel Thai communists, antigovernment Meo tribesmen, Thai Muslim separatists, opium dealers, and others who used the general conflict to achieve their ends. Ultimately, Thailand did provide support to the Khmer Rouge in the hope that it would bring a Kampuchean government friendlier to it than alternative regimes. Besides, by appeasing the Khmer Rouge, Thai officials sought to deprive their own communist rebels of an ally and reduce the number of enemy threats they had to face. Nevertheless, Thailand suffered the moral censure of the international community for supporting so vicious a regime. The United Nations intervened, and by 1992, the intervention was having a positive effect. Approximately 375,000 Cambodian refugees were being repatriated, and the situation along the Thai-Cambodian border steadily improved, so that, by 1995, the war gradually came to an end.

Further reading: Ben Kiernan, *How Pol Pot Came to Power* (London: Verso, 1985); Stephen Reynell, *Political Pawns: Refugees in the Thai-Kampuchean Border* (Oxford: Refugee Studies Program, 189); William Shawcross, *Cambodia's New Deal: A Report* (Washington, D.C.: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Brookings Institution, 1994) and *The Quality of Mercy: Cambodia, Holocaust, and Modern Conscience* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1984).

Kansas-Missouri Border Wars (Wakarusa War; the Sack of Lawrence; "Bleeding Kansas"; Pottawatomie Massacre) (1855–1860)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Antislavery factions, mostly in Kansas, vs. proslavery factions, mostly in Missouri
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kansas-Missouri border regions
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Kansas-Nebraska Act had made slavery a local option, and settlers on both sides of the issue fought to make sure that Kansas entered the union expressing their point of view.
OUTCOME: Kansas was not accepted into the Union until 1861, and the border wars continued to the eve of the American Civil War, fought over the same issues.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: In Kansas, 55 killed between 1855 and 1858; at the Sack of Lawrence, 183 killed
TREATIES: None

In 1854, the U.S. Congress passed the Kansas-Nebraska Act, throwing the decision of whether to allow slavery in the territories seeking statehood back to the respective territories. Leaving the question of slavery up to the "popular sovereignty" of the settlers ensured that violence would erupt in the territories sooner or later.

The act spawned the Republican Party and led U.S. senator David R. Atchison (1807–86) of Missouri, who had already broken with his hoary and respected former fellow senator Thomas Hart Benton (1782–1852) over slavery, to swear that he would let the territory "sink in hell" before allowing it to be organized as a Free-Soil state. Nebraskans, clearly, would opt for freedom, but Kansas was up for grabs. Abolitionists in the North organized the Emigrant Aid Society and financed free settlers in Kansas. New England authors like William Cullen Bryant (1794–1878) and John Greenleaf Whittier (1807–92) mounted one of history's great propaganda campaigns, quickly aided by newspaperman Horace Greeley (1811–72) and correspondents sent by eastern newspapers to report on the Kansas "situation."

In response, fearing and hating the "Yankee slave-stealers" and egged on by Atchison, thousands of proslavery Missourians, mainly from the tobacco- and hemp-growing western counties, flooded into Kansas to vote illegally and then return home to their farms. Overwhelming the Kansas settlers, the majority of whom were probably Free-Soilers, the Missouri emigres elected a territorial legislature that immediately legalized slavery and won official recognition from the federal government. Free Soilers poured in from around the country to settle the land, formed their own legislature, set their capital up at Lawrence, and petitioned Congress for admission to the Union as a free state. When an antislavery man was murdered in November 1855, open warfare broke out along the Kansas-Missouri border.

At first it was called the Wakarusa War because a series of clashes between pro- and antislavery factions occurred along the Wakarusa River near Lawrence from November 26, 1855, to December 7, 1855, in which a few casualties occurred. Atchison resigned his seat in the Senate to lead the fight, organized a posse of Missourians, and—under the ruse of answering a U.S. marshal's summons—raided Lawrence. Popularly dubbed "border ruffians," the posse set fire to a hotel and a few houses, chopped up a printing press, arrested several free-state leaders, and killed three others in the process. A monomaniacal abolitionist named John Brown (1800–59) retali-

ated by murdering five pro-slavery settlers on the Pottawatomie Creek, none of whom had been involved in the violence against free-state settlers, then mutilating their bodies. Ideologically motivated assassination had begun. The Sack of Lawrence and the Pottawatomie Massacre threw Kansas into chaos.

John Brown became a hero in the North, which had grown to despise pro-slavery Missourians, like those Brown butchered, as subhumans. Missourians on the other hand considered Free Soilers foreign foes and hypocrites, who had come to Kansas for no other purpose than to steal and hide runaway slaves from Missouri.

By the time the federal government could join up with the governments of Missouri and Kansas to bring the guerrilla fighting (and the house and crop burnings, the cattle theft, the tarring and feathering, the torture, the murder, the continuing mutilation of the slain) in "Bleeding Kansas" more or less to an end, more than 200 people were dead and $2 million worth of property had been destroyed. In the fall of 1856, John Geary (1819–73), a former mayor of San Francisco, now governor of Kansas, nationalized both the pro-slavery and free-state militias, deploying them along with federal troops to stop the fighting.

But the ideological war continued in the pro-slavery-dominated legislature, which overrode Geary's veto and set up a constitutional convention. The convention phrased a referendum on the constitution so that a vote "yes" and a vote "no" *both* approved slavery. The Lecompton Constitution, as it was called, passed in 1857, not only making slavery legal but making it permanent: the constitution forbade future voters from outlawing human bondage. Free Soilers boycotted the vote; pro-slavers submitted the document to Congress in an application for statehood. President James Buchanan (1791–1868) accepted it, but Senator Stephan Douglas (1813–61), leading the opposition, denounced the document as a travesty, and Congress refused to allow Kansas into the Union as a slave state.

The fighting started all over again, erupting into civil war, which lasted until federal troops again intervened and restored order in 1860, on the eve of that larger UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR that the Kansas border wars had done so much to encourage.

Further reading: Eric Corder, *Prelude to Civil War: Kansas-Missouri* (New York: Crowell-Collier Press, 1990); Perry McCandless, *A History of Missouri: Volume II, 1820–1860* (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1972); Jay Monaghan, *Civil War on the Western Border, 1854–1864* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1985); William E. Parish, *A History of Missouri, Volume 3: 1860–1875* (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1973); Charles Phillips, *Missouri: Crossroads of the Nation* (Sun Valley, Calif.: American Historical Press, 2003).

Kappel Wars (1529 and 1531)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Zurich Protestant reformers vs. Catholic cantons of the Christian Union
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Border between Zurich and Zug
DECLARATION: Christian Union on Zurich, 1529 and 1531
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Zurich Protestant reformers wanted to convert more Swiss cantons to Protestantism; five Catholic cantons, the Christian Union, resisted.
OUTCOME: Zurich was compelled to recognize Catholic rights in the Christian Union cantons.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: First Peace of Kappel, June 26, 1529; Second Peace of Kappel, October 1531

In the 16th century, Zurich was a Protestant city driven by the religious reformer Huldreich Zwingli (1484–1531) to proselytize its neighboring Swiss cities and cantons. When it imposed a trade embargo on those cantons still loyal to the pope, five cantons—Uri, Schwyz, Lucerne, Unterwalden, and Zug—formed the Christian Union to oppose Zurich. This led to low-level battles during 1529, quickly quelled by an armistice (First Peace of Kappel) concluded at Kappel, a monastery on the border between Zurich and Zug. A key condition of the armistice was the severance of ties between Austria and the Christian Union.

Just three years after the armistice was agreed to, the Christian Union declared war on Zurich because it believed that a non-Union Catholic canton, Thurgau, was being forced into Protestantism. The declaration and offensive came so quickly that the war was concluded in a single battle, at Kappel. The hastily assembled and badly outnumbered Protestant army charged the Catholic forces on October 11, 1531, only to be crushed. Among the casualties was Huldreich Zwingli. By the Second Peace of Kappel, Zurich agreed to recognize and respect the rights of Catholics within the cantons of the Christian Union. The peace endured.

See also PEASANTS' WAR; SCHMALKALDIC WAR; VILLMERGEN WAR, FIRST; VILLMERGEN WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Edgar Bonjour, H. S. Offler, and G. R. Potter, *A Short History of Switzerland* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1985); William Martin, *Switzerland: From Roman Times to the Present* (London: Elek, 1971).

Karmathian Revolt (899–906)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Karmathians vs. Caliph al-Mu'tadid
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mesopotamia and Syria

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Shi'ite Karmathians rebelled against the orthodox Islam thrust upon them by the caliph.
OUTCOME: The Karmathians overran large areas but were eventually suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Karmathians (Qarmatians) of lower Mesopotamia, members of the Ismailite Shi'ite sect, rebelled against the orthodox rule imposed on them by Caliph al-Mu'tadid (d. 902). In response to the rebellion, the caliph sent an army to suppress the rebels. Not only did this effort at suppression fail, but the Karmathians, under Abu Sa'id al-Djannabi (d. 913) invaded territory throughout Mesopotamia, penetrating as far as Syria. Many major cities fell to the Karmathians, including Basra, near the Persian Gulf (in modern Iraq). With great difficulty, the Karmathians were driven out of most of the areas they had overrun and, by 906, were totally cleared out of Syria, only to return to invade Iraq several times in 930.

See also MECCA, SACK OF.

Further reading: Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986); Michel C. Morony, *Iraq after the Muslim Conquest* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1984).

Kett's Rebellion (1549)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England's landed nobles vs. English peasants
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Norfolk County
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England's peasants rebelled against the enclosure laws that drove them off their farms.
OUTCOME: The revolt was suppressed, and its leaders were executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Peasants, under Robert Kett, about 16,000; John Dudley, earl of Warwick, 1,400 German landsknechts
CASUALTIES: Peasants, 3,500; nobles, 40 killed
TREATIES: No formal treaty

When England's landed nobles passed the enclosure acts, families were thrown off their farms so the nobles could make more money grazing livestock. The peasants, having no place to go, staged a revolt in July 1549 during a routine feast in the town of Wymondham. Robert Kett (d. 1549), a tanner or a small landowner, led the peasant forces to Norwich, the town seat of Norfolk County. Kett formed a camp on nearby Mousehold Heath and took time to introduce a system of discipline and justice among his 16,000 followers. When he received a royal offer of amnesty, he refused it and, on August 1, led his forces in an attack on Norwich, which they captured. For most of a month, Kett and the rebels destroyed enclosing fences and hedges surrounding nobles' lands and plundered their property.

On August 27, Kett faced John Dudley (1502–53), earl of Warwick, and his forces of well-trained soldiers. Dudley's troops, better disciplined and skilled, quickly defeated the rebels. Kett was hanged, and the rebellion was over.

Further reading: S. T. Bindoff, *Kett's Rebellion, 1549* (London: The Historical Association, 1949); L. A. Clarkson, *The Pre-industrial Economy in England, 1500–1750* (New York: Schocken Books, 1972); G. R. Elton, *Reform and Reformation in England, 1509–1558* (London: Arnold, 1977).

Kharijite Rebellion (934–947)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kharijites vs. Fatimids
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central North Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Political and religious rebellion against the prevailing dynasty
OUTCOME: After a long guerrilla struggle, the Kharijite opposition was defeated by the Fatimids under Caliph al-Mansur.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Kharijites, a heretical and politically rebellious Muslim sect, which had been instrumental in the overthrow of the Omayyad dynasty in Morocco (*see* KHARIJITE REVOLT) in 742, rose up in 934 against the Fatimid dynasty in central North Africa. Under the leadership of Abu Yazid Makhlad, the Kharijites conducted a war of raiding and guerrilla action, which spanned 13 years until, at last, a combination of persistence and attrition suppressed them. The Fatimid victors were led by Caliph al-Mansur (d. 953).

Further reading: P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970).

Kharijite Revolt (741–742)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kharijites and Berbers vs. Omayyads
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morocco

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rebellion against Omayyad control of Morocco
OUTCOME: The Omayyads were ousted from Morocco and went into a general decline, heralding their overthrow by the Abbasids in 750.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Kharijites, a heretical Muslim sect, united briefly with Berbers in armed rebellion against the Omayyad dynasty, which controlled Morocco. The Omayyad forces were driven out of the country, and, thanks to continual Kharijite pressure, the Omayyads nearly lost control of their other provinces in North Africa. The Omayyad caliphate entered a period of sharp decline, which culminated in 747 with the outbreak of the Abbasid rebellion and, by 750, the overthrow of the Omayyads by the Abbasids.

See also KHARIJITE REBELLION.

Further reading: P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970).

Khazar-Muslim Caucasus War (727–733)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khazars vs. Muslims (under Caliph Hisham)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Caucasus region, especially Georgia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Muslim religious expansion and conquest
OUTCOME: At first driven from the region, the Muslims returned in greater force, overcame the Khazars, and reestablished control of Georgia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

During the eighth century, Muslim forces swept into the Caucasus, where they enjoyed initial military success and were able to establish themselves north of the Daryal Pass. However, the Khazar warriors of this region counterattacked, driving the Muslim forces back into Mesopotamia. Recovering from their retreat, the Muslims regrouped and reinforced their numbers, then renewed the attack, this time overwhelming the Khazars. The Muslims retook Georgia and pushed the limit of their northern frontier to the Caucasus. Derbent became an advanced Muslim outpost, which kept the Khazars in check.

Further reading: Sir John Bagot Glubb, *The Great Arab Conquests* (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1963); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Arthur Koestler, *The Thirteenth Tribe: The Khazar Empire and Its Heritage* (New York: Random House, 1976).

Khmer-Cham War (1050–1051)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khmer vs. Cham forces (with Cham-allied Khmer rebels)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Champa (central Vietnam) and the southern portions of the Khmer Empire (Cambodia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Cham kings wanted to conquer the Khmer Empire.
OUTCOME: Cham military action incited a southern Khmer rebellion; however, the rebellion was crushed, and the Khmer Empire remained intact.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The kingdom of Champa (central Vietnam) and the southern portions of the Khmer Empire (Cambodia and portions of Laos) were torn by civil disorder during the 11th century. Then, in 1050, Jaya Paramesvarman (d. 1060), the Cham king, and his son Yuvaraja Mahasenapati (d. c. 1092) succeeded in putting down a revolt in Panduranga, a Champan province. After this, Yuvaraja's forces went on to triumph over the Khmers, taking the city of Sambhupura, demolishing the temples there, and donating loot and prisoners to the Mi-son temples. In the south, the Khmers rebelled in 1051, led by a Khmer vassal king or a Cham chieftain and supported by the Chams. The result of the rebellion was that the southern Khmer Empire fell into Cham hands.

A series of Khmer expeditions were sent against the rebel forces, which withstood all such assaults until late in 1051, when they were finally defeated and fled to Champa. The Khmers donated their booty to an Isvaran temple at Rajatirtha.

See also VIETNAMESE-CHAM WAR (1000–1044).

Further reading: Lawrence Palmer Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (Philadelphia: American Philosophical Society, 1951); D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981).

Khmer-Cham War (1144–1150)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khmer Empire vs. Champa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Champa (central Vietnam)

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Khmer emperor wanted to conquer Champa.
OUTCOME: Defiant leaders in southern Champa defeated Khmer forces.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Dai Viet, also called Annam (northern Vietnam), concluded a peace with the kingdom of Champa (central Vietnam), Champa declined an alliance with the Khmer Empire to invade Dai Viet. King Suryavarman II (d. c. 1150) of the Khmer Empire (Cambodia and parts of Laos) then decided to invade Champa. His forces took the Cham capital of Vijaya (Binh Dinh), toppling King Jaya Indravarman III (d. c. 1145) and installing himself as ruler.

In defiance of this conquest, the Chams of Panduranga installed their own king, Rudravarman (d. 1147), and, following his death, his son Jaya Harivarman I (d. 1166–67). Suryavarman dispatched Khmer and Vijayan troops under Senapati Sankara (fl. 12th century), his greatest general, to put an end to defiance in Panduranga. In a stunning military display, Jaya Harivarman met this army at Chaklyang in the Phanrang Valley (in southern Vietnam) and annihilated it. Reeling from the blow, Suryavarman assembled a second army, which was fielded in 1148 and likewise destroyed, at Kayev in the Virapura plain.

Despite these defeats, Suryavarman made his brother-in-law Harideva (d. c. 1149) king of Champa, sending a Khmer army for his protection. In response, Jaya Harivarman pushed north, captured Vijaya and then destroyed this third Khmer force at Mahisa, killing Harideva and all of his chiefs. Jaya Harivarman was crowned king at Vijaya. In 1150, Suryavarman sent a fourth army into Champa. It met the same fate as the others.

See also CHAM CIVIL WAR.

Further reading: Lawrence Palmer Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (Philadelphia: American Philosophical Society, 1951); D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981).

Khmer-Cham War (1167–1190)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khmer Empire vs. Champa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Champa (central Vietnam) and Khmer Empire (Cambodia and Laos)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Champa invaded the Khmer Empire principally to obtain treasure; after suffering defeat, Khmer forces mounted a counteroffensive with the object of conquering Champa.
OUTCOME: In the first phase of the war, the Khmers suffered devastating defeat; the second phase ended, however, in the subjugation of Champa by the Khmer Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After he ascended the Cham throne, Jaya Indravarman IV (fl. 1170s) invaded the neighboring Khmer Empire (Cambodia and Laos), partly from motives of traditional enmity and partly to loot its vast stores of treasure. In a battle of 1171, the Chams won victory, in part, by using horses against the Khmers rather than the traditional elephants. The horses were a significant tactical innovation, providing greater speed and mobility and allowing the Chams to outmaneuver their enemy. The Chams emphasized shock tactics, which required speed and surprise. Unfortunately for Jaya Indravarman, he could not obtain horses in China's Kwangtung and Hunan provinces to use in a full-scale invasion of Khmer. In 1177, however, he attacked successfully by sea, sailing a fleet up the Tonle Sap (central Cambodia's "Great Lake") and the Siemreab River to take the undefended Khmer capital of Angkor. Jaya Indravarman burned the wooden city and ravaged its sacred temple (Angkor Wat), stripping it of treasure. He then ordered the death of the Khmer rebel king Tribhuvanadityavarman (fl. 1166–77).

The Khmers were rallied by King Jayavarman VII (c. 1120–c. 1215). In alliance with Thai forces and exiled Chams, the Khmers fought back, winning a significant sea victory in 1181. Jayavarman retook Angkor, rebuilding it as Angkor Thom, north of the old city. By 1190, he mounted an invasion deep into Champa, laying waste to much of its territory and destroying its capital city of Vijaya (Binh Dinh). Champa, defeated and conquered, was divided into two states, which were vassals of the Khmer Empire.

Further reading: Lawrence Palmer Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (Philadelphia: American Philosophical Society, 1951); D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981).

Khmer-Cham War (1191–1203)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khmer Empire vs. Champa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Champa (central Vietnam)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Champa rebelled against conquest by the Khmer Empire.
OUTCOME: Although Champa briefly regained independence, by the end of the war the nation had been reconquered by the Khmers.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The lengthy KHMER-CHAM WAR (1167–90) resulted in the conquest of Champa by the Khmer Empire. Within a year after the conclusion of this war, however, in 1191, the Chams rebelled. In short order, one of the two Khmer puppets, Prince In (d. after 1203), was overthrown by a Cham prince, who was subsequently crowned King Jaya Indravarman V (d. c. 1192). Jaya Indravarman next marched against and defeated the Khmer puppet ruling the other half of Champa, and Champa was once again reunited under the new king.

The Khmers sent two invasion forces to reconquer Champa, but both were defeated. In 1203, a third expedition, under King Jayavarman VII (c. 1120–c. 1215), recruited the support of Cham rebels opposed to Jaya Indravarman. The use of indigenous troops turned the tide, clearing the way for a successful invasion, which placed a new puppet on Champa's throne, Ong Dhanapatigrama (fl. 1220s). Propped up by the continual presence of a Khmer army, Ong presided over what was effectively a Khmer province for the next two decades. It is not known what reward or benefit the Cham rebels received from their arrangement.

Further reading: Lawrence Palmer Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (Philadelphia: American Philosophical Society, 1951); D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981).

Khmer Invasion of Champa

See VIETNAMESE-KHMER WAR.

Khmer-Thai Wars (c. 1352–1444)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khmer Empire vs. Ayutthayan Thai invaders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Khmer Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Thais of the Ayutthaya region wanted to conquer the neighboring Khmers.
OUTCOME: Most of the Khmer Empire fell to the Thais.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Thai kingdom of Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand), which had been established by Rama Thibodi I (1312–69) about 1350, first invaded the Khmer Empire (Cambodia and Laos) about 1352. The initial forces were led by King Rama Thibodi's son Prince Ramesuen (d. 1395), who was governor of Lop Buri Province. Ramesuen was not an able tactician and blundered by splitting his forces, committing to battle only a portion of them, approximately 5,000 troops. This force was crushed by an army of the Khmer crown prince, and it looked as if the invasion would die aborning. At this juncture, however, another Thai prince, Boromoraja I (d. 1388), governor of Sup'an, was dispatched to bolster the faltering invasion. His arrival surprised the Khmers, whose will and capacity to resist suddenly collapsed, and Boromoraja quickly annexed the Khorat and Chanthaburi districts (eastern Thailand).

Ayutthayan Thai invaders were apparently in possession of the Khmer capital of Angkor in 1369 and 1389. It is believed that the occupying forces kept the Khmers weak by threatening to demolish the complex irrigation system and loosing flood waters on the people. Added to this physical threat was continual pressure from the Thais as well as the Chams, which included meddling in Khmer royal politics. All of these factors weakened the Khmer Empire, leading to internal dissension and dynastic squabbling. Thus the position of the Thai occupiers was strengthened.

During 1430–31, Ayutthayan Thai forces led by Boromoraja II (d. 1448) laid siege to Angkor for seven months, at last traducing a pair of Buddhist monks and some Khmer officials, who admitted the invading force into the city. (These turncoats became full-time agents of the Thais following the death of the Khmer king, Dharmasoka in about 1444.) The invaders sacked Angkor and were then driven out in 1432, only to return the following year, when they completely destroyed the Khmer capital. The Khmer court evacuated to Phnom Penh, which became the new capital of a much-reduced kingdom.

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand; A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984).

Khorasan Rebellion (806–809)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khorasan rebels vs. government of Khorasan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Khorasan, Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Originally, the rebels agitated for the removal of a despotic governor, but the rebellion escalated to a war for independence.
OUTCOME: The rebels proclaimed an independent kingdom in Transoxiana.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Harun al-Rashid (766–809), caliph of the Abbasid Empire, received complaints of the despotic rule of the governor of Khorasan, Persia, Ali Ibn Isa ben Mahan (fl. early 800s) the caliph made a journey to investigate personally. Despot or not, the governor was a wise politician, who lavished many gifts on al-Rashid, whose investigation turned up no evidence of malfeasance. Persuaded that all was well, the caliph confirmed the governor in his office and left Khorasan. Having received no satisfaction, Rafi ben Laith (fl. c. 805–810) led a rebellion against the governor, defeating his army in Transoxiana in 806. Alarmed, the governor fled the province, and the caliph promised the rebels that he would install a new governor who would satisfy the rebels' demands. But, at this point, the momentum of the rebellion would not be halted, and Rafi ben Laith proclaimed an independent Muslim province within Transoxiana. The caliph felt he had no choice but to lead an army in person to end the rebellion once and for all. He set off in 809, only to die en route. Leaderless, his troops elected to return to Baghdad without engaging the rebels.

See also MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (809–813).

Further reading: P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986); A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire: Achaemenid Period* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959).

Khurram's Rebellion

See SHAH JAHAN'S REVOLT (1622–1626).

Khurramites' Revolt (816–838)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khurramite rebels (with Byzantine allies) vs. Islamic Persia and Mesopotamia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mainly Azerbaijan
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Khurramites wanted to destroy Islam.
OUTCOME: After initial successes, the Khurramites were defeated in a war of attrition, and their leader was captured and executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Khurramites were a proto-communist sect, which occupied Azerbaijan on the southwest shore of the Caspian Sea. They advocated the breakup and redistribution of the immense estates. Even more radical was their call for the abolition of Islam. About 816, they began launching attacks on Muslims and Muslim military forces in Persia and in Mesopotamia in fulfillment of a self-proclaimed mission of destroying Islam.

The Khurramites fought with great skill and zeal, and they were aided by the Byzantines, who were at the time engaged in the BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (830–841). Against the forces of Caliph Allah al-Ma'mun (785–833), the Khurramites enjoyed great success. He struck against them four times, and, four times, was defeated, in part because the Khurramites received Byzantine aid. The ascension of a new caliph, Abu Ishak al-Mu'tasim (d. 842), brought a renewed determination to crush the Khurramites as well as their Byzantine allies. Al-Mu'tasim dispatched a large force under the governor of Media, al-Afshin (fl. 830s), to prosecute a vigorous campaign against the rebels. Al-Afshin was unable to force the Khurramites into open battle, but his untiring pursuit of them wore them down. At last, in 838, the remaining Khurramites were defeated in battle, and their leader, Babak al-Khorrami (d. 838), was captured and killed.

Further reading: P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986); A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire: Achaemenid Period* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959).

Kickapoo Uprising (1820s–1833)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kickapoo Indians vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Illinois Territory
DECLARATION: Informal; Illinois settlers petitioned for U.S. troops to stop Indian attacks on settlers (1824)
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Kickapoo refusal to vacate lands claimed by white settlers
OUTCOME: Kickapoo ceded lands and moved to present-day Kansas.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown, most Indian actions were accomplished by small bands of guerrillas.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Castor Hill, 1832

At the start of the 19th century, the Kickapoo Indians lived in central Illinois and in Indiana, principally along the Illinois and Wabash rivers. The easternmost band of this

tribe established its major settlement on the Vermilion River and were therefore called the Vermilion band. Another tribal group, called the Prairie band, lived farther south in Illinois, along the Sangamon River. Both bands ceded some territory to the United States in 1809, but both sided with the British during the WAR OF 1812.

In 1819, through the Treaty of Edwardsville (Illinois), the majority of the Kickapoos ceded the remainder of their Illinois lands to the federal government and moved west to Missouri. Two factions, one led by Mecina and the other by Kennekuk (d. 1852), refused to move with the majority, and throughout the early 1820s, their warriors conducted guerrilla actions against white settlers, destroying or stealing property. In 1824, settlers petitioned for federal troops, and, after enduring months of military pressure from these soldiers as well as state militiamen, Mecina's faction crossed the Mississippi River into Missouri.

Kennekuk, also known as the Kickapoo Prophet, preached total withdrawal from contact with whites and a return to "pure" Indian ways. Although his followers harassed settlers, Kennekuk's tactics resembled passive resistance more than the kind of guerrilla warfare Mecina had waged. Furthermore, while advocating total avoidance of whites, Kennekuk maintained an ongoing dialogue with federal authorities for more than a decade, repeatedly vowing to move west in peace, but always finding the means to delay that removal.

Beginning in 1831 some of Kennekuk's warriors left his band to join forces with the Sauk and Fox under their charismatic leader, Black Hawk (1767–1838), in BLACK HAWK'S WAR. Still more deserted Kennekuk in 1832, when he signed the Treaty of Castor Hill, formally exchanging his band's land for a tract along the Missouri River in Kansas. Those followers remaining with him moved to their assigned homeland in 1833.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Arrell M. Gibson, *Kickapoos: Lords of the Middle Border* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1990); Joseph B. Herring, *Kenekuk, the Kickapoo Prophet* (Lawrence: University Press of Kansas, 1990).

King George's War (1739–1748)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British North America and its Indian allies (mostly Iroquois) vs. French North America and its Indian allies (mostly Huron and Abenaki)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nova Scotia, New England, New York, and the Ohio country, with related violence in the Southeast, the American theater of the War of the Austrian Succession
DECLARATION: October 19, 1739, Great Britain declares war on Spain; France, becoming Spain's ally, declares war on Great Britain, March 15, 1744
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Struggle between England and France for control of North America
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; the conflict, which ended in 1748, was largely a rehearsal for the French and Indian War
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Most engagements involved fewer than 100 troops; at Louisbourg, Pepperell commanded militia of 4,200 troops
CASUALTIES: Americans, 500 killed in combat, 1,100 succumbed to disease or exposure; French forces, 350 battle deaths
TREATIES: Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, October 18, 1748

King George's War, the American phase of what was fought in Europe as the War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, had its origin in a conflict known as the War of JENKINS' EAR, essentially a trade dispute between British and Spanish colonial interests.

On October 19, 1739, Great Britain declared war on Spain, and Georgia's founder-governor, James Oglethorpe (1696–1785), launched a series of invasions into Spanish Florida. In the meantime, on the continent of Europe, France, Spain, Bavaria, Saxony, and Prussia faced off against Maria Theresa's (1717–80) Austria and her ally Great Britain. With the signing of the Second Family Compact on October 25, 1743, France joined Spain in its fight against England, declaring war on March 15, 1744.

In America, Virginia and Maryland authorities negotiated the cession of much of the Ohio country from the Iroquois from June 16 to July 7, 1744. Within three months of the treaty, Virginia began granting petitions for western lands totaling 300,000 acres. This was sufficient to provoke the French, whose traders were already working much of the Ohio country, to armed conflict with the English settlers.

Fort Saint-Frédéric in northeastern New York became a staging area for repeated French raids into lower New York and New England. The war heated up after the unsuccessful French assault on Annapolis Royal (Port Royal, Nova Scotia) in 1744, which was followed by the only major "formal" battle in what was otherwise a guerrilla war, the British siege of Louisbourg on Cape Breton Island, Nova Scotia.

On June 16, 1745, after a siege of 49 days, the fort fell to William Pepperell (1696–1759), who commanded 4,200 Massachusetts militiamen. It was an important strategic prize, guarding as it did the approach to the St. Lawrence River. The victory at Louisbourg was in part due to a Cape Cod Indian, probably a Mashpee Wampanoag, who crawled in at one of the fort's embrasures, opened the gate, and simply admitted the English troops.

Throughout King George's War, the French and English vied for alliance with the Indians, whom they employed in guerrilla operations and raids. New York's governor George Clinton (c. 1686–1761) armed Indians

for an invasion of Canada, and William Johnson (1715–75), a wealthy landowner very influential among the Mohawks, organized an Indian strike against Montreal in June 1747. Unfortunately for the English, the disparate colonial and Indian forces failed to coalesce into a single effective force. An assault on Fort Saint-Frédéric failed miserably, and the planned attack on Montreal was shelved. Johnson did, however, manage to organize small Mohawk raids against French supply lines.

If anything, the French were more effective at using their Indian allies, who terrorized the outlying settlements of New England with lightning raids, killing many, carrying others into a captivity that sometimes meant hideous torture and slow death.

While western Massachusetts reeled under French-inspired Indian assaults, a combination of French provincials and Abenaki Indians raided remote settlements in Maine beginning in August 1745. The military low point for the English came November 28–29, 1745, when the French, with Indian allies, burned Fort Saratoga, New York.

Throughout 1746, Abenakis and others unrelentingly raided New England's towns. Most of the war's engagements involved small numbers of combatants, usually fewer than a hundred, and engagements were frequently not so much battles as murders.

Only in Nova Scotia was the fighting on a grander, more European scale. Not only had Pepperell taken Louisbourg in 1745, but in 1746 a French fleet attempted a grand assault against Port Royal, but was foiled by the hazardous fogbound coast of Nova Scotia. In 1747, a large French land force did capture the English fort at Grand Pre.

In a significant sense, King George's War was a prelude to the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, as the English and French learned the value of Indian allies. In the Northeast, the Mohawks were allied with the English, whereas the other Iroquois tribes struggled to remain neutral—though they leaned toward the English. The English also worked to secure the cooperation of the western tribes of the Ohio country, especially the Shawnee, Wyandots, and Miamis. In the South, the English found support from the Chickasaws and Cherokees, who were themselves at war with the French-allied Creeks and Choctaws. (*See* the CHICKASAW RESISTANCE, the FOX RESISTANCE, and the NATCHEZ REVOLT.)

The French commanded the loyalty of the large Huron tribe as well as other Algonquian Indian groups.

King George's War and the Indian resistances associated with it were costly and resolved virtually nothing, except to create certain European-Indian alliances. The peace brought by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle on October 18, 1748—which ended the War of the Austrian Succession in Europe and, therefore, King George's War in America—was little more than a truce in the violence that preceded the French and Indian War.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Allan Gallay, ed., *Colonial Wars of North America, 1512–1763* (New York: Garland, 1996).

King Philip's War (Second Puritan Conquest) (1675–1676)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Colonists of Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Plymouth (with various Indian allies) vs. Wampanoag, Narragansett, Nipmuck, and lesser New England Indian tribes

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern and northern New England

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Colonial demands for Indian sale of lands and submission in social, religious, and political matters created the atmosphere in which the killing of an Indian looter by an outraged farmer triggered an almost senselessly destructive war that might be best considered as one of colonial conquest.

OUTCOME: Although suffering crippling losses, the colonists virtually wiped out the Wampanoag tribe, greatly diminished the Narragansetts and Nipmucks, and thoroughly intimidated New England's lesser tribes; in proportion to New England's population, the war was the costliest in American history and of immense significance to future relations with the Indians; the war also gave the New England colonies their first taste of union when they, under what in effect was a mutual defense pact, created the United Colonies of New England.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Colonists, more than 2,500 (fluctuated greatly and included unorganized militia and varying numbers of Indian allies; largest force officially raised by the United Colonies [Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island, Connecticut], 1,000); Indian, c. 2,300 (number of warriors based on an estimate of Wampanoag, Narragansett, and Nipmuck combined population of 6,900; in any given engagement, Indians generally fielded a larger force than the colonists)

CASUALTIES: Colonists, at least 600 killed, including many noncombatants; devastation of New England settlements (1,200 houses burned, 8,000 cattle killed); Indians, more than 3,000 killed, including many old men, women, and children; many captives sold into slavery; other survivors dispossessed of land and dispersed into New York and Canada

TREATIES: Taunton Agreement (April 10, 1671); Hutchinson's treaty with the Narragansetts (July 15, 1675); second Narragansett treaty (October 18 or 19, 1675); treaty with the "North Indians" (July 2–3, 1676); no formal treaty ended the war

So far as colonial chroniclers were concerned, the cause of the terrible conflict they called King Philip's War was simple to the point of tautology. King Philip (d. 1676), haughty chief of the Wampanoag Indians, betrayed the traditional friendship between his tribe and the English by waging war against New England's settlers with the object of either annihilating them or driving them out of the country.

In fact, the causes of King Philip's War, as with most white-Indian conflicts, were both more complex and more basic. Colonial land hunger and a rising population, combined with a racism sanctioned by Puritan religious doctrine, met head-on with Philip's growing resentment of English insults to his sovereignty and encroachments on his power. Indians were important to the colonists not only as a kind of spiritual crop waiting to be harvested, but as sources of trade. They were also the means by which the surprisingly heterogeneous New England colonies might each legitimate a stake in America. New England colonial charters, granted as they were to religious and political dissidents, were chronically shaky. With the restoration of Charles II (1630–85) to the English throne, the Massachusetts charter, which had been secure under the Puritan reign of Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658), and that of Rhode Island, which had been granted by Cromwell's government, were most directly threatened. To bolster their sovereignty in the New World, the colonies sought to associate themselves with those whose possession of the soil was acknowledged as a primitive right: the Indians. Colonial governments sought to purchase land from them and, even more important, to establish a protectorate over them. This led to complicated and, ultimately, strained relations between Indians and whites. Two major tribes, the Wampanoags and the Narragansetts, desired the benefits of trade with the English and vied with one another for colonial favor. At the same time, both tribes struggled to maintain some autonomy and retain land. As English pressure to sell more land increased, along with demands for greater and greater submission to colonial authority in matters of politics and religion, the rival tribes began to come together. Culturally, politically, and spiritually, the stage was set for conflict in New England.

Massasoit (d. 1661), chief of the Wampanoags and longtime friend of the English (it was through his aid that the Pilgrims survived their first terrible winter in the New World), died at the age of 81. His son Wamsutta (d. 1664), whom the English called Alexander, succeeded him as the tribe's principal sachem and continued the tradition of friendship with the English. However, under Wamsutta, the Wampanoags were now dividing their loyalty between two English colonies, Rhode Island and Plymouth. Both were perpetually engaged in competition for the purchase of Indian lands, and both sought to establish a protectorate over the Wampanoags. The Plymouth Colony's Major (later governor) Josiah Winslow (c. 1629–80) seized Alexander at gunpoint and took him to Duxbury to answer conspiracy charges and—more particularly—to demonstrate his loyalty to Plymouth by selling land to that colony rather than to Rhode Island. During his captivity, Alexander contracted a fever and died. His 24-year-old brother, Metacom (Metacomet), whom the English called Philip, succeeded him as sachem and, like a number of other Wampanoags, suspected that Winslow had not merely brutalized Wamsutta but had poisoned him.

On August 6, 1664, Philip was summoned to Plymouth Town to answer charges of plotting against the colony. Although he denied the accusations, he did agree to sign a document pledging to seek permission from the colony before concluding any sale or exchange of land, and relations between colonists and Indians remained relatively peaceful until 1665, when a land dispute between Massachusetts and the Narragansetts threatened to erupt into war. A royal commission succeeded in assuaging hostilities only temporarily.

Seeing an opportunity for exploiting the breach between the English and a rival tribe, Philip warned New York colonial authorities that the Narragansetts were plotting war against them. The Narragansett chief, Ninigret, in turn accused Philip of hostile designs, and the next year (1667) Philip was summoned to Plymouth to answer these charges. Proud, even haughty, Philip resented this and other calls to answer to colonial authority. Over the succeeding two years, his animosity toward the English was further aggravated by a dispute over land in the area of Wentham, Massachusetts. And although Ninigret was himself accused in 1669 of combining with the French to stage a rebellion against the English colonies, this failed to vindicate Philip. On the contrary, the accusation served only to make the colonists more wary of Indian "treachery" generally. Early in 1671, Philip, outraged that the new Plymouth settlement of Swansea flagrantly encroached on his land, staged an armed display for the benefit of the town's citizens. On April 10, 1671, he was summoned to Taunton to acknowledge and apologize for such "plotting" and to agree to surrender his people's arms.

After signing the Taunton document, Philip cannily attempted to foment dissension between Plymouth and Massachusetts by suggesting that this retroactive pledge of submission to Plymouth posed a threat to the validity of land titles Massachusetts had earlier secured from the Wampanoags. Despite its political sophistication, Philip's strategy backfired, serving only to bring the two colonies closer together, and by the end of September he was summoned to Plymouth, where he stood trial for failure to abide by the Taunton agreement. Fined £100, the sachem was further humiliated by a requirement that he henceforth obtain colonial permission in all matters involving the purchase or sale of land; he was also forbidden to wage war against other Indians without authority from the colonial government.

For three years, Philip quietly forged anti-English alliances with the Nipmuck Indians and with his tribe's former rivals, the Narragansetts. Then, in January 1675, came another revelation of Wampanoag designs against the English. John Sassamon (d. 1675) (or Saussaman), a Christianized "Praying Indian" who had been Philip's private secretary, alerted the English to the sachem's plotting. On January 29, Sassamon's body was found on the ice of a frozen pond. The death was at first ruled an accident, but later three Wampanoags were convicted of murder. After the noose around the neck of one of the convicted men broke, he—vainly seeking a reprieve—accused Philip himself of complicity in the murder as part of yet another plot against the English.

Haled into court yet again, Philip won release for lack of evidence. On June 11, just three days after the executions, word of Wampanoags arming near Swansea and Plymouth Town reached authorities. They also heard of scattered incidents of cattle killing and looting houses in outlying settlements. Already, settlers were beginning to desert some towns: Swansea, adjacent to Wampanoag country, was the first to be partially abandoned, and Indians began appropriating property left behind. An outraged settler shot a looter—the first blood of the war.

In an uneasy and mistrustful alliance, in which the colonies jockeyed for possible territorial gains that might be tied to defeating the Indians, Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Rhode Island joined forces in a mutual defense pact that would soon develop into a loose-knit league they called the United Colonies of New England. The three colonies mobilized an army, which was mustered during June 21–23 at Miles's Garrison, opposite Philip's base of operations at Mount Hope Neck, Rhode Island—but not before Wampanoags had raided Swansea, on the Sabbath, attacking townsfolk on their way to church. The town was attacked again—and half burned—a few days later, as worshipers returned from church.

Four days later, Rhode Island militia captain Benjamin Church (1639–1718) and his troops fell under attack near beleaguered Swansea at Miles's Bridge, which led into Mount Hope Neck. Church was appalled by the poor showing of the English forces in this first military engagement of the war. During the next year and a half, he would frequently find himself in the minority as he repeatedly counseled—usually in vain—aggressive strategies of attack that called for abandoning formal European battle tactics and fighting the Indians on their own terms. The hastily mustered army proved ineffectual again and again. Wampanoags staged lightning raids in the vicinity of Rehoboth and Taunton on June 29. The next day, troops from Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Rhode Island pursued Philip, but he and his forces handily evaded them by escaping to the swamps of Pocasset country.

Connecticut joined in the New England league's war effort on July 1 when it sent troops to aid Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Rhode Island, but Philip was negotiating an alliance of his own at this time, with the Pocasset squaw-sachem Weetamoo. To forestall the spread of such alliances, a Massachusetts army marched out of Mount Hope Neck and into Narragansett country on the mainland east of present-day Newport around the Great Swamp, to "overawe" that Rhode Island tribe with English might and thereby negotiate a promise of neutrality.

Back in Rhode Island, Benjamin Church, recognizing that feeble diplomacy with Narragansetts and intercolonial strife were siphoning energy from the real menace at hand, pursued Philip in the swamp. In Captain Almy's "pease field," the 20-man party was set upon by 300 Indians for six hours, until they were rescued by an English river sloop.

By mid-July, much of New England was awash in blood, as Wampanoags were joined by Narragansetts and the Nipmucks of eastern and central Massachusetts. Discouraged by their army's performance against the Indians in close combat—and over Church's vigorous objections—colonial authorities soon broke off pursuit of Philip and instead built a fort to besiege him in the swamp, intending to starve the enemy out. This strategic error only prolonged the war. With the English occupied in fort building, Philip was able to escape from the Pocasset swamp on July 29 and make for Nipmuck country to the northeast. Captain Daniel Henchman, with Plymouth troops and Mohegan allies, pursued but was forced to break off the attack due to exhaustion and a shortage of supplies. Philip once again escaped.

Colonial diplomacy was even less successful. Captains Hutchinson and Thomas Wheeler set out for Brookfield (Quabaog) at the beginning of August, attempting once again to treat with the Nipmucks, but were ambushed. Hutchinson was fatally wounded, and Wheeler shot through the arm. Eight other men were also killed, and the Nipmucks pinned down the remainder of the company for 48 hours.

By the end of August, the theater of war had broadened into the upper Connecticut Valley, Merrimac Valley, New Hampshire, and Maine. After refusing an English demand to surrender their arms, a party of Indians attempted to slip away from the English, who pursued them from Hatfield to Hopewell Swamp, south of Deerfield, Massachusetts. The battle of August 24–25 ended in an Indian retreat, but the colonials found it fruitless to pursue their enemy, as fierce rearguard action resulted in nine English deaths, and the Indians were able to escape north.

In the vicinity of Hadley, Massachusetts, colonists demanded that the local Indians surrender their arms as "Proof of their Fidelity." After some stalling, the Indians slipped away from their village on the night of August 25. Realizing that the Hadley Indians had absconded to join

Philip, the colonists marshaled their troops in pursuit of them and skirmished at Sugar Loaf Hill, 10 miles above Hatfield, killing "about 26" Indians and suffering the loss of nine or 10 English.

A week later, Hadley was raided and Deerfield mostly destroyed. This was followed almost immediately by a devastating attack against Northfield (Squakeag). Massachusetts dispatched 36 men to relieve the garrison there, but they were ambushed and about 20 of them were slain.

Having already endured months of bloodshed, the United Colonies officially declared war on September 9, levying an army of 1,000, which, however, was not actually mustered until November and December.

The litany of raid upon raid continued. On September 18, following one of many days of "Public Humiliation" proclaimed in Boston, Lothrop, commanding 80 men, had the grim duty of escorting evacuees, their goods, and provisions out of beleaguered Deerfield. He was ambushed and killed with all but seven or eight of his men.

Repeated attempts at negotiating peace—or even a truce—failed. A hopeful conference at Wickford, Rhode Island, between the English and Narragansetts broke down on September 22. Worse, previously friendly Indians now turned on the colonists. Springfield, Massachusetts, having enjoyed cordial relations with the Indians for some 40 years, maintained no garrisons. On October 4–5, it was raided, and 32 houses—about half the town—were destroyed. On October 18 or 19 700 Indians attacked Hatfield, Massachusetts, but were driven off.

At this time, the Narragansetts at last concluded a new treaty in Boston. Nevertheless, on November 2, Connecticut's colonial council resolved that the best way to prevent war with the Narragansetts was a preemptory strike against them. Plymouth and Massachusetts were in agreement on this, and the army of the United Colonies, called for in September, was at last mustering in November and into December. Assembled at Dedham, Massachusetts; Taunton, Plymouth; and New London, Connecticut, the army united at Wickford, Rhode Island, where, under the command of Plymouth governor Josiah Winslow (1629–80), it awaited provisioning during December 12–18. The army's objective was a Narragansett stronghold near Petenquanscut (Pettiquemscot), Rhode Island. But the sudden fall on December 16 of the garrison house there, which was to have served as a base of operations, foiled this strategy, and Winslow marched his 1,000-man army, including a company under the redoubtable Benjamin Church, into a snowstorm on December 18 to assault another Narragansett fort—stronghold of the sachem Canonchet (d. 1676) (whom the English called Canonicus)—in a frozen swamp at Kingston, Rhode Island.

They reached the Indian fort the following day, having suffered terribly in the intense cold. Worse, the stronghold proved formidable beyond expectation, and the attack was poorly coordinated, as two companies, noting an incomplete palisade at one corner, stormed the fortification prematurely, before the arrival of the main company. Two captains were slain, and the few troops who did make it into the fort were quickly driven out. Benjamin Church led 30 soldiers in another assault and was hit by three bullets. Wounded in the hip and thigh, the frontiersman's only regret was that one shot had pierced and wounded a pair of borrowed mittens. In fierce battle, 80 of Winslow's army perished, including 14 company commanders, and about 600 Narragansetts—half of them women and children—died. Over the protests of the wounded Church, who pointed out that the battered English would need the shelter of the Indians' wigwams for the bitter winter night, the colonials put the encampment to the torch.

Bereft of many of its commanders, its supplies depleted, the army retreated to Wickford, declining to pursue the surviving Narragansetts, who escaped to Nipmuck country. The Great Swamp Fight inflicted heavy losses on the Narragansetts and cut them off from their sources of supply; however, it also served to strengthen desperate anti-English alliances among the Wampanoags, Nipmucks, and Narragansetts.

With the new year, Philip attempted to extend his alliances beyond New England, taking many of his people to Mohawk country near Albany, New York, in search of ammunition and provisions in addition to friends. Unfortunately for Philip, New York governor Edmund Andros (1637–1714) had reached the Mohawks first, persuading them not only to spurn the alliance but to attack Philip, who was compelled to flee back to New England. The alliance Andros established effectively blocked the grand Indian confederacy all colonists feared, but New England forces were not prepared to take immediate advantage of Philip's rebuff; despite the lopsided casualty figures from the Great Swamp Fight, Winslow's army, crippled by their losses (especially at the command level) and a lack of provisions, was immobilized for more than a month, until the end of January, when an Indian raid on Pawtucket, Rhode Island, prompted Winslow to take his newly reinforced but still inadequately provisioned force on a so-called Hungry March into the country of the Nipmucks. The expedition was aborted a week after it had begun, due to wholesale desertion from the ranks.

With the principal English force in disarray, the Indians rallied and renewed their offensive. On February 10, 1676, Lancaster, Massachusetts, was raided a second time, and Mary Rowlandson, wife of the settlement's minister, was captured from Rowlandson Garrison when its defenders were killed or taken prisoner. Mary Rowlandson's account of her ordeal, published in 1682, would become a colonial "best-seller."

On February 21, in another crushing English defeat, 200–300 Indians overcame a 160-man militia force at Medfield, Massachusetts, about 20 miles from Boston,

burning half the town and killing 20 persons. Early in March, a colonial cavalry troop pursued Philip near Northampton, but, as usual, he evaded capture as his allies managed a second raid on Pawtucket, which resulted in the burning of a dozen houses.

The colonies reeled under blow after blow. On March 12, Clark's Garrison, Plymouth, was raided and destroyed. The next day, Groton, Massachusetts, was abandoned after a raid. On the day after that, following an attack on Northampton, colonial authorities, reacting to crisis with a siege mentality, began to draw up plans to erect a palisade around Boston, leaving the outlying towns exposed.

In mid-March, Warwick, near Providence, Rhode Island, having been attacked several times, was at last all but deserted. Indians burned it to the ground, killing the sole remaining inhabitant. On March 26, they fell upon worshipers on their way to church at Longmeadow, Massachusetts. On the same day, the town of Marlborough was badly mauled, though colonials gave chase to the retreating Indians and defeated their rear guard. In Connecticut, Simsbury was abandoned and burned. A force of about 50 colonists and 20 friendly Indians near Rehoboth, a Rhode Island settlement bordering Philip's territory, was ambushed as it pursued Philip's warriors. Although the Indians turned their pursuers back, the battle had cost them 140 dead.

The early spring of 1676 marked the low point of the colonists's fortunes. One measure of their desperation was the unorthodox surprise nighttime attack soldiers and citizens of Sudbury, Massachusetts, staged against Indians camped near the town. Despite this minor victory, the Indian raiding continued unabated. On the morning after the colonists' sortie, March 28, 30 barns and 40 houses were burned in Rehoboth, and on the day after that, Providence, Rhode Island, was destroyed. Although Connecticut soldiers operating in western Rhode Island succeeded in capturing the important Narragansett sachem and war leader Canonchet, whom they subsequently executed, by the middle of the month the English area of settlement had greatly contracted. Despite emergency laws forbidding the evacuation of towns without official permission, the outlying settlements around Boston were largely abandoned.

On April 21, Indians repaid Sudbury for its earlier attack on them, hurling as many as 800 or 900 warriors against the town. Militia from Sudbury and surrounding settlements responded and, in a fierce, daylong battle, repelled the attack. Following this engagement, colonial forces at last began to take the offensive, sweeping through eastern Massachusetts by the end of April. On May 1, Indian hostiles at last agreed to negotiate ransom terms for English captives. Yet, as colonial forces prevailed in eastern Massachusetts, Philip's warriors attacked the Plymouth town of Bridgewater on May 6 and launched a desperate general offensive against that colony, raiding Plymouth Town on May 11.

In western Massachusetts, a force of 150 mounted men, attacked an Indian encampment at the Falls of the Connecticut above Deerfield, Massachusetts, on May 19. It was not so much a battle as it was a massacre: The soldiers poked their muskets into the wigwams and shot the Indians—including many women and children—as they slept. While the enemy was routed, the army failed to pursue, and the surviving Indians turned a retreat into a counterattack, killing about 40 men. Yet the loss of many warriors (reportedly more than 100) and supplies made this a Pyrrhic victory for the Indians.

The colonists became more aggressive in attack and pursuit, responding to reports of hostiles fishing in the Pawtucket River near Rehoboth, winning a skirmish there and another on June 2, against Philip in western Massachusetts. Early in the same month, Benjamin Church was authorized to build a new army on behalf of the United Colonies, using white and Indian soldiers. Still, Philip fought on, launching a massive assault against Hadley, Massachusetts. Early on the morning of June 12, 700 Indians descended on the town, which was defended by Connecticut forces, 500 strong (consisting of colonists and friendly Indians: Pequots and Mohegans), in addition to a garrison force. Positioned behind the town's palisades and equipped with some artillery pieces, the colonial army successfully repelled the attackers.

At Nipsachuck, Rhode Island, on July 2, colonists dealt the Narragansetts two crushing blows when they attacked a band of 34 men and 137 women and children, killing all of the men and 92 of the women and children. On the next day, at Warwick, they slew 18 and 22 women and children, taking 27 prisoners as well. At this time, too, war with the so-called North Indians—the Abenakis, Sokokis, and Pennacooks—came to an end when the Pennacook sachem Wannalancet signed a treaty, bringing peace to Maine.

While Benjamin Church prevailed in skirmishes at Middleborough and Monponsett on July 11 and, a week later, skirmished with Philip's men in and around Taunton, Major William Bradford (159–1657) was pursuing Philip himself, narrowly failing to run the Indian leader to ground on July 16.

Church received a second colonial commission on July 24, calling for a larger army of 200 men, of which 140 were to be friendly Indians. The new army set out on July 30 in pursuit of the elusive Philip.

Closing on their quarry, Church's troops killed Philip's uncle on July 31 and the next day captured the sachem's wife and son. Philip himself, however, managed to escape. Nevertheless, the Indians had become demoralized. In August, a deserter from Philip's camp approached Church, offering to lead him and his men to Philip's camp. Church deployed his men around Philip's

camp after midnight on August 12 and moved in at first light.

Philip took to his feet, as an English soldier fired and missed. The marksmanship of an English-allied Indian called Alderman was better. Benjamin Church ordered the sachem's body butchered, awarding the head and one hand to Alderman. The remainder of the corpse was quartered and hung on four trees, customary practice in an execution for treason.

With Philip's death, the war had all but come to an end. On September 11, Church captured and executed Annawon, Philip's "chief captain." Sporadic skirmishes occurred through October, but the last sizable band of Indians surrendered on August 28. According to eye-witness accounts, many Indians were left demoralized and abject in their submission to the English. Others, however, had fled to Canada, New York, and the Delaware and Susquehanna valleys, where they would meditate a revenge that exploded in a long series of raids and guerrilla actions culminating in the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR. As New York's Governor Edmund Andros laconically observed of King Philip's War, "the advantages thereby were none, the disadvantages very great."

King Philip's War was a catastrophe for New England's colonists and Indians alike. In the course of 1675–76, half of the region's towns were badly damaged and 12 destroyed utterly, requiring the work of a generation to rebuild them. The fragile colonial economy suffered devastating blows, both as a result of the direct cost of the war—approximately £100,000—and because of the disruption of the fur trade with the Indians and the virtual cessation of coastal fishing and the seaborne West Indies trade. Not only did the war siphon off the manpower customarily devoted to these industries, many men never returned to their peacetime occupations, for 1 in 16 colonists of military age died. Many others—men, women, children—were also killed, captured, or starved. In proportion to New England's population of 30,000, King Philip's War was the costliest in American history. As for the Indians, at least 3,000 perished, and many of those who did not die were deported and sold into slavery.

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King William's War (1688–1697)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French and Abenaki Indians vs. English and Iroquois (mostly Mohawk) Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): New England
DECLARATION: North American theater of the War of the Grand Alliance
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of North American trade and territory
OUTCOME: Inconclusive
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: England raised up to 1,000 troops during the war; French forces organized into small bands of swift-moving, efficient guerrilla warriors
CASUALTIES: English and Iroquois: 1250; French and Abenaki: 400
TREATIES: Treaty of Ryswick, September 1697.

When England's William III (1650–1702) joined the League of Augsburg and the Netherlands on May 12, 1689, to form the Grand Alliance in opposition to Louis XIV's (1638–1717) invasion of the Rhenish Palatinate (September 25, 1688), war broke out not only in Europe, but in North America as well. In Europe, the eight-year-long conflict was fought as the War of the GRAND ALLIANCE; known variously as the War of the League of Augsburg and the Nine Years' War, in America, it was called King William's War and pitted the French and Abenaki Indians (of Maine) against the English and their Iroquois allies.

England and France were bitter trade rivals in North America. After the English took New York from the Dutch in 1664, the Iroquois turned to the colony's new masters, rather than the French, for trade. French settlers and traders were fearful of the English-Iroquois alliance, and northern New Englanders felt menaced by the French-allied Abenakis, who were closely allied with the Malecites, Penobscots, Pennacooks, and Micmacs.

Sir Edmund Andros (1637–1714), governor of Britain's northern colonies from New Jersey to Maine, made a peremptory strike against the trading post of Jean Vincent de l'Abadie (fl. 17th century), baron de Saint Castin, in April 1688, a year before open war broke out. Designed to drive the French out of territory claimed by the English, the raid served only to outrage the Abenakis, who were related to Baron Castin through marriage. The English further provoked the French when settlers at Saco, Maine, took 16 Indians captive in retaliation for their having killed some cattle. This action brought a series of bloody Abenaki raids.

By the late summer of 1688, English settlers began building forts in northern New England, but abandoned the one in North Yarmouth, Maine, when news of the approach of the Indians reached them. At this, the Abenakis unleashed terrifying raids throughout northern

New England. Governor Andros built more forts, at Pemaquid and present-day Brunswick, Maine, and mustered 1,000 troops in the area, but they did not pursue the Indians into their winter hiding places. In the spring, Andros unleashed his army, only to be deposed as royal governor when the Protestant revolt in England dethroned James II (1633–1701)—who had appointed Andros—and replaced him with William III.

In the meantime, Louis XIV dispatched Louis de Buade (1622–98), comte de Frontenac, to America as governor of New France in 1689. Frontenac had been governor earlier, from 1672 to 1682, and was tremendously unpopular, but, despite this and his advanced age (he was nearly 70), he was, in the king's view, the best man for accomplishing not just the defense of Canada, but the invasion of New York.

Frontenac planned to march via Lakes Champlain and George into Albany, forge an alliance with the Iroquois, and take New York City.

It quickly became apparent to the governor, however, that these plans were wildly optimistic. Quebec had been badly shaken by Iroquois raids, particularly one that had taken place on the night of July 25–26, 1689, at Lachine, 10 miles upstream from Montreal, prompting the abandonment of a key Lake Ontario fort.

Unable to carry out a major offensive, Frontenac decided on a strategy of what he called *la petite guerre*—small war, a term that evolved into "guerrilla warfare." He used the Abenaki and allied tribes to terrorize the English throughout Maine and New Hampshire, and the raiding campaign intensified during the summer of 1689. The English withdrew from their outposts east of Falmouth (present-day Portland, Maine). Authorities at Boston raised an army of 600 men, but, as would prove the case in later North American Indian conflicts, conventional military forces were largely ineffective in fighting a wilderness guerrilla war.

As winter approached, Frontenac sent a small force of Indians and Canadians to make a three-pronged assault into New York, New Hampshire, and Maine. On the night of February 8, 1690, Schenectady was ravaged. On March 27, 1690, the attack fell on Salmon Falls, New Hampshire. In May, it was Fort Loyal (Falmouth, Maine), the defenders of which, promised safe conduct out of the fort, fell in massacre.

Reeling under these blows, the English and their Mohawk allies decided to seize the initiative with an invasion of Canada that would coordinate two land forces from New York and New England with a naval force sailing up the Saint Lawrence River. Sir William Phips (1651–95) led 14 ships in a successful assault against Port Royal, Acadia (Annapolis Royal, Nova Scotia) on May 11, 1690, but failed to get the invasion proper under way, and, during the balance of 1690, French forces evicted the English from their Hudson Bay outpost at the mouth of the Severn River. In 1691, they even retook Port Royal.

Although the English suffered many reverses, their Iroquois allies fared worse, suffering the destruction of many villages and the loss of many lives. Yet *la petite guerre* produced no decisive victories for the French, and by the end of 1691, the French-allied Abenakis were exhausted enough to conclude a peace treaty on November 29, 1691.

After a brief interval, the treaty was broken as the Abenakis resumed raiding, attacking York, Maine, on February 5, 1692; Wells, Maine, and Deerfield, Massachusetts, were attacked in June.

In January 1693, Frontenac mounted a large assault against Mohawk villages, capturing 300 Mohawks, most of them women, children, and old men. And so the pattern of raid and counterraid continued, month after month, through the fall of 1697. In September of that year, the Treaty of Ryswick ended the War of the League of Augsburg and also wound down the combat in North America—although the frontier was by no means pacified. During 1698 and 1699, the Iroquois and western tribes (mainly the Ojibwa) did frequent battle. Ojibwa tradition tells of a massive combat on the shores of Lake Erie, fought sometime during this period and resulting in a severe Iroquois defeat.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Robert Leckie, *The Wars of America* (New York: Castle Books, 1991); James S. Lemon, "King William's War," in *Colonial Wars of North America 1512–1763,* ed. Alan Gallay (New York: Garland, 1996).

Kiowa War (1874)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kiowa, Comanche, and Cheyenne Indians vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Texas and Kansas plains
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pursuant to national policy, the army wanted to round up and confine the Indians to reservations.
OUTCOME: During late 1874 and into 1875, a few thousand Indians surrendered and were consigned to reservations.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 1,500; Indians actively engaged, about 1,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the spring of 1874, Kiowa Indians, along with Comanches and Cheyennes, launched extensive raids in Texas and Kansas. On June 27, Comanches and Cheyennes attacked a white hunter village at Adobe Walls in the Texas Panhandle. On July 12, the Kiowa chief Lone

Wolf (c. 1820–79) led an ambush of Texas Rangers in the Lost Valley. Lesser raids preyed upon ranchers and travelers throughout Texas and Kansas. In response to such Indian "depredations," General William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91), commander in chief of the U.S. Army's western forces, obtained government authority to invade the reservations. Sherman telegraphed his chief field commander, Philip Sheridan (1831–88), on July 20 to begin an offensive. Sheridan and his lieutenants, General John Pope (1822–92) (commanding forces in Kansas, New Mexico, and parts of Colorado and parts of Indian Territory) and General Christopher C. Augur (1821–85) (commanding Texas and part of Indian Territory) planned a campaign in which their forces would converge on the Staked Plains region of the Panhandle. Forces would close in from Fort Sill in Indian Territory (Oklahoma), from Texas, from New Mexico, and from Kansas.

One of Pope's best field commanders, Colonel Nelson A. Miles (1839–1925), led eight troops of the Sixth Cavalry and four companies of the Fifth Infantry south from the Canadian River into Indian Territory. A force of 774 troopers engaged 200 Cheyennes—soon reinforced to a strength of perhaps 600—as they approached the Staked Plains escarpment on August 30. Miles led his attack from one hill to the next, alternating assaults with Gatling guns and howitzers with infantry and cavalry charges. Combat was a five-hour running battle over about 12 miles of rugged territory. At last, the Indians made their stand along the slopes of Tule Canyon. By this time, however, both sides were exhausted—and Miles knew that he lacked provisions to press the attack further. He reluctantly withdrew to resupply his troops, destroying abandoned Indian villages along the way.

In Plains warfare, the climate was typically an enemy more formidable than either Indian or bluecoat. In 1874, the region was plagued by drought, which ended suddenly on September 7 with a rash of torrential rains. Miles, still in search of supplies, joined his men to another 225 soldiers of the Eighth Cavalry commanded by Major William R. Price. Together, they slogged north through all-but-impassable mud, looking to intercept an army supply train. On September 9, however, about 250 Kiowa and Comanche warriors under Lone Wolf, Satanta (c. 1807–78), and Big Tree (c. 1850–1929) intercepted the supply train first. They held it under siege for three days until Price arrived to drive them off. Miles, still hampered by a lack of supplies, was unable to pursue.

In the meantime, approaching from the southeast was Colonel Ranald S. Mackenzie's (1840–89) Fourth Cavalry. His column was attacked during the night of September 26 by 250 Comanches near Tule Canyon. The Indians' purpose was to stampede the cavalry's ponies, but Mackenzie had taken the precaution not only of hobbling the animals, but surrounding them with a special guard. When they found they were unable to stampede the ponies, the Indians began shooting at the troopers.

Mackenzie retaliated in the morning. His 21 officers and 450 men drove the Indians off, then, acting on intelligence provided by Indian scouts, rode on to Palo Duro Canyon. Here he surprised a combined Kiowa-Comanche-Cheyenne village, totally routing the warriors. Three Indians died in the battle, but Mackenzie also destroyed the Indians' store of provisions and appropriated 1,434 horses. He took 400 mounts for his men, then slaughtered the rest.

In October, troops under the command of Colonel George P. Buell destroyed more Indian villages, and Miles and Price pursued Cheyennes under Chief Gray Beard. The Indians evaded their pursuers, but Miles and Price destroyed the village from which they had fled.

The Kiowa War of 1874 ended for the reason that most white-Indian conflicts ended: exhaustion on both sides—and extreme hunger and privation on the side of the Indians. Late in the fall and early in the winter, as the weather on the Plains turned brutal, hungry Kiowas and Cheyennes straggled into Forts Sill and Darlington to surrender and submit to confinement on the reservation. The last group, 407 Kwahadi Comanches, reported to Fort Sill on June 2, 1875. This effectively brought to an end warfare on the southern plains.

See also RED RIVER WAR.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Robert Utley, *Frontier Regulars: The United States Army and the Indians, 1866–1890* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1984); John R. Wunder, *The Kiowas* (New York: Chelsea House, 1989).

Knights' War (1522–1523)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: German imperial knights vs. Catholic princes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A bid to secularize ecclesiastical lands and to enhance the Lutheran Reformation
OUTCOME: The revolt against the Catholic princes was crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Knights, 15,000; princes' numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Knights' War took place in Germany during the period of the Lutheran Reformation, which triggered profound social as well as theological upheaval. The forces of Protestantism tended always to undercut the authority of the nobility.

Two imperial knights, Franz von Sickingen (1481–1523) and Ulrich von Hutten (1488–1523), partisans of the Reformation, embarked on war to secularize noble and ecclesiastical land holdings and to preserve the free status of imperial knights. They formed a league of imperial knights and, with them, laid siege to the Catholic stronghold of Trier on August 13, 1522. Not only did the siege fail to take Trier, it provoked a retaliation in which the Catholic princes of Trier, Hesse, and the Palatinate laid siege to Sickingen in his castle at Landstuhl. He surrendered on May 6, 1523, and succumbed the next day to wounds received during the siege. His colleague, Ulrich van Hutten, fled to Zurich, where he was given refuge by the Swiss Protestant leader Huldreich Zwingli (1484–1531). However, Hutten died soon after securing refuge and did not return to the fight. Although the Protestants raised an impressive force of 15,000, the Knights' War resulted in a victory for the Catholic nobility. The next social rebellion sparked by the Reformation flared up just one year later as the PEASANTS' WAR.

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Korea, Conquest of

See SINO-KOREAN WAR (660–668).

Korean-Chinese Wars

See SINO-KOREAN WAR (610–614); SINO-KOREAN WAR (645–647); SINO-KOREAN WAR (660–668).

Korean War (1950–1953)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States (nominally allied with 13 other UN member nations) and South Korea (Republic of Korea) vs. North Korea (Democratic People's Republic of Korea) (with assistance from the People's Republic of China)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North and South Korea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Korea
OUTCOME: An armistice left the nation divided along the 38th parallel into a communist North and a democratic South.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 440,000; North Korea, 100,000; China, 300,000
CASUALTIES: United States, 33,629 killed, 103,284 wounded, 10,218 missing or prisoners; Chinese and North Korean losses not known, but many times greater than U.S. losses
TREATIES: Cease-fire, July 27, 1953

The northern and southern regions of Korea had an ancient heritage of conflict with one another, and all of Korea had often been invaded by China or Japan. In 1910, Japan annexed Korea in violation of international agreements. The United States raised no objection to this until after the December 7, 1941, Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. The liberation of Korea then became one of the United States's stated war aims in WORLD WAR II. Following the Potsdam Conference during July 27–August 2, 1945, Soviet premier Joseph Stalin (1879–1953) announced his intention to establish, with the Western Allies, a trusteeship for Korea. When the Japanese surrendered on August 14, 1945, the United States proposed that the Soviets receive Japan's surrender in Korea north of the 38th parallel, while the United States accept surrender south of this line. The United States understood that the partition of Korea was a temporary expedient until the nation could be restored to a full peacetime footing, but the Soviets seized on it to divide Korea and bring the northern portion into the communist sphere. The Soviets fortified the dividing line between North and South, the 38th parallel, and the United States requested that the United Nations intervene to bring about Korean unification. With Soviet support, however, North Korean communists barred the United Nations from conducting elections north of the 38th parallel. South of the parallel, the elections proceeded on May 10, 1948, creating the Republic of Korea (ROK) under President Syngman Rhee (1875–1965). The Soviets established a rival government in North Korea on May 25, 1948: the People's Democratic Republic of Korea (DRK), under the leadership of Kim Il-sung (1912–94), a Soviet-trained Korean communist.

UNITED STATES BEGINS MILITARY SUPPORT OF SOUTH KOREA

U.S. policy was to arm South Korea for defense, without giving the appearance of sponsoring South Korean aggression. After training an ROK army of 65,000, a coast guard of 4,000, and a police force of 35,000, and supplying defensive arms, the United States completed its military withdrawal from Korea on June 29, 1949, leaving behind only a 500-man U.S. Korean Military Advisory Group (KMAG).

NORTH KOREA INVADES

The North Korean People's Army (NKPA), numbering about 100,000 troops and supplemented by a small air force of 132 combat aircraft, crossed the 38th parallel at 4 o'clock on the morning of June 25, 1950. Brushing aside the inferior South Korean forces, the principal invading

force headed toward Seoul, the South Korean capital, about 35 miles below the parallel, while smaller forces moved down the center of the Korean Peninsula and along the east coast. The NKPA took Seoul, and U.S. president Harry Truman (1884–1972) ordered General Douglas MacArthur (1880–1964), commander of the U.S. Far East Command, to begin supplying the ROK with equipment and ammunition. In addition, Truman ordered the U.S. Seventh Fleet to proceed toward Korea, but then redeployed most of it to Taiwan, to forestall a Communist Chinese attack on this Nationalist Chinese stronghold. On June 30, Truman gave MacArthur permission to use all available U.S. forces to aid the ROK. These included units of the Eighth Army as well as the 29th Regimental Combat Team and modest naval and air forces in the region.

In the midst of the invasion, the Soviets signed a treaty of friendship, alliance, and mutual assistance with the People's Republic of China and boycotted all UN organizations and committees on which Nationalist China participated. The Soviet boycott meant that it was not present to veto the UN Security Council resolution authorizing military action against North Korea. Backed by UN sanctions, President Truman named Douglas MacArthur commander of U.S. and UN forces. On July 24, MacArthur created the United Nations Command (UNC). Although various UN member nations would participate in the Korean War, the United States bore the brunt of the battle.

U.S. ground forces began arriving in Korea just six days after the June 25 invasion. By this time, the NKPA had crossed the Han River *south* of Seoul and was still on the move. By July 3, Kimpo Airfield and the port of Inchon were in communist hands. Concluding that the North Koreans' principal objective was the port of Pusan, MacArthur deployed "Task Force Smith" just above Pusan on July 5, but by July 13, the NKPA had pushed ROK and U.S. forces to Taejon, in south-central South Korea. While fighting delaying actions, MacArthur rushed to build up forces in Japan. Two divisions were moved to South Korea on July 18 to reinforce the defenders of Taejon, but the city was lost to the NKPA on July 20.

MacArthur refused to be disheartened by the defeats the U.S.-UN forces suffered. He understood that the rapid advance of the NKPA had stretched its lines of communication and supply beyond their limit. Moreover, although U.S. ground troops were badly outnumbered at this point, the U.S. Air Force quickly established air superiority and began interdicting the supply lines. A naval blockade was also proving effective in cutting off NKPA supplies.

BATTLE OF PUSAN

Lieutenant General Walton H. Walker (1889–1951), commander of the U.S. Eighth Army, took a make-or-break stand along a line north and west of Pusan, the 140-mile-long "Pusan perimeter," extending in an arc from the Korea Strait to the Sea of Japan. With skill and determination, Walker's troops effectively held the perimeter, buying MacArthur the time he needed to build up forces sufficient for an offensive thrust.

INCHON LANDING

MacArthur wanted to attack the NKPA from its rear, trapping it between the attacking force and the Eighth Army at Pusan. To get a large force north of the NKPA position, MacArthur planned and executed a daring landing at Inchon, a site exposed to hazardous tides and offering difficult terrain. On September 15, 1950, MacArthur committed a large force to the Inchon landing, which proved the most brilliant military operation of MacArthur's career. Within two weeks of the landing, Seoul was once again in ROK hands, and the NKPA lines were severed. During September 16–23, the U.S. Eighth Army fought its way out of the Pusan perimeter, forcing the NKPA to withdraw. The Eighth Army pursued and met up with the landing force on September 26. Although more than 30,000 North Korean troops probably made it back to the 38th parallel, the Inchon landing and the associated breakout from Pusan neutralized the NKPA as a fighting force in South Korea. South Korea had been cleared of invaders.

OFFENSIVE INTO NORTH KOREA

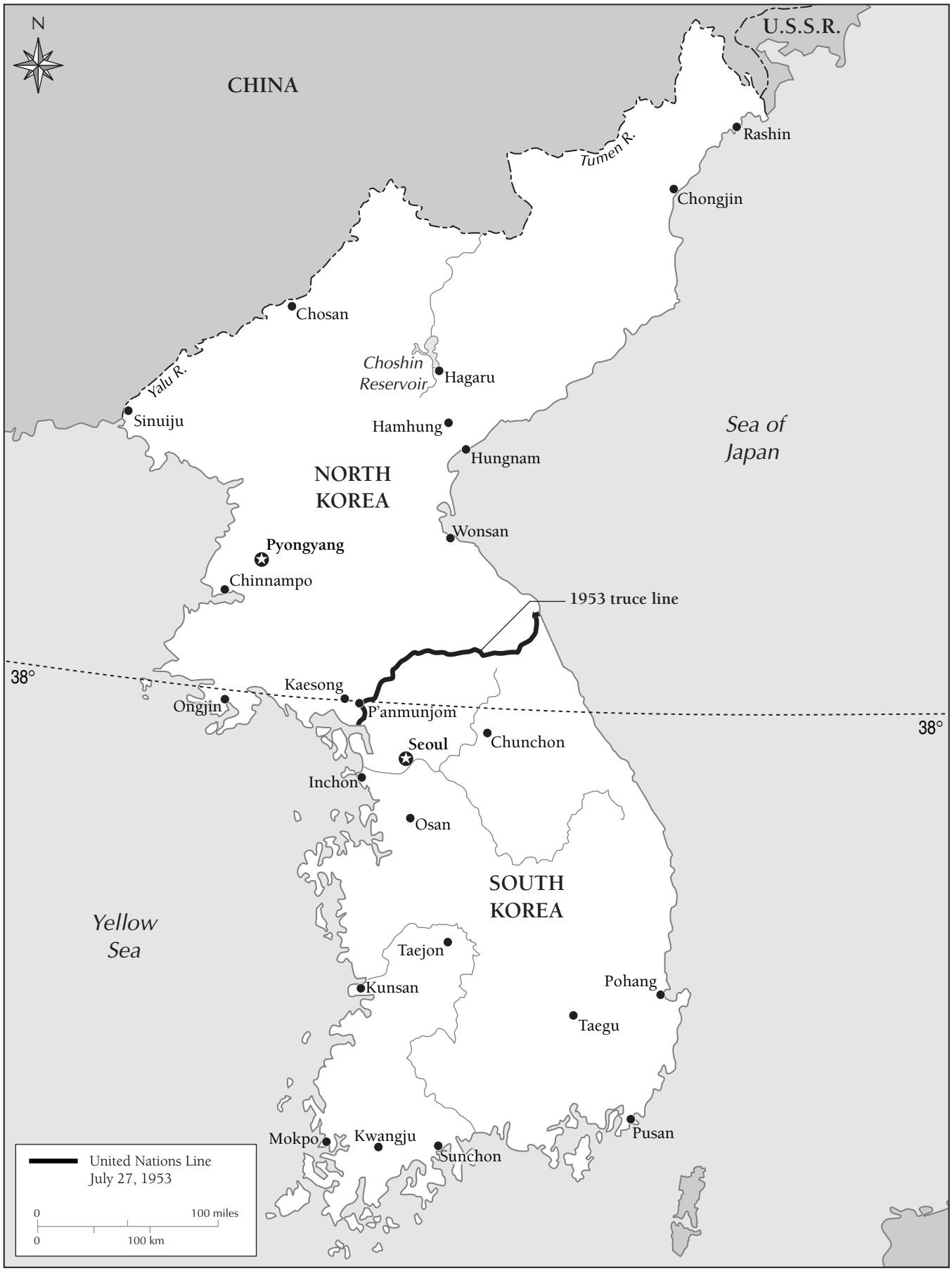
On September 27, President Truman ordered General MacArthur to pursue NKPA across the 38th parallel, warning him to steer clear of the Yalu River (the border with Manchuria) and the Tumen River (the border with the U.S.S.R.). MacArthur was authorized to use South Korean troops exclusively; Truman did not want combat between U.S. and Chinese or Soviet troops.

Two ROK corps crossed the 38th parallel on October 1, and, on October 9, General Walker led Eighth Army's I Corps across as well. By the 19th, I Corps had cleared Pyongyang, the North Korean capital and, by October 24, I Corps was just 50 miles outside of Manchuria. ROK forces were also now positioned close to the Chinese border.

Although China threatened to intervene, Truman authorized the advance to continue. On October 26, MacArthur determined that Communist Chinese troops had entered the fight, but even as the Chinese presence grew, MacArthur continued to believe that Chinese operations were strictly defensive. He ordered the advance to continue, and on November 24, U.S. forces reached the Yalu River, North Korea's border with China.

CHINESE INTERVENTION

On the night of November 25, 1950, Chinese forces attacked the Eighth Army hard on its center and right. Two days later, larger Chinese forces overran units of X Corps on its left flank. By November 28, UN positions were caving in as some 300,000 Chinese troops entered North Korea. General Walker withdrew his troops to



United Nations line established at the 38th parallel, dividing North and South Korea at the time of the armistice

prevent envelopment. By December 15, UN forces had withdrawn all the way to the 38th parallel and were now establishing a defensive line across the breadth of the Korean peninsula. A great airlift evacuated X Corps from North Korea. During the evacuation, Walker was killed in an automobile accident, and Lieutenant General Matthew B. Ridgway (1895–1993) replaced him as commander of the Eighth Army.

THE RELIEF OF MACARTHUR

After China's intervention, MacArthur sought permission to attack China directly, especially the airfields in Manchuria. The administration demurred and ordered MacArthur to contain and limit the war, keeping UN forces within Korea. If this became untenable, MacArthur was to evacuate the Korean Peninsula. In response, MacArthur continued to press for a major blockade and attack against China.

While MacArthur and the Truman administration argued, Ridgway prepared an all-out defense north of Seoul. Despite his preparations, a Chinese attack on New Year's Eve drove the Eighth Army into withdrawal toward Seoul. Seoul fell on January 4, 1951, but the Chinese failed to pursue the Eighth Army south of the capital and soon halted the advance. Ridgway recognized that, once again, logistical problems had stalled the Chinese, and he began a slow, methodical offensive (dubbed "Meatgrinder" by troops) on January 25, 1951. Meatgrinder regained Seoul by the middle of March, and, by the 21st, UN troops were back at the 38th parallel.

At the 38th parallel, the UN forces halted. It was decided that holding South Korea below the 38th parallel was an acceptable outcome of the war. When Truman informed MacArthur that negotiations were to open with the Chinese and North Koreans on the basis of currently held positions, the general declared that, if the United Nations would expand the conflict to North Korea's coastal areas and interior strongholds, the Chinese would realize that they were at serious risk of suffering military defeat. Then, on April 5, 1951, Representative Joseph W. Martin (1884–1968) (R-Fla.) read into the *Congressional Record* a letter from MacArthur stating the necessity of opening up a second front against China itself, one using Nationalist Chinese troops. This letter constituted gross—and dangerous—insubordination, and prompted President Truman to relieve MacArthur of command on April 11.

A NEW CHINESE OFFENSIVE

Matthew Ridgway, appointed to replace MacArthur as supreme commander of UN forces, turned over the Eighth Army to Lieutenant General James A. Van Fleet (1892–1992). The Eighth bore the brunt of a massive spring offensive, which inflicted some 7,000 casualties, but cost the communist forces more than 10 times that number. The first phase of the offensive was over by the end of April, but a second phase was launched on May 14, against the right flank of X Corps. Van Fleet had anticipated just such an attack, however, and so was able to blunt it, inflicting, in the course of a week, some 90,000 casualties.

GUERRILLA PHASE

After the failure of the spring offensive, the communists began to employ hit-and-run attacks by small units instead of deploying massive assaults. The rest of the Korean War became a guerrilla conflict. Van Fleet took the offensive on May 22, 1951, but was soon ordered to halt and hold just north of the 38th parallel.

PEACE NEGOTIATIONS

With the opposing sides arrayed near the 38th parallel, cease-fire negotiations commenced. The talks began at the end of June 1951, but it took until July 26 to even establish an agenda. Breakdowns were frequent, and the talks dragged on for two years, during which combat continued. At length, both sides agreed to an armistice along a demarcation line and demilitarized zone. The truce would be impartially supervised, and arrangements would be made for the return of prisoners of war. UN negotiators wanted prisoners to decide for themselves whether or not they would return home; the communists, fearing mass defection to the South, held out for mandatory repatriation. To break the negotiation stalemate, General Mark Clark (1896–1984), who succeeded Ridgway as UN commander in May 1952, intensified bombing raids on North Korea. It was not until April 1953 that a compromise on the POW issue was reached. At this point, only Syngman Rhee, the president of South Korea, remained dissatisfied with the armistice terms. For him, nothing short of Korean unification (under his leadership) would suffice. He attempted to sabotage the peace process by ordering the immediate release of 25,000 North Korean prisoners who wanted to live in the South. To regain Rhee's cooperation, the United States promised him a mutual security pact and long-term economic aid. However, the armistice signed on July 27, 1953, did not include South Korea. Nevertheless, the shooting war was ended. Korea remained—and remains—divided.

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Kornilov's Revolt (1917)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cossack counterrevolutionary forces vs. the provisional Russian government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Petrograd (St. Petersburg), Russia
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conservative military elements (led by Lavr G. Kornilov) wanted to impose order on Russia through dictatorship following the February Revolution.
OUTCOME: The counterrevolution was quickly suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the FEBRUARY REVOLUTION, which toppled Czar Nicholas II (1868–1918), Russia was adrift in anarchy. Conservative Russian generals, supported by Alexander F. Kerensky (1881–1970), head of the postrevolutionary provisional government, plotted to created a military dictatorship to restore order. However, it soon became apparent that General Lavr G. Kornilov (1870–1918), Kerensky's commander in chief of the army, had ambitions to become sole—and permanent—dictator. Recognizing this, Kerensky denounced Kornilov as a traitor and dismissed him as commander in chief. Kornilov, in turn, sent his loyal Cossack troops to invade Petrograd (subsequently Leningrad and today St. Petersburg). His plan was to reform the soviet (the revolutionary council) to remodel the provisional government along right-wing lines.

Following the incursion of the Cossacks, Kerensky withdrew his support from the military and turned instead to his own left-wing adversaries, the Bolshevik-led workers. In the end, force of persuasion rather than force of arms prevailed. The Cossacks were persuaded to defect, and Kornilov's counterrevolution collapsed, after five days, on September 14, 1917.

General Kornilov was arrested and imprisoned. He escaped from Petrograd following the October Revolution that brought the Bolsheviks to power to participate in the White Russian resistance to government by the soviets (*see* RUSSIAN CIVIL WAR [1917–1922]).

See also BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION.

Further reading: Sheila Fitzpatrick, *The Russian Revolution* (Oxford, England: Oxford University Press, 1982); Richard Pipes, *The Russian Revolution* (New York: Vintage, 1991); Robert Service, *The Russian Revolution, 1900–1927,* 3rd ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1999).

Kościusko's Uprising *See* POLISH REBELLION (1794).

Kronstadt Rebellion (1921)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sailors of the Kronstadt Naval Base vs. Bolshevik government troops
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kronstadt Naval Base outside of Petrograd (St. Petersburg), Russia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The sailors demanded an end to Communist Party dictatorship and called for famine relief, as well as other measures.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quickly and brutally crushed, although it succeeded in spurring reform.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Kronstadt sailors and allies, 27,000; Bolshevik forces, 45,000
CASUALTIES: Kronstadt forces, 600 killed, 1,000 wounded; Bolshevik forces, 1,912 killed or missing, 1,208 wounded. After the rebellion, 2,103 Kronstadt mutineers were executed, and 6,459 were imprisoned, most of whom died within one year.
TREATIES: None

This brief but bloody uprising came about during the winter of 1921, when the fledgling Soviet Union was stricken by economic disaster and famine brought on in large part by the RUSSIAN CIVIL WAR (1917–1921). One of several major internal uprisings spawned by the Civil War, the Kronstadt Rebellion would have an immense impact on Communist Party policy, influencing it to undertake major economic liberalization.

When the hard-strapped Bolshevik government failed to distribute emergency food supplies to the Russian cities that winter, then imposed repressive laws and strict labor regulations, the sailors at the Kronstadt Naval Base rose up in support of striking workers. The sailors had supported the Bolsheviks in 1917, and their cooperation had been crucial to the success of the October Revolution. During the Civil War, however, they had grown disenchanted with the Bolshevik government, its inability to meet the needs of the population, and its harsh measures against the workers in whose name it ruled. With the striking workers, the sailors formed a Provisional Revolutionary Committee and angrily called for an end to the hegemony of the Communist Party in favor of the full empowerment of the soviets (district councils)—soviets without Bolsheviks. Moreover, they demanded the release of non-Bolshevik political prisoners and a full slate of political freedoms and human rights.

Vladimir I. Lenin (1870–1924), leader of the Bolshevik government, dispatched Leon Trotsky (1879–1940) and Mikhail N. Tukhachevsky (1893–1937) with Red Army soldiers across the ice from Petrograd (Leningrad) to quell the rebellion. Overwhelmed by superior forces, the revolt collapsed. Trotsky ruthlessly shot many of the sailors; others were imprisoned.

The rebellion, so harshly crushed, nevertheless provoked reform. Lenin retreated from strict Marxist communism, allowing a measure of free enterprise and distributing emergency food supplies in an effort to avert the

nation's total collapse, in the New Economic Policy of March 1921.

See also BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION; FEBRUARY (MARCH) REVOLUTION.

Further reading: Sheila Fitzpatrick, *The Russian Revolution* (Oxford, England: Oxford University Press, 1982); Richard Pipes, *The Russian Revolution* (New York: Vintage, 1991); Robert Service, *The Russian Revolution, 1900–1927,* 3rd ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1999).

Kun's Red Terror (1919)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hungarian Communists (led by Béla Kun) vs. counterrevolutionaries (led by Admiral Nicholas Horthy) and Romanian invaders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Hungarian government
OUTCOME: The short-lived Hungarian republic was overthrown by Béla Kun's Communists, who were in turn overthrown by a combination of Romanian invaders and Hungarian counterrevolutionaries led by Admiral Nicholas Horthy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The HUNGARIAN REVOLUTION (1918) gave Hungary independence from the failing Austro-Hungarian Empire and established a republic. However, Soviet Russia, under Vladimir I. Lenin (1870–1924), anxious to spread communism to the newly independent nations of eastern Europe, dispatched Béla Kun (1885–c. 1939) to Hungary to establish a communist party there. The party was created on December 20, 1918, and Kun and his followers did not have long to wait for a moment of instability to exploit. On March 21, 1919, Hungarian president Michael Károlyi (1875–1955) suddenly resigned to protest demands by the Allies of WORLD WAR I for more territorial concessions from Hungary. Károlyi's resignation gave Kun the opportunity he needed, and, immediately, a coalition government was created for Hungary, incorporating communists and social democrats, with Kun as head of state. In short order, Kun terminated the coalition by forcing the social democrats out, and he set up a communist dictatorship.

Kun embarked on an ambitious military program. He created a Hungarian Red Army, with which he invaded Czechoslovakia and reconquered Slovakia from that country. On the domestic front, Kun used his army to force nationalization of Hungary's great estates. When he did not redistribute this land to the peasants, as promised, they turned against Kun. In the meantime, Kun's increasing use of terror and strong-arm tactics to accelerate the nationalization of land and industry turned the bourgeoisie against him as well. As if this weren't bad enough, the Allies compelled Kun to return Slovakia to the Czechs.

Beleaguered on all sides, Kun fended off a counterrevolutionary attempt at a coup d'etat during mid-1919. No sooner had he succeeded in this, however, than he had to deal with a Romanian invasion. In April, the Romanian army invaded Hungary in a preemptive strike intended to forestall a Hungarian attempt to reconquer Transylvania. Kun defended, but his forces were repulsed. By the summer, Kun's Red Army mutinied, refusing to resist Romanian troops who were now closing in on Budapest, the Hungarian capital. On August 1, 1919, Kun fled to Vienna.

The Romanians occupied Budapest on August 5. The invaders sacked the city, causing significant destruction and loss of life before withdrawing on November 14, 1919. Into the vacuum created by this devastation stepped the counterrevolutionary leader Admiral Nicholas Horthy de Nagybánya (1868–1957). He rode into Budapest and was named head of state and regent in a restored monarchy independent of Austria.

See also HUNGARIAN CIVIL WAR (1921).

Further reading: Jörg K. Hoensch, *A History of Modern Hungary, 1867–1994,* trans. by Kim Traynor, 2nd ed. (New York: Longman, 1996); Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *Hungary, a Short History* (Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, 1962); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976); John C. Swanson, *The Remnants of the Hapsburg Monarchy: The Shaping of Modern Austria and Hungary, 1918–1922* (Boulder, Colo., and New York: East European Monographs, distributed by Columbia University Press, 2001); Rudolf Tökés, *Béla Kun and the Hungarian Socialist Republic* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Praeger, 1967).

Kurdish Resistance against Iraq (1984–2003)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Kurds vs. Turkey; Kurds vs. Iraq; Kurds vs. Iran; Kurdistan Democratic Party (KDP) (sometimes allied with Saddam Hussein's Iraq) vs. Patriotic Union of Kurdistan (PUK); KDP (with Turkish assistance) vs. Kurdistan Workers Party (PKK)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kurdistan region of Turkey, Iran, and Iraq
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Kurdish nationalism and control of the Kurdish nationalist movement
OUTCOME: Unresolved; fighting remains chronic in war marked by genocide and mass displacement of refugees.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Kurdish losses as a result of Turkish counterinsurgency, 20,000 plus displacement of some 2 million refugees; 180,000 Kurds killed by Iraqi forces in 1988 Al-Afan campaign
TREATIES: KDP-PUK cease-fire, October 23, 1996

The Kurds occupy territory encompassed by northern Iraq, eastern Turkey, and Iran, an area denominated Kurdistan, but one that never in modern times existed as an independent state. Since at least the 1920s, the Kurds have attempted, variously, to create an independent nation of Kurdistan or, at least, to gain some measure of autonomy within the nations in which they live. The problems with Kurdish nationalism are twofold: most nations, including those of the West, believe that the creation of a Kurdish state would further destabilize an already volatile region, and, in any case, the Kurds are far from politically homogeneous; it is very difficult to turn a collection of rival clans into a nation. Yet all of this does not alter the fact that the Kurds are chronically mistreated, persecuted, and, especially in the case of Iraqi policy, even subject to a campaign of genocide.

The current chronic state of warfare began in 1984, with the creation in the Turkish-Iraqi border region of the Kurdistan Workers Party (PKK), which was a terrorist organization dedicated to identifying and killing Kurds deemed loyal to the Turkish government. Turkey dispatched troops to Kurdistan in a long campaign of counterinsurgency. The result was a cumulative casualty count in excess of 20,000 among the Kurds. Turkish military action also displaced some 2 million, creating a long-term refugee problem of staggering proportions.

Warfare in Kurdistan is chronic guerrilla action on the part of the Kurds, punctuated by major killing campaigns, most notoriously by Iraq, but also by Turkey and Iran. Under Iraqi dictator Saddam Hussein (b. 1935), mass executions have taken place, as have mass exterminations. The 1988 Al-Afan operation included poison gas attacks and mass executions responsible for the deaths of at least 180,000 Kurds.

Despite the ruthless campaigns mounted against them, the Kurds succeeded in making important territorial gains at the expense of Iraq, in the wake of the PERSIAN GULF WAR, in 1990 and 1991. Guerrillas from the Kurdistan Democratic Party (KDP) and the Patriotic Union of Kurdistan (PUK) ejected Iraqi forces from northern Kurdistan, which became a haven for over 1 million Kurdish refugees. The Persian Gulf War coalition forces guarded an area near the Turkish border to ensure the safety of the refugees, but when the troops left, Saddam Hussein ordered a new attack. It, too, was repulsed.

Under great pressure, Saddam Hussein permitted the Kurds to elect a Kurdish assembly, which was done in April 1992, but within two years fighting between KDP and PUK rivals destroyed the possibility of Kurdish national unity. An attempt to reconcile the rival factions resulted in the establishment of a Kurdish parliament at the Hague in April 1995, but by the early autumn of the next year, the KDP had allied itself with Saddam Hussein in an effort to eliminate the PUK once and for all. KDP forces pushed PUK guerrillas out of Arb¯ıl and Sulaymaniyah, then out of Dokan as well. The KDP conquest was short-lived, however, as, within a month, during October, PUK forces, bolstered by Iran, reconquered most of the lost territory.

Against the backdrop of this internecine fighting, the United States brokered peace talks, which resulted in a cease-fire agreement between the KDP and PUK on October 23, 1996. Within a year, the truce was shattered. Compounding the violence was an invasion of northern Iraq by Turkish and KDP forces to attack Kurdistan Workers Party (PKK) rebels. The PKK was badly beaten, and Turkey rewarded its ally, KDP, by making territorial cessions to it.

Turkish officials sought a definitive end to the PKK rebellion by capturing Abdullah Ocalan (b. c. 1947), a major PKK leader. However, his capture touched off major violent protests on February 16, 1999, and Kurdish-sponsored terrorism in 21 European cities. At the end of 2001, Iraq was in a perpetual stand-off with the Kurds, and Turkey, having claimed victory over Ocalan and the PKK, continues to resist international pressure to grant the Kurds increased political rights. How the downfall of the regime of Saddam Hussein as a result of the UNITED STATES–IRAQ WAR will affect the Kurds had yet to be seen by early 2004.

Further reading: David McDowall, *A Modern History of the Kurds,* 3rd rev. ed. (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2004); Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, *Kurdistan in the Time of Saddam Hussein: A Staff Report to the Committee On Foreign Relations of the United States Senate* (SuDoc Y4.F76/2:S.prt. 102–56) (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1991).

Kurdistan Insurrection (1922–1924)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Kurds vs. Great Britain (with Arab allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kurdistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence for the Kurds; protecting the flow of oil for Great Britain
OUTCOME: The Kurds gained considerable autonomy
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

In 1909, a British soldier of fortune named William Knox D'Arcy (1849–1917) created the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, which became known as British Petroleum, and launched an economic transformation of the ancient Middle East by the industrialized West, whose political and social effects are still being felt today. When the Middle East collapsed politically, virtually as a whole, during WORLD WAR I, Britain in effect nationalized its Persian oil interests by buying a majority share in the company in 1914 to ensure cheap and ample fuel for its Royal Navy. Thus, in 1922, when the Kurds, a traditional and semi-independent mountain people living in the border region of Iraq, Turkey, and Iran, rebelled against the British and their Arab allies in the region, Great Britain's major concern was to continue the flow of oil from the rich Mosul oil field. The British ultimately suppressed the rebellion, but in the kind of patchwork compromise (sowing the seeds of future conflict) that the Arabs at least were coming to recognize, Britain granted the Kurds considerable autonomy.

Further reading: David McDowall, *A Modern History of the Kurds,* 3rd rev. ed. (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2004); David Fromkin, *A Peace to End All Peace: The Fall of the Ottoman Empire and the Creation of the Modern Middle East* (New York: Henry Holt, 1989); Abdul Rahman Ghassemlou, *Kurdistan and the Kurds* (Prague: Pub. House of the Czechoslovak Academy of Sciences, 1997).

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Ladislas's ("Last") Crusade

See HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1444–1456).

Lamian War (323–322 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Athens (and Aetolian League) vs. Macedonia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Macedonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This was a revolt following the death of Alexander the Great of Macedon; Athenians and other Greek city-states objected to Alexander's recall of the Greek exiles and to the riotous behavior of Alexander's returning troops.
OUTCOME: Athens, overextended and deserted by the other Greek city-states, was defeated on sea and land, and was forced to pay a ruinous indemnity and make other concessions.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Athens and Aetolian League, 30,000; Macedonian numbers unknown but, when reinforced, greater than 30,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

Also called the Greek War, the Lamian War was a general revolt in Greece that came in the aftermath of the death of Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.) of Macedon. The revolt was triggered by Alexander's decree recalling the exiles to Athens and was aggravated by the disorderly conduct and criminal actions of troops returning from Alexander's campaigns of conquest. Two focal points of the rebellion were Athens and Taenarum, a place where mercenary troops sold their services; however, the war's name derives from an Athenian siege against Lamia, the Greek city in which the Macedonian regent, Antipater (397–319 B.C.E.), was headquartered.

In October 323, Athens and the Aetolian League fielded 30,000 men and seized Thermopylae, also managing to keep Antipater's army bottled up at Lamia; however, after the Aetolian League deserted the cause, the Athenians lost a major sea battle in 323 B.C.E., then suffered defeat on land, at the Battle of Crannon, Macedonia, in September 322. This left Athens no choice but to surrender unconditionally. The cost to Athens was heavy: some of its most important leaders were executed, and the great orator-philosopher Demosthenes (c. 385–322 B.C.E.) committed suicide. Athens was saddled with a crippling indemnity and lost its democratic status, becoming an oligarchy. Piraeus, its principal port, was relinquished to Macedonian occupation.

See also DIADOCHI, WARS OF THE.

Further reading: M. Cary, *A History of the Greek World from 323 to 146 B.C.* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1963); Rene Ginones, Gianes N. Akamates, and Iannis Akamates, *Macedonia from Philip II to the Roman Conquest* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1994); F. W. Walbank, *The Hellenistic World* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1993).

Landshut Succession, War of the

See BAVARIAN WAR.

Laodicean War

See SYRIAN-EGYPTIAN WAR, THIRD.

Laotian-Burmese Wars

See BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1558); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1564–1565); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1571–1575); BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1581–1592).

Laotian Civil War (1954–1973)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Laotian neutralist government, right-wing parties, and the communist Pathet Lao vs. each other in various combinations
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Laos, especially the Plain of Jars region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Laotian government
OUTCOME: A coalition was formed among the neutralists, rightists, and Pathet Lao communists; this put the Pathet Lao in a position to take over the government entirely, after neighboring Vietnam was unified as a communist state in 1975.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Cease-fire of 1961 and of 1973

The Geneva Conference of 1954 recognized Laotian independence from France and acknowledged the new nation's neutrality. The anti-French, leftist Pathet Lao soon gained control of the two northern provinces of Laos and received support from communists in Vietnam. In exchange for this support, the Pathet Lao allowed North Vietnamese communist troops to infiltrate Laos and use it for a supply and staging area in the VIETNAMESE CIVIL WAR (1955–1965) that was escalating into the VIETNAM WAR. In cooperation with the Pathet Lao, the infiltrators attacked Laotian government forces in an effort to overthrow the government and replace it with a communist regime.

Under great pressure from the communists, Prince Souvanna Phouma (1901–84), Laotian premier, attempted to form a coalition government by admitting Pathet Lao leaders into positions of authority. This, however, alienated the right wing of his government, and Souvanna Phouma was ousted. In the wake of his ouster, the pro-Western right wing, drawing economic and military support from the United States, launched a campaign against the Pathet Lao. Most of the fighting, between the Laotian army and the Pathet Lao, was concentrated on the Plain of Jars in north-central Laos.

During the conflict, Souvanna Phouma resurfaced and, in 1960, led a successful coup d'état. He proclaimed himself a middle-of-the-road leader who wanted to restore Laos to the status defined for it by the Geneva Conference. Before the year was out, however, Souvanna found himself locked in a struggle with the Pathet Lao and the right wing. He stepped down and fled to temporary self-imposed exile in Cambodia.

In Souvanna's absence, in 1961, Prince Souphanouvong (1909–95), a Pathet Lao leader, concluded a cease-fire with the remnant of the Laotian government, and, by 1962, a volatile coalition was forged among the left, right, and middle. Not only did each have representation in the government, each also maintained its own private army. Souvanna Phouma returned as the nominal head of state, but in 1964 the political right-wing used the army to oust him from office. When Souvanna agreed to give the right wingers a bigger slice of government representation, he was restored. This, predictably, brought protests and violence from the Pathet Lao, which, supported by the North Vietnamese, broke away from the coalition government and waged an all-out military campaign on the Plain of Jars. From this point forward, the Pathet Lao gradually gained ground—despite U.S. military support for the government of Souvanna Phouma.

By 1973, the Pathet Lao controlled much of the east, north, and south, and the Souvanna government concluded a cease-fire and formed a new coalition in which the Pathet Lao played a prominent role. Souvanna remained premier, with Prince Souphanouvong, the highest-ranking member of the Pathet Lao, as president. The coalition was doomed, however, by the victory of the communist forces in South Vietnam in 1975. Once this neighbor had become a thoroughly communist state, the Pathet Lao felt emboldened to take over Laos.

See also FRENCH-INDOCHINA WAR (1946–1954).

Further reading: MacAlister Brown and Joseph Zasloff, *Apprentice Revolutionaries: The Communist Movement in Laos, 1930–1985* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1986); D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); Joseph Zasloff, *The Pathet Lao* (Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, 1973).

Laotian Guerrilla War (1977–1990)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pathet Lao (supported by Vietnam) vs. groups favoring royalist restoration (supported by China); Pathet Lao government vs. Thailand in border dispute
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Laos
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The communist Pathet Lao sought to suppress a movement for the restoration of the monarchy; simultaneously, the Pathet Lao fought a border war with Thailand.

OUTCOME: Once half of the Vietnamese troops occupying Laos withdrew, China ended its military support for the anti-Pathet Lao rebels, and the war quickly wound down. Improved relations with China, Thailand, and other neighbors bolstered the Pathet Lao government and brought a significant degree of stability to the country.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Formal cease-fire, 1990, but no definitive treaty

Having come to power as a result of the LAOTIAN CIVIL WAR, the Pathet Lao abolished the traditional monarchy of Laos and formally established the People's Democratic Republic, a communist dictatorship. This sent many Laotians fleeing the country, mostly to Thailand. Others, most prominently the Meo tribesmen, loyal supporters of the monarchy, began a guerrilla war against the Pathet Lao government. Because the Pathet Lao supported (and was in turn supported by) communist Vietnam, China, which was locked in enmity against Vietnam, sided with and aided the Meo as well as the Hmong tribespeople—despite their advocacy of the monarchy and opposition to the communist government.

Amid a continual flow of refugees out of Laos and a low-level guerrilla war, the Pathet Lao government weakened, and in 1982, China supported the creation of a Royal Lao Democratic Government, a breakaway government that took control of the southern portion of the country. The Royal Lao forces, already allied with China, planned also to form an alliance with anti-Vietnamese forces in Cambodia. Their immediate objective was to eject some 45,000 Vietnamese troops occupying Laos.

During 1984–88, while guerrilla warfare raged within Laos, Thailand and Laos frequently engaged in combat over a disputed border. The Pathet Lao, barely holding its own against internal rebels, accused Thailand of supporting the Laotian right wing and of giving its members shelter along the border. Then, in 1988, some 20,000 Vietnamese troops were withdrawn from Laos. This was sufficient to allow China to declare a victory and depart the field; it withdrew its military support of the anti–Pathet Lao royalists. The Pathet Lao gained the ascendency now, buoyed in no small measure by vastly improved trade relations with China as well as with Thailand and Vietnam. With economic strength, the Pathet Lao became increasingly popular and, therefore, difficult to oppose. The anti-Pathet Lao rebels gradually withdrew, and a formal cease-fire between Laos and Thailand was also concluded in 1990. By the following year, Thailand withdrew its troops from the border region. Free to focus on the remaining rebels, the Pathet Lao quickly suppressed remaining pockets of rebellion. With stability restored to Laos, some 60,000 refugees returned from camps in Thailand.

Further reading: MacAlister Brown and Joseph Zasloff, *Apprentice Revolutionaries: The Communist Movement in Laos, 1930–1985* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1986); D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); Joseph Zasloff, *The Pathet Lao* (Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, 1973); Joseph Zasloff and Leonard Unger, eds., *Laos: Beyond the Revolution* (Houndsmill, Basingstoke, Hampshire: Macmillan, 1991).

Laotian Invasion of Chiengmai

See SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1593–1600).

"Last" Crusade

See HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1444–1456).

Latin Empire–Byzantine Empire War, First (1204–1222)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Latin Empire vs. Nicaean Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The belligerents fought over succession to the Byzantine Empire.
OUTCOME: The weak Latin Empire was repeatedly defeated, its territory ultimately reduced to the city of Constantinople itself.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Armistice of 1206; Armistice of 1214; Armistice of 1222

When the Byzantine Empire collapsed as a result of the disastrous Fourth CRUSADE, the so-called Latin Empire (also known as Romania) was proclaimed under Emperor Baldwin II (1171–1205). The new empire was more an aspiration than an accomplished fact, however, and external threats as well as internal dissension kept it weak. A Bulgarian-Cuman army soundly defeated the forces of the Latin Empire at the Battle of Adrianople in 1205, forcing the withdrawal of the empire's forces and resulting in the capture of Baldwin. The following year, Henry of Flanders (c. 1174–1216) ascended the Latin throne and resolved to reoccupy Asia Minor. He was beaten back by a Nicaean army, and Nicaea forced on him a two-year armistice. In desperation, Henry made a secret pact with the Seljuk Turks, who waged war against Nicaea beginning in 1209. Despite this alliance, the weak army of the Latin Empire was repeatedly bested in battle, so that, by 1214, the Latin

Empire was forced to renounce attempts to conquer Nicaean territory.

When Henry of Flanders died in 1216, the decline of the short-lived Latin Empire accelerated. Three years later, the southern Slavs claimed Nicaea as proper heir to the Byzantine Empire and recognized it as the center of the Greek Orthodox Church. By 1222, the so-called Latin Empire was nothing more than the city of Constantinople, Nicaea having conquered Seleucia from the Latins that year. More enduring was the widening of the gulf between the Christian churches of the East and West. This alienated Greece from the West and killed any hope of Greek reunion with what had been the Byzantine Empire. The Latin Empire had no chance to become a western bulwark against eastern invasion, and thus Europe lay exposed and vulnerable.

See also LATIN EMPIRE–BYZANTINE EMPIRE WAR, SECOND; LATIN EMPIRE–BYZANTINE EMPIRE WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Michael Angold, *A Byzantine Government in Exile: Government and Society under the Laskanids of Nicaea, 1204–1261* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall*. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1996).

Latin Empire–Byzantine Empire War, Second (1224–1237)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nicaea vs. Latin Empire and Bulgaria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: As with the First Latin Empire–Byzantine Empire War, the objective was control of the Byzantine Empire.
OUTCOME: After a protracted struggle, Nicaea gained control of Bulgaria and the Latin Empire
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The greatly reduced Latin Empire renewed its contest with Nicaea over control of the waning Byzantine Empire in 1224. Nicaea's John III (d. 1254) struck an alliance with Ivan II (d. 1241) of Bulgaria and, together, the allies conquered territory in Asia Minor and among the Aegean islands. John failed, however, to take Constantinople from the Latins. This induced Ivan II to switch allegiance from Nicaea to the Latin Empire. Despite the loss of his ally, however, John III continued to acquire territory in Asia Minor, although he was forced to relinquish Thrace to Epirus.

In the meantime, Ivan II ruled as regent (to Baldwin II [1217–73]) of the Latin Empire until John of Brienne (1170–1237) joined Baldwin as coemperor in 1231. His regency voided, Ivan now declared war on the Latin Empire and attacked Constantinople in 1235 and again in 1236. This proved foolhardy, since the city was such a formidable objective. Both attempts were repulsed. Taking advantage of these defeats, John III attacked Ivan, managing to dominate both Bulgaria and the Latin Empire.

See also LATIN EMPIRE–BYZANTINE EMPIRE WAR, FIRST; LATIN EMPIRE–BYZANTINE EMPIRE WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Michael Angold, *A Byzantine Government in Exile: Government and Society under the Laskanids of Nicaea, 1204–1261* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall*. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1996).

Latin Empire–Byzantine Empire War, Third (1261–1267)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Restored Byzantine Empire vs. (variously) Latin Empire, Nicaea, Naples and Sicily, Epirus, Genoa, and Bulgaria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy and the Peloponnese
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Michael VIII Palaeologus sought to restore the Byzantine Empire.
OUTCOME: The empire was largely restored under Michael.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty with Genoa, 1261; alliance with Venice, 1263

Following the First LATIN EMPIRE–BYZANTINE EMPIRE WAR, and Second LATIN EMPIRE–BYZANTINE EMPIRE WAR, the Latin Empire, never very strong and always wracked by internal dissension, began its final collapse. Michael VIII Palaeologus (1225–82), having usurped the Nicaean throne, now led an army against Constantinople, which had withstood attacks in the First and Second Latin Empire–Byzantine Empire wars, and took the city in 1259. With their last stronghold gone, the Latins yielded to the restoration of the Byzantine Empire. However, the war Michael had started continued now against Charles I (1227–85) of Naples and Sicily, as Michael, in 1261, was proclaimed Byzantine emperor. Michael also faced enemies on the Peloponnese, which he defeated in 1261, and opposition from Genoa, with which he concluded a treaty the same year. A year later, however, Bulgaria rebelled

against the renewed Byzantine Empire, and Michael responded with a vigorous campaign that crushed the incipient revolt.

In 1263, its treaty with the empire notwithstanding, Genoa renewed war against the Byzantines, but Michael engaged the enemy on the sea and defeated the Genoese fleet, then struck an alliance with Venice, which effectively checked further aggression from Genoa.

In 1264, Michael moved against Epirus, and scored a victory there, but also lost a major battle against the Latin principality of Achaea at Makry-Plagi. A serious tactical loss, the defeat at Makry-Plagi turned out to be a relatively insignificant strategic setback, for, over the next three years, Michael led a slow but steady campaign against remaining pockets of resistance. Additionally, he conducted a skillful diplomatic offensive. The combination of military momentum and good diplomacy restored the Byzantine Empire and brought it a degree of stability it had not known for many years.

See also BYZANTINE CIVIL WAR (1222–1224); BYZANTINE WAR; CRUSADE, FOURTH; CRUSADE, SIXTH; CRUSADE, EIGHTH.

Further reading: Deno John Geanakoplos, *Emperor Michael Palaeologus and the West, 1258–1282* (Hamden, Conn.: Archon Books, 1973); Donald M. Nicol, *The Last Centuries of Byzantium, 1261–1453,* 2nd ed. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall.* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1996).

Latin War (340–338 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Latin rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Latium (central Italy)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rebellious members of the Latin confederation attempted to end Rome's domination of the league.
OUTCOME: After initial victories, the rebellious cities were put down and compelled to acknowledge Rome as the leader of the confederation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Revised Latin confederation agreement, 338 B.C.E.

By the fourth century B.C.E., the city-state of Rome came to dominate Latium—central Italy—binding to itself in a loose confederation the other cities in the region. As was common among such confederations, conflict developed over domination of the league. A number of cities, allying themselves with the Campanians, challenged Roman domination of the confederation beginning in 340 B.C.E.

The first major battle occurred at Vesuvius in 339, when the Roman general Publius Decius Mus (d. 339 B.C.E.) made a suicidal attack against the rebel forces to permit the major Roman army of Titus Manlius Imperiosus Torquatus (fl. mid-fourth century B.C.E.) to withdraw intact. Regrouping, Manlius was able to mount a massive counterattack at the Battle of Trifanum, near the mouth of the Liri River, in 338, achieving a victory so decisive that the Latin rebels were compelled to conclude a revised alliance with Rome, whereby Rome was explicitly acknowledged as the leader of a confederation bound by military alliance and—in a key move toward empire—exchanging citizenship rights among the members of the confederation. Effectively, Rome annexed all of Latium.

Further reading: Joshua Whatmough, *The Foundations of Roman Italy* (New York: Haskell House Publishers, 1971); A. Alföldi, *Early Rome and the Latins* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1965).

Latvian War of Independence (1919–1920)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Latvian republicans (with German allies) vs. Soviet invaders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Latvia, especially Riga and vicinity
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Latvia, having gained independence from Germany, resisted Soviet attempts at domination.
OUTCOME: Latvia obtained Soviet recognition of its independence by the Treaty of Riga (abrogated in 1940).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Riga, August 11, 1920

After the armistice ending WORLD WAR I, Latvia, which had been under German control, declared independence under Prime Minister Karlis Ulmanis (1877–1940). Within weeks, however, during January 1919, Bolshevik forces from Russia invaded Latvia and occupied Riga, its capital city. Ulmanis was ousted, and a Soviet government set up in his place.

Latvian nationalists won the approval of the WORLD WAR I Allies (principally France, Britain, Italy, and the United States) to secure the aid of German troops in combating the invasion. By March, combined Latvian-German forces has expelled the Soviets from Riga but not entirely from Latvia. Now, however, in defiance of the Treaty of Versailles, the Germans refused to evacuate Latvia and remained in control of Riga. Latvian forces were ultimately able to push the Germans out by the end of 1919, but in

the process, the Soviets were once again able to advance on Riga. With the aid of the Allied nations, they were at last permanently evicted in January 1920. The Soviets signed an armistice with the Latvians, then concluded the Treaty of Riga on August 11, 1920, recognizing Latvian independence; however, positioned as it was within the jaws of Germany to the west and Soviet Russia to the east, the nation was doomed to reconquest by one great power or the other. In WORLD WAR II, Latvia would become a dismal battlefield.

Further reading: Edgar Anderson, *Latvia, Past and Present: 1918–1968* (Waverly, Iowa: Latva gramata, 1968).

Lava Beds War

See MODOC WAR.

League of Augsburg, War of the

See GRAND ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE.

League of Cambrai, War of the (1508–1510)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: League of Cambrai (Holy Roman Empire, France, Aragon) vs. Venice
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy
DECLARATION: League of Cambrai created December 10, 1508
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The pope wanted to regain control of cities of the Romagna seized by Venice.
OUTCOME: Venice relinquished its mainland satellite cities.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable; at the culminating Battle of Agnadello, France fielded 30,000 men against approximately the same number of Venetians.
CASUALTIES: At Agnadello, Venetian casualties were reported "in the thousands."
TREATIES: No treaty ended the war; the creation of the League of Cambrai (December 10, 1508) was the basis of the war.

The Romagna region of northern Italy was titled to the papacy. When Venice seized the region, Pope Julius II (1443–1513), on December 10, 1508, created the League of Cambrai, consisting of the Holy Roman Empire, France, and Aragon—all traditional enemies of Venice—to wage war. The pope authorized the monarchs of the league kingdoms, Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian I (1459–1519), French king Louis XII (1462–1515), and Aragon King Ferdinand II (1452–1516), to divide among themselves the mainland territories of Venice and to bring any papal lands back to the papacy.

The league's first targets were Perugia and the chief city of the Romagna, Bologna. After taking these, Louis's French army of 30,000 attacked a Venetian army (of comparable size) at Agnadello in Cremona on May 14, 1509. The Venetians were soundly defeated, suffering several thousand casualties. The French also captured their artillery. As a result of this decisive battle, the mainland satellite cities of Venice were lost and divided, as the pope had ordered, among the league members and the papacy. However, Venice refused to surrender unconditionally, and when Emperor Maximilian lost control of Padua and the pope had second thoughts about allowing so many foreign monarchs to control Italy, the League of Cambrai dissolved. Venice would eventually regain control of its mainland cities, but it would never recover the extent of power it enjoyed before the League of Cambrai's war.

See also HOLY LEAGUE, WAR OF THE.

Further reading: P. S. Chambers, *The Imperial Venice, 1380–1580* (New York: Harcourt, Brace Jovanovich, 1971); Friedrich Heer, *Holy Roman Empire,* trans. Janet Sondheimer (New York: Sterling, 2002); M. E. Mallett and J. R. Hale, *The Military Organization of a Renaissance State: Venice, c. 1400 to 1617* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1984); John Jefrees Martin and Dennis Romano eds., *Venice Reconsidered: The History and Civilization of an Italian City State* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2003); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Vintage, 1989).

Lebanese Civil War (1958)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Christian (Maronite) Lebanese vs. Lebanese Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lebanon, especially Beirut
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Camille Chamoun, Lebanon's Christian (Maronite) president, developed close ties with the West, a policy that alienated Lebanese Muslims, who favored closer ties with neighboring Arab nations. Muslim groups rebelled against Chamoun.
OUTCOME: U.S. and UN intervention ended the war, with the Christian (Maronite) party still in power.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: U.S. troop strength in Lebanon, 14,000; others variable
CASUALTIES: Mostly civilian
TREATIES: None

Camille Chamoun (1900–87), candidate of the Christian (Maronite) party, was elected to the presidency of Lebanon in 1952 and quickly developed close ties with the West, especially the United States. This policy alienated many Lebanese Muslims, about 50 percent of the population, who favored closer ties with neighboring Arab

nations and were hostile to the West. Unrest grew and, during May 9–13, 1958, Muslim groups rebelled against Chamoun. Riots erupted in Tripoli and in the Lebanese capital, Beirut. The riots were apparently orchestrated—or at least supported—by the United Arab Republic (UAR) (the union of Egypt and Syria, formed in January 1958), which also endorsed the activity of Kamal Jumblatt (1918–77), a Druse chieftain who led the most militant aspects of the revolt and who had already defeated Lebanese army forces in several encounters.

Chamoun refused to resign and instead appealed to U.S. president Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969) for military aid. In 1957, Eisenhower had promulgated the so-called Eisenhower Doctrine, which held that the independence of the nations of the Middle East was vital to United States interests and the peace of the world. As the Eisenhower administration saw it, Soviet backing of the United Arab Republic jeopardized the security of Jordan, Turkey, and Iraq, as well as Lebanon—all nations friendly to the West. When Iraqi army officers allied with the UAR overthrew Iraq's King Faisal II (1935–58) in 1957, Egypt and Iraq acted to destabilize Jordan and Lebanon, arming and supporting rebels in these nations. In 1957, the Eisenhower government authorized U.S. Marines and a full army brigade to join a British regiment in Jordan to protect the government of King Hussein (1935–99). At this time, it was also decided to prepare for intervention in Lebanon, and three U.S. Marine battalions were made ready. The army prepared for a massive airlift, if required. Thus the U.S. military was poised to answer Chamoun's appeal for assistance.

On July 15, 1958, marines began to land at Khalde Beach in Lebanon. On July 16, these initial forces were joined by marines airlifted from Europe. On July 19, army troops arrived. The response of the Lebanese was mixed as U.S. soldiers marched into Beirut. Little resistance was encountered, and some even greeted the Americans as friends. Wisely, U.S. commanders established a clear relationship with Lebanese officers. Within a short time, U.S. and Lebanese forces were integrated and working well together to patrol the explosive areas of Beirut.

On July 15, when the first contingent of marines landed, President Eisenhower called on the United Nations to intervene in Lebanon with a multinational peacekeeping force. The Soviet Union vetoed the resolution of intervention, whereupon Eisenhower dispatched Deputy Undersecretary of State Robert D. Murphy (1895–1978) to Lebanon to mediate among the warring factions. In the meantime, the U.S. presence had enabled the establishment of a cease-fire, which, however, was tenuous at best. Sniper incidents were common. Occasionally, skirmishes developed. Despite this, U.S. forces worked with the Lebanese army to create a 20-mile defensive perimeter around Beirut. The principal object of this was to prevent Syrian or Syrian-backed guerrillas from attacking the capital and ousting Chamoun. The U.S. intervention bought time for Murphy to negotiate an agreement to hold new elections. Another Maronite Christian, General Faud Chehab (1902–73), was elected, and, after his inauguration on September 23, 1958, U.S. troops withdrew. At its peak, U.S. troops strength in Lebanon approached 14,000.

Further reading: Helena Cobban, *The Making of Modern Lebanon* (London: Hutchinson, 1985); David Gilmore, *Lebanon, The Fractured Country* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1983, c. 1984); Kanal S. Salibi, *Crossroads to Civil War* (Delmar, N.Y.: Caravan Books, 1975).

Lebanese Civil War (1975–1992)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Christian (Maronite) Lebanese (many of the Christian Phalange Party) vs. Lebanese Muslims and Lebanon-based Palestinian refugees, members of the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), Palestine Liberation Army (PLA); Syrian military intervention (Arab Deterrent Force, ADF); Israeli military intervention; military intervention by Multinational Force (MNF), consisting of U.S., French, Italian, and British troops
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lebanon, especially Beirut
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Long-standing strife between Christian and Muslim factions; war triggered by reprisals for failed attempt to assassinate the Christian president in 1975
OUTCOME: The civil war came to a tentative end after the "Taif Agreement" created Christian-Muslim representation in Lebanese government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Arab Deterrent Force (1977), 30,000 men, including 27,000 Syrian troops; Israel Defense Forces (IDF) (1978), 25,000
CASUALTIES: Lebanon (1977), 44,000 dead, 180,000 wounded, mostly civilian, 200,000 refugees; MNF casualties in October 23, 1983, barracks bombing, 298; Lebanese civilian casualties in 1990 Beirut shellings, 900 dead, more than 3,000 wounded
TREATIES: Shtawrah Accord (Syria and Lebanon), July–August 1977; accord for Israeli withdrawal from Lebanon, May 17, 1983; Saudi-brokered cease-fire, September 26, 1983; "Taif Agreement," November 4, 1989 (Christian-Muslim representation in government)

In the second half of the 20th century, Lebanon was divided more or less evenly between Christians and Muslims. The National Pact of 1943 had established the dominant political role of the Christian Phalange Party in the central government. Periodically, this had been a source of violent

discontent among the Muslim factions. Further destabilizing the situation in Lebanon was the presence of Palestinian refugees as well as bases from which the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) operated against Israel.

On April 13, 1975, gunmen killed four Phalangists during an attempt on the life of Phalange leader Pierre Gemayel (1905–84). Apparently believing that the would-be assassins were Palestinian, Phalangist forces retaliated later that day with an attack against a bus carrying Palestinians through a Christian neighborhood; 26 passengers died. It was these two incidents that triggered a long, extremely destructive civil war.

On April 14, fighting became widespread and intense, with Phalangists engaging Palestinian militiamen, believed by many to have been from the PLO. Much of the violence was disorganized, consisting mainly of random killings in the streets of Beirut. The government quickly proved incapable of responding decisively or effectively. Civil war did not mobilize the government but paralyzed it. Government leaders were unable to agree on whether or not to use the army to stop the killing. Yet when the militant Druse chieftain Kamal Jumblatt (1918–77) tried to cut off the Phalangists politically, other Christian sects rallied to the Phalangist cause. In May, Prime Minister Rashid al-Sulh (served 1992) and his cabinet resigned, and a new government was formed under Rashid Karami (1921–87). Although there were many calls for his resignation, President Sulayman Franjiyah (served 1970–76) refused to step down, and the war intensified and spread throughout Lebanon. In places with mixed sectarian populations, individuals sought the safety of regions where their sect was dominant, thereby further polarizing the country.

The civil war rapidly became chaotic and complex. Opposing militias exchanged fire in a pattern of attack followed by retaliation. Much of the violence was directed against noncombatant civilians. Nor was the civil war a relatively simple matter of Christian versus Muslim. The factions within both groups were many. Generally, however, those in favor of maintaining the status quo came to be known as the Lebanese Front. These groups included primarily the Maronite Christian militias of the Gemayel and other clans. Less well organized was the Lebanese National Movement, largely led by Kamal Jumblatt. This was a loose agglomeration of leftist groups and guerrillas from PLO factions.

By the end of 1975, the first year of the war, no side had made decisive military gains; however, it was clear that the Lebanese Front had performed poorly against the disorganized Lebanese National Movement. This fact alone eroded the national government. Beginning in 1976, Syria attempted diplomatic intervention, organizing a cease-fire and setting up the High Military Committee, through which it negotiated with all sides—albeit with little success at first.

In January 1976, the Lebanese Front began a siege of Tall Zatar, a Palestinian refugee camp in East Beirut. The Lebanese Front also overran and destroyed Karantina, a Muslim quarter in East Beirut. These provocative actions brought the main forces of the PLO, the Palestine Liberation Army (PLA), into the war. Combined PLA and Lebanese National Movement forces took the town of Ad Damur, a Shamun Christian stronghold south of Beirut.

In the midst of these actions, Syria's diplomacy made a breakthrough. On February 14, 1976, Syria was instrumental in hammering out a 17-point reform program called the Constitutional Document. Hopes were high—then soon dashed as, in March, the Lebanese army fell apart. Dissident Muslim troops, led by Lieutenant Ahmad Khatib (fl. 1970s), mutinied, creating the Lebanese Arab Army, which joined the Lebanese National Movement. The Lebanese Arab Army penetrated Christian-controlled Beirut, then attacked the presidential palace, forcing President Franjiyah to flee to Mount Lebanon.

Against this backdrop, in May 1976, the Chamber of Deputies elected Elias Sarkis (1924–85) to take over as president when Franjiyah's term expired in September. Because Sarkis had strong backing from Syria, he was unacceptable to Jumblatt. So the war continued, as the Lebanese National Movement successfully attacked Mount Lebanon and other Christian-controlled areas. Fearing that Jumblatt would prevail and create a state hostile to Syria, Syrian president Hafiz al-Assad (1930–2000) sent troops against Lebanese National Movement forces. Not only did the Syrians encounter far stiffer resistance than they had anticipated, the decision to side with the Christians provoked anti-Syrian outrage from much of the Arab world. Feeling increased pressure, Assad resolved to act even more strongly. In July, he launched a massive drive against Lebanese National Movement strongholds. Well-organized and relentless, the drive very nearly succeeded in neutralizing the opposition within two weeks. However, Syrian leaders chose to stop short of crushing the rebellion. Instead, they participated in an Arab peace conference held in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, on October 16, 1976. The conference, followed by an Arab League meeting in Cairo also in October 1976, resulted in a formal end to the Lebanese Civil War. Although full-scale warfare did stop, the conference failed to address the causes that underlay the conflict.

By virtue of the Cairo agreement, Syrian troops occupied Lebanon as the main constituents of the Arab Deterrent Force. In January 1977 the ADF consisted of 30,000 men, of whom 27,000 were Syrian. The war, up to this point, had cost the Lebanese about 44,000 dead and approximately 180,000 wounded. Untold thousands became refugees, and Beirut, long celebrated as one of the great cities of the Middle East, was in ruins. By agreement, the city had been divided into Muslim and Christian sectors, separated by the "Green Line."

In December 1976, Prime Minister Salim al Huss (b. 1935) directed the reorganization of the army, most of whose members had deserted during the civil war to join one of the various factions. According to the Cairo Agreement, Lebanese military units were to be stationed in southern Lebanon; instead, the region south of the Litani River was left in the hands of the Palestinians. This meant that relations with Syria would remain a major cause for concern. Worse, by late 1977, as a result of the Egyptian-Israeli peace negotiations and Syria's consequent rapprochement with the PLO, Lebanese-Syrian relations cooled, then began to disintegrate after fighting broke out between the ADF and the Lebanese army in East Beirut in February 1978, followed by a massive ADF bombardment of Christian sectors of Beirut in July. Lebanese president Sarkis resigned in protest but was persuaded to reconsider. Syrian bombardments of East Beirut ended in October 1978 as a result of a UN Security Council cease-fire resolution that indirectly implicated Syria as a party to the Lebanese Civil War. At this point, Syria threatened to withdraw its forces from Lebanon. This forced President Sarkis to come to terms with President Assad in a conference at Damascus in May 1979. The two heads of state agreed that Syrian troops would "remain in Lebanon as long as the Arab interests so require."

Late in 1980 and into the spring of 1981, the ADF moved against the Phalange Party militia, headed by Bashir Gemayel (1947–82), near Zahlah, a short distance from Beirut. For Israel, the Phalange was an ally, and that nation responded with armed intervention, immediately shooting down two Syrian helicopters over Lebanon. Syria responded by bringing surface-to-air missiles into Lebanon, threatening to expand the war. The United States and Lebanon's Arab neighbors mediated the crisis and widespread regional war was averted.

Yet the civil war in Lebanon remained a potentially regional conflict. Especially complex and dangerous were Lebanese relations with the Palestinians. During the early part of the civil war, Lebanese refugees migrated to southern Lebanon, which remained relatively peaceful. After the Palestinians left the area to fight elsewhere, Christian militias, led by Lebanese army officers supported by Israel, took control of a large part of the south. Christian control of southern Lebanon created a buffer zone between the Lebanon-based Palestinians and Israel. The Syrians wanted to eliminate all Israeli influence from the south, while the Israelis wanted direct contact with the population of southern Lebanon and wished to keep both the Syrians and the Palestinians out of the area. Fighting in the south, between the Christian militia under Major Saad Haddad (b. 1936) and the Palestinians, began in 1977 and gradually escalated. Soon war engulfed the south, making refugees of about 200,000 people.

In July and August 1977, Syria and the Lebanese crafted the Shtawrah Accord, calling for the Palestinians to withdraw 15 kilometers from the Israeli border, with this area to be occupied by the Lebanese army. The ADF was assigned to protect the southern coast. However, at this point, Israel Defense Forces (IDF) invaded southern Lebanon in retaliation for a March 11, 1978, Palestinian guerrilla attack on an Israeli bus near Tel Aviv, in which several people were killed. More than 25,000 IDF troops occupied positions as far north as the Litani River and remained in Lebanon for three months. The UN called on Israel to withdraw, and the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon was sent to replace the Israelis, who withdrew in stages. When Israel withdrew from southern Lebanon in June, Haddad's South Lebanon Army (SLA) took over most of the areas Israel had previously controlled.

Throughout the Sarkis administration, shifts occurred in domestic politics as Prime Minister Huss, a moderate Sunni Muslim, was unable to form a national unity government. In October 1980, Shafiq al Wazzan (1925–99), another moderate Sunni, became prime minister, but he found even greater difficulty, as more than half of the Chamber of Deputies refused to endorse his cabinet. As for the Lebanese army, it remained incapable of maintaining control over the country.

Against the background of a weak central government, the Shia grew in importance, and in 1980 clashes broke out in the south between Amal—the Shia army—and al Fatah, the military arm of the PLO. The Christians were also having internal problems, with serious disputes arising within the leadership of the Lebanese Front.

In July 1980, Bashir Gemayel and his Phalangist militia defeated the Tigers, the militia of the National Liberals under Camille Chamoun (1900–87) and his son Dani (d. 1990). This victory thrust Gemayel into a position of national prominence. In the meantime, in 1981, Israel reduced its support of the Lebanese Front in compliance with conditions set by the Lebanese National Movement and by Syria. The result, however, was a deterioration in Lebanese security during late 1981 and the first half of 1982. In West Beirut, Tripoli, and southern Lebanon, violence was widespread, particularly automobile bombings directed against foreign diplomats. In April 1982, terrorists attacked Muslim and Christian religious leaders, and it had become clear that neither the Lebanese National Movement, the PLO, nor Syria (through the ADF) was able to control the situation. Popular disillusionment paved the way for the ascension to power of more moderate and conservative Sunni and Shia leaders. The Phalange Party also gained support during this period.

At this juncture, Israel again invaded Lebanon on June 6, 1982, in retaliation for the assassination attempt on the Israeli ambassador to London. The object of the Israelis was to remove PLO forces from the country. Israeli forces moved quickly through south Lebanon, encircling west Beirut by mid-June and beginning a three-month

siege of Palestinian and Syrian forces in the city. Throughout this period, Israel kept up the pressure with air, naval, and artillery bombardments of west Beirut. At last, in August, an agreement was reached for the evacuation of Syrian troops and PLO fighters from Beirut. The agreement also provided for the deployment of a three-nation Multinational Force (MNF) during the period of the evacuation, and by late August, U.S. Marines, as well as French and Italian units, had arrived in Beirut. When the evacuation ended, these units left, the U.S. Marines departing on September 10.

In a period of relative calm, then, Bashir Gemayel was elected president in August, succeeding Elias Sarkis. On September 14 he was assassinated, and on September 15, Israeli troops entered west Beirut. During the next three days, Lebanese militiamen massacred hundreds of Palestinian civilians in the Sabra and Shatila refugee camps in west Beirut. Bashir Gemayel's brother, Amin (b. 1942), was elected president by a unanimous vote of the parliament. He took office September 23, 1982, and MNF forces returned to Beirut at the end of September to signify their support for the government. In February 1983, a small British contingent joined the U.S., French, and Italian MNF troops in Beirut.

President Gemayel and his government placed primary emphasis on the withdrawal of Israeli, Syrian, and Palestinian forces from Lebanon, and in late 1982, Lebanese-Israeli negotiations commenced with U.S. participation. On May 17, 1983, an agreement was concluded, providing for Israeli withdrawal. But Syria declined to discuss the withdrawal of its troops. While negotiations were thus stalled, a series of terrorist attacks in 1983 and 1984 were aimed at U.S. interests. On April 18, 1983, the U.S. embassy in west Beirut was bombed, with the loss of 63 lives. The U.S. and French MNF headquarters in Beirut were hit on October 23, 1983, with the loss of 298 lives. Eight more U.S. nationals lost their lives in the bombing of the U.S. embassy annex in east Beirut on September 20, 1984.

Druse and Christian forces had clashed during 1982–83, and when Israeli forces withdrew from the Shuf region at the beginning of September 1983, the Druse, backed by Syria, attacked the Christian Lebanese Forces (LF) militia as well as the Lebanese army. The United States and Saudi Arabia brokered a cease-fire on September 26, 1983, which left the Druse in control of most of the Shuf region. By February 1984, the Lebanese army had all but collapsed after many of its Muslim and Druse units defected to opposition militias. With the departure of the U.S. Marines imminent, the Gemayel government was pressured by Syria and its Muslim Lebanese allies to abandon the May 17 accord. At last, on March 5, 1984, the government announced that it was canceling its unimplemented agreement with Israel. The U.S. Marines left shortly afterward. Reconciliation talks at Lausanne under Syrian auspices failed soon after this. Although a new "government of national unity" under Prime Minister Rashid Karami was declared in April 1984, it made no real progress toward solving Lebanon's internal political and economic crises.

May 1985 saw the beginning of the "camps war," which would flare up twice more in 1986: Palestinians living in refugee camps in Beirut, Tyre, and Sidon fought the Shi'ite Amal militia. Faced with this renewed violence, Syria, late in 1985, negotiated a "tripartite accord" on political reform among the leaders of various Lebanese factions. Gemayel opposed the accord, and the leader of the Lebanese Front was overthrown in January 1986. Syria sought to unseat Gemayel by inducing the Muslim government ministers to cease dealing with him. The government was paralyzed, and the Lebanese economy, once one of the strongest in the Middle East, deteriorated rapidly. On June 1, Prime Minister Karami was assassinated, and Salim al-Huss was appointed acting prime minister. With the end of President Gemayel's term of office approaching, the Lebanese factions could not agree on a successor. Thus, when he left office on September 23, 1988, Gemayel appointed General Michel Aoun (b. 1935) as interim president while Salim al-Huss continued to act as de facto prime minister. Lebanon was thus divided between a Muslim government in west Beirut and a Christian government in east Beirut.

Fresh violence erupted in February 1989, when General Aoun attempted to close illegal ports run by the Lebanese Front. After several days of intense fighting in east Beirut, Aoun's army units concluded a tenuous truce with the Lebanese Front. The following month, however, Aoun's attempt to close illegal militia ports in predominantly Muslim parts of Lebanon triggered six months of shelling of east Beirut by Muslim and Syrian forces and, in return, shelling of west Beirut and the Shuf by the Christian units of the army and the Lebanese Front. At least 1,000 died in the prolonged attack. Many thousands were injured.

With Lebanon in tatters, the Arab League in January 1989 appointed a committee on Lebanon, led by the Kuwaiti foreign minister. At the Casablanca Arab summit in May, the Arab League created a higher committee on Lebanon, composed of Saudi king Fahd (b. 1923), Algerian president Chadli Bendjedid (b. 1929), and Moroccan king Hassan II (1929–99). After much effort, the committee arranged for a seven-point cease-fire in September, followed by a meeting of Lebanese parliamentarians in Taif, Saudi Arabia. After a month of discussions, the deputies agreed on a charter of national reconciliation, the "Taif Agreement." The document was approved on November 4, and René Moawad (d. 1989), a Maronite Christian deputy from Zghorta in north Lebanon, was elected president on November 5. However, General Aoun issued a decree in early November dissolving parliament and

rejecting ratification of the Taif Agreement, as well as throwing out the election of Moawad.

On November 22, 1989, President Moawad was assassinated, the victim of a bomb. Parliament quickly elected Elias Hraoui (b. 1926), a Maronite Christian deputy from Zahleh in the Beqaa Valley, to replace him. The new president named Salim al-Huss prime minister. Once again, Aoun refused to recognize Hraoui. When Hraoui replaced Aoun as army commander in early December, Aoun's forces attacked positions of the Lebanese Front in east Beirut during late January 1990. Heavy fighting took place in east Beirut, resulting in the deaths of more than 900 people and the injury of more than 3,000. In August 1990, the National Assembly approved, and President Hraoui signed into law constitutional amendments embodying the political reform aspects of the Taif Agreement, which divided representation equally between Christians and Muslims. This was followed in October 1990 by a joint Lebanese-Syrian military operation against General Aoun, who surrendered and took refuge in the French embassy. On December 24, 1990, Omar Karami (served 1990–92) was appointed Lebanon's prime minister. Aoun remained in the French embassy until August 27, 1991, when a "special pardon" was issued, allowing him to leave Lebanon safely and take up residence in exile in France.

For the most part, the civil war had ended. During 1991 and 1992, the government made progress in reasserting control over Lebanese territory. All militias, except for Hezbollah, were dissolved in May 1991, and the armed forces moved against armed Palestinian elements in Sidon in July 1991. In May 1992 the last of the Western hostages taken during the mid-1980s by Islamic extremists was released.

Further reading: Helena Cobban, *The Making of Modern Lebanon* (London: Hutchinson, 1985); David Gilmore, *Lebanon, The Fractured Country* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1983, c. 1984); Kanal S. Salibi, *Crossroads to Civil War* (Delmar, N.Y.: Caravan Books, 1975).

Leisler's Rebellion (1689–1691)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Anti-Catholic rebels led by Jacob Leisler vs. British colonial authorities
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): New York City
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Leisler led merchants and farmers against Catholics in the British colonial administration.
OUTCOME: Leisler remained in power for more than two years before he was arrested as a traitor and executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Great Britain's American colonies were beset by a rash of anti-Catholic activity following the ascension of the Protestant monarchs William (1650–1702) and Mary (1662–94) to the British throne in 1688. Throughout the colonies, there was rebellion against Governor Edmund Andros (1637–1714), and royal colonial officials suspected of being Catholics were attacked and sometimes removed from office. In New York City, a band of artisans and merchants, led by Jacob Leisler (c. 1640–91), stormed and seized Fort James in May 1689. Lieutenant Governor Francis Nicholson fled the next month, and in December Leisler proclaimed himself lieutenant governor. Leisler garnered widespread support from nearby farmers, city residents, and, most important, the local militia.

The official colonial government refused to recognize Leisler until 1690, when fear of an impending Indian attack prompted them to acknowledge his authority to secure the services of the militia. The period of official recognition was short-lived, however. In March 1691 a new royal governor, Henry Sloughter (d. 1691), arrived in New York from England, and with him came Major Richard Ingoldesby (fl. early 1690s) with a small force of soldiers. Sloughter demanded the surrender of Fort James. Leisler at first refused, then, on March 30, 1691, did surrender, only to be arrested and tried as a traitor. Convicted, he was hanged in New York City on May 16, 1691. Parliament subsequently—and posthumously—reversed the conviction.

Although the movement Leisler led was essentially anti-Catholic, it was also, in effect, antiaristocratic. Leisler's faction remained powerful in the affairs of New York through the next generation.

See also GLORIOUS REVOLUTION.

Further reading: Jerome R. Reich, *Leisler's Rebellion: A Study in Democracy in New York, 1664–1720* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953); Charles McCormick, *Leisler's Rebellion* (New York: Garland Publishers, 1989).

Lelantine War (c. 670 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Greek city-state of Khalkís (with allies Corinth, Samos, and the Thessalian League) vs. Eretria (with allies Aegina, Miletus, and perhaps Megara)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Boeotia
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dominance in trade and possession of trading outposts
OUTCOME: Khalkís triumphed, but Eretria eventually became the politically and economically more powerful of the two city-states.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None recorded

Little is recorded about this major conflict, the most important war among the Greek states following the TROJAN WAR.

It is known that the conflict was sparked by rivalry over trade and the possession of colonial trading posts. The Boeotian city of Khalkís fought Eretria on the Lelantine Plain, the no-man's land that separated them. Khalkís commanded the support of Corinth, Samos, and the Thessalian League, while Eretria had Aegina, Miletus, and possibly Megara on its side.

Combat took place not only on land, but at sea, the decisive battle occurring on the Lelantine Plain. There Thessalian cavalry defeated the Eretrians, yet, despite this triumph, it was Eretria that eventually became the more important and prosperous city. Thus the war, while major in its time, had little enduring effect.

Further reading: John Boardman, *The Greeks Overseas* (Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1964); John Boardman, Jasper Griffin, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of Greece and the Hellenistic World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); L. H. Jeffery, *Archaic Greece: The City-States, c. 700–500 B.C.* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1976).

Lepidus, Revolt of (78–77 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Marcus Aemilius Lepidus vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Lepidus sought relief for the poor and disenfranchised.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed, and Lepidus fled.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As a Roman senator, Marcus Aemilius Lepidus (d. c. 77 B.C.E.) espoused the cause of the poor and downtrodden, acting politically to improve their situation. Elected consul in 78, he called for renewed distribution of cheap grain, recall of exiles, and restoration of lands confiscated by the former dictator, Sulla (d. 78 B.C.E.). Frustrated because his efforts came to little, he threw his support behind the people of Etruria (in west-central Italy) when they rebelled. He personally raised an army in northern Italy and marched on Rome, only to be repelled by the superior forces of Quintus Lutatius Catulus (d. 60 B.C.E.) and Pompey the Great (106–48 B.C.E.) at the Battle of Milvian Bridge.

Lepidus and a band of his closest followers evaded capture, taking refuge on Sardinia. There Lepidus soon died, perhaps later in 77 B.C.E. In the meantime, those of his followers who remained active in northern Italy were soon routed by Pompey's army.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Griffin, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of the Roman World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995); Richard D. Weigel, *Lepidus: The Tarnished Triumvir* (New York: Routledge, 1992).

Libyan-Egyptian War (1977)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Libya vs. Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Border region of the two nations
DECLARATION: July 21, 1977, Libya against Egypt
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Issues and objectives are unclear; war tension escalated following Libyan assertions that Egypt sought to seize Libyan oil fields.
OUTCOME: Both sides suffered significant loss of materiel in this indecisive war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Egypt, 380,000; Libya, 30,000
CASUALTIES: Libya claimed losses of 27 killed and 9 missing, though it is likely that casualties were much higher.
TREATIES: Cease-fire agreement, July 24, 1977

This brief—four-day—but costly border war developed in an atmosphere of escalating friction between Libya and Egypt. During the spring of 1977, mobs in Libya and in Egypt attacked each other's consulates. Following this, Libya's dictator, Colonel Muammar al-Qaddafi (b. 1943), accused Egypt of attempting to provoke a war as a pretext for seizing the Libyan oil fields. Insulted, Egyptian president Anwar Sadat (1918–81) denied the charges. At last, in June 1977, Qaddafi expelled nearly a quarter-million Egyptians residing in Libya, setting July 1 as the deadline for their departure. On July 21, 1977, Libya's seventh armored division crossed the Egyptian border at the town of Salum. Egypt responded vigorously, beating back the incursion and destroying 40 Libyan tanks.

Both sides deployed tanks and aircraft in several desert battles along the border, Egypt making air strikes deep into Libyan territory, concentrating on air bases and destroying many Libyan fighter aircraft before they could get off the ground. Egypt, however, also suffered significant losses of materiel, but admitted losing only two planes.

Immediately after hostilities broke out, Algeria's president, Houari Boumédienne (1927–1978), offered his services as a mediator, and both sides agreed to a cease-fire on July 24, 1977.

Further reading: Derek Hopwood, *Egypt: Politics and Society, 1945–1990,* 3rd ed. (New York: Routledge, 1993);

John L. Wright, *Libya, a Modern History* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1982).

Lithuanian War of Independence
(1918–1920)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Lithuania (with German alliance) vs. Soviet Russia; Lithuania (with Polish alliance) vs. Soviet Russia; Lithuania vs. Poland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lithuania
DECLARATION: Independence declared, February 16, 1918
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Lithuania sought independence from Russia, then from partial Polish occupation.
OUTCOME: Independence was achieved by 1922.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Lithuania fielded as many as 41,000 men, Poland 50,000; strength of other combatants unknown.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Moscow, July 12, 1920

The independence of Lithuania was a product of the BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION and WORLD WAR I. The nation declared its independence from Russia on February 16, 1918, after the czar was deposed. The new Soviet government took steps to regain Lithuania, invading almost immediately after the declaration of independence; however, Germany found it advantageous to recognize Lithuanian independence and quickly drove the Soviets out. With Germany's defeat in World War I, on November 11, 1918, its troops were withdrawn from Lithuania, and the Soviets returned, capturing the Lithuanian capital of Vilna (Vilnius) in January 1919. Polish forces intervened on the side of Lithuania and pushed the Soviets out of the capital (*see* RUSSO-POLISH WAR [1919–1920]).

The post–World War I deliberations of the victorious Allies established a border between Lithuania and Poland in December 1919, assigning Vilna to Lithuania; however, the Soviets continued to fight Lithuania for possession of the region until the Treaty of Moscow of July 12, 1920, by which the Soviets recognized Lithuanian independence. Shortly after this, Lithuania's Polish allies turned against Lithuania in a surprise attack on Vilna. A division of 20,000 Belarusian volunteers from the Polish army seized the capital on October 9, 1920. The Poles established a provisional government and conducted a plebiscite on January 8, 1922. When a majority of Vilna's populace voted for union with Poland, Lithuania broke off all relations with its former ally, and Lithuania was recognized as an independent republic in 1922. A 41,000-man Lithuanian army attempted to retake Vilna, but was repulsed by Polish forces now grown to some 50,000. After tortured arbitration, Vilna was awarded to Poland on March 15, 1923. As for Lithuania, it remained an independent republic until it was annexed by the Soviet Union in 1940.

Further reading: Vytas Stanley Vardys and Judith B. Sedaitis, *Lithuania: The Rebel Nation* (Denver: Westview Press, 1966).

Little Turtle's War (1787–1795)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Shawnee, Miami, Ottawa, and other Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ohio country, mainly present-day Ohio and Indiana
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Shawnee and Miami refusal to cede lands to the United States
OUTCOME: A "permanent boundary" for white settlement was established in contested territory; the Indians received compensation for their lands; the British vacated the Old Northwest (region bounded by Ohio River, Mississippi River, and the Great Lakes)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: For the United States, under General Josiah Harmar, 1,216 federal troops and 1,100 militia, under Arthur St. Clair, 2,300 federal troops; under General Anthony Wayne, 4,400. For the Indians, small groups of guerrillas armed by British instigators, and 1,200 against General Anthony Wayne's troops
CASUALTIES: Indian losses unknown; U.S. army and militia losses exceeded 1,000 killed.
TREATIES: Treaty of Greenville, January 1795

At the conclusion of the AMERICAN REVOLUTION, the fledgling United States regarded the Indians of the Ohio country—especially the Shawnee—as a conquered people because their allies, the British, had been defeated. The fact was, however, that the Shawnee and other Ohio tribes consistently defeated the Americans during the conflict and were not, therefore, willing to negotiate land treaties as if they had lost the war. Shawnee representatives repeatedly refused to attend treaty conferences until January 1786, when 300 Shawnees came to Fort Finney on the banks of the Ohio and declared to American commissioners that they would relinquish no land. The frontier leader George Rogers Clark (1752–1818) threatened war, and, with his people suffering the effects of a bad winter and wartime destruction of crops and shelter, Chief Kekewepellethe (fl. late 18th century) (known to the Americans as Tame Hawk) backed down and agreed to cede the entire Miami Valley. Other Shawnee bands and the Miami tribe were quick to repudiate the cession, and, led by the war chiefs Blue Jacket (d. c. 1805) (Shawnee) and Little Turtle (1752–1812) (Miami), stepped up a campaign of lightning

raids that had never really ceased, even with the end of the Revolution.

The Revolution had also failed to drive British traders out of the Ohio country, and these men now capitalized on the conflict with the Shawnee by supplying them with arms. During the fall of 1786, Clark raised a 2,000-man militia in Kentucky and marched toward the Wabash Valley to engage the Shawnee, Miami, and Ottawa, who were meeting with British agents. But Clark, now aged and ravaged by heavy drinking, proved a far less effective leader than he had been during the Revolution. Within three weeks, his command simply disintegrated without having engaged the enemy. Eight hundred other militiamen, under Colonel Benjamin Logan (1742–1802), attacked Shawnee villages on the Miami River, killing mostly women, children, and old men. In October, Logan's forces destroyed Mackachack, a village actually friendly to the whites. These inept and tragic attacks served only to harden Shawnee hatred of the Americans, and, with other tribes in the region, they vowed all-out war on whites in the Ohio country.

Logan's raid had destroyed large stores of corn, sending the Shawnee, during the summer of 1787, from the Miami River region to Kekionga, near present-day Fort Wayne, Indiana. Here they became closely coordinated with the Miami, Ottawa, Chippewa, Kickapoo, and Potawatomi, launching many devastating raids.

Yet white settlers continued to flood into the region, and in 1790, the federal government assigned 1,216 federal troops, augmented by a 1,100-man militia, to General Josiah Harmar (1753–1813), to police federal lands. Harmar was cautioned to avoid triggering a major Indian conflict, but that is precisely what he did.

Harmar led about 1,500 men, mostly raw militia forces, to Kekionga on October 15, 1790. His army burned the abandoned villages—as Little Turtle and Blue Jacket watched and waited.

On October 19, Little Turtle and his Miami warriors ambushed a small mounted advance party, which panicked, fled, and collided with a detachment of infantry sent to reinforce them. The infantry also fled, so that a mere 30 regulars and nine militiamen were left to fight. Harmar had no choice but to withdraw back to Kekionga, where Blue Jacket and his Shawnee sprang a trap that resulted in a total rout and a stunning defeat for the army. Harmar was saved from complete annihilation by a total lunar eclipse that prompted the Ottawa warriors, who took it as a bad omen, to break off the pursuit—despite Blue Jacket's protests.

After Harmar was defeated, the Shawnee and their allies ravaged the countryside with unorthodox winter raids. At the height of the violence in 1791, the British, who had done much to provoke the warfare to begin with, suddenly turned peacemakers, apparently realizing that the relentless raiding would soon bring a massive American military response that would not only drive out the Indians, but themselves as well.

Yet the negotiations came to nothing, and the federal government assembled a force of 2,300 men—half of them short-term enlistees—under Arthur St. Clair (c. 1736–1818), governor of the federal territory. On October 4, 1791, the punitive expedition got under way, but, with the onset of winter, suffered mass desertions. The desertions prompted St. Clair to advance with 1,400 troops to seek out Little Turtle, Blue Jacket, and their warriors. They marched for a month without a single encounter, making camp on November 3, 1791, on a plateau above the upper Wabash River. At dawn of the next day, the Indians rushed the vulnerable position, killing 623 soldiers and 24 civilian teamsters as well as wounding 271 soldiers. In proportion to the number of men fielded that day, it stands as the worst defeat the U.S. Army has ever suffered.

In 1792, Congress authorized a larger army and hired Iroquois agents to present an American peace proposal—a restriction on white settlement—to the Shawnee and their allies during the summer of 1792. The Shawnee angrily rejected the proposal, and George Washington (1732–99) chose a former Revolutionary Army commander, "Mad Anthony" Wayne (1745–96), to raise an army, which he carefully trained. After another peace commission failed in the summer of 1793, Wayne advanced westward with his forces, but suffered serious delays brought about by inept and corrupt supply agents.

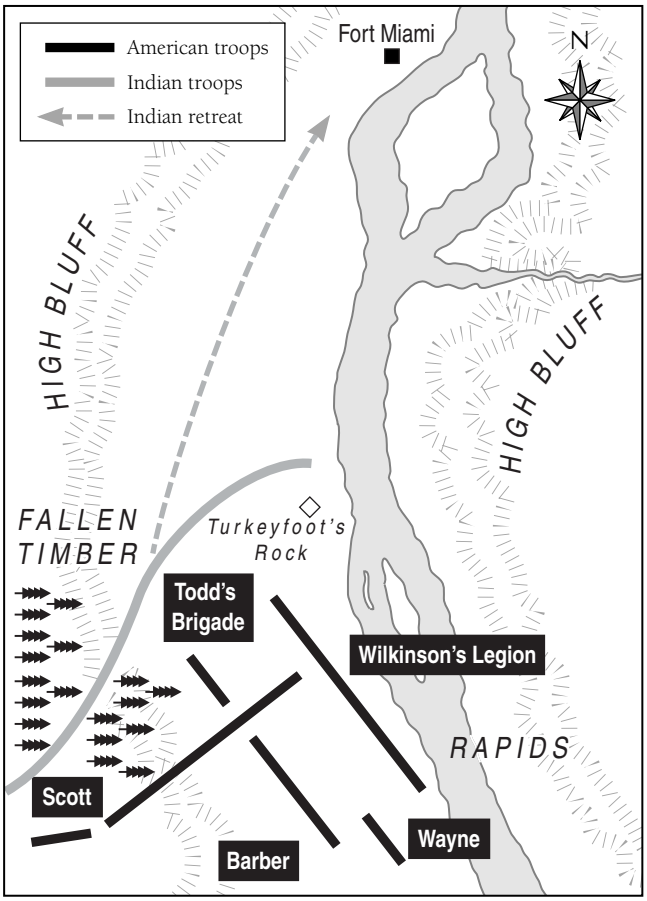
When Wayne failed to attack by May 1794, Little Turtle and Blue Jacket decided to strike the first blow. Twelve hundred warriors under Blue Jacket and Tecumseh (c. 1768–1813) (who within the decade would emerge as a great military and political leader in his own right—*see* TECUMSEH'S UPRISING; WAR OF 1812) set out from the Maumee River to blockade Fort Recovery near the present Ohio-Indiana state line. On June 30, they ambushed a pack train and its military escorts, completely routing them. When the Indians advanced on the fort itself, however, they were turned back by artillery fire.

Fortunately for the American forces, the Shawnee coalition began to fall into dispute, and the alliance with the British likewise faltered. Wayne advanced his troops and built a new fort, Fort Defiance, in the midst of abandoned Indian villages.

Seeing the renewed strength of the Americans, Little Turtle counseled negotiating for peace, but Blue Jacket and Tecumseh refused to yield. Overall command of the forces now passed to Blue Jacket, with Little Turtle relegated to leading only the 250-man Miami contingent.

Blue Jacket decided to intercept Wayne's army at a place called Fallen Timbers, opposite the rapids of the Maumee River.

Informed of Blue Jacket's position by his scouts, Wayne cached unnecessary equipment at a fortification he called Fort Deposit on August 17. He waited until August



Battle of Fallen Timbers, August 20, 1794

20 before advancing against Blue Jacket. The delay may have been a brilliant stroke of strategy, or perhaps just plain good luck. In either case, it exploited the warriors' custom of fasting before battle. Blue Jacket's men, expecting engagement on the 18th, had advanced without rations on the 17th. By August 20, they had gone without food for three days, and some warriors strayed to forage. Others were weak from hunger. The result was a rout—this time for the Indians.

Fleeing the Battle of Fallen Timbers, Blue Jacket and his surviving warriors were rebuffed by the commandant of a nearby British fort. On August 23, Wayne set about destroying all Indian towns in his path, and, in an act of defiance and contempt, he built Fort Wayne at Kekionga, chief village of the Miamis.

In January 1795, Blue Jacket came to Fort Greenville to negotiate a treaty with Anthony Wayne. The Treaty of Greenville established a "permanent" boundary of white settlement and instituted a program of compensation for Indian territory lost. The British at last agreed to vacate the Old Northwest. And peace reigned in the turbulent Old Northwest until the outbreak of the War of 1812.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Paul David Nelson, *Anthony Wayne: Soldier of the Early Republic* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1985).

Livonian War (1558–1583)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Livonian Knights; Russia vs. Poland, Lithuania, Sweden, and Denmark
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Livonia (modern Estonia and most of modern Latvia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russia sought possession of Livonia to acquire a Baltic Sea port.
OUTCOME: After a long war, in which many civilians fell prey to Russian atrocities, Czar Ivan IV renounced all claims to Livonia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 30,000; Poland, 40,000; Sweden, 17,000; other combatant numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown; civilian losses were very high—perhaps 60,000 at Novgorod
TREATIES: Between Russia and Poland, 1582; Russia and Sweden, 1583

In the 16th century, Livonia encompassed present-day Estonia and most of Latvia and was ruled by the Livonian Knights. In 1558, Russia's aptly named Czar Ivan IV (the Terrible; 1530–84), seeking at all costs an ice-free Baltic Sea port, invaded Livonia with a large force. In a long campaign, Ivan's forces defeated the knights at Narva, Dorpat (Tartu), and elsewhere. By 1561, aware that their situation in Livonia was hopeless, the knights divided Livonia among Poland, Lithuania, Sweden, and Denmark—anything to keep it out of Ivan's hands. Denmark acquired Kurland, and Poland and Lithuania took the rest.

Remarkably, the Russian forces made initial headway against what were now four great adversaries, and the czar's forces committed many atrocities upon the Livonian populace. Most infamous among the atrocities was the slaughter perpetrated not against Livonia, but Russian-held Novgorod. In January 1570, suspicious that the Novgorod citizens had conspired with the Poles, Czar Ivan unleashed 15,000 soldiers against the city. They killed as many as 65,000 people.

Two events began to turn the tide against the Russians. Ivan was faced with an internal rebellion, the BOYARS' REVOLT, and Lithuania, in 1569, formed an effective political union with Poland, thereby allowing the armies of the two kingdoms to work together. For his part, Ivan persuaded Denmark to bow out of the war, but Poland (with Lithuania) commenced a determined offensive under its new king, Stephen Báthory (1533–86), beginning in 1576. The capture of Polotsk in 1579 was a major Polish victory. From here, Stephen marched to

Pskov, sweeping the Russian forces before him. On September 6, 1581, 17,000 Swedes stormed the Russian fortress of Narva and slaughtered the garrison. Although the Poles were unable to capture Pskov during a siege spanning September–November 1581, Czar Ivan yielded to unremitting Polish pressure, concluding a peace in 1582. He renounced all claims to Livonia. This led to peace with the Swedes in 1583 and the loss, to Russia, of towns on the Gulf of Finland.

See also NOVGOROD, SACK OF.

Further reading: Geoffrey A. Hoskin, *Russia and Russians: A History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2001); Arvids Ziedonis, William L. Winter, and Mardi Valgemäe, *Baltic History* (Columbus, Ohio: Association for the Advancement of Baltic Studies, 1974).

Lombard Conquest of Central Danube Valley (c. 500–565)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Lombards vs. the Heruli and, separately, vs. the Gepidae
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Danube valley
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of territory in and around Pannonia and Noricum
OUTCOME: The Heruli were defeated, but a state of chronic conflict developed between the Lombards and the Gepidae; however, the Lombards came substantially to control the central Danube valley.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None, save an informal agreement between the Lombards and the Roman emperor Justinian granting approval of Lombard settlement south of the Danube

The Lombards, or Langobardi, related to the Suevi, occupied the area north of Pannonia and Noricum following the Barbarian incursions in these regions. This occupation touched off a conflict with the Heruli, led by Rodulf (d. 508). A Lombard army under Tato defeated Rodulf's Heruli by 508.

With the Heruli neutralized, the Lombards fanned out into the central Danube Valley, pushing north of the river and engaging the Gepidae in a series of sharp wars over territory. The collapse of the Ostrogoth kingdom left Pannonia and Noricum wide open, but the Lombards as well as the Gepidae vied for territory. The Roman emperor Justinian I (483–565) exploited the conflict by skillfully playing one tribe off against the other, ultimately approving Lombard expansion south of the Danube. By 565, this put the Lombards in control of most of the central Danube Valley.

See also LOMBARD INVASION OF ITALY.

Further reading: Neil Christie, *Lombards* (London: Blackwell, 1998).

Lombard Invasion of Italy (568–585)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Lombards vs. Rome (and, later, the Franks)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Lombards sought conquest of Italy.
OUTCOME: The Lombards defeated imperial forces and gained control of Italy, except for some coastal cities; however, the Lombards failed to install a central government in the region conquered.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Lombards, about 50,000 warriors, plus 20,000 Saxon allies; Roman imperial strength unknown; Frankish strength unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Alliance between Eastern Empire and Franks against the Lombards, 585

In 568, the Lombards—the entire tribe—advanced into Italy, spearheaded by some 50,000 Lombard warriors and 20,000 Saxon auxiliaries. The Lombard general Alboin (d. 572) led the invasion force over the Julian Alps and, in 569, defeated Roman imperial forces under Longinus in northeast Italy, near Ravenna. This victory achieved, the Lombards quickly overran the Po valley. Milan fell to the invaders in short order, but the capture of Pavia required a three-year siege. The city fell in 572.

In this way, northern Italy became Lombardy, and the Lombards established their capital at Pavia. Thus ensconced, the Lombards were able to drive most of the imperial forces out of Italy, except for large coastal cities, which remained under the control of Constantinople.

In 573, Alboin's wife, Rosamond (fl. c. 570), murdered him, thereby creating a power vacuum among the Lombards. This notwithstanding, the momentum of conquest was hardly diminished. The Lombards continued to expand throughout Italy. Under King Childebert II (r. 570–596), the Franks entered the fray against the Lombards in 585. The Byzantine emperor subsidized Frankish operations, but the imperial forces refused to coordinate their efforts with his, and Childebert soon withdrew, leaving the essentially leaderless Lombards in control of Italy—which was tantamount to creating a state of anarchy there.

See also LOMBARD CONQUEST OF CENTRAL DANUBE VALLEY.

Further reading: Neil Christie, *Lombards* (London: Blackwell, 1998).

Lombard League, Wars of the (1167–1183)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Holy Roman Empire (under Frederick I Barbarossa) vs. the papacy and the Lombard League
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Frederick sought to dominate both the papacy and the cities of northern Italy; the Lombard League was formed to resist.
OUTCOME: The Lombard League proved extraordinarily successful in resisting five German invasions of Italy led by Frederick I Barbarossa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Venice, 1177; Peace of Constance, 1183

The Middle Ages witnessed many power struggles between the papacy and the Holy Roman Emperors. The popes jealously guarded their authority to invest abbots and bishops. These offices were highly lucrative, and Holy Roman Emperor Frederick I Barbarossa (c. 1125–90) sought to wrest the power of investiture from the papal grasp. By awarding the offices, a leader purchased loyalty and allegiance, and Frederick was eager to assert his control over as many church officials as possible. Between 1154 and 1186, Frederick led six military campaigns into Italy, hoping to seize control of the papacy. One early campaign forced Pope Alexander III (c. 1105–81) to flee to Avignon, France, in 1162, and between 1159 and 1178, Frederick saw to the elevation of three antipopes.

While Frederick sought to dominate the papacy, he also attempted to subjugate the cities of northern Italy. This prompted Milan, Mantua, Venice, Padua, Lodi, and Brescia to band together as the Lombard League during Frederick's fourth Italian campaign. The league successfully resisted Frederick's invading Germans, who had been weakened by a malaria epidemic. Frederick held Rome for a time, but the sickness, combined with the military prowess of the Lombard League, forced the German army to withdraw from Italy.

Seizing the opportunity, Pope Alexander III formed an alliance with the Lombard League, excommunicated Frederick, and backed the league in the construction of a great fortress at Alessandria, which defended the northern mountain passes against further invasion. Indeed, Frederick's fifth invasion of Italy was disastrously costly to him. His defeat at the Battle of Legnano, northwest of Milan, on May 29, 1176, decimated his knights. The leagues infantry, common pikemen, proved far superior to the noble armored warriors. It was the first triumph of infantry over cavalry in the Middle Ages, and it foreshadowed the doom of the knight and the rise of the bourgeoisie. Frederick himself barely escaped with his life, fleeing from Italy in disguise.

Frederick's defeat at Legnano prompted him to sue for peace. The Treaty of Venice of 1177 brought peace between him and the pope. That same year, Frederick made a separate truce with the Lombard League, which was finalized in 1183 as the Peace of Constance. By this treaty, the Lombard League cities were granted a high degree of autonomy, although they acknowledged the limited suzerainty of Frederick I Barbarossa.

The Peace of Constance did not stop Frederick from conducting a sixth Italian campaign during 1184–86. This bypassed the league cities and established imperial control of Milan and much of central Italy.

See also HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE–PAPACY WAR (1228–1241).

Further reading: Friedrich Heer, *Holy Roman Empire,* trans. Janet Sondheimer (New York: Sterling, 2002); Otto of Friesling, *The Deeds of Frederick Barbarossa,* trans. Charles C. Mierow (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1991).

Long March

See CHINESE CIVIL WAR (1927–1937).

"Long War"

See AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1591–1606).

López War

See PARAGUAYAN WAR.

Lord Dunmore's War (1774)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Shawnee with Mingo, Wyandot, and Delaware allies vs. colonial Virginia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ohio River valley
DECLARATION: Lord Dunmore declares war on June 10, 1774
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Indian resistance to white treaty violations and usurpation of lands
OUTCOME: Indecisive
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: For colonial Virginia, 3,000; Shawnee and allies, 700
CASUALTIES: Colonial troops, about 500; Indians, more than 100
TREATIES: Truce concluded October 26, 1774

John Murray (1732–1809), fourth earl of Dunmore and the royal governor of colonial Virginia, commissioned a survey party under Michael Cresap (1742–75) and John

Floyd in April 1773 to survey Kentucky land prior to issuing patents to settlers. The next month, Captain Thomas Bullitt (fl. 1770s) informed the Shawnee chief Black Fish (fl. 1770s) that land reserved for the Shawnee by the Fort Stanwix treaty of 1768 would now be opened to settlement by whites. Black Fish warned Bullitt that he would attack anyone who crossed the river into Kentucky. Accordingly, he sent warriors to observe the surveying party, and when some of them did cross the river on May 29, 1773, a Shawnee named Peshewa—Wild Cat—went down to them, unarmed, to warn them back. He was immediately killed. In retaliation, the Shawnee attacked the surveyors, killing several, and sending one back to Wheeling (West Virginia) to warn the other whites not to cross the Ohio River.

Dunmore concluded that the Shawnee were conspiring with fur traders (who wanted to prevent agricultural settlement of the region) and Pennsylvanians (who disputed Virginia's claim to the Ohio country), and he unofficially declared war.

Chief Cornstalk (c. 1720–77), another prominent Shawnee, realized that warfare with the whites was a losing proposition and traveled to Fort Pitt—at the time renamed Fort Dunmore—near present-day Pittsburgh—to negotiate a peaceful resolution to the conflict. Tragically, angry frontiersmen attacked Cornstalk, his brother Silverheels (d. 1773), and another Indian as they returned from the fort. Silverheels was fatally wounded, and all hope of peace was ended.

Cornstalk sought alliance with the Miami, Wyandot, Ottawa, and Delaware, all of whom declined. The Mingo—Iroquois who had migrated to southern Ohio—wanted to remain neutral as well, but were driven to war when the family of one of their principal chiefs, known to the whites as John Logan (and to the Indians as Tah-gah-jute) (c. 1725–89), was slaughtered by some of Cresap's men (*see* CRESAP'S WAR). Faced with a widespread Indian uprising, Lord Dunmore officially declared war on June 10, 1774. He raised a militia force, which was mobilized by September.

At the head of 1,500 men, Dunmore was supposed to march to Fort Pitt (or Fort Dunmore), travel in boats down the Ohio to its juncture with the Kanawha River, and rendezvous with Colonel Andrew Lewis (1720–81), who was supposed to have recruited an additional 1,500 militiamen. The combined force would cross the Ohio and destroy the Shawnee villages.

A blustering man, Dunmore was in truth a timid commander. Fearing ambush, he abandoned his plan to rendezvous with Lewis on the Ohio and instead proceeded via an arduous overland route to the Scioto River. Lewis, with approximately 1,000 men, had reached Point Pleasant, the appointed rendezvous, on October 6, and, three days later, was told of the change in plan and ordered to cross the Ohio and meet Dunmore near Scioto.

All of the clumsy maneuvering was closely observed by Shawnee scouts. Cornstalk mustered approximately 700 warriors: Shawnees and Mingos (including John Logan), as well as some Wyandots and Delawares. He intended to attack Lewis just as he was about to leave Point Pleasant to unite with Dunmore. However, a foraging party from Lewis's camp discovered the Indians lying in wait and alerted Lewis, who sent troops to attempt an ambush. Although the stratagem failed, Lewis had gained the time to erect a crude defensive cover from fallen trees.

The battle was fiercely fought on October 10. Lewis was able to defend his position, but at the cost of almost one-fourth of his men. Indian casualties numbered more than 100.

No one involved in the bloody engagement claimed victory. Cornstalk berated the poor performance of his Mingo, Delaware, and Wyandot allies, and even his own Shawnee now urged him to seek peace. Cornstalk, who wanted to avoid war in the first place, now judged that, with hostilities commenced, it was foolhardy and disgraceful to seek a truce. But, with his warriors dispirited, he had no choice. Meanwhile, Lord Dunmore's army was near mutiny, his men believing their commander to be incompetent and a coward. For his part, Lewis defied Dunmore's order to halt his advance on the Shawnee towns and was stopped by Dunmore at the point of a sword only a half mile from the villages.

Although parties on both sides clamored for a further fight, a truce was concluded on October 26, 1774.

See also AMERICAN REVOLUTION: FRONTIER THEATER.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Warren Skidmore with Donna Kaminsky, *Lord Dunmore's Little War of 1774: His Captains and Their Men Who Opened Up Kentucky & the West to American Settlement* (Bowie, Md.: Heritage Books, 2002).

Louis XIV's Rhenish Invasion (1688–1689)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. the Holy Roman Empire and German princes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): German Rhineland
DECLARATION: France against the Holy Roman Empire, 1688
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France's Louis XIV sought more complete control of the Rhineland and Rhine River navigation.
OUTCOME: France retained Alsace and Strasbourg, but relinquished control over the other Rhenish cities, including, most significantly, Cologne
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Ryswick, 1697

During the reign of Louis XIV (1638–1715), the great Rhenish city of Cologne (Köln) was a virtual satellite of France. The French king treasured control of the city because it dominated the lower Rhine and thereby gave France a great advantage in trade and military matters. The king's continued control of Cologne depended in large part on maintaining a pliable archbishop in power there. In 1688, Louis's candidate for archbishop of Cologne, Wilhelm Fürstenberg (fl. late 17th century) was summarily rejected by Pope Innocent XI (1611–89). Louis responded by declaring war against the Holy Roman Empire, most of whose troops were engaged in a struggle against the Turks.

Louis believed that a rapid invasion of the Rhine region would force the Holy Roman Empire to withdraw its candidate for archbishop. The French king also sought to resolve certain claims to territory in the Palatinate, and he wanted to neutralize imperial fortifications at Philipsburg.

The invasion went remarkably well—at first. Louis's invading armies met with little resistance and seized the Palatinate, Trier, Mainz, and Cologne. From here, they staged a sweeping and gratuitously violent invasion of Franconia and Swabia. This moved the Holy Roman Emperor and the German princes to conclude hasty truces with the Turks and to rush to the defense of the homeland.

Through a united and coordinated counteroffensive, the Germans liberated Franconia and installed a garrison at Frankfurt. Heidelberg was targeted for attack, but, as the German allies advanced, the French withdrew and relinquished the city—razing Mannheim, Worms, Speyer, and other cities and towns as they retreated.

At this point, the Rhenish invasion dissolved into the far greater conflict that was the War of the GRAND ALLIANCE, from 1688 to 1697. The invasion of the Rhineland was over by 1689, but a definitive settlement of the War of the Grand Alliance did not come until the Treaty of Ryswick of 1697, which gave Louis Alsace and Strasbourg, but forced him to relinquish the other Rhine cities, including Cologne.

Further reading: Philippe Erlanger, *Louis XIV* (London: Phoenix Press, 2003); J. H. Shennan, *Louis XIV* (New York: Routledge, 1993).

Lovewell's War (1725)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Colonial scalp hunters vs. local Osippee or Pigwacket Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): New Hampshire and southern Maine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Scalp hunters sought to collect a bounty offered on Indian scalps.
OUTCOME: At least 11 Indians were slain; 17 scalp hunters were killed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At least 87 scalp hunters; in the final "battle" of the "war," 34 scalp hunters were attacked by about 80 Indians.
CASUALTIES: 17 scalp hunters; at least 11 Indians.
TREATIES: None

The venal and ruthless expedition of John Lovewell (1691–1725) entered colonial history and lore as a private "war" against local Indians and earned Lovewell the epithet "King of the Scalp Hunters." During the Third ABENAKI WAR, the colony of Massachusetts offered a bounty of £100 for Indian scalps late in 1724. Seeking his fortune, a farmer named John Lovewell (1691–1725) organized 87 other colonists during February 1725 in an Indian-killing expedition up the Merrimack River near Lake Winnipesaukee. When his party came upon 10 sleeping Osippee or Pigwacket Indians, Lovewell ordered an attack and "harvested" 10 scalps.

In the spring, Lovewell assembled a smaller, 34-man force, which traveled into southern Maine. There they were set upon by approximately 80 Indians near present-day Fryeburg on May 9, 1725, after one of their number (apparently the troop's chaplain) had killed and scalped an Indian earlier in the day. The Indians killed Lovewell and 16 others. The rest of the party escaped death only because the Indians withdrew when their Sachem (medicine man) was shot.

Further reading: Steven C. Eames, "Lovewell, John." In *Colonial Wars of North 1512–1763,* ed. Alan Gallay (New York: Garland, 1996).

Lübeck's War (1531–1535)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: German city-state of Lübeck (and Hanseatic allies, plus Danish rebels) vs. Sweden and Denmark
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Malmö, Sweden; Copenhagen, Denmark
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Lübeck wanted to assert its absolute monopoly on the Baltic trade.
OUTCOME: Despite initial victories, Lübeck was defeated and lost its monopoly.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Hamburg, 1536

Lübeck, a north German trading city prominent in the mercantile association known as the Hanseatic League, sought to maintain its trading hegemony in the Baltic region and, therefore, incited a brief war against the Swedes and Danes.

The burgomaster (mayor) of Lübeck, Jürgen Wullenwever (c. 1488–1537), ordered the confiscation of a Swedish ship in Lübeck's port as restitution, he said, for insufficient payment of a war debt incurred by the brother-in-law of Sweden's King Gustavus I (1496–1560). Gustavus responded to this rash act by embargoing all of Lübeck's ships in Swedish ports, whereupon Lübeck and its other Hanseatic allies, aided by anti-government Danish rebels, declared war on both Sweden and Denmark and quickly captured the cities of Malmö and Copenhagen.

Lübeck and its allies were not powerful enough to sustain their victories. Traditional rivals, the Danes and Sweden made common cause and united against Lübeck, readily pushing back the invaders. Lübeck concluded the Treaty of Hamburg with the two nations in 1536 and lost its monopoly on trade in the Baltic. The treaty declared the war debt settled and, in return, allowed favorable toll exemptions for Lübeck's trading vessels. As to Wullenwever, he fled Lübeck, only to suffer imprisonment, torture, and execution in 1537 at the hands of Danish authorities.

See also KALMAR CIVIL WAR (1520–1523).

Further reading: Philippe Dollinger, *The German Hansa,* trans. D. S. Ault and S. H. Steinburg (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1970); Franklin D. Scott, *Sweden, the Nation's History* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1988); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2002).

Lübeck's War (1563–1570)

See DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1563–1570).

Lubomirski's Rebellion (1665–1667)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pro-Russian Polish rebels vs. Royal Polish forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Lubomirski wanted to promote Russian domination of Poland.
OUTCOME: Lubomirski's Rebellion weakened Poland, already pressed by war with Russia, forcing it to cede much territory to Russia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 40,000; Royal forces, 60,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: The conflict influenced the Treaty of Andrusovo, which ended the Russo-Polish War of 1658–67.

George Lubomirski (1616–67), a Polish nobleman, took part in the ongoing RUSSO-POLISH WAR (1658–1667). Marshaling the support of fellow nobles, he tried to block a royal election in order to place Poland firmly in Russia's political orbit. As a result of this action, the Polish parliament (Sejm) convicted Lubomirski of treason in 1664 and sentenced him to exile. Instead of going off quietly, Lubomirski and his followers harried the Sejm for the next two years, then withdrew to form their own confederation, mustering a military force of some 40,000 men.

When his army was ready, Lubomirski attacked the royal army—some 60,000 men—at Lake Goplo on July 13, 1667, emerging victorious against the numerically superior force. His triumph prompted the abdication of Poland's king John II Casimir (1609–72) in 1668, whereupon Lubomirski withdrew into Austrian Silesia.

Fighting a war within a war, Lubomirski weakened Poland sufficiently to force it to accept the Treaty of Andrusovo, by which the nation ceded most of its eastern lands to Russia.

Further reading: Jerzy Lukowoski, *Concise History of Poland* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001); W. F. Reddaway, ed., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1941–50, reprint 1971).

Luccan-Florentine War (1320–1323)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ghibellines of Lucca, Italy, vs. Guelfs of Florence, Italy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Florentine territories in Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ghibellines (loyal to the Holy Roman Emperor) wanted to destroy the power and influence of the Guelfs (loyal to the pope).
OUTCOME: Florence lost much territory, which, however, was recovered shortly after the war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In April 1320, Castruccio Castracani (1281–1328), ruler of Lucca in central Italy and leader of the Ghibelline political party, made war on the rival Guelfs of Florence, a political faction loyal to the pope, as opposed to the Holy Roman Emperor, to whom the Ghibellines owed their allegiance. (*Guelf* comes from German *Welf*, the name of a pro-papal

dynasty of Bavarian dukes; *Ghibelline* from *Waiblingen*, the name of the castle of the Welf's opponents.)

Castracani's Luccan army attacked and ravaged Florentine territory until its advance was halted by the arrival of Florentine reinforcements. At this, Castracani allied his own forces with those of Pistoia, another central Italian city. The augmented Luccan forces now laid waste to the countryside within 10 miles of Florence itself during mid-June 1323.

Faced with crisis, Florence scrambled to raise a new army, but Lucca added Milan to its allies, and the combined Luccan-Milanese army dealt the Florentines a decisive blow at the Battle of Altopascio in 1325. Castracani stripped the Florentine lands of treasure to pay war debts and once again menaced the city itself.

Florence looked to other Guelf supporters for aid. However, Castracani was now in control of almost all of Tuscany. A conflict between Castracani and the papacy brought hostilities to a temporary standstill, and before he could resume the war, Castracani died. He had been a brilliant tactician, but an indifferent administrator, who left behind no adequate government for Tuscany. This meant that most of the territory he had taken from Florence was easily reconquered.

Further reading: Gene Adam Brucker, *Florence: The Golden Age, 1138–1737* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1998); Charles L. Killinger, *The History of Italy* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing, 2002); John Larner, *Italy in the Age of Dante and Petrarch, 1216–1380* (New York: Longman, 1980); Giovanni Tabacco, *The Struggle for Power in Medieval Italy: Structures of Political Rule,* trans. Rosalind Brown Jensen (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1989).

Lusitanian War (147–139 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Lusitanian rebels vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Iberian Peninsula
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Lusitani wanted independence from Rome.
OUTCOME: Despite victories, the resistance to Rome collapsed after the assassination of the Lusitani's leader.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None recorded

The Lusitani comprised a group of Celtic tribes who lived in present-day central Portugal and western Spain. After they were defeated by the Romans during the CELT-IBERIAN WARS in 150 B.C.E., the Roman proconsul on the Iberian Peninsula presided over the massacre of thousands of the unruly Lusitanians—even after he had concluded a treaty of peace with them. A survivor of the massacre, a shepherd named Viriathus (d. 139 B.C.E.), formed a guerrilla army that soon proved extremely effective against the vastly superior Roman forces.

In the end, Viriathus and his cause were in part undone by his own decency. Having trapped an entire Roman army in 139 B.C.E., he refrained from destroying it, but instead concluded a peace and sent it packing. Soon after this, a Lusitanian in the pay of the Romans assassinated Viriathus, and the Roman forces returned, easily crushing the leaderless resistance.

See also NUMANTIAN WAR.

Further reading: John S. Richardson, *Romans in Spain* (London: Blackwell, 1998); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Ly Bon's Rebellion (541–547)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nam Viet people vs. Chinese conquerors of Nam Viet
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nam Viet (northern Vietnam)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The subjugated Nam Viet wanted to retake their nation from the Chinese.
OUTCOME: Briefly successful, the rebellion was ultimately crushed and its principal leader killed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Oppressed by their Chinese overlord, the people of Nam Viet or Annam (northern Vietnam) rebelled in 541, led by the Chinese-descended Ly Bon (d. 547). Ly Bon succeeded in pushing the Chinese out of Nam Viet. Neighboring Champa, to the south, sought to exploit the turmoil in Nam Viet by invading in 543. Ly Bon managed to defeat Cham forces as well. Ly Bon declared himself king of Nam Viet, but the Chinese renewed their efforts to retake the country, and Ly Bon was defeated and killed by the Chinese victors in 547.

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); Mary Somers Heidhues, *Southeast Asia: A Concise History* (London and New York: Thames and Hudson, 2001).

M

Macbeth's Wars (1040–1057)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macbeth vs. Duncan I (followed by various rebels, followed by Malcolm [Malcolm III], with English assistance)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Scottish throne
OUTCOME: Macbeth attained and held the throne until he was killed in battle by Malcolm (Malcolm III) in 1057.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive; may have been formal treaty between Malcolm and the English.

Macbeth (d. 1057), the Scottish warlord and king whose life was the basis for Shakespeare's play, was most likely a grandson of King Kenneth II (r. 971–995). Macbeth married Gruoch (fl. mid-11th century), a descendant of King Kenneth III (r. 997–1005), then, about 1031, succeeded his father, Findlaech (d. 1020), as *mormaer* (chief) of Moray in northern Scotland. In one of the dynastic conflicts common in Scotland, Macbeth killed his cousin, King Duncan I (c. 1010–40), in combat near Elgin on August 14, 1040. This was a killing in battle—not, as Shakespeare portrays it, a murder in Macbeth's castle as an unsuspecting Duncan slept.

Established on the Scottish throne, Macbeth continued to wage war against rebels and other claimants to the Crown. He defeated a rebel army in 1045 near Dunkeld (Tayside), and in 1046 he warded off a coup d'état by Siward (d. 1055), earl of Northumbria, who sought to unseat him in favor of Malcolm (r. 1058–93), eldest son of Duncan I.

In 1050, Macbeth embarked on a pilgrimage to Rome. This may have been unwise, because in 1054 Siward had gained sufficient power to force Macbeth to cede a portion of southern Scotland to Malcolm. Malcolm then mounted a resistance against Macbeth, whom he killed in battle in 1057. Malcolm had allied himself with the English and faced one rival after Macbeth's death. Partisans of Macbeth installed his stepson, Lulach (d. 1058), as king. Lulach was assassinated on March 17, 1058, leaving Malcolm to rule Scotland as Malcolm III Canmore.

Further reading: Peter Somerset Fry and Fiona Somerset Fry, *The History of Scotland* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995); Rosalind Mitchison, *A History of Scotland* (New York: Routledge, 2002).

Maccabees, Revolt of the (168–143 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Maccabees (powerful Jewish family) vs. Syrian overlords
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Judea (southern Palestine)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Jewish independence from Syrian rule.
OUTCOME: After a long period of guerrilla warfare, Judea achieved a short-lived virtual independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 168 B.C.E., the Seleucid king of Syria, Antiochus IV Epiphanes (d. 163 B.C.E.), desecrated the Temple of Jerusalem and decreed that the Jews were to accept his pagan religion. Mattathias (d. 166 B.C.E.), a Jewish priest who was a member of the Maccabee family, resisted, in the process slaying a Syrian soldier. Knowing the fate that awaited him for this act, he and his sons fled to the mountains, where they became the nucleus of a guerrilla movement directed against the Syrians.

Following the death of Mattathias in 166 B.C.E., his son Judas Maccabeus (d. 161 B.C.E.) became the leader of the rebellion and quickly defeated two superior Syrian armies sent against him. In 165, Judas reconquered Jerusalem. He rededicated the desecrated temple (an event Jews commemorate to this day in Hanukkah). Four years after this, in 161, Judas was killed in battle with a third Syrian army sent against him.

His brother Jonathan (d. 143 B.C.E.) assumed command and took a new, diplomatic course, making treaties with Rome and Syria. He was, however, killed in 143 B.C.E. when he accepted a Syrian general's invitation to a peace parley, only to be made captive and slain along with many of his troops.

The last brother of Judas Maccabeus, Simon (d. 135 B.C.E.), constructed a chain of forts throughout Judea (southern Palestine). Recognizing his formidable presence, the king of Syria acknowledged Simon as a high priest and designated him as high governor. This brought an interval of peace and virtual independence to Judea, which, however, lasted only until Simon's death in 135. With the last of the Maccabeus brothers gone, Judea was once again torn by Seleucid invasion and internal conflict.

Further reading: William Reuben Farmer, *Maccabees, Zealots, and Josephus: An Inquiry into Jewish Nationalism in the Greco-Roman War* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1982).

Macdonald Rebellion (1411)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macdonald clan (allied with the Macleans) vs. forces of the regent of Scottish king James I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Region near Aberdeen, Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Macdonalds and the forces of the regent contested control of the earldom of Ross.
OUTCOME: A draw.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None; a de facto peace ensued.

This was a war of a single significant battle. After the English captured and imprisoned the Scottish king James I (1394–1437) in 1406, the Scottish barons amassed a great deal of power during the nearly two decades of his captivity. The Macdonalds of the northwest styled themselves the "kings of the Isles" and ruled as virtual sovereigns. The duke of Rothesay (d. 1406), nephew of James's regent, Robert Stewart, duke of Albany (1341–1420), challenged the clan over control of the earldom of Ross. Donald Macdonald (fl. early 15th century), in alliance with the Maclean clan, attacked the regent's forces at Aberdeen in 1411. The Macdonald-Maclean army was led by a Maclean, Red Hector of the Battles (d. 1411), and fought a brutal engagement known as the Battle of Red Harlaw. The result of the battle was essentially a draw. However, Red Hector was killed, and the Macdonald-Maclean army withdrew. The precipitating dispute was neither resolved nor forgotten, but it was tolerated, and a long period of peace followed.

See also OG'S REBELLION.

Further reading: Peter Somerset Fry and Fiona Somerset Fry, *The History of Scotland* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995); Rosalind Mitchison, *A History of Scotland* (New York: Routledge, 2002).

Macedonian Insurrection (1902–1903)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bulgarian terrorists vs. Ottoman Empire; rival factions within Macedonia itself
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Macedonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Bulgarian terrorists wanted to position Bulgaria for control of Macedonia.
OUTCOME: Indecisive; violence in Macedonia continued after the end of the insurrection, leading to the First Balkan War.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Bulgarian forces, 27,000; Ottoman forces, 351,000
CASUALTIES: Bulgar forces, 994 killed; Ottoman forces, 5,328 killed; Bulgarian civilian casualties, 4,700 killed.
TREATIES: None; however, the insurrection yielded an ineffectual agreement (brokered by Austria and Russia) with the Ottoman Empire concerning Macedonia.

The Macedonian Insurrection was an early symptom of the strife that beset the Balkans at the turn of the 20th century and that would eventually trigger WORLD WAR I. Bulgaria, Greece, and Serbia each laid claim to Macedonia—which was controlled by the Ottoman Empire—and in 1899 Bulgaria established what it called a Macedonian Commission, ostensibly to resolve the conflict, but, in fact, to bolster the Bulgarian claim. The aim of the commission was to make Macedonia nominally autonomous, yet controlled—by leave of the Ottoman Empire—by a Bulgarian "inspector." In order to coerce acceptance of the scheme, the Bulgarians conducted a program of covert ter-

rorism through revolutionary bands called *komitadji,* who raided Macedonia.

The activity of the komitadji brought about a civil insurrection within the country, but it was the komitadji's murder of a Romanian professor (who challenged the authority of the commission) and their capture of a female American missionary that prompted intervention from the outside. Together, Austria and Russia proposed political reform of the Macedonian administrative districts of Salonika (Thessaloníki), Monastir (Bitola), and Kosovo in 1903 in an attempt to mollify Bulgaria. The Ottomans approved the reforms, which, however, were never implemented: Escalating internal violence exploded into the First BALKAN WAR, which resulted in the formal division of Macedonia among the three rival claimants to it.

Further reading: Lord Kinross, *The Ottoman Centuries: The Rise and Fall of the Turkish Empire* (New York: Morrow, 1977); Mark Mazower, *Balkans: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); Stanford J. Shaw and E. K. Shaw, *History of the Ottoman Empire and Modern Turkey,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976–1977); Alan Warwick, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble Books, 1995).

Macedonian War, First (215–205 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macedonians vs. Romans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern frontiers of Macedon
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Philip V of Macedon wanted to expand his empire.
OUTCOME: Indecisive, except to spawn further warfare.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Phoenice, 205 B.C.E.

King Philip V (238–179 B.C.E.) of Macedon was a warlike and restless monarch ambitious to extend his empire at any cost. He exploited the Second PUNIC WAR, in which the forces of Rome were preoccupied with fighting Carthage, to attack the diminished Roman forces in the east, the region known as Illyria. However, the Romans could not decisively defeat the Macedonians, nor could Philip wear down the Romans, and the result was warfare that consumed a decade, producing little result.

Philip took a new tack. Allying himself with Hannibal of Carthage (247–c. 183–181 B.C.E.), he invaded the Greek city-states. Rome, characteristically neutral in the affairs of these states, saw Philip's incursions as an opportunity to expand the Roman sphere of influence. Rome concluded the Peace of Phoenice, which was generous to Philip. However, within five years of the end of the First Macedonian War, the Second MACEDONIAN WAR began.

See also MACEDONIAN WAR, THIRD; MACEDONIAN WAR, FOURTH.

Further reading: M. Cary, *A History of the Greek World from 323 to 146 B.C.* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1963); N. G. L. Hammond, *The Macedonian State* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1989); Victor Davis Hanson, *The Wars of the Ancient Greeks* (New York: Sterling, 2002); J. F. Lazenby, *Hannibal's War: A Military History of the Second Punic War* (Warminster, England: Aris and Phillips, 1978); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Macedonian War, Second (200–196 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macedon vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece
DECLARATION: Rome against Macedon, 200 B.C.E.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Philip V of Macedon wanted to extend his empire into the Greek states.
OUTCOME: Rome defeated Macedon, which agreed to an indemnity.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Each side fielded about 20,000 men.
CASUALTIES: At Cynoscephalae, the decisive battle of the war, Macedonian losses were 10,000 killed; Roman losses were much lower.
TREATIES: Indemnity agreement

The First MACEDONIAN WAR ended at the northern frontiers of Macedon. Although the Peace of Phoenice offered many favorable terms to Macedon, much was left unsettled, and, in 200 B.C.E., Philip V (238–179 B.C.E.) of Macedon turned southward, intending to make inroads into the Greek city-states. He menaced Rhodes and Pergamum first, then attacked other city-states. Rome demanded Philip's pledge to make no further hostile moves. He refused and, seeing gains to be made in defeating Philip in Greece, Rome engaged him. The climactic battle of the Second Macedonian War came in 197 B.C.E., when Rome's legions soundly beat Philip at Cynoscephalae. Titus Quintius Flaminius (c. 227–174 B.C.E.) led 20,000 Roman legionaries and met the Macedonian force on the heights of Cynoscephalae, in southwestern Thessaly. It was a hard-fought battle, but Philip took by far the worst of it. Half his 20,000 men were killed. Rome's losses, while substantial, did not approach this magnitude. As a result of his defeat, Philip withdrew from Greece and further agreed to render a large indemnity to Rome, which then proclaimed itself the liberator and protector of the Greek states, asserting a benevolent dominance over them.

Philip's son Perseus (c. 212–166 B.C.E.) succeeded him as Macedon's king in 179. Instead of invading Greece, he made alliances among the Greek states. Fearing this

kind of influence as well, Rome initiated the Third MACEDONIAN WAR.

See also MACEDONIAN WAR, FOURTH.

Further reading: M. Cary, *A History of the Greek World from 323 to 146 B.C.* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1963); N. G. L. Hammond, *The Macedonian State* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1989); Victor Davis Hanson, *The Wars of the Ancient Greeks* (New York: Sterling, 2002); J. F. Lazenby, *Hannibal's War: A Military History of the Second Punic War* (Warminster, England: Aris and Phillips, 1978); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Macedonian War, Third (172–167 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macedon vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southeastern Macedonia
DECLARATION:
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome wanted to stop Macedon's meddling in Greek politics.
OUTCOME: Macedon was defeated; Rome divided Macedonia into republics.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Macedonian losses at Pydna (168 B.C.E.) were 20,000 killed and 11,000 made prisoner; in contrast, Rome lost about 100 killed.
TREATIES: None

After Perseus (c. 212–166 B.C.E.), who had inherited the Macedonian throne from his father Philip V in 179 B.C.E., began to meddle in Greek affairs by making alliances with various Greek city-states, Rome sent an army to attack his forces at Pydna in southeastern Macedonia. Fought on June 22, 168 B.C.E., this battle proved decisive, the Macedonians lost 20,000 killed and 11,000 taken as prisoners; Roman losses amounted to no more than 100 killed. The following year, Perseus was dethroned and made captive.

To ensure that Macedon would never again threaten the stability of the Roman world, the victors divided it into four republics. However, this only succeeded in causing internal conflict, as the republics soon fell to disputing with one another. In a climate of discontent and confusion, a pretender to the throne attempted to reestablish the Macedonian monarchy in 152 B.C.E., an action that ignited the Fourth MACEDONIAN WAR.

See also MACEDONIAN WAR, FIRST; MACEDONIAN WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: M. Cary, *A History of the Greek World from 323 to 146 B.C.* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1963); N. G. L. Hammond, *The Macedonian State* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1989); Victor Davis Hanson, *The Wars of the Ancient Greeks* (New York: Sterling, 2002); J. F. Lazenby, *Hannibal's War: A Military History of the Second Punic War* (Warminster, England: Aris and Phillips, 1978); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Macedonian War, Fourth (151–146 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macedon vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Macedonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When a pretender to the throne vowed to reunify Macedon, the Romans decided to subjugate it fully.
OUTCOME: The Macedonian army was no match for the Romans, who conquered Macedon and annexed it.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the Roman partition of Macedon into four republics, a pretender to the throne arose, calling for the reunification of the nation under his leadership. This provoked Rome to dispatch forces to fight the Macedonians for a fourth time, and, once again, Rome easily triumphed over the Macedonian army. The war included no battles of military significance; the Macedonians were simply demoralized by the Roman Legions and melted away before them.

Having tried and failed to render Macedon docile by dividing it into four republics, Rome now annexed the country to itself. This was the first major step in the long expansion of the Roman Empire.

See also MACEDONIAN WAR, FIRST; MACEDONIAN WAR, SECOND; MACEDONIAN WAR, THIRD; PUNIC WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: M. Cary, *A History of the Greek World from 323 to 146 B.C.* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1963); N. G. L. Hammond, *The Macedonian State* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1989); Victor Davis Hanson, *The Wars of the Ancient Greeks* (New York: Sterling, 2002); J. F. Lazenby, *Hannibal's War: A Military History of the Second Punic War* (Warminster, England: Aris and Phillips, 1978); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Mackenzie's Rebellion (1837)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: William Mackenzie vs. British authorities in Canada
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Toronto and Navy Island, Canada
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mackenzie wanted to overthrow the government of Upper Canada (Ontario) to establish a separate republican government.

OUTCOME: Mackenzie failed and fled to the United States.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mackenzie led about 800 followers, who were initially opposed by 300 government troops; eventually, some 2,000 British troops opposed about 1,000 rebels.
CASUALTIES: Rebels, 132 killed; government troops, 50 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

This short-lived rebellion was instigated by William Lyon Mackenzie (1795–1861), a Canadian journalist, who was a passionate advocate of creating a new, republican government for Upper Canada (that is, Ontario). To this end, he called for the overthrow of the British-dominated Family Compact, which ruled the country.

Mackenzie was able to muster some 800 followers, mostly French Canadians, who tried to establish a provisional government at Toronto. When this failed, they fled to Navy Island, a small piece of land in the Niagara River. On the island, Mackenzie proclaimed a government and holed up, supplied from sources in the United States by the U.S.-registered steamer *Caroline*. A group of Canadians loyal to the Upper Canada government crossed the river and burned the *Caroline,* forcing Mackenzie to decamp from Navy Island and seek refuge in the United States. There he was arrested, tried, and convicted of violating the neutrality laws. He served an 11-month prison term. When, in 1849, the Canadian government declared a general amnesty, Mackenzie returned to his country.

See also PAPINEAU'S REBELLION.

Further reading: William Kilbourn, *Firebrand: William Lyon MacKenzie and the Rebellion in Upper Canada* (Toronto: Clarke, Erwin, 1964); John Sewell, *Mackenzie: A Political Biography of William Lyon Mackenzie* (Toronto: J. Lorimer and Co., 2002).

Madagascar Revolt (1947–1948)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Madagascar nationalist rebels (MDRM) vs. French colonial authorities
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Madagascar
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The MDRM wanted to win independence for Madagascar.
OUTCOME: The 1947–48 uprising was quelled at a high cost in civilian lives; independence came a decade later.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 4,500; French garrison forces, 6,500; later, 18,000 colonial troops (mostly North African and Senegalese forces) were deployed; final rebel strength unknown.
CASUALTIES: Rebels, 5,772 killed in action; French and French colonials, about 1,000 killed. Native civilian deaths are estimated at 70,000.
TREATIES: None

In the reshuffling of colonies and possessions following WORLD WAR II, Madagascar became a French "overseas territory" in 1946. This immediately spurred creation of the Mouvement Démocratique de la Rénovation Malagache (MDRM), a political party dedicated to achieving independence. Beginning in 1947, 4,500 Madagascar tribesmen associated with MDRM staged an armed rebellion on the eastern end of the island, which threatened to overwhelm the 6,500 French regulars garrisoning Madagascar. Reinforced by 18,000 colonials, however, the troops put down the uprising, but at great cost. Rebel combat deaths numbered 5,772, and civilian casualties mounted, reaching approximately 70,000 by 1948. Total French and French colonial military losses were about 1,000 killed.

After the 1947 uprising, the MDRM was outlawed, but the rebellion continued at a lower level of intensity as a guerrilla war through 1948, when it wound down without any official treaty or armistice. It was not until 1958 that the French government decided to allow the native population of Madagascar to determine its own direction. The vote was not for independence, but autonomy within the French Community. This led to the creation of the Malagasy Republic in 1958, which became fully independent in two years. Since 1975, the nation has been known as Madagascar.

See also MADAGASCAR WARS WITH FRANCE.

Further reading: Mervyn Brown, *A History of Madagascar* (Princeton, N.J.: Markus Wiener Publisher, 2001); Raymond Kent, *From Madagascar to the Malagasy Republic* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976).

Madagascar Wars with France (1883–1885, 1894–1899)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hovas vs. French forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Madagascar
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hova resisted French attempts first to assert a protectorate over part of Madagascar and then to colonize the entire country.
OUTCOME: France ultimately made Madagascar a colony.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French expeditionary force, 15,431 (plus 7,715 native porters)
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaties at issue include tribal-French agreements of 1840 and French-Hova treaties of 1868 and 1895

In 1868 France relinquished control of the main island of Madagascar to the Hova, the chief native Madagascan group. In 1882, however, France asserted a protectorate over northwestern Madagascar, citing treaties concluded in 1840 among individual chieftains. When the Hova

refused to accept the protectorate, French warships were dispatched to bombard the coastal towns of Majunga and Tamatave. In June 1883 French land forces took and occupied Tamatave, which they used as a base from which they recruited a native army to prosecute the war against the Hove more effectively and cheaply. During the next two years there were no set battles, but, rather, continual low-level combat. At last, in 1885, the Hova recognized the French protectorate in the northwest. Diégo-Suarez, a French settlement at the very northern end of Madagascar, was also recognized, and a French "resident," was permitted to serve in Tananarive, the native capital.

Peace did not long endure. The French sought to assert more control, and on June 16, 1894, the Hova mounted an uprising. By 1895, Hova attacks against the French had become so frequent that a force of 15,431 regulars and 7,715 native porters was landed at Majunga, then advanced inland to Tananarive. Using artillery, the troops bombarded Tananarive until it surrendered on September 30, 1895. The Hova were compelled to give up all but a semblance of sovereignty, the Hova queen, Ruha Valona III (r. 1883–96) becoming a figurehead under French government.

The following year, France declared all of Madagascar its colony and dispatched Joseph S. Gallieni (1849–1916)—who would prove the savior of Paris in the opening weeks of WORLD WAR I—as its governor-general. After removing the queen, even as a figurehead, in 1896, Gallieni conducted a long campaign to put down the widespread rebellion that had broken out after colonization was announced, and it was 1899 before the interior was pacified. Gallieni refused to acknowledge Hova supremacy among the tribes and decreed that all residents of Madagascar would be accorded equal treatment under French law.

See also MADAGASCAR REVOLT.

Further reading: Mervyn Brown, *A History of Madagascar* (Princeton, N.J.: Markus Wiener Publisher, 2001); Raymond Kent, *From Madagascar to the Malagasy Republic* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976).

"Mad Mullah," Holy Wars of the
(1899–1920)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslim dervishes led by Muhammad bin Abd Allah Hasan (the "Mad Mullah") vs. British colonial forces (with Ethiopian and Italian allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Somaliland (Somalia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Mad Mullah waged a jihad (holy war) to expel all infidels from the region.
OUTCOME: For more than 20 years, the mullah waged a costly war of terror against the interior of Somaliland, but was finally driven out by a combined air and ground attack, with amphibious support.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The British rarely had more than 8,000 men in the region; the mullah's followers reached as many as 15,000.
CASUALTIES: Military losses include about 500 killed among the dervishes, 300 among the British, and 200 among the Ethiopians; civilian losses were heavy among the mullah's followers and among the tribes of the interior; it is estimated that one-third of the male population in noncoastal Somaliland was killed.
TREATIES: Illig, or Pestalozza Agreement, March 1905

In 1870 Egypt acquired from the Ottoman Empire possession of the Somali coast from Berbera to Seylac. In 1884 problems in the Sudan prompted the Egyptian government to evacuate the Somali colony, and in 1885 Britain concluded treaties with six of the eight Somali tribes living in the region, thereby adding 58,000 square miles to Britain's African empire. In 1899, however, Muhammad bin Abd Allah Hasan (1864–1920), called the "Mad Mullah" because he claimed supernatural powers, declared a jihad, or holy war, to expel the British and other foreigners from what was then known as Somaliland (Somalia). In April 1899, the Mad Mullah, an adherent of a puritanical Islamic sect, attacked Burao, a native settlement 80 miles from Berbera, recruiting or forcibly impressing a number of men into service, mostly dervishes, so that he had raised a force of about 3,000. Next came an attack on the Habr Yunis tribe in August, which enabled him to return to Burao with a total force of 6,000 men. He then lay low for almost a year, but in August 1900, fell upon the Aidegalla tribe and, in September, the Habr Awal tribe.

The British would mount four campaigns, consisting of British regulars and Ethiopian mercenaries, between 1901 and 1904 against the Mad Mullah. The first was launched in April 1901, using some 1,500 locally recruited men. In a campaign that lasted through July, some 1,200 dervishes—the mullah's followers—were killed and wounded and another 800 taken prisoner. This was sufficient to bring about an interval of peace until October 1901, when the mullah renewed his attacks, menacing and pressing into his service most of the Dolbahanta tribe. The British launched a second expeditionary force in June 1902, pitting about 2,000 men against an estimated force of 15,000 dervishes. The culminating Battle of Erigo, in October 1902, resulted in 1,400 dervish casualties, but the mullah was able to retreat with most of his force intact. The British added more troops to their forces and fielded about 3,600 men, to which was added an Abyssinian (Ethiopian) force of 5,000. The advance of these troops sent the mullah into retreat. On April 17, 1903, at Gumburu, however, the mullah, with 1,400 dervishes, attacked a British-led reconnaissance force of 200, slaughtering most of it, including all officers. Of the 46 survivors, 41 were wounded.

To the British and Abyssinian forces arrayed against the mullah were added Italian troops from Italian Somaliland, but even these combined forces—about 8,000 troops—failed to destroy the mullah's power. However, by 1905, the mullah and his followers agreed to settle in Italian Somaliland, concluding in March 1905 the Illig or Pestalozza Agreement with the Italian government, declaring peace with both the British and the Italians. For the next two years, the mullah presided over a small theocracy.

By 1907, the mullah had reestablished himself on the British side and had resumed raiding and looting, killing perhaps a third of the male population in the region. In 1909, the British government decided to withdraw entirely from the interior, effectively abandoning it to the Mad Mullah, who had some 10,000 troops at this time, while concentrating colonial control over three coast towns only. Friendly Somali tribes in the interior were given arms and ammunition to fend for themselves.

Amid increasing mayhem, in 1912, the British formed the Somali Camel Constabulary, 150 strong, to maintain order among friendly tribes near Berbera. At first, the constabulary proved highly effective, but in 1913 the small force was attacked by some 2,000 dervishes at Dulmadoba. The attackers lost between 200 and 600 men, but half the Camel Constabulary were casualties, including the commandant. Following this defeat, the Camel Constabulary was increased to 500 and an Indian contingent of 400 was added to it. Headway was made against the mullah, but the demands of World War I drew off troops for service elsewhere, and the Turks and Germans supported the mullah's efforts, to keep the remaining British forces on the defensive throughout the war.

Early in 1920, with World War I concluded, the British launched a new offensive against the Mad Mullah, using Royal Air Force planes, the Somaliland Camel Corps (700 men), a King's African Rifles Contingent (700 men), 400 men of the Indian army, and three warships *Odin, Clio,* and *Arc Royal.* On January 21, 1920, the mullah's headquarters at Medishe, near Jidali, was bombed from the air. The bombardment continued over the next three days and was followed by ground assaults. At this, the Mad Mullah fled to Ethiopia, where he succumbed to disease. Only with his death did the long jihad finally end.

Further reading: Douglas J. Jardine, *Mad Mullah of Somaliland* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1986).

Madura Revolt (1334–1335)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Delhi sultanate vs. Gulbarga sultanate
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Madura, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Delhi-appointed governor of Madura declared an independent sultanate.
OUTCOME: Because Delhi's troops had to be recalled to other service, the rebellion continued unchecked.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Muhammad Tughluq (r. 1325–51), sultan of Delhi, whose territories encompassed many Hindu kingdoms, endured many revolts until he established a system of provincial governors. One of these, Jalal-ud-Din Ahsan Shah (fl. mid-14th century) the governor of Madura, proved rebellious himself in 1334 and declared an independent sultanate around the capital city of Gulbarga. The sultan dispatched troops from Delhi, but had to recall them in 1335 to quell rebellions in Lahore and in Delhi itself. This allowed the governor to continue his revolt, which gave rise, in turn, to other rebellions.

See also Bahmani-Delhi Sultanate War and Vijayanagar Conquest of Madura.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Romila Thapar, *A History of India,* vol. 1, in *Comprehensive History of India* of the Indian History Congress (New York: Penguin Books, 1966).

"Mad War"

See Guerre Folle.

Magnentius and Constantius, War between

See Roman Civil War (350–351).

Magnentius's Revolt

See Roman Civil War (350–351).

Magyar Raid, Great (954–955)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Magyars vs. primarily Germans under Otto I (allied with Conrad of Lorraine)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bavaria and Franconia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Acquisition of German and Frankish territory.
OUTCOME: The Magyars were ultimately defeated, repulsed, and driven from Germany.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Magyars, 50,000–100,000; Germans, 10,000 (plus allies)
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but heavy on all sides

TREATIES: Alliance between Magyars and Conrad of Lorraine, then between Otto I and Conrad of Lorraine

In 954, the Magyars mounted their greatest raid ever, sending between 50,000 and 100,000 warriors into Bavaria and Franconia. The devastation was swift, and Conrad of Lorraine, in revolt against the German king Otto I (912–973), made a hasty alliance with the invaders to aid their Rhine crossing at Worms. Conrad also made it easy for the invaders to enter Lorraine. From here, the Magyars crossed the Meuse River to raid northeastern France. They swept through Rheims, then Châlons, and penetrated Burgundy. From Burgundy, they advanced through the Great St. Bernard Pass into Italy, visiting devastation upon parts of Lombardy before crossing the Carnic Alps and into the Drava Valley and the valley of the Danube.

Having terrorized a wide swath of western Europe, the Magyars turned on Bavaria in 955. A force of 50,000 invaded the kingdom and laid siege to Augsburg, where they were met by Otto I leading an army of 10,000. The Magyars lifted their siege and turned instead to battle with Otto. The Battle of Lechfeld, in August, began very badly for the German king. The Magyars wheeled about and surprised the Germans, driving more than 3,000 men from the field. This done, the Magyars took the German camp. Otto, however, secured the aid of his erstwhile foe, Conrad of Lorraine, and was ultimately able to drive out the invaders. Worse for the Magyars, Otto inflicted heavy losses on them and also captured their camp and treasure. He assumed the offensive and harried the fleeing Magyars over a three-day period. Conrad fell in battle. The Great Magyar Raid was at an end, and the Magyars never raided Germany again.

See also MAGYAR RAID INTO EUROPE, FIRST; MAGYAR RAIDS IN FRANCE; and MAGYAR RAIDS IN THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.

Further reading: Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *The Magyars in the Ninth Century* (reprint, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1968); Miklos Molnar, *A Concise History of Hungary* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976).

Magyar Raid into Europe, First (862)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Magyars vs. the Franks; separately, the Magyars vs. the Pechenegs and Bulgars
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Middle Danube Valley region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Menaced by the Pechenegs and Bulgars in their Don Basin homeland, the Magyars sought new territory.
OUTCOME: Ultimately, the Magyars came to occupy the middle Danube Valley region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the ninth century, the Magyars (related to the Finns and the Turks) occupied the lower Don Basin as vassals of the Khazar Turks. By the middle of the century, the Magyars had penetrated to the frontiers of the Frankish kingdom in the middle Danube Valley, and they began a series of raids against the frontier Franks. The first Magyar raid west of the Danube took place in 862, when they pushed into Frankish Ostmark.

The raids were attempts to probe for new territory, because the Magyars were menaced in their Don Basin homeland by the Pechenegs and Bulgars. During 862–889, the period of the Magyar western raids, the Magyars were ejected from the Don Basin and resettled in Moldavia. The Magyars would settle permanently in the middle Danube region after 895, when they met defeat at the hands of the Pechenegs.

See also MAGYAR RAID, GREAT; MAGYAR RAIDS IN FRANCE; MAGYAR RAIDS IN THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.

Further reading: Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *The Magyars in the Ninth Century* (reprint, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1968); Miklos Molnar, *A Concise History of Hungary* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976).

Magyar Raids in France (907–954)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Magyars vs. the French
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France and northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The raiders sought wealth.
OUTCOME: Large parts of France were devastated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Magyar Raids in France were largely contemporaneous with the MAGYAR RAIDS IN THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE from about 894 to 955. Magyar (Hungarian) warriors crossed into

Alsace and Burgundy from Germany, staging raids for many years. Burgundy felt the brunt of this activity during 917 to 919, and King Charles III's (879–929) inability to organize the French barons into an effective resistance allowed the Magyars to advance through the kingdom almost at will. In 926, Rheims was menaced, and Burgundy was again overrun in 936–937. King Raoul of Burgundy (d. 936) mounted a defense, which failed and ended in the king's death.

Raiding was chronic, but some of the worst occurred in Aquitaine in 951. The culminating raid—the so-called Great Magyar Raid—came in 954, when warriors ravaged Cambrai, Laon, and Rheims, then swept through northeastern France, down through Burgundy, and into Italy by way of the Great St. Bernard Pass.

See also MAGYAR RAID INTO EUROPE, FIRST; MAGYAR RAID, GREAT.

Further reading: Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *The Magyars in the Ninth Century* (reprint, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1968); Miklos Molnar, *A Concise History of Hungary* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976).

Magyar Raids in the Holy Roman Empire (c. 894–955)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Magyar warriors vs. the Holy Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Magyars sought riches and conquest.
OUTCOME: After enduring more than five decades of raids, the forces of the Holy Roman Empire, under Otto I, finally evicted the Magyars from Germany.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Lechfeld, Magyars: 50,000; Holy Roman Empire, 10,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Magyars, seven tribes under a leader named Árpád (c. 840–907), staged a massive western movement from their homes in the northern Caucasus beginning about 889. They swept through Frankish Pannonia—encompassing chiefly eastern Austria and western Hungary—between 894 and 896, raided mercilessly, and seized control of the region by 900. This area became their base of operations for more than five decades of raids into western Europe (*see* MAGYAR RAIDS IN FRANCE).

The Magyars hit Moravia in 906, overwhelming a Bavarian force at the Battle of Ennsburg, which allowed them to occupy the Hungarian Great Plain. The raiders penetrated as far north as Bremen and as far south as Otranto, then pressed west to Orléans and as far east as Constantinople. Within the Holy Roman Empire, Saxony and Thuringia were scourged during 908 and Bavaria in 909–910.

Germany's King Henry I (c. 876–936)—Henry the Fowler—fought effectively against the Magyars during 919–936. In 924, Henry captured a major Magyar chieftain and was able to use him to extort a nine-year truce. During this time, Henry fortified Saxon towns and built up his army, so that in 933, he felt ready to break the truce and take the offensive against the Magyars. He attacked at Riade, seizing their camp and sending them into retreat. A quasi civil war attending the ascension of Otto I (912–973) to the Holy Roman throne weakened the German offensive after 936, but Holy Roman troops were still able to conduct an effective defense in Thuringia, Saxony, and Bavaria during 948–949.

The culminating battle of the Magyar raids was the Battle of Lechfeld, south of Augsburg, Bavaria, in 955. Approximately 50,000 Magyars laid siege to Augsburg in August. Ulric (890–973; canonized St. Ulric in 993), the bishop of Augsburg, led a heroic delaying action against the attackers, which bought sufficient time for the arrival of Otto I at the head of a 10,000-man force. Given the lopsided numbers, the battle predictably began badly for Otto, who suffered a loss of at least a third of his army. However, the timely arrival of Duke Conrad the Red of Lorraine, with reinforcements, turned the tide. The Magyars broke and ran, with Otto in hot pursuit. They retreated far to the east and never menaced the Holy Roman Empire again.

See also MAGYAR RAID INTO EUROPE, FIRST; MAGYAR RAID, GREAT.

Further reading: Paul Ignotus, *Hungary* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Dominic G. Kosáry, *A History of Hungary* (New York: Arno Press, 1971); C. A. Macartney, *The Magyars in the Ninth Century* (reprint, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1968); Miklos Molnar, *A Concise History of Hungary* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001); Denis Sinor, *History of Hungary* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1976).

Mahabat Khan's Insurrection (1626–1627)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Jahangir, Nur Jahan vs. Mahabat Khan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Punjab, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Mogul throne
OUTCOME: Mahabat Khan succeeded to the throne as Shah Jahan.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Mahabat Khan (d. 1634) was a general in service to the Mogul emperor Jahangir (1569–1627). Though Mahabat Khan put down the rebellion of the emperor's son Khurram (1592–1666) in 1626 and secured Jahangir on his throne, the general accepted the contrite prince as the emperor's heir (as did Jahangir himself). But Empress Nur Jahan (d. 1645), the favorite among Jahangir's harem, had other ideas about the succession, which she wished to control. She was wary of the general's growing popularity and saw him as a future rival for power behind the throne.

Accordingly, Nur Jahan persuaded Jahangir to appoint Mahabat Khan governor of Bengal, far from the royal court. No sooner did he leave for Bengal than she trumped up charges of treason against him and persuaded Jahangir to order his return to Lahore for trial. Mahabat Khan refused to return and instead sought an audience with the emperor at the royal court in the Punjab. When Jahangir refused to see him, Mahabat Khan took him prisoner. During this exchange, Nur Jahan escaped with her entourage, and Jahangir, too, managed to eventually break free of Mahabat Khan. For his part, the general fled to Khurram's friendly camp in the Deccan. There, however, he was persuaded to return to Jahangir and seek forgiveness or, at least, clemency.

Jahangir died suddenly, before Mahabat Khan returned, and the general thus avoided the wrath of the Mogul emperor. Meanwhile, Nur Jahan's candidate for the throne had been caught pilfering the royal treasury. She was discredited, and he severely punished (he was blinded for his thieving). She was easily shunted aside as the powerful Mahabat Khan threw his support behind Prince Khurram, who became emperor under this throne name: Shah Jahan.

See also MOGUL CIVIL WAR (1657–1659); SHAH JAHAN'S REVOLT.

Further reading: Z. A. Desai, *Shah Jahan Numa of Inayat Khan: An Abridged History of the Mughal Emperor Shah Jahan* (London: Oxford University Press, 1990); Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002).

Mahdist War *See* SUDANESE WAR (1881–1885).

Mahmud of Ghazna, Conquests of (c. 1000–1030)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ghazna vs. India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kashmir, the Punjab, and the region of modern Iran
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mahmud desired imperial conquest, in part to acquire treasure, in part to disseminate Islam and suppress Hinduism.
OUTCOME: Over a 30-year period, Mahmud conquered all of the territory he sought.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In major invasions, Mahmud commanded about 15,000 men. At each of the two major battles of Peshawar, Indian forces numbered about 30,000.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Driven by a combination of Islamic zeal to conquer Hinduism and a desire for treasure, Mahmud (971–1030), ruler of Ghazna (Afghanistan and part of Iran), launched 17 invasions into India between 1000 and 1030. He razed Hindu temples throughout Kashmir and the Punjab, as well as the area encompassed by modern Iran. These vast regions he subjugated and extracted from them great hoards of treasure, which he used to finance a grandiose building program in his capital city.

Three of his Indian raids were major wars. In 1001, he led 10,000 cavalrymen against some 40,000 Indians at the Battle of Peshawar, achieving a signal victory, which resulted in the death of the Indian commander, Rajah Jaipal of Lahore (d. 1001). In 1108, an Indian force of 30,000 attacked him in a second Battle of Peshawar, compelling his retreat. Mahmud was able to regroup, however, and counterattack, defeating the superior Indian forces. This led to the formal Ghaznian annexation of the Punjab. Finally, in 1024, Mahmud invaded Kathiawar, on the southern coast of the subcontinent. He and his army rode into Somnath and there looted and destroyed a magnificent Hindu temple.

By the time of his death in 1030, Mahmud of Ghazna had conducted a total of 17 raids into the Indian Peninsula and came to rule Kashmir, the Punjab, and all of Iran. He was a dictator of unsparing temperament, yet although he looted many Hindu monuments, he never compelled the populace of the conquered territories to renounce their religion and convert to Islam.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Muhammad Nuzim, *Life and Times of Sultan Mahmad of Ghaza* (Delhi: Vedans eBooks, 2001).

Maillotin Uprising (1382)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Parisian tax protesters vs. tax collectors, money lenders, and the government of King Charles VI of France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paris

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Oppressed by ruinous taxes levied to finance the ongoing Hundred Years' War, the "Maillots" may have sought a repeal of the taxes but they also sought to express their outrage through violence.
OUTCOME: The uprising was quelled when the ringleaders had been apprehended, tried, and executed; however, the uprising also brought about the repeal of the most outrageous of the taxes.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This uprising of oppressed Parisians, suffering under the privations of the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, was named for the typical weapon the rioters carried, the *maillot* (a leaden mallet or maul). The "Maillots" turned their wrath against tax collectors and money lenders, whom they hunted down, assaulted, and often killed. During this period in France, Christians were barred from the trade of money lending, which was thus restricted to Jews. Therefore, the uprising took on the character of an anti-Semitic pogrom.

The Maillots refused to negotiate with King Charles VI (1368–1422) and his counselors, and the uprising continued until the ringleaders of the revolt were identified, arrested, tried, and executed. Not content with merely quelling the uprising, Charles VI sought to head off further violence by abolishing the most oppressive of the taxes that had sparked the revolt to begin with.

See also JACQUERIE.

Further reading: Christopher Allmand, *The Hundred Years' War: England and France at War, c. 1300–1450* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1988); Anne Curry, *The Hundred Years' War, 2nd ed.* (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); John Bell Henneman, *Oliver de Clisson and Political Society under Charles V and Charles VI* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1996); Robin Neillands, *The Hundred Years' War* (New York: Routledge, 2001); Jonathan Sumption, *The Hundred Years' War* (Boston: Faber and Faber, 1999).

Maji Maji Uprising (1905–1907)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Native people of German East Africa (Tanzania) vs. German colonialists (with African auxiliary troops)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): German East Africa
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Native Africans protested their subjugation at the hands of German colonialists.
OUTCOME: The native uprising was quelled.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Native forces, 20,000; 500 Germans led thousands of colonial troops.
CASUALTIES: For the Native Africans, 75,000–120,000 killed; Germans, 2,507 killed; African colonials, 4,703 killed
TREATIES: No formal treaty

In July 1905, Abdullah Mapanda (d. 1907) and Kinjikitile Ngwale (d. 1905) led 20,000 native East African rebels in an uprising against the harsh rule of the Germans. They were fortified with maji-maji, a potion they believed rendered them impervious to German bullets. The first major assault fell on a colonial *boma* (fort) at Kilosa on August 16. The garrison of 13 askaris (native troops in the German service) was slaughtered.

The attack on Kilosa triggered a vigorous and unremittingly brutal response from colonial governor Adolf Graf von Gotzen (served 1901–06), who led 500 German regulars bolstered by thousands of colonial troops from Africa, as well as New Guinea and Papua (before 1945 a separate territory), and Melanesia. These forces engaged in a rampage of slaughter that killed between 75,000 and 120,000 natives out of a total population of some 2 million. Some were killed outright, others tortured to death, and still others starved after their crops were destroyed. Losses among German and colonial troops were also heavy, many succumbing to disease and exposure.

The rebellion was put down, although fighting continued sporadically through 1918, when, as a result of WORLD WAR I, Germany lost all of its colonies, including East Africa.

Further reading: Erick J. Mann, *Mikono Ya Damu: African Mercenaries and the Politics of Conflict in German East Africa, 1888–1904* (New York: P. Lang, 2002).

Malacca, Siege of (1640–1641)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Dutch (with Achinese allies) vs. the Portuguese
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The fortress at Malacca
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Dutch and Portuguese vied for control of the important trading center of the western Malay Peninsula.
OUTCOME: The fortress fell to a prolonged siege, resulting in the Dutch usurpation of the spice trade.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Portuguese-Asian garrison, 3,760; Dutch-Achinese attackers, at least 6,000
CASUALTIES: A total of 7,000 died, more from starvation and disease than from combat
TREATIES: None

Malacca occupied the west coast of the Malay peninsula and was a prize over which Portuguese and Dutch trading interests struggled for years. In 1511, the Portuguese captured Malacca and built a formidable fortress there, A Famosa, with walls 32 feet high and 24 feet thick. The native Achinese resented the presence of the Portuguese and allied themselves with the Dutch in an effort to oust them. In June 1640, a combined Achinese and Dutch fleet blockaded the fortress, and in August ground forces besieged it, cutting off the garrison of 260 Portuguese and some 3,000 locals. Receiving no relief from other Portuguese colonies, the fortress surrendered in January 1641, after some 7,000 had died on both sides, and the Dutch gained mastery of the great spice trade.

Further reading: Diane Lewis, *Jan Compagne in the Straits of Malacca, 1641–1795* (Columbus: Ohio University Press, 1995); George Musselman, *The Cradle of Colonialism* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1963).

Malay Jungle Wars (1948–1960)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Communist and Red Chinese guerrillas vs. Great Britain and Malay Federation
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Malay Federation
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The guerrillas wanted an end to British rule and the installation of a communist government.
OUTCOME: Guerrilla activity was effectively suppressed by 1957, except along the Malay-Thai border, where it persisted through 1960.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Guerrillas, 7,000; Anglo-Malay regulars, 55,000; police, 80,000; Malay Home Guard, 50,000
CASUALTIES: Guerrillas, 6,710 killed, 2,820 wounded, 1,290 captured; Anglo-Malay forces, 2,384 killed, 2,400 wounded; civilian losses, 2,473 killed, 810 abducted and possibly killed
TREATIES: None

The Federation of Malaya was established in 1948 under the mandate supervision of a British high commissioner. Almost immediately after the establishment of the federation, Communist irregulars—many of them Chinese and North Vietnamese—began a widespread guerrilla war against the government, staging raids on government facilities, police stations, and military installations. British and Malay forces swept the country for guerrillas and, by 1949, had succeeded in rounding up or killing hundreds. Within two years, however, the rebels renewed their activities, this time concentrating on rubber plantations, a mainstay of the Malay economy. Plantation workers were killed and rubber trees were destroyed. Sir Herald Briggs (1891–1989), the British high commissioner, instituted strict controls on food in areas believed to harbor large numbers of guerrillas; this tactic effectively starved out many of the insurgents.

Under the Marxist leader Chin Peng (b. 1922), the guerrillas were organized into the Malayan People's Anti-British Army, reaching a peak strength of 7,000, and later redesignated the Malayan Race Liberation Army (MRLA)—a tiny fraction of Malaya's 5.5 million population. Despite its small size and the absence of popular support, the MRLA fought for a dozen years, against an Anglo-Malayan army of 55,000 (which included troops from the British Commonwealth), a local police force of 84,000, and the Malay Home Guard, a force of 50,000.

In 1957, the Malay Federation become an autonomous state in the British Commonwealth, a step that took the wind out of the insurgents' sails. Activity died down. A substantial number of guerrillas even accepted a government offer of amnesty and gave themselves up. Others moved to Sumatra. Nevertheless, a small number of rebels remained active along the Malay border with Thailand and were the focus of intensive government operations, which defeated the last of them in 1960.

Further reading: Barbara Watson Andaya and Leonard Y. Andaya, *History of Malaysia* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 2001); D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981).

Malvinas War, Islas

See FALKLAND ISLANDS WAR.

Mamluk-Ottoman War (1485–1491)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mamluks vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cappadocia (portion of modern Turkey)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mamluks sought control of Lesser Armenia.
OUTCOME: Mostly indecisive; peace was reached after minor territorial cessions were made to the Mamluks.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

Sporadic warfare erupted over possession of a Cappadocian Turkoman territory ruled by the Duldakir dynasty, which had the backing of the Egyptian-based military rulers, the Mamluks. In this region, the Mamluks supported Turkoman nomads in rebellion against the Ottoman Turks and declared sovereignty over Lesser Armenia.

Each year, from 1485 to 1491, the Ottomans campaigned against the Mamluks in the region, and each campaign ended indecisively—although the Mamluks scored a minor triumph in 1488. At last, the Mamluks and Ottomans entered into peace negotiations in 1491. The Ottomans bought Mamluk compliance with a relatively modest territorial concession.

See also MAMLUK-PERSIAN-OTTOMAN WAR (1514–1517).

Further reading: Shai Har-el, *Struggle for Domination in the Middle East: The Ottoman-Mamluk War, 1485–1491* (New York: Brill, 1995); Colin Imber, *The Ottoman Empire, 1300–1650: The Structure of Power* (New York: Palgrave, 2002); Lord Kinross, *The Ottoman Centuries: The Rise and Fall of the Turkish Empire* (New York: Morrow, 1977); Donald P. Little, *History and Historiography of the Mamluks* (Burlington, Vt.: Ashgate Publishing, 1986); Stanford J. Shaw and E. K. Shaw, *History of the Ottoman Empire and Modern Turkey,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976–1977).

Mamluk-Persian-Ottoman War (1514–1517)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mamluks vs. Ottoman Turks; Ottoman Turks vs. Persians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria and Egypt
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ottoman sultan Selim I sought to conquer Mamluk Syria and Egypt, and to put down Shi'ite Persians
OUTCOME: The Mamluk realms fell to Selim; the Persian conflict ended indecisively.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Mamluks, 7,000 killed; Persians, 2,000 killed; Ottomans, 9,000 killed
TREATIES: None

The Persian-Ottoman phase of this conflict is treated in the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1514–1516). As a result of that conflict, the Ottoman forces of Selim I (1467–1520) encroached into Syria, a Mamluk territory, prompting the Mamluk sultan of Egypt, Kansu al-Gauri (d. 1516), to counterattack by invading the Ottoman Empire from Aleppo. Kansu was met by the forces of Selim at Marj-Dabik, 10 miles north of Aleppo, on August 24, 1516, and was severely defeated. The Ottoman army included 8,000 tunissanes, 3,000 Saphis, 15,000 timariot feudal levies, and some 15,000 irregular auxiliaries; the Mamluks had about 28,000 men. The aged Kansu died of a cerebral hemorrhage during the battle, an event that precipitated the total surrender of the Mamluks, who withdrew from Syria, abandoning it to the Ottomans.

Victorious, Selim now pressed his advantages. His armies captured Damascus, Beirut, Gaza, and Jerusalem. To hold these places, Selim immediately installed Ottoman governors, allowed the princes of Lebanon to continue ruling as his vassals, and offered peace to Tuman Bey (d. 1517), the new sultan of Egypt, in exchange for his acceptance of Ottoman overlordship. Tuman Bey rejected Selim's offer, whereupon Selim advanced against Cairo, defeated the army of the sultan at the Battle of Reydaniyya (Ridanieh) on January 22, 1517, then took Cairo. Six thousand Ottomans died in battle, as did 7,000 Mamluks. Operating from the capital city, Selim soon subdued all of Egypt. Having fled, Tuman Bey tried to mount a guerrilla-style resistance, but was captured and summarily executed.

In the aftermath of the Battle of Reydaniyya and the occupation of Cairo, some 50,000 Mamluks may have been slain; however, after this orgy of violence, Selim I made no further reprisals against those who had been loyal to Tuman Bey and even appointed leading Mamluks to positions of high office in his administration of Egypt.

See also MAMLUK-OTTOMAN WAR (1485–1491).

Further reading: Colin Imber, *The Ottoman Empire, 1300–1650: The Structure of Power* (New York: Palgrave, 2002); Lord Kinross, *The Ottoman Centuries: The Rise and Fall of the Turkish Empire* (New York: Morrow, 1977); Donald P. Little, *History and Historiography of the Mamluks* (Burlington, Vt.: Ashgate Publishing, 1986); Stanford J. Shaw and E. K. Shaw, *History of the Ottoman Empire and Modern Turkey,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976–1977).

Mamluk Revolt

See CRUSADE, SEVENTH (1248–1254).

Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu-Ming War (1618–1628)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Mings (with Korean alliance)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Manchus sought the overthrow of the Ming dynasty.
OUTCOME: Although the Mings suffered many reversals, and the Koreans were badly defeated, the Manchus were unable to overthrow the Mings; however, the Ming dynasty was undermined by the conflict and went into precipitous collapse later in the century.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Manchu, 170,000; Ming, numbers unknown; Ming-allied Koreans, 20,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown

TREATIES: Presumably, formal agreements were made between the Mings and the Koreans.

The Manchu state emerged in China during 1600–1615, and by 1618, when war broke out between the Manchus and Mings, the Manchu army consisted of Manchus, Mongols, and Chinese: approximately 170,000 men. Led by Nurhachi (1559–1626), also known as Tian Ming (T'ien Ming), part of this force overran and captured a Ming stronghold at Fushun (Fu-shan) in 1618. A counterattack was launched against the captured position and was repulsed. To help put down what it regarded as a Manchu revolt, the Ming recruited 20,000 Koreans. Despite the augmented force, the Mings suffered a defeat at Shenyang. The city surrendered to the Manchus, who used Ming turncoats to destroy a bridge and thereby trap the Ming army in the city in 1621.

The advance of the Manchus was finally arrested in 1623 when, near the Great Wall, the Ming governor Yuan Chonghuan (Yuan Ch'unghuan; fl. 17th century) used artillery borrowed from Jesuit missionaries to fire on the Manchus. This turned them west, toward Mongolia.

The Manchu leader Nurhachi died in 1626 and was succeeded by his son Abahai (1592–1643, also known as Taizong [T'ai Tsung]). In 1627 he led an invasion into Korea to neutralize this important Ming ally. Abahai invaded during the winter, crossing the frozen Yalu River. His forces succeeded in defeating the Koreans and, this done, he turned back to Ming China. In 1628, however, the renewed Manchu invasion was again repulsed. As before, the victorious Ming general was Yuan Chonghuan, and, also as before, the key weapon was European artillery. The Manchus turned their attention to northern China (*see* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA).

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1975); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); Jonathan D. Spence and John E. Wills, Jr., *From Ming to Ch'ing: Conquest, Region and Continuity in Seventeenth-Century China* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1981).

Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Invasion of Korea (1627)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Koreans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Korea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Manchus wanted dominion over Korea, in part to end the Korean-Ming alliance.
OUTCOME: After a swift invasion, Korea fell to Manchu vassalage.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Agreement to vassalage and tribute

This invasion resulted more in the conclusion of a vassalage agreement than in an outright conquest. Until forces of the Manchus (Qing [Ch'ing] dynasty) descended upon the Korean Peninsula in 1627, the Koreans had supported the Ming dynasty in China and had supplied military aid to check the advance of the Manchus from the north of Manchuria. Once the Manchus had invaded their country, however, the Koreans found they were no match for the magnificent Manchu army. A stout resistance was offered, but the territory was quickly conquered. In exchange for a change of allegiance from the Ming to the Manchu, the payment of a modest tribute, and an agreement to submit to Manchu vassalage, the Koreans were left essentially to rule themselves—but had been neutralized as Ming allies.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH Q'ING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA:

MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1975); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); Jonathan D. Spence and John E. Wills, Jr., *From Ming to Ch'ing: Conquest, Region and Continuity in Seventeenth-Century China* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1981).

Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Raids on North China (1629–1634)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Mings
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern China and Shansi Province
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Manchus wanted to overthrow the Ming dynasty.
OUTCOME: The raids into northern China significantly weakened the already faltering Ming.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Repulsed by the Ming at the conclusion of the MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR in 1628, the Manchus turned to the north and launched an invasion into northern China by way of the Chengde Pass. Ming forces repulsed them here; however, the Manchu then descended upon Shanxi (Shansi) province in two sets of raids, during 1632 and 1634, causing considerable destruction.

Recognizing the power and effectiveness of artillery, which had repulsed him twice during the Manchu-Ming War (1618–28), the Manchu leader Abahai (1592–1643) began developing artillery weapons and artillery units of his own. These he began to use against the Ming in open battle, and while the raids into northern China did not culminate in the overthrow of the Ming, they did weaken the dynasty, which went into steep decline before mid-century.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

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Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Conquest of Inner Mongolia (1633)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Mongol army
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Inner Mongolia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of Inner Mongolia, with the object of further weakening the Ming hold on China.
OUTCOME: The Manchus were able to coax massive troop defections from the Mongol ranks and thereby overrun the country.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but generally light
TREATIES: None

While in the north (*see* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA), a portion of the Manchu invading force was detached and sent into Inner Mongolia. Working with Mongolian defectors (a large group of soldiers who rebelled against harsh conditions in the Mongol army) the Manchu forces systematically overran the country, absorbing more and more Mongol troops into their ranks. By the end of the year, the Mongol army had been thoroughly compromised, and the Manchus were in control of Inner Mongolia.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS;

MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST China; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

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Manchu Conquest of China: Chinese (Ming) Civil Wars (1635–1644)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Li Zicheng (Li Tzu-ch'eng) (and other warlords, including Manchus and leaders of independent factions) vs. the Ming dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Throughout China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: General rebellion against Ming rule
OUTCOME: The Ming dynasty was overthrown.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Li Zicheng commanded as many as 300,000 men; although Ming forces were of commensurate size, they were led with disastrous ineffectiveness.
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but doubtless extremely heavy among the Ming defenders of Beijing (Peking)
TREATIES: None

The CHINESE CIVIL WAR of 1621–44 may be seen, in part, as a function of Manchu efforts to overthrow the Ming dynasty. As a result of relentless Manchu military campaigning (*see* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA, and MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER Mongolia), the Ming dynasty entered a period of steep decline during 1635–44, coinciding with the culmination of the Chinese Civil War of this period.

Rebellion was widespread throughout China, as the Ming rulers reeled under the Manchu onslaught and fell victim to the devastating effects of famine and flood as well as intense political intrigue. Many throughout China were bereft of their homes, and warlords, some independent, some in the service of the Manchu, recruited legions of the homeless and desperate in a struggle against the Mings.

The warlord Li Zicheng (1606–45) made an unsuccessful attempt to capture the provincial capital of Sichuan (Szechwan) in 1637. Defeated but not beaten, he marched into Shanxi (Shansi), defeated the Ming presence there, then, in 1640, did the same in Henan (Honan). By 1642, both Shanxi and Henan were under his control. Declaring himself emperor, he mustered an army of 300,000 and marched against Beijing, the imperial capital. The capital was defended by forces of ample size; however, two Ming armies were commanded by bitter rivals, who refused to cooperate and coordinate their defense. The result was disastrous defeat. Li Zizcheng's army entered the city in triumph, the last of the Ming emperors committed suicide, and the warlord briefly assumed the throne.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST China; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

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Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Establish Qing Dynasty (1636)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Mings
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Consolidation of power, proclamation of a new Qing (Ch'ing) dynasty.
OUTCOME: The culmination of wars on several fronts, the establishment of the Qing dynasty ensured the ultimate success of the Manchus.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following or concurrently with the MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR, from 1618 to 1628, the MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA, from 1629 to 1634, the MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER Mongolia in 1633, MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS, from 1635 to 1644, and the MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA, from 1636 to 1637, and at the start of Manchu consolidation of positions in the Amur Basin (during 1636–44), Abahai (1592–1643), dynamic leader of the Manchus, proclaimed a new imperial dynasty, the Qing, at Shenyang. Abahai took the title of Chongde (Ch'ung-te).

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1975); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); Jonathan D. Spence and John E. Wills, Jr., *From Ming to Ch'ing: Conquest, Region and Continuity in Seventeenth-Century China* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1981).

Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Conquest of Korea (1636–1637)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Koreans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Korea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Manchus sought to compel Korean renunciation of the Mings.
OUTCOME: The renunciation was secured.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Manchus, 100,000; Koreans, numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Allied to the Mings (*see* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR), the Koreans failed to render tribute to the Manchus during the decline of the Ming dynasty. Moreover, the Koreans, for the most part, refused to cooperate with the Manchus in campaigns against the Mings. For these reasons, Abahai, the Manchu leader, invaded Korea with a force of 100,000. This was sufficient to overawe the Koreans, whose rulers agreed to a formal renunciation of the Ming dynasty.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER Mongolia; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST China; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

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Manchu Conquest of China: Li Zicheng's Rebellion and Fall of the Ming (1644)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Li Zicheng (Li Tzu-ch'eng) and, separately, the Ming
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Beijing (Peking), China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A desperate Ming general called for Manchu aid to eject rebels from Beijing; this effectively invited Manchu occupation of the capital.
OUTCOME: Victorious over the rebels, the Manchus occupied Beijing, thereby completing the overthrow of the Ming dynasty and its replacement by the Qing (Ch'ing).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Numbers not known, but the Manchu force was very large and significantly outnumbered the forces under Li Zicheng.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Manchus had steadily eroded the power of the Ming dynasty through the MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR, MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA, MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA, MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS, and the MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA, and in 1636, proclaimed the Qing dynasty (*see* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY). The Ming were ripe to fall, and on May 26, 1644, Li Zicheng (1606–45), a rebel leader and social bandit, overran and occupied Beijing. In desperation, the Ming general Wu Sangui (Wu San-kuei; d. 1678) called on the Manchus for aid in overthrowing Li and his rebel regime. The Manchus rushed in with a large army and, in a momentous battle fought a short distance to the south of the Great Wall, the Manchus defeated Li Zicheng. The Manchus now occupied Beijing, thereby bringing about the final collapse of the Ming dynasty and its replacement by the Qing.

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1975); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); Jonathan D. Spence and John E. Wills, Jr., *From Ming to Ch'ing: Conquest, Region and Continuity in Seventeenth-Century China* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1981).

Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu-Ming War for Yangtze Valley (1644–1645)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Mings (under Prince Fu)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Yangzhou (Yangchow) and Nanjing (Nanking) area
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Prince Fu sought to resist the final Manchu takeover.
OUTCOME: After a bloody battle and subsequent massacre, Nanjing fell to the Manchus and Fu fled the field.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Virtually all of the Ming army in and around Yangzhou and Nanjing was slaughtered; civilian casualties were extremely high.
TREATIES: None

The Manchu occupation of Beijing (Peking) in Li Zicheng's Li Tzu-ch'eng's (1606–45) 1644 rebellion (*see* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING), for all practical purposes, brought about the final collapse of the Ming dynasty and its displacement by the Qing (Ch'ing) dynasty; however, the Ming prince Fu (r. 1644–45) set up a Ming government in exile at Nanjing, boldly defying Manchu invaders.

The Manchu prince Dorgon (1611–46) led an army against Fu in a week-long battle that centered around Yangzhou. The Ming army was defeated, and the Manchus followed their victory with a general massacre, not only of the defeated army, but of the civilian inhabitants of the Yangzhou area. This rapidly brought about the surrender of Nanjing. Fu fled and became lost to history. The Manchu—as the Qing—now faced sporadic, though stiff, resistance from members of the Ming royal family (cousins of those who had been in the direct line of succession). Although often destructive, this opposition never posed a serious threat of reestablishing the Ming dynasty.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST China; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

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Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Conquest of Fujian (1645–1647)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Mings
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Fujian (Fukien) Province
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Manchus exploited dissension and disunity among remaining members of the Ming royal family to conquer Fujian.
OUTCOME: Guangzhou (Kwangchow) and Fujian fell to the Manchus.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As a direct result of the fall of Beijing (Peking) in the 1644 MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S [LI TZU-CH'ENG'S] REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING, the Ming dynasty was effectively crushed; however, resistance persisted at Nanjing and Yangzhou (*see* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY). This was brutally crushed, but sporadic Ming resistance continued among rival claimants to the Ming throne. Recognizing that the internal disputes among these claimants rendered the remaining Ming useless as a force of resistance, the Manchus exploited the dissension by campaigning through Fujian Province. In 1647, the Manchus were in possession of Guangzhou, and Ming resistance in the province had been completely neutralized, leaving only significant pockets of Ming opposition in Sichuan (Szechwan), Shaanxi (Shensi), and Shanxi (Shansi).

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST China; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

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Manchu Conquest of China: Gui Wang's Campaigns (1648–1651)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Ming forces under Prince Gui (Kuei Wang)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Gui, the last Ming prince, sought to maintain control of southern China.
OUTCOME: Prince Gui was defeated by Manchu forces under Prince Dorgon and forced to retreat to the mountains of the southwest.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: More than 100,000 died in Guangzhou.
TREATIES: None

The last prince of the Mings, Gui (d. 1662), attracted a significant following of Ming diehards following the otherwise virtually total collapse of the dynasty. Prince Gui was a fine military leader, who was able to seize control of much of southern China, albeit briefly. Dorgon (1611–46), who had assumed leadership of the Manchus following the death of his brother Abahai (1592–1643), countered Gui by consolidating the Manchu hold on the Yangtze Valley. From this vast base, Dorgon was able to conduct a systematic campaign to retake southern China, mounting a siege of Canton, the most important Ming-held city in the south. In 1651, after eight months, some 100,000 Cantonese had died. Gui was driven out of the region and took refuge in the mountains of the southwest. There he took control, again briefly, over Guizhou (Kweichow) and Yunnan (*see* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST CHINA).

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1975); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); Jonathan D. Spence and John E. Wills, Jr., *From Ming to Ch'ing: Conquest, Region and Continuity in Seventeenth-Century China* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1981).

Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Conquest of Southwest China (1651–1659)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Mings under Prince Gui (Kuei Wang)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mountains of southwest China (Guizhou [Kweichow] and Yunnan region)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Kuei Wang sought to retain control of this region.
OUTCOME: Through an arduous campaign, the Manchus wrested the mountainous southwest from Kuei Wang.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following his defeat in most of southern China, Gui Wang (d. 1662), last of the Ming princes, retreated to the mountains of the southwest, where he continued to control Guizhou and Yunnan (*see* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS). In the southwestern mountains, Gui Wang enjoyed the advantage of rugged terrain that made for effective defensive positions and was extremely difficult on any attacker. Nevertheless, through application of a long, patient, systematic, and persistent campaign, the Manchus gained control of the region. As for Gui Wang, he evaded capture, dying from natural causes in 1662.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1975); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); Jonathan D. Spence and John E. Wills, Jr., *From Ming to Ch'ing: Conquest, Region and Continuity in Seventeenth-Century China* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1981).

Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu-Ming Pirate War (1652–1662)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. (separately) Dutch and Ming-allied pirates under Koxinga
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nanjing and nearby coastal provinces
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The pirates sought and obtained control of a large coastal region.
OUTCOME: The pirates prevailed wherever they struck, but the death of their leader, Koxinga, in 1662, brought the pirate menace to an end.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the collapse of the Mings in 1659, a pirate family in the employ of the Mings continued to wage war against the Manchus. The most famous of the pirate leaders was Zheng Chenggong (Cheg Ch'eng-kung; 1624–62), known to the Europeans (whom the pirates also fought) as Koxinga.

Koxinga's harassment of the Manchus was constant and effective. In 1653, he captured Xiamen and, three years later, Chongming Island. This put him in position to mount a successful assault on Nanjing in 1657.

While he kept the Manchus occupied, Koxinga also attacked the European presence in China, most dramatically at Taiwan, which he attacked with a fleet of 900 ships in 1661. After he held Fort Zelanda (at Anping) under siege from 1661 to 1662, the Dutch surrendered, and the Manchus—or Qing—had to evacuate six coastal provinces. The Qing leaders withdrew settlers 10 miles inland and provided a guarded barrier for their defense.

Ultimately, it was the death of the charismatic Koxinga, not Manchu military might, that ended the pirate scourge in 1662.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VAL-

LEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST China; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

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Manchu Conquest of China: Revolt of the Three Viceroys (1674–1681)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus (Qing, Ch'ing) vs. rebellious viceroys of Yunnan, Jiangxi (Kiangsi), and Fujian (Fukien) Provinces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Yunnan, Jiangxi, and Fujian Provinces
DECLARATION: None, but the revolt was precipitated by an imperial Qing decree of 1673, ordering the removal of three provincial viceroys
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The viceroys resisted an imperial Qing order for their removal.
OUTCOME: The rebel viceroys held a vast territory for several years, but patient and persistent application of military force finally quelled the rebellion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1673, the Qing emperor Kangxi (K'ang-hsi; 1654–1722), concerned over the consolidation of power among three of his provincial viceroys or governors, at Yunnan, Jiangxi, and Fujian, ordered their removal. The viceroy of Yunnan, Wu Sangui (Wu San-kuei; 1612–78), formerly a Ming general, resisted removal and took a stand in Sichuan Guizhou, Hunan, and Guangxi Zhuangzu, tenaciously holding these provinces. He was joined in his resistance by the viceroys of Jiangxi and Fujian. Through continual application of military pressure, however, the rebellion was quelled by 1681, Qing control reestablished, and the removal of the viceroys finally effected.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN; and MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

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Manchu Conquest of China: Annexation of Taiwan (1683)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Taiwanese
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Taiwan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Annexation of Taiwan
OUTCOME: Faced with the overwhelming power of the Manchus, the ruler of Taiwan yielded to them and accepted annexation of the island.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Formal annexation documentation, 1683; this was a political settlement.

Following the Manchu wars of conquest and the successful suppression of rebels between 1674 and 1681 in the Revolt of the Three Viceroys (*see* MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS), Zheng Keshuang (Cheng K'o shuang; 1670–1707 B.C.E.) son and successor to Zheng Jin (Cheng Chin; d. 1681) (fl. mid 17th century), surrendered Taiwan to the Manchus without offering significant resistance.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA:

MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET.

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Manchu Conquest of Tibet (1720)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchus vs. Dzungar Mongols
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tibet
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Tibet
OUTCOME: The Manchus took control of Tibet from the Dzungars, installing a garrison as well as a pliable Dalai Lama.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Three Chinese armies, presumably a total of about 30,000; Mongol numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Manchu (Qing or Ch'ing) ruler Kanxi (K'ang-hsi; 1645–1722) dispatched two armies to invade Tibet. One advanced from Gansu, and the other from Sichuan. The invasion came swiftly and with much violence. The armies converged against the Dzungars, destroying many, and driving out of the region those who survived.

While this operation was under way, a third Manchu army invaded Junggar and captured Urumqi and Turfan. The Mongol forces resisted in large part with European-supplied muskets—the first time they made use of this weapon. Nevertheless, the weapon was new to them, and they did not use it with tactical effectiveness. The Manchu forces were larger and better equipped, and they overwhelmed the Mongols here as well.

The Manchus installed a new Dalai Lama, Kelzang Gyatso (1708–57), popular with the Tibetans and yet compliant with Manchu wishes. This puppet ruler was supplemented by a Manchu garrison installed at Lhasa, and thus Manchu control of Tibet was established and consolidated.

See also MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU INVASION OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU RAIDS ON NORTH CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF INNER MONGOLIA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU ESTABLISH QING DYNASTY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: CHINESE (MING) CIVIL WARS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: LI ZICHENG'S REBELLION AND FALL OF THE MING; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF KOREA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING WAR FOR YANGTZE VALLEY; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF FUJIAN; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: GUI WANG'S CAMPAIGNS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU CONQUEST OF SOUTHWEST CHINA; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: MANCHU-MING PIRATE WAR; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: REVOLT OF THE THREE VICEROYS; MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA: ANNEXATION OF TAIWAN.

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Mandingo-French War, First (1885–1886)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. the Mandingo tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ivory Coast, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The French sought control of the Ivory Coast; the Mandingo resisted.
OUTCOME: The Mandingo were defeated, and the French asserted control over the country, but the principal Mandingo leader, Almamy Samory Touré, evaded capture and organized a new resistance.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French and French colonial forces, about 2,000; Mandingo, 40,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Led by Chief Almamy Samory Touré (d. 1900), the Mandingo tribes of the Ivory Coast, West Africa, resisted French colonial forces, especially in the interior portions of the country. Samory was a natural military leader, who deployed his forces effectively, dividing them into corps, divisions, and companies. A major battle in 1886 resulted in the defeat of the Mandingo, but Almamy Samory Touré escaped, and the Mandingo accepted the Niger River as an absolute frontier. Although the French asserted control of the Ivory Coast, Samory resurfaced in 1894 to continue resistance in the SECOND MANDINGO-FRENCH WAR the following year.

Further reading: J. F. A. Ajayi and Michael Crowder, *History of West Africa,* 2nd ed., 2 vols. (London: Longman, 1976–1987); J. D. Fage and Roland Oliver, eds., *The Cambridge History of West Africa,* 8 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1975–1980); David L. Lewis, *The Race to Fashoda: Colonialism and African Resistance* (New York: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1987); Rodney Steel, *History of West Africa* (New York: Facts On File, 2003).

Mandingo-French War, Second (1894–1895)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (with some British aid) vs. the Mandingo tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ivory Coast, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The French sought control of the Ivory Coast; the Mandingo resisted and maintained control of the country's interior.
OUTCOME: Several French campaigns were launched into the interior; all failed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After their victory in the First MANDINGO-FRENCH WAR, France declared a protectorate over the Ivory Coast; however, renewed resistance led by the Mandingo chief Almamy Samory Touré (d. 1900) kept French colonists out of the country's interior.

The French, sometimes with British assistance, fought 13 major battles and participated in many guerrilla actions, but the war ended inconclusively—although Samory had lost ground. It was not until the Third MANDINGO-FRENCH WAR in 1898 that Samory was captured and the Mandingo resistance definitively ended.

Further reading: J. F. A. Ajayi and Michael Crowder, *History of West Africa,* 2nd ed., 2 vols. (London: Longman, 1976–1987); J. D. Fage and Roland Oliver, eds., *The Cambridge History of West Africa,* 8 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1975–1980); David L. Lewis, *The Race to Fashoda: Colonialism and African Resistance* (New York: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1987); Rodney Steel, *History of West Africa* (New York: Facts On File, 2003).

Mandingo-French War, Third (1898)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. the Mandingo tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ivory Coast, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This was the third French effort to wrest control of the Ivory Coast interior from the Mandingo under Chief Almamy Samory.
OUTCOME: With the capture of Almamy Samory, the Mandingo resistance collapsed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, unknown; Mandingo, 28,000 combatants, 120,000 noncombatant followers
CASUALTIES: Total Mandingo casualties (all three wars), 50,000 dead; French and French colonial losses unknown
TREATIES: None

Twice before, French colonial forces had attempted to extend into the interior their control over the Ivory Coast. The First MANDINGO-FRENCH WAR resulted in a French victory over the Mandingo, but it did not put a permanent end to their resistance because their leader, Chief Almamy Samory Touré (d. 1900), remained at large and was able to organize an effective guerrilla campaign in the Second MANDINGO-FRENCH WAR. After repeated failures in this second war, a new French military campaign was mounted into the Ivory Coast interior. When the Mandingo fortress town of Sikasso fell to a French siege, Samory lost his chief logistical support. He agreed to negotiate with the French, who violated his flag of truce, and captured him on September 29, 1898. Samory was exiled to Gabon, a decapitating blow to the Mandingo, who relinquished control of the interior to the French. Samory Touré died in exile on June 21, 1900.

Further reading: J. F. A. Ajayi and Michael Crowder, *History of West Africa,* 2nd ed., 2 vols. (London: Longman, 1976–1987); J. D. Fage and Roland Oliver, eds., *The Cambridge History of West Africa,* 8 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1975–1980); David L. Lewis, *The Race to Fashoda: Colonialism and African Resistance* (New York: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1987); Rodney Steel, *History of West Africa* (New York: Facts On File, 2003).

Maniaces, Revolt of (1043)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of General George Maniaces vs. the Byzantine Empire

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vicinity of Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Maniaces revolted against the usurping emperor Constantine IX Monomachus
OUTCOME: The revolt ended abruptly when Maniaces fell victim to "friendly fire."
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

George Maniaces (d. 1043) was an exceedingly capable Byzantine general who was twice unjustly accused of treason. Emperor Michael V Calaphates (d. post 1042) saw to his release from prison after Maniaces was convicted the first time, and, by way of compensation for his wrongful imprisonment, gave him the Italian provinces to rule. In 1043, Maniaces was campaigning against Muslim invaders in his Italian realm when he was again accused of treason, this time by the new emperor, Constantine IX Monomachus (c. 1000–55), who demanded his return to Constantinople. Maniaces, who was loyal to Michael V Calaphates, the emperor whom Constantine IX Monomachus had deposed, refused to return. Instead he raised a rebellion, was proclaimed emperor by his troops, and launched a battle against the forces of the empire. The revolt disintegrated when Maniaces was felled by an arrow accidentally discharged by one of his own men.

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Apogee*. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2001).

Mantuan Succession, War of the (1628–1631)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Houses of Savoy and Gonzaga vs. the Holy Roman Empire, and, separately, Duke Charles of Nevers and France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mantua and Montferrat
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The parties each sought possession of Mantua and Montferrat.
OUTCOME: With French military support, the duke of Nevers made good his claim to both Mantua and Montferrat.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Cherasco, April 26, 1631

This war may be seen as a phase of the THIRTY YEARS' WAR. The house of Savoy conferred the duchy of Montferrat on the Mantua-based House of Gonzaga, subject to the further will of the Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand II (1578–1637). Montferrat fell to a female Gonzaga heir, Maria Gonzaga whereas possession of Mantua went to the French duke of Nevers, Frederico (1573–1637). He married off his son, Charles de Rethel (d. 1665), to the Gonzaga heiress, Maria, in order to secure both Montferrat and Mantua. At this point, the house of Savoy sought to reclaim Montferrat while, simultaneously, a Gonzaga relative laid claim to Mantua. While this conflict developed, Ferdinand II sent an army across the Alps to take Mantua and Milan. His forces sacked Mantua in 1630, forcing Savoy to agree to divide Montferrat with him. At this juncture, King Louis XIII (1601–43) of France sent an army in aid of the duke of Nevers, thereby rescuing Mantua from total destruction by the Holy Roman Emperor's army.

The following year, a French army under Cardinal Richelieu (1585–1642) conquered both Mantua and Montferrat for the duke of Nevers.

Further reading: Ronald G. Ash, *The Thirty Years' War: The Holy Roman Empire and Europe, 1618–1648* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1997); Geoffrey Parker, ed. *The Thirty Years' War* (New York: Routledge, 1997).

Manzikert Campaign

See BYZANTINE–SELJUK TURK WAR (1064–1081).

Maori War, First

See BAY OF ISLANDS WAR; WAIRAU AFFRAY IN NEW ZEALAND.

Maori War, Second

See TARANAKI WAR, FIRST; TARANAKI WAR, SECOND; TARANAKI WAR, THIRD.

Maratha-Mogul War (1647–1665)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Marathas vs. the Moguls
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hindu Marathas sought to create an empire at the expense of the Muslim Moguls.
OUTCOME: The Moguls prevailed at the Battle of Purandhar, forcing the surrender of the Maratha prince.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Marathas, 60,000; Mogul numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Purandhar, 1665

The Marathas were a Hindu warrior people with whom the Hindu prince Shivaji Bhonsle (1627–80) identified himself. When, aged 19, he inherited his family's lands in 1647, Shivaji decided to found a Hindu empire free from Mogul oppression and tyranny. Operating from the Western Ghats near Pune, he launched an offensive against Bijapur (a Muslim state) and, after conquering it, constructed a series of hilltop fortifications. He proceeded systematically to acquire territory and by 1653 dominated the region from Goa to the Bhima River and was poised to take much of the Deccan. He called his new empire Maharashtra and, from it, he launched raids against various Mogul holdings. In the meantime, he built a navy to counter any interference from European traders.

In 1664, Shivaji Bhonsle attacked Surat, site of a major English trading facility on the Gulf of Khambhat. This roused the Mogul emperor, Aurangzeb (1618–1707), to action. He sent a force under the able commander Jai Singh (fl. 17th century) to Bijapur. Forming an alliance with Adil Shah (d. 1672), the Muslim sultan there, he mounted an attack in 1665 against Purandhar, a principal Maratha fort. Defeated, Shivaji surrendered most of his forts and consented to send his son, Sambhaji (1657–89) as a political hostage to Agra, the former Mogul capital and still a key city. A short time later, Shivaji decided to go to Agra himself, but, finding that he was to be treated as a prisoner, not a political hostage, he escaped—in 1670—and prepared a new war against the Moguls (*see* MARATHA-MOGUL WAR [1670–80]).

Further reading: Stewart Gordon, *Marathas 1600–1818* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Francis Watson, *A Concise History of India* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1981).

Maratha-Mogul War (1670–1680)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Marathas vs. Moguls
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Maratha ruler Shivaji Bhonsle resumed his war of conquest against the Moguls.
OUTCOME: Shivaji acquired a vast realm at Mogul expense.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After escaping Mogul captivity, Shivaji Bhonsle (1627–-80), founder of the Maratha kingdom of Maharashtra (*see* MARATHA-MOGUL WAR [1647–1665]) resumed war against the Moguls. He quickly recaptured the 23 forts and associated territories ceded by the Treaty of Purandhar. Surat was sacked, and Khandesh and Berar invaded.

The Muslim leader Jai Singh (fl. 17th century) received Mogul reinforcements and, with these, counterattacked. By 1672, the Mogul army had been increased under a new general, Bahadur Khan (fl. 17th century), and made significant advances against Shivaji. Shivaji outmaneuvered the Moguls, however, and captured large portions of Bijapur after the death of the local sultan, Adil Shah (d. 1672). Within two years, Shivaji acquired enough territory at Mogul expense to prompt him to assume the magnificent title of *chatrapati,* Lord of the Universe.

Bijapur, parts of which Shivaji now controlled, was an independent Muslim state vulnerable to attack by the Moguls. If the Moguls seized Bijapur, they could easily use it as a base from which to mount attacks against Maharashtra. To forestall this, Shivaji invaded the Carnatic region and forged an alliance with the Golconda and conquered the Jinji. Thus greatly strengthened, he was in a position to compel Bijapur to cede territories. In return for these cessions, Shivaji pledged to fight side by side with Bijapur to defeat the Moguls. By 1680, the Maratha territories stretched from the Narmada River to Goa and, eastward, to Nagpur in central India. Shivaji's death in 1680 brought only a year's intermission in the fighting, which resumed in 1681 as the MARATHA-MOGUL WAR (1681–1705).

Further reading: Stewart Gordon, *Marathas 1600–1818* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Francis Watson, *A Concise History of India* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1981).

Maratha-Mogul War (1681–1705)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Marathas vs. Moguls
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Deccan region of India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Marathas and Moguls contested for possession of the Deccan.
OUTCOME: War was chronic during this period until, aged and infirm, the Mogul emperor Aurangzeb left the Deccan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Maratha numbers unknown; the Mogul camp became a mobile city of 500,000, many of these capable of combat
CASUALTIES: In the hundreds of thousands
TREATIES: None

The MARATHA-MOGUL WAR (1670–80) ended with the death of the founder of Maharashtra, Shivaji Bhonsle (1627–80), but a new war began in 1681 with the ascension to the Maratha throne of Shivaji's son, Sambhaji (1657–89). It was not a straightforward continuation of the earlier conflict, however. As a result of defeat in the

MARATHA-MOGUL WAR (1647–1665), Shivaji had sent Sambhaji to Agra, seat of the Mogul court, as a hostage. Raised among the Moguls, Sambhaji defected for a time to the Mogul side. At the same time, Akbar (d. 1704), son of the Mogul emperor Aurangzeb (1618–1707), defected to the Hindu Rajputs. Akbar prevailed upon Sambhaji to unite with him in an assault upon Agra.

To counter Akbar and Sambhaji, Aurangzeb and his court moved from Agra in 1681 to create a large "temporary" tent city (it actually endured for 24 years) in the Deccan. From this mobile base, housing some 500,000 people, Aurangzeb led successful attacks against Bijapur (in 1686) and Golconda (in 1687) while the Marathas in turn raided him. In 1689, without intending to do so, Aurangzeb captured Sambhaji and other Maratha leaders and put them all to death. Raja Ram (d. 1700), Sambhaji's brother, took up the war, and when he died in 1700, his widow, Tarabai (fl. 17th century), continued to lead the battle in what had become a civil war among the disrupted and divided Marathas and against Aurangzeb, who occupied and left one Maratha fortress town after another, after each was retaken by the Marathas.

Warfare was chronic in the Deccan until 1705, when Aurangzeb, aged and infirm, abandoned the region and settled in Ahmadnagar to the north. His death two years later ensured the absolute end of a war that, in its final years, from about 1700 to 1705, killed perhaps as many as 100,000 annually.

Further reading: Stewart Gordon, *Marathas 1600–1818* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Francis Watson, *A Concise History of India* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1981).

Maratha War, First (1775–1782)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British East India Company vs. the Maratha Confederacy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bombay region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British East India Company exploited Maratha disunity to make territorial gains.
OUTCOME: The British East India Company acquired an island off Bombay and effectively neutralized the Maratha Confederacy for 20 years, providing an opportunity for the company to gain control of more territory.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: British, 6,000; Maratha, 56,000
CASUALTIES: British, 864 killed; Maratha losses unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Sabai, May 7, 1782

The Maratha Confederacy was born of the disintegration of Maharashtra, the kingdom founded by Shivaji Bhonsle (1627–80) about 1647 and that had survived chronic warfare with the Moguls through the beginning of the 18th century (*see* MARATHA-MOGUL WAR [1647–1665], MARATHA-MOGUL WAR [1670–1680], MARATHA-MOGUL WAR [1681–1705]). The confederacy was hardly a kingdom or nation, but merely a loose union of five clans with a capital city at Poona. Leadership authority was ostensibly vested in a *peshwa* (chief) headquartered at Poona, but he never enjoyed uncontested power. The British East India Company exploited the factionalism among the clans of the Maratha Confederacy to acquire control of Indian territories. In 1775, the company backed Narayan Rao (fl. late 18th century), a former peshwa, in his bid for power, promising him troops in exchange for treasure and territory. An early assault on Poona in 1775 failed, as did a campaign in the Deccan in January 1779. On the 12th, 2,600 British troops attacked the Maratha capital at Poona, losing 352 killed or wounded before negotiating a withdrawal from Maratha territory. Despite this negotiated withdrawal, on February 15, 1780, a contingent of 6,000 British soldiers stormed the fortress of Ahmadabad. At the cost of 106 British casualties, the Maratha garrison was dislodged. This victory marked a turning point in the war. On August 3, 1780, the clifftop fortress of Gwalior was breached by 2,000 Anglo-Indian troops and captured without loss. Although this checkmated the Marathas, the war continued, indecisively, for two more years until it was concluded by the Treaty of Sabai on May 7, 1782. The Maratha defeat in 1780 also ended their participation in the First MYSORE WAR.

As a result of the First Maratha War, the British East India Company acquired an island near Bombay and rendered the Maratha Confederacy neutral for the next two decades, during which the British made many more territorial gains, thereby laying the foundation for what would become British domination of the subcontinent.

See also MARATHA WAR, SECOND; MARATHA WAR, THIRD.

Maratha War, Second (1803–1805)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British East India Company vs. the Sinhai clan of the Maratha Confederacy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British East India Company sought to establish its dominance in central India.
OUTCOME: The British East India Company gained control of Poona and much of central India.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anglo-British forces, 50,000; Maratha forces, 85,000

CASUALTIES: Anglo-British, 9,209 killed or wounded; Maratha, about 42,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Bassein, 1802: basis of the war

The victory of the British East India Company against the Maratha Confederacy in the First MARATHA WAR and the conquest of the Mysore in the Fourth MYSORE WAR allowed the British East India Company to focus once again on confederacy in a campaign to acquire control of southern India. Advantageously for the British, the confederacy, after two decades of military inactivity, was no more unified than it had been at the time of the First Maratha War. The *peshwa* (head) of the Maratha Confederacy at this time was Baji Rao II (1775–1851), who was, however, opposed by the Sindhai (one of the confederacy's constituent clans). In 1802, the British had concluded the Treaty of Bassein with Baji Rao, promising defensive aid.

When the Sindhai captured Poona in 1803 and deposed Baji Rao II, the British demanded his restoration. This touched off a war of far greater proportions and cost than the First Maratha War.

The Marathas fielded two armies, approximately 85,000 men. British resources consisted of 50,000 Anglo-British troops.

The British began in earnest in August 1803, when forces under General Arthur Wellesley, the future duke of Wellington (1769–1852), took Ahmadnagar (August 11). On September 23, however, the Marathas counterattacked. Although Wellesley held his position, total Anglo-Indian casualties of 1,584 were among the heaviest sustained in any Indian battle up to that time.

Wellesley was again victorious on November 29, 1803, at Argaum, when his 11,000 Anglo-Indian troops routed 40,000, inflicting some 5,000 casualties. The following month, another Anglo-Indian force laid siege to the fort at Gawilghur from December 12 to December 15, ultimately storming it, then slaughtering 3,000 of the fort's 4,000 defenders—at a cost of only 14 killed and 112 wounded among the attackers.

While these victories were being won in the south, another British force was fighting a brilliant campaign on the north Indian plain. The Maratha fortress of Aligarh fell on September 4, 1803, and, on September 11, near Delhi, the British fielded 4,500 men against a Maratha force of 14,000, inflicting more than 3,000 casualties at a cost of 478 killed or wounded. From here, the Anglo-Indian army marched on Agra, site of the Taj Mahal. Agra was besieged during October 4–18, before finally falling.

At Laswari, on November 1, the British were again victorious, pounding at 9,000 Maratha infantry, who refused to yield until 7,000 of their number had fallen.

The Sindhai Marathas formally surrendered on December 20, but Jaswant Rao Holkar of Indore (d. 1811) remained defiant. British forces pursued him—he had come to lead some 60,000 cavalry and 15,000 infantry—for months before he suddenly attacked during August 24–29, 1804, at Mokundra Pass. Half of the British regular force of 3,000 was killed, and Holkar laid siege to Delhi for nine days. A British army broke the siege, then pursued Holkar without mercy, running some of his forces to ground at Farrukhabad on November 17, 1804. Three thousand Maratha cavalrymen died in what has been described as a mass execution rather than a battle.

In the meantime, the main armies fought at Dig (Deeg) on November 13, and Holkar was defeated with heavy losses. His stronghold at Dig was besieged from December 10 to December 24, and, with its loss, Holkar ceased to be a threat. Nevertheless, the fortress town of Bhurtpore continued to side with Holkar, and on January 1, 1805, the Anglo-Indian forces laid down siege lines. The defenders held out with fanatical desperation against four major attacks, which cost the Anglo-Indians 3,205 casualties. The city never really fell, but, on April 17, its defenders agreed to withdraw support from Holkar.

Holkar himself was pursued into the Punjab during October 1805. He surrendered in December, thereby ending the war.

See also MARATHA WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Stewart Gordon, *Marathas 1600–1818* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Francis Watson, *A Concise History of India* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1981).

Maratha War, Third (1817–1818)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British East India Company vs. the Pindari bandits and Peshwa Baji Rao
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central India
DECLARATION: Maratha leaders against Britain, November 6, 1817
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British puppet peshwa, Baji Rao, attempted to assert real authority over the Maratha Confederacy.
OUTCOME: The British East India Company put down Baji Rao's bid for power, defeated the Pindari, and established control of all Maratha lands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anglo-Indians, 20,000; Marathas, 200,000
CASUALTIES: Anglo-Indians, 2,000 killed; Marathas, more than 5,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

The Third Maratha War was triggered by the raids of the Pindaris, a piratical outlaw gang, mostly consisting of Marathas. This group was secretly backed by the most important Maratha leaders, Jaswant Rao Holkar of Indore (d. 1811) and Peshwa Baji Rao (1775–1851). On Novem-

ber 6, 1817, Baji Rao declared his backing publicly and thereby began a new war against the British.

In response to what they took as a declaration of war, two British armies were deployed, the Army of the Deccan and the Grand Army, together totaling 20,000 troops. By this time, the Marathas could muster 200,000. As was the case in the first two Maratha wars, however, the British forces were better equipped and much more skillfully led. On November 5, 1817, a force of 2,800 men drove off Baji Rao's force of 26,000 at Kirkee, inflicting 500 Maratha casualties while incurring only 86 killed or wounded. More decisive was the Battle of Mahidpur on December 21, 1817, when 5,500 Anglo-Indian infantrymen used bayonets to charge 30,000 Maratha cavalry and 5,000 infantry under Holkar. The vastly superior Maratha force was driven from its fortifications, and its losses exceeded 3,000 killed or wounded. Anglo-Indian losses were 174 killed, 621 wounded.

British-led sepoys fought smaller actions against Pindaris at Sitabaldi on November 24, 1817, and then at Nagpur on December 16. The key Maratha citadel there fell on December 24. On January 1, 1818, a mere 1,000 Anglo-Indian troops held off 25,000 Maratha attackers at Korygaom long enough for the arrival of reinforcements to drive the attackers off.

On May 10, 1818, an army of 4,000 Anglo-Indians dispersed the remnant of Baji Rao's army, just 7,500 men, at the Battle of Sholapur. The Marathas suffered losses of more than 1,000 killed, whereas British casualties totaled 102 killed or wounded. Baji Rao surrendered on June 2, bringing an end to Maratha political and military power.

See also MARATHA WAR, FIRST; MARATHA WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Stewart Gordon, *Marathas 1600–1818* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Francis Watson, *A Concise History of India* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1981).

Marathon Campaign (490 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Athens vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Plain of Marathon, Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia sought to punish Athens for its role in the Ionian Revolt, 500–493 B.C.E., and to capture the Plain of Marathon.
OUTCOME: Through a combination of patience and skilled deployment of forces, the Athenian general Miltiades separated the Persian land forces from the Persian fleet and repulsed the invasion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Persians, 50,000; Athenians, 20,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Marathon Campaign was a Persian expedition to punish Athens for the part it had played in the IONIAN REVOLT, from 500–493 B.C.E. In 492, the Persians dispatched an invasion fleet, which, however, was wrecked in a storm. Two years later, in 490, a second fleet was sent, this one carrying about 50,000 soldiers across the Aegean Sea. The invaders sacked Eretria, reembarked on their vessels, and landed at the Plain of Marathon. This was territory that the pro-Persian Athenian Alcmeonid faction planned to restore to Persia. However, led by Miltiades (d. 489 B.C.E.), an Athenian citizen army staked out the plain, but continually evaded battle. At length, the impatient Persians attacked Athens by sea and with a cavalry force. This was a tactical blunder that exposed the Persians to attack by the waiting Athenians. Miltiades led his forces to a stunning victory.

A soldier, Phidippides (d. 490 B.C.E.), ran from Marathon to Athens to announce the victory—and thus "marathon" has become synonymous with a long-distance run. Phidippides collapsed and died after his effort; it was said that his heart burst. As for the Persian fleet, it withdrew when it heard of the defeat of the land forces.

Further reading: A. R. Burn, *Persia and the Greeks: The Defence of the West, c. 546–478 B.C.* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1984); David Califf, *Marathon* (New York: Chelsea House, 2002); Peter Green, *The Greco-Persian Wars* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1996); J. F. Lazenby, *The Defence of Greece, 490–479 B.C.* (Warminster, England: Aris and Phillips, 1993).

Marches, Rebellion of the (1322)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Edward II vs. rebels from the Marches
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Marches (English-Welsh borderlands)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Edward II sought to restore his chamberlain, Hugh le Despenser, to control of Glamorgan after he had been ousted by Marcher rebels.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed and Despenser restored.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Marches is the borderland between England and Wales, long a region of contention between the two countries. On July 7, 1307, it fell under the suzerainty of King Edward II (1284–1327) who ascended the English throne upon the death of his father, Edward I (1239–1307) ("Longshanks"). There was little love lost between the old

king and his son, whose reign proved disastrous. Edward II inherited some of his problems from Longshanks, most significantly a substantial national debt and a war with Scotland (*see* SCOTTISH WAR [1314–1328]), but many of them were of his own making. Surrounded by a ruling nobility related to his family by blood and fealty, Edward had shunned his peers and fallen in love with Piers Gaveston (1284–1312), son of a Gascon knight. Trying to break off their sexual affair, Edward Longshanks had exiled Gaveston, but the newly crowned Edward II immediately recalled him, bestowing on him the highest honors he could manage—the earldom of Cornwall and marriage to the king's niece. This was but one of several acts by which Edward awarded England's highest offices to his father's most prominent opponents. He recalled both Archbishop Winchelsey (d. 1313) and Bishop Bek of Durham, whom Longshanks had also exiled, and he dismissed and put on trial his father's much-trusted treasurer, Walter Langton (d. 1321).

These actions earned Edward the hatred of the English barons, who in 1311 formed a 21-member committee that drafted a document called the Ordinances, which again banished Gaveston and restricted Edward's control over finances and appointments. Though Edward apparently accepted these demands and sent Gaveston abroad, he soon arranged for his lover's return. The barons, led by Edward's enigmatic cousin Thomas, second earl of Lancaster (c. 1278–1322), responded by seizing Gaveston and, in June 1312, executing him. There was little Edward could do. Robert I the Bruce (1274–1329), attempting to rid Scotland of the yoke of English rule, won a major victory at Bannockburn on June 14, 1314 (*see* BRUCE'S REVOLT), which left the king at the mercy of the barons. Thomas's political agenda seemed little more than the enforcement of the Ordinances, but it served to block further action by others. By 1315, Lancaster had made himself the real master of England, and in 1316 a parliament held at Lincoln named him chief councillor.

Thomas soon proved incompetent at government and, by 1318, a group of moderate barons rose to assume the role of arbitrators between Lancaster and Edward, while Edward himself had found two new favourites—Hugh le Despenser (the Elder) (1262–1326), earl of Winchester, and his son and namesake, Sir Hugh le Despenser (the Younger) (d. 1326). The latter married into the Clare family and thereby gained control of Glamorgan on the Welsh border. When the king supported the younger Despenser's territorial ambitions in Wales, Lancaster and the Marcher lords banished both Despensers at Parliament in 1321. Edward then took up arms on their behalf, and the two exiles returned. Edward II attacked the lords of the Marches at the Battle of Boroughbridge in March 1322. In a brilliant tactical innovation, Edward dismounted his cavalry and used them, on foot, together with archers to decimate the rebel cavalry.

In this brief civil war, Edward was totally victorious. He had waited 11 years to annul the Ordinances and avenge Gaveston. Now, he had Lancaster executed for treason after his and the lords of the Marches' ignominious defeat at Boroughbridge. In death, the hardly popular Lancaster began to attract a martyr's sympathy and many rumors spread of miracles at his tomb, but Edward proved adamantine. He executed a large number of Lancaster's followers in a horrific bloodbath. In the same year the Ordinances were repealed in Parliament at York, and in the Statute of York was announced, returning the kingdom to the constitutional practices of the past.

Edward's reliance on the Despensers, however, soon aroused the resentment of his queen, Isabella (1292–1358), who became the mistress of Roger Mortimer (c. 1287–1330), an exiled baron opposed to Edward. In 1326 the couple invaded England, executed the Despensers, and deposed Edward in favor of his son, King Edward III (1312–77). They imprisoned Edward II, who died in September 1327, most likely murdered.

Further reading: Hilda Johnstone, *Edward of Carnarvon* (Manchester, England: Manchester University Press, 1946); Sandra Raban, *Edward II* (London: Blackwell, 2000).

March 1st Movement

See SAMIL INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENT (1919–1920).

"March on Rome"

See FASCIST MARCH ON ROME (1922).

March Revolution

See FEBRUARY (MARCH) REVOLUTION (1917).

Mariposa War (1850–1851)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Miwok and Yokut Indians vs. California miners
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sierra Nevada foothills and San Joaquin Valley of California
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Miwok and Yokut attempted to drive white miners from the Indians' homeland.
OUTCOME: Indecisive
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Miners, unknown; Indians, Approximately 350
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but certainly minimal
TREATIES: None

This brief conflict began in 1850, when the Miwok and Yokut Indians, living in the foothills of the Sierra Nevada and in the San Joaquin Valley in California, retaliated against the gold miners who had invaded their country. Led by Chief Tenaya (fl. 1850s), warriors attacked isolated prospectors and burned several trading posts belonging to an entrepreneur named James D. Savage (1822–52). Savage responded by raising a local militia—which he dubbed the Mariposa Battalion, after Mariposa County—and by launching a campaign against the Miwoks and Yokuts in 1851.

Tenaya, with approximately 350 warriors, simply evaded Savage's first campaign, but a second foray resulted in the capture of the chief and many of the warriors, which ended the Mariposa War.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); C. Gregory Crampton, ed., *Mariposa Indian War, 1850–1851* (Provo: University of Utah Press, 1975).

Marjorian's Barbarian Campaigns (457–461)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Marjorian's Roman forces vs. the Vandals and Duke Ricimer
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy, Gaul, and Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Marjorian sought to reconstitute the Western Empire of Rome and then to defeat the Vandals in their African homeland.
OUTCOME: Although Marjorian achieved his reunification objective, treachery destroyed his African invasion plans, and a revolt in Italy prompted his abdication.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Ricimer (d. 472), a Swabian-Visigothic duke, drove the Vandals out of Italy and became the major power there. He placed the Roman general Marjorianus—Emperor Marjorian (d. 461)—on the throne, with the intention that he serve as a puppet; however, Marjorian soon took matters of state in his own hands and began a series of vigorous campaigns against the Vandals. When a Vandal force raided near the mouth of the Liris River (the Garigliano), Marjorian easily defeated it. This victory made him ambitious to end the Vandal threat once and for all by taking action against the seat of Vandal power in Africa. However, before he could conduct a successful campaign against the Vandals in their homeland, Marjorian believed that he must reunite the Western Empire. Therefore, in 458, he invaded Gaul. Near Toulouse, he engaged the forces of Visigoth king Theodoric II (d. 466). Marjorian wisely concluded a generous peace with Theodoric, which renewed Roman sway over Gaul as well as Spain during 458–460.

With the Western Empire effectively made whole again, Marjorian set about building an invasion force at Cartagena, Spain, to attack Africa. The Vandal chieftain, Gaiseric (c. 390–477), was a jump ahead of Marjorian, however. Through the judicious application of bribery, he was able to persuade key Romans in Cartagena to turn traitor. Thanks to these "moles," Gaiseric was able to sail a Vandal fleet against the fleet of Marjorian just before it was about to embark in 461. The Roman fleet was virtually destroyed.

Marjorian refused to accept defeat and immediately began rebuilding the fleet. At this point, however, Ricimer, exploiting Marjorian's preoccupation with his African expedition, incited a revolt in Italy. Appalled by what he deemed the ingratitude and disloyalty of the Roman people, Marjorian abdicated. Ricimer, bent on ensuring that Majorian would not return to rise again, had him assassinated. Ricimer emerged as the uncrowned emperor of Italy—and the Western Empire never regained anything approaching its past glory.

Further reading: Arther Ferrill, *The Fall of the Roman Empire: The Military Explanation* (New York: Thames and Hudson, 1986); Peter Heather, ed., *The Visigoths from the Migration Period to the Seventh Century* (Rochester, N.Y.: Boydell Press, 1999); Thomas Hodkins, *Huns, Vandals, and the Fate of the Roman Empire* (Mechanicsburg, Pa.: Stackpole Books, 1996); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002).

Maroons' Rebellion (1795)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Maroons (former Jamaican black slaves) vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Jamaica
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The judicial beating of two Maroons triggered a brief, bloody general uprising.
OUTCOME: The uprising was quickly put down.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Maroons, 300; British troops, 1,500
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Partly at issue was a 1739 treaty between the British and the Maroons, granting the Maroons certain rights.

Freed or escaped black slaves in Jamaica were known as Maroons (from the Spanish *murrano,* meaning wild boar

and suggesting an untamed beast) and lived in the woods and mountains. British colonial authorities and British settlers continually harried the Maroons, but in 1739 a treaty was concluded between the British authorities and Maroon leaders granting Maroons territory and autonomy. Under the treaty, the situation was relatively peaceful until 1795, when two Maroons were beaten by British authorities for stealing swine. Other Maroons regarded this as an outrage and rose up in rebellion in July.

The uprising was quick and bloody, and 1,500 British regulars pursued about 300 rebels deep into the woods, using bloodhounds imported from Cuba. Captured, some of the Maroons surrendered. Those who refused to be pacified were packed off to Halifax in the British colony of Nova Scotia. Confined there for a time, they were subsequently, in 1800, transported to Sierra Leone, Africa. As for the rebellion, not only had it been definitively extinguished, but the Maroons remaining in Jamaica agreed to assist British authorities in putting down any future rebellions on the island. In exchange for this pledge, colonial authorities agreed to adopt a hands-off policy with regard to Maroon affairs.

Further reading: Mavis Christine Campbell, *The Maroons of Jamaica: A History of Resistance, Collaboration and Betrayal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1988); Edward Long, *History of Jamaica* (Montreal: McGill-Queens University Press 2003).

Marsic War

See SOCIAL WAR (91–88 B.C.E.).

Maryland and Virginia's War with the Susquehannocks (1675–1676)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Maryland and Virginia colonists vs. Susquehannock and allied Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Maryland and Virginia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Animosities between settlers and Indians led to violence and calls for revenge, which the colonial governments heeded in part to better control trade relations with various tribes, which in turn sparked a violent dispute between eastern (and mostly aristocratic) and western (and mostly "peasant") colonial factions.
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; many Susquehannock, however, agreed the year after the war ended to move from the Delaware Valley out of reach of the Marylanders
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Colonists, about 1,000; Indian numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Fewer than 50, total
TREATIES: No official settlement, though the Treaty of Shackamaxon in 1677 set the terms for the move westward of the majority of the Susquehannock

A conflict between the settlers of Maryland and the Iroquois Confederation ignited in 1660, when a party of Oneida—members of the Iroquois Five Nations—killed five Piscataway Indians "for being friends" with Maryland and the Susquehannock. In response, Maryland, either deliberately or through ignorance, failed to distinguish the Oneida from the rest of the Iroquois Confederation and declared war on the entire Five Nations.

The Piscataway were, in effect, a "client" tribe of Maryland, a favored trading partner that was politically dominated by the colony. Since the Five Nations were closely allied with Maryland's chief trading rival, the Dutch, probably war was declared not only to defend the Piscataway, but to gain an advantage over the Dutch and, if possible, to drive them from the Delaware Valley. The Susquehannock were interested in securing all the assistance they could in fighting the ongoing BEAVER WARS against the Iroquois.

Within a very few years, Maryland's perception of which allies were the most valuable shifted, and the colony sought a separate peace with the Iroquois. In 1674, colonists came to terms with the Seneca, an important Iroquois tribe, who were thereby left free to push the Susquehannock south to the Potomac. Tensions now ran high between Maryland and its betrayed ally, the Susquehannock Indians.

In July–August 1675, a group of Maryland Nanticoke (also called Doeg) Indians fell into a dispute with a wealthy Virginia planter named Thomas Mathew (fl. 1670s), who had apparently neglected to pay them for some goods traded. Taking matters into their own hands, the Nanticoke seized some of Mathew's hogs. In retaliation, a gang of Mathew's men killed some of the Indians and recovered the hogs. The Nanticoke now took vengeance by killing three Virginians. At this point, George Brent (fl. 1670s–1680s) and George Mason (fl. 1670s), captains of the local militia, gathered 30 Virginians and crossed into Maryland to confront the Nanticoke. Brent's party surrounded an Indian cabin, called for a talk, and when the Indians emerged, Brent seized one chief, accused him of murder, then shot him when he attempted to escape. A general melee broke out, in which another 10 Nanticoke were killed.

During the confrontation, Mason's detachment had surrounded another cabin nearby. The Indians who had been sleeping inside the cabin were awakened by Brent's gunfire, ran out of the cabin, and were cut down by Mason's men. Fourteen were killed before Mason realized that he was firing not on Nanticoke but on Suquehannock.

The incident was more than enough to ignite full-scale war between the Nanticoke, Susquehannock, and allied tribes on the one hand and Maryland and Virginia on the other.

Governor William Berkeley (1606–77) of Virginia dispatched Colonel John Washington (1632–77) (great-

grandfather of the first president of the United States) and Major Isaac Allerton (fl. 1670s) to investigate the causes of the Indian raids. Only if the investigation determined that there was just cause for a war would the militia be deployed. Washington and Allerton, however, overstepped their commission and immediately raised a militia force. Late in September 1675, 1,000 Virginians and Marylanders surrounded the place the Maryland Assembly had designated as the home village of the Susquehannock, at the junction of the Piscataway Creek and the Potomac. A parley was called for, and five chiefs emerged, only to be treacherously slain.

For the next six weeks, the militiamen besieged the Susquehannock town, until the warriors managed to slip out with their women and children. They killed 10 sleeping guards in the process, and they resumed a regime of raiding the white settlements. After 36 settlers had been killed, the Susquehannocks sent a message to Governor Berkeley, declaring that with (approximately) 10 common Englishmen killed for each of their chiefs slain, the score, as it were, was even, and they were willing to make peace.

Berkeley scornfully rejected the offer, yet had little desire to prolong the war. He proposed building a chain of defensive fortifications around the settled parts of the colony and fighting a war of attrition until the Indians gave up. The proposal inflamed the settlers of Virginia's frontier, who would be exposed to the full force of the Indians' wrath. Feeling oppressed and neglected by the central colonial government, the settlers of the outlying areas lined up behind a charismatic braggart named Nathaniel Bacon (1647–76) in what came to be called Bacon's Rebellion. The "rebellion" served to spread and intensify Indian hostilities, and the Indian war became inextricably bound up with Bacon's Rebellion.

In the meantime, while Berkeley was fighting to regain possession of his colony from the likes of Bacon, Governor Edmund Andros (1637–1714) of New York, seeking to forestall the kind of disaster that had beset New England, which was embroiled in the tragic and costly King Philip's War, offered the Susquehannock refuge within his colony. Some accepted, whereas others continued to raid Maryland settlers, and still others—probably the majority of the tribe—now actively sought peace with Maryland authorities. The colony's Indian "clients"—the Piscataway and Mattawoman—demanded that the war continue until the Susquehannock were effectively neutralized. A peace conference convened in early August 1676 was quickly transformed into a strategy meeting for renewing war against the Susquehannock.

At this point Governor Andros, fearing that the entire eastern seaboard would erupt into an Indian war, threatened to take the Susquehannock permanently under his colony's jurisdiction. This temporarily ended hostilities, and Bacon's death in October 1676 (from dysentery) further cooled the situation. The Maryland and Virginia Indian war of 1675–76 ended without any official settlement, though in March 1677, a treaty conference was held at Shackamaxon (today part of Philadelphia) in which many of the Susquehannock consented to removal from the Delaware Valley and beyond the reach of Maryland. However, some 26 Susquehannock families remained in the Delaware Valley by accepting adoption into the Delaware tribe.

Well into the 1680s Maryland as well as Virginia persisted in sporadic conflicts against the Iroquois, who made extensive use of adopted Susquehannocks to conduct raids against the colonies.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Francis Jennings, *The Ambiguous Iroquois Empire: The Covenant Chain of Indian Tribes with English Colonies* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1984).

Maryland's Religious War (1644–1646, 1654)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Royalists vs. pro-Parliament colonists; later, Proprietary forces vs. Puritans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Maryland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Against the background of civil war in England, Royalist factions vied with Parliamentary factions to gain control of Maryland.
OUTCOME: The second Lord Baltimore, proprietor of the colony, regained control of the colony.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By the early 1640s, the English colony of Maryland was beginning to feel the effects of the First English Civil War. Governor Leonard Calvert (1606–47) returned to England and appointed Giles Brent as governor in his stead. Shortly after this, Richard Ingle (fl. 1640s), a pro-Cromwell sea captain from London, arrived in Maryland and led a two-year campaign of sporadic raids throughout the colony known as "the plundering time." Ingle was finally captured, and was tried four times by juries that refused to reach verdicts. He escaped, and continued to ply Maryland waters, both for legal and illegal purposes.

In the meantime, in the fall of 1644, Calvert returned to Maryland, then traveled to Virginia with letters of marque against Parliamentary supporters; he set about recruiting privateers and troops to counter Ingle in Maryland. In 1645, Ingle, however, obtained his own letters of marque against royalists, and, with a growing band of supporters,

intensified his Maryland raids, plundering settlements and manors. He took Jesuit missionaries captive, and he also made prisoners of several important political leaders, including the temporary governor, whom he shipped off to England. With Parliamentary forces gaining the upper hand in England, Maryland was thrown into chaos. Calvert was still in Virginia, the temporary governor was now a prisoner in England, and a new government and governor, Giles Brent (served 1643–44), were hurriedly established by the colonial council in an attempt to restore order.

Calvert returned during spring 1647, but died suddenly in June. Just before his death, he appointed Thomas Greene (served 1647–49), a staunch Catholic royalist, as governor. In mid-1648, however, Cecil Calvert (1605–75), the second Lord Baltimore (who had inherited Maryland from his father and who became first lord proprietor of the colony), shifted toward a pro-Parliament stance in an effort to preserve his colonial rights. Although he himself was a Catholic, Baltimore demoted Greene to a position on the council and replaced him with William Stone (served 1649–52), a Protestant friendly to the Cromwellian cause. By this time, the entire council was heavily Protestant, which restored peace to the colony.

New religious strife developed in 1654, however, when Puritan colonists clashed with other Maryland settlers. Lord Baltimore dispatched Governor Stone with a small army to engage an inferior Puritan force near present-day Annapolis on the Severn River. Although outnumbered, Puritan forces won the day at the Battle of the Severn, March 25, 1654, and the second Lord Baltimore was unable to regain complete control of his colony until the Restoration under Charles II (1630–85) in 1660.

Further reading: Morris L. Radoff, ed., *The Old Line State: A History of Maryland* (Annapolis: Maryland State Archives, 1971); Vera Foster Rollo, *The Proprietorship of Maryland: A Documented Account* (Annapolis: Maryland Historical Society, 1988).

Maryland's War with the Susquehannocks (1643–1652)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Susquehannock Indians vs. colonial Maryland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Maryland
DECLARATION: Maryland declared war on September 23, 1642.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Unknown
OUTCOME: Cessation of hostilities
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 15 militiamen captured, two tortured
TREATIES: Susquehannock sue for peace, 1652

The reasons for the colony of Maryland's declaration of war on the Susquehannock Indians on September 23, 1642, are unknown. Perhaps it was to halt the intrusion of Susquehannock into territory occupied by Maryland's "client" Indians, the Piscataway (also called Conoy), Patuxent, and Yoamacoe. Whatever the cause, Maryland militiamen mobilized between July 1643 and June 1644, but their first outing seems to have involved nothing that could be called a battle, because the Susquehannock simply fled from the militia's guns. A second expedition resulted in a setback for the Marylanders, because the colony's trading rival New Sweden armed the Indians. About 15 militiamen were captured and two of them were tortured to death. The few records of the Susquehannock victory that exist note the Marylanders fled the field so hastily they abandoned arms, including two artillery weapons—precious commodities in the colonies. But in general, as is frequently true of Indian-colonial conflicts, especially those involving alliances between Indians and one "Christian" colony fighting against another "Christian" colony, no detailed information about this war was ever recorded. It does seem, however, that a relatively inactive state of war existed between the colony and the Susquehannocks from 1643 or 1644 to 1652, when the Susquehannocks, now entangled in the BEAVER WARS against the Iroquois, sued for peace with Maryland and negotiated a treaty. Indeed, within a decade of the treaty, Maryland enlisted the Susquehannocks as allies in combat against the Iroquois.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Francis Jennings, *The Invasion of America: Indians, Colonialism, and the Cant of Conquest* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1975) and *The Ambiguous Iroquois Empire: The Covenant Chain of Indian Tribes with English Colonies* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1984).

Masada, Siege of (72–73)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Roman Legion X Fretensis vs. Jewish zealots defending Masada
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Masada, outside of Jerusalem
Declaration: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Romans sought to end Jewish resistance in Judea; Masada sheltered the last holdouts.
OUTCOME: After a two-year siege, the Romans finally breached the fortress wall; all but seven defenders (two women and five children) had committed suicide.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Romans, 15,000; defenders of Masada, 1,000
CASUALTIES: The defenders committed mass suicide—approximately 1,000 died.
TREATIES: None

Following Roman victory at the siege of Jerusalem in 70, Jewish rebels held out in desert fortresses. The Romans made a sweep of these positions, conquering both Herodium and Machaerus by 71. A third fortress, Masada, occupied the entire 18-acre top of an isolated mesa towering some 1,424 feet above the southwest coast of the Dead Sea. There, Herod the Great (r. 37–4 B.C.E.), king of Judea, had constructed a renowned royal citadel of two ornate palaces (one multilevelled), heavily reinforced walls, commanding defensive towers, and cisterns holding almost 200,000 gallons of water fed by a system of aqueducts.

Following Herod's death in 4 B.C.E., Roman legions seized and held the fortress, but, during the JEWISH REVOLT (66–73), the legions lost Masada to Jewish Zealots in 66 C.E. Approximately 1,000 men, women, and children of this Jewish sect, staunchly opposed to domination by Rome, now occupied a fortress whose steep mountain slopes made it virtually unassailable. Against these defenders, the Romans mounted a siege force of some 15,000 (Legion X Fretensis). Despite their overwhelming advantage of numbers, the besieging force hammered away at Masada for two years, without success building elaborate siege engines and employing a massive battering ram. Finally, the besiegers constructed a sloping ramp of earth and stones to bring their soldiers within reach of the stronghold, which fell only after the Romans used the ram to create a breach in the defenders' walls. When the Zealots quickly repaired the breach with wood, the Romans set fire to the repairs and stormed the fortress. The Zealots, however, preferred death to enslavement, and when the Romans entered, they found that the defenders, led by Eleazar ben Jair (d. April 15, 73 C.E.), had taken their own lives. Two women and five children—hidden in a water conduit—survived to tell the story.

In the 20th century, following the creation of a Jewish homeland in Israel, Masada became an icon of Jewish nationalism, and it is now one of Israel's most popular tourist attractions.

Further reading: Flavius Josephus, *The Jewish War,* in *Complete Works,* trans. by William Whitson (Nashville: Nelson Reference and Electronic, 2003); Yigael Yadin *Masada: Herod's Fortress and the Zealots' Last Stand* (New York, Random House, 1966); Mikhah Livneh, *The Last Fortress: The Study of Masada and Its People* (Tel-Aviv: Ministry of Defense, 1989); John W. Welch, *Masada and the World of the New Testament* (Provo, Utah: Brigham Young University Press, 1997).

Masaniello's Insurrection (1647)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Neapolitan rebels vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Naples and vicinity
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebellion began as a protest against excessive taxation and expanded to a rebellion of the lower classes against the nobles.
OUTCOME: The people of Naples ultimately invited reinstatement of Spanish rule.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At least 10,000 were killed in the insurrection.
TREATIES: None

Tommaso Aniello (d. 1647), called Masaniello, was a Neapolitan fisherman who, financed by a lawyer named Giulio Genoino (fl. 17th century) led a rebellion against a tax on fruit levied to finance tribute payments Naples owed Spain. Masaniello's rebels were all of the lower classes, and their insurrection began, on July 7, 1647, with the burning of the customs house and an attack on the Spanish viceroy, who fled the city. The rebels rampaged through Naples, killing members of the nobility at random.

The violence was halted after the viceroy, Antonio Alvarez de Toledo (fl. 17th century), agreed to pardon the rebels, to grant citizens' rights to the Neapolitans, and to rescind the hated tax. However, after these concessions were made Masaniello attempted to provoke his followers into resuming their violence—apparently for the sake of murdering more of the nobility. Although Giulio Genoino put Masaniello into protective custody, the fisherman was assassinated on July 16, 1647, perhaps by agents of the viceroy, the nobles, or even by disillusioned followers.

No sooner was Masaniello dead than the viceroy abrogated his agreement, thereby triggering a new round of rebellion. A Spanish fleet bombarded Naples in an effort to beat it into order, and Spanish troops attempted an invasion of the city, but were beaten back. The Neapolitans proclaimed a republic, but Spain renewed military pressure and, finally, in 1648, the rebels admitted the return of Spanish rule. Spanish authorities rounded up the rebel leaders, whom they subsequently executed.

Further reading: Rosario Villari, *Revolt of Naples* (London: Blackwell, 1999).

Mascates, War of the (1711)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pernambuco sugar planters vs. Mascates
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pernambuco, eastern Brazil
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The war resulted from conflict between upper-class planters and lower-class Mascates (peddlers)

OUTCOME: The district governor mediated a peace settlement, which included a no-fault general amnesty. Nothing was gained by either side.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Planters, 30 killed; Mascates, 25 killed
TREATIES: Mediated settlement, 1711

The sugar planters of the wealthy town of Olina, in Pernambucco, Brazil, scorned the poorer inhabitants—sailors and traders—of neighboring Recife as *Mascates,* peddlers. On June 18, 1711, the Mascates rose against the planters, who responded by laying siege against Recife for three months. The Mascates had control of the town's many cannon and continually bombarded the siege lines. The conflict ended when Portuguese authorities intervened with a promise of amnesty for both sides, neither of which gained anything by the conflict.

Further reading: E. Bradford Burns, *A History of Brazil,* 3rd ed. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1993); Boris Faust, *A Concise History of Brazil* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990).

Matanza, La ("The Slaughter")

See SALVADORAN REVOLT (1931–1932).

Mau Mau Uprising (1952–1956)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain vs. Kenya's Mau Mau rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): British East Africa (Kenya)
DECLARATION: State of emergency declared October 20, 1952
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Mau Mau used terror in an effort to wrest control of the country from the British.
OUTCOME: The uprising was put down, but it served to inspire many other independence movements throughout Africa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: British, 50,000; Mau Mau and others, unknown
CASUALTIES: Casualties among settlers were high (military losses included 590 killed and 1,500 wounded), but, among the Mau Mau, losses were much higher: 11,503 Mau Mau were killed.
TREATIES: None

By the 1950s, movements were well under way throughout Africa to oust white European colonial governments and settlers. In British East Africa (Kenya), the Mau Mau, concentrated around Nairobi, were a secret terrorist organization made up of Kikuyu tribesmen led by Jomo Kenyatta (1898–1978) and determined to restore the country to native African control. From October 20, 1952, to October 1956, Mau Mau bands marauded throughout the so-called "white highlands," destroying plantations and slaughtering white settlers. The Mau Mau also turned terrorism against other natives, compelling many black Africans to join their ranks or suffer death. The worst incident occurred on March 26, 1953, when 1,000 Mau Mau attacked the "loyal" (friendly to whites) village of Cari, killing 97 and mutilating 37 more.

On October 20, 1952, British authorities declared a state of emergency and sent thousands of regular troops into the field. Ringleaders and assumed ringleaders were targeted for arrest. Despite this action, however, the Mau Mau movement was so well established that, even without key leaders, such as Kenyatta, who was jailed in 1953, the terror continued and even intensified. The British responded by building large concentration camps into which Mau Maus and suspected Mau Maus were thrown. Certain villages were surrounded by contingents of armed guards. Under such pressure, many of the Mau Mau fled into the forests and hills, and waged a guerrilla war from there. However, the British troops proved effective at flushing the terrorists out.

In 1956, the Mau Mau mastermind Dedan Kimathi (d. 1957) was captured, which brought a rapid diminution of Mau Mau activity. He was executed on February 18 of the following year. Although the uprising had been put down, the world was made acutely aware of the injustices of long-established European colonialism in Africa. The great African independence movements of the late 1950s and early 1960s were built on the foundation of the Mau Mau movement.

Further reading: E. S. Atieno Odhiambo and John Lonsdale, eds., *Mau Mau and Nationhood: Arms, Authority, and Narration* (Columbus: Ohio University Press, 2003); Wunyabi O. Maloba, *Mau Mau and Kenya: An Analysis of a Peasant Revolt* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1999).

Mauretania, French Conquest of

See FRENCH CONQUEST OF MAURETANIA.

Mauryan Empire, Conquests of the (323–180 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Mauryan Empire vs. various kingdoms of India and Hellenic forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rulers of the Mauryan Empire sought to unify India and repel advances by the Hellenic armies.
OUTCOME: Under the first three rulers of the Mauryan dynasty, the empire expanded its borders and held invaders from the west at bay.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

In 323 B.C.E., Chandragupta Maurya (r. 323–298 B.C.E.) seized control of the Magadhan throne in present-day India. This clan had grown from being one of 16 competing political factions in 600 B.C.E. to being the dominant group in the fifth century B.C.E. The Magadha Empire had its capital in Pataliputra (or Patna) and controlled trade along the Ganges River. When Chandragupta Maurya came to the throne, he seized land east of the Indus River and south to the Narmada (or Narbada) River. Ejecting the Macedonians from northwestern India, he was determined to close the avenues of invasion through the mountain passes of present-day Afghanistan. In 305 B.C.E., he defeated the army of Seleucus Nicator (c. 358–280 B.C.E.) of Macedonia. By terms of the treaty between the two powers, Seleucus ceded the provinces east of the Indus River and large areas of Arachosia and Gedrosia west of the river to Chandragupta in exchange for 500 war elephants.

Chandragupta's son, Bindusara (fl. 298–273 B.C.E.), inherited an enormous military force from his father including a secret service and office of naval affairs. During his reign from 297 to 274 B.C.E., he further broadened the reach of the Mauryan Empire through his conquest of the Deccan (central India).

Asoka (fl. 269–232 B.C.E.), the grandson of Chandragupta, conquered the Kalinga kingdom along the eastern coast of India as far as the Godavari River. With these conquests, the Mauryan Empire included all of the subcontinent, except its southern tip, plus Nepal and a large part of Afghanistan. After taking Kalinga, Asoka became a Buddhist, pursued a policy of peace, and ably ruled his vast empire. When he died in 232 B.C.E., the Mauryan Empire became vulnerable to invaders from Bactria, Scythia, and Parthia. Indo-Hellenic forces captured the capital of Pataliputra, and by 180 B.C.E., the empire ceased to exist.

The Magadha Empire managed to survive, however, and reemerged as a considerable force under Chandragupta I (r. c. 320–c. 330 C.E.; no relation to Chandragupta Maurya) in about 320 C.E.

Further reading: R. C. Majumdar, *Ancient India* (Delhi: Motilal Banasidass, 1982); Gurcham Singh Sandhu, *A Military History of Ancient India* (New Delhi: Vision Books, 2000); Francis Watson, *A Concise History of India* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1981).

Maximian's Revolt (310)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Maximian vs. Constantine
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaul (Roman Empire)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Maximian wished to overthrow Constantine and reassume his former role as emperor.
OUTCOME: Maximian was defeated and forced to commit suicide.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Diocletian (245–313), emperor of the West, and Maximian (d. 310), emperor of the East, abdicated their thrones in 305 and were succeeded as augusti by, respectively, Constantius (r. 293–306) in the West and Galerius (r. 305–311) in the East. Two new caesars were appointed, Flavius Valerius Severus (r. 305–311) and Galerius Valerius Maximinus Daia (r. 305–313), in preference to Constantius's son Flavius Valerius Aurelius Constantinus (Constantine, r. 306–337) and Marcus Aurelius Valerius Maxentius (r. 306–312), the son of Maximian. This breach of succession triggered the ROMAN CIVIL WAR (306–307).

In the meantime, Rome was continually menaced by barbarians, and Constantine, now junior augustus, set off on a campaign against the Franks in Gaul. Maximian exploited his absence by staging a revolt in Constantine's court at Arelate (modern Arles, France) with the object of becoming sole emperor. To Maximian's consternation, however, Constantine returned swiftly to Arelate and was able to drive Maximian and his partisans out of the city to Marseille. There Constantine captured Maximian. Given a choice between degradation and an honorable suicide, Maximian chose the latter.

See also ROMAN CIVIL WAR (311–312).

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Griffin, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of the Roman World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); Jacob Burkhardt, *The Age of Constantine the Great* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1982); Arther Ferrill, *The Fall of the Roman Empire: The Military Explanation* (New York: Thames and Hudson, 1986); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Maximilian's Invasion of Switzerland

See AUSTRO-SWISS WAR (1499).

Mayan Revolt (1546)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish conquistadores vs. Mayan Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Honduras
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of the Mayans
OUTCOME: After years of effective resistance, the Mayans were conquered by intense application of utmost brutality and violence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but nearly genocide among the Mayans
TREATIES: None

The Spanish conquistador Hernán Cortés (1485–1547) subjugated the Aztec Empire in 1521, then from 1522 to 1539, he led expeditions south, into southern Mexico and northern Central America, penetrating as far as El Salvador. In Central America, especially Honduras, he encountered extremely fierce resistance from the Mayans (1524–26), whom he failed to subjugate. It was left to the military successor of Cortés, Francisco de Montejo (c. 1484–c. 1550), to lead a series of larger expeditions into Honduras during 1539. These suppressed Mayan resistance by the most brutal and violent of means, even to the point of genocide.

See also SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO; SPANISH CONQUEST OF NICARAGUA; SPANISH CONQUEST OF YUCATÁN.

Further reading: Inga Clendinnen, *Ambivalent Conquests: Maya and Spaniard in Yucatan, 1517–1570* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990).

Ma Yuan's Southern Campaign (40–43)

See TRUNG SISTERS' REBELLION (39–43).

Mecca, Sack of (930)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Karmathian raiders vs. the Muslims of Arabia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mecca, Saudi Arabia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bent on p1under, the Karmathians sacked Mecca and stole the Black Stone, one of its more sacred objects.
OUTCOME: The Black Stone was held by the Karmathians for 10 years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Karmathians (*see* KARMATHIAN REVOLT) were Muslim heretics who lived in northeast Arabia. In the early decades of the eighth century they frequently invaded Mesopotamia and raided Baghdad. One such raid occurred in 930 when they sacked Mecca, Islam's holy city, and made off with the Black Stone from the Kaaba (the Muslim shrine in Mecca). The Karmathians held onto the sacred treasure for a decade before the Fatimids, the ruling dynasty in North Africa, forced them to return it.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986); Michel C. Morony, *Iraq after the Muslim Conquest* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1984).

Mecca-Medina War (624–630)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Followers of Muhammad vs. Qurayshite pagans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Medina and Mecca
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Muhammad fought a jihad (holy war), to establish Islam throughout the Arab world.
OUTCOME: Mecca fell to Muhammad, who established it as the holy city of Islam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Muhammad, 3,000; Qurayshites, 10,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of al-Hudaybiyah, 629

An oasis on the old caravan trade route linking the Mediterranean world with the Middle East, Africa, and South Asia, ancient Mecca had gradually developed by Roman and Byzantine times into an important trade and religious center. Ptolemy called it Macoraba, and—according to Islamic tradition—Abraham and Ishmael, his son by Hagar, built the Kaaba as the house of God. The Kaaba, a cube-shaped stone building destroyed and rebuilt many times, was the goal of pilgrimages to Mecca before the coming of Islam. The city itself was controlled during biblical times by a series of Yemeni tribes, and under the pagan Quraysh, the town became something of a city-state, with commercial ties not only to the rest of Arabia, but to Ethiopia and to Europe as well. A desert entrepôt for trade, pilgrimage, and poetry festivals, Mecca grew historically significant with the birth there of Muhammad (570–632), the founding prophet of Islam.

In the summer of 621, 12 men from Medina—another desert oasis, this one in the Hejaz region of modern Saudi Arabia—who were visiting Mecca for the annual pilgrimage to the Kaaba (which, of course, was then still a pagan

shrine), fell under the sway of the new prophet who was denouncing the pagan Arab religion of the native Qurayshites. To Muhammad they secretly professed themselves Muslims before returning home to preach the new faith. Consequently, at the pilgrimage in June 622 a representative party of 75 people from Medina, including two women, not only professed Islam but also took an oath to defend the Prophet as they would their own kin in what became known as the two Pledges of al-'Aqaba. Muhammad urged many among his growing number of followers in Mecca to make their way in small groups to Medina. About 70 did so. Meanwhile, before Muhammad could leave to join them, the Meccans plotted his murder, at which point Muhammad slipped away and traveled to Medina by a devious route, a flight that became known in Latin as the Hegira and marks the beginning of the Muslim calendar—July 16, 622, in the Gregorian system. Muhammad reached Medina safely on September 24, 622.

Medina was a different kind of town from Mecca. Like Mecca, it was an oasis, one where date palms flourished and cereals grew, but here the Jews had become prominent in the centuries following their expulsion from Palestine by the Roman emperor Hadrian about 135 C.E. Several Jewish clans, who had settled among the original Arabs, had developed Medina's agriculture, and they still had the best lands. Here, too, the predominant Yemeni tribe had adopted the Jewish religion around 400 C.E. Later Arab immigrants belonging to the tribes of al-Aws and al-Khazraj, had also become well established in Medina. These eight or so clans, however, had fallen into serious feuds, and these feuds had produced much bloodshed only a few years past. Peace had never been fully restored. Prepared by their close contact with the Jews, many among the Arabs were perhaps looking for a messianic religious leader who would deliver them from oppression and establish a kingdom in which justice prevailed, as well as someone to act as an arbiter among their feuding kin. Little surprise that Muhammad's following continued to grow as he plotted his revenge against Mecca.

Soon he had planned out a military campaign against the Qurayshites. In March 624, he led 300 warriors in an ambush of a 1,000-person Meccan caravan en route from Syria, which traveled under the religious auspices of Mecca's Umayyad leader, Abu Sufyan (563–651), whose extended clan at first rejected Islam. Muhammad's violation of the religious sanctity of the pilgrimage awakened Mecca to the dangers posed by him and his followers.

The next year, the Qurayshites counterattacked Muhammad and his followers at the Hill of Uhud, outside of Mecca. This was followed by an attack on Medina by 10,000 Meccans under Abu Sufyan in 627. With a mere 3,000 men, however, Muhammad successfully defended Medina, and Abu Sufyan agreed to the Treaty of al-Hudaybiyah. This allowed Muhammad and his faithful to make a sacred pilgrimage to Mecca in 629. When a faction of Meccans violated the treaty by attacking the pilgrims in November 629, Muhammad mounted an assault on Mecca in January 630. Meeting no resistance, his army destroyed a large number of pagan idols in the city. Muhammad remained, and his preaching, not the force of his arms, won over to Islam a large portion of the city. He was subsequently invited to establish Mecca as the holy city of Islam.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); Ann Holt, K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East From the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986); Michel C. Morony, *Iraq after the Muslim Conquest* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1984).

Median-Lydian War (590–585 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Media vs. Lydia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Anatolia (Asian Turkey)
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The kingdoms contested possession of western Anatolia.
OUTCOME: A draw resulting in a boundary agreement
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None recorded; although peace was achieved through a boundary settlement and royal marriage.

Following the collapse of the Assyrian Empire after the fall of Nineveh, the former Assyrian territories were divided between Babylonia and Media. The division precipitated the decline of Lydia, which had been the great power in western Anatolia (the Asian portion of Turkey). The Median-Lydian War was a first major step in the decline.

Media's King Cyaxares (d. 585) attempted to invade and acquire the Anatolian territory of Urartu (Armenia), which Lydia's King Alyattes (c. 619–560) also claimed. By 590, Median forces had advanced to the eastern boundary of Lydia at the Halys (Kizil Irrnak) River. There, the Lydians checked the advance, holding the Medians at the river for the next five years.

Nothing specific is known about these battles, but Babylonia and Cilicia ultimately mediated the dispute, and the two kingdoms, their resources exhausted in futile combat, agreed on the Kizil Irrnak (Halys River) as the boundary between them. The Greek historian Herodotus (c. 484–c. 425) records that the daughter of Alyattes married Cyaxares' son, thereby preserving the peace until the PERSIAN-LYDIAN WAR of 547–46 B.C.E., which brought about the final collapse of Lydia.

Further reading: George C. Cameron, *History of Early Iran* (New York: Greenwood Press, 1968); William Cullican, *The Medes and Persians* (New York: Praeger, 1965); Herodotus, *The Histories,* trans. Aubrey De Selincourt (New York: Penguin, 2003).

Median-Persian Revolt (550–549 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia (Anshan) vs. the Medes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anshan
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Cyrus II the Great wanted independence from the Median Empire.
OUTCOME: Cyrus achieved his objective and founded the Persian Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None recorded

Cyrus II the Great (c. 600–529), who ruled the Median (Persian) kingdom of Anshan, rebelled against his grandfather Astyages (fl. 584–549), king of the Medes and, therefore, overlord of the Persians during 584–550.

Cyrus's father was a Persian named Cambyses I (fl. 600–559), and his mother was a Median princess. Cyrus, who founded the Achaemenid dynasty, did not at first seek independence for Persia, but merely the reform of a waning kingdom. However, Cyrus seized upon Persian discontent with Astyages, a cruel and inept ruler, to organize rebellious Medians into an army. During 550, Cyrus led his rebel army in a series of indecisive battles. However, the following year, Astyages' own army mutinied, which gave Cyrus the advantage he needed to defeat the unpopular ruler. Taking Astyages captive, Cyrus made Anshan the core of a revived Persian Empire. He spared the conquered ruler's life, an act of generosity that would lead to the PERSIAN-LYDIAN WAR.

Further reading: William Cullican, *The Medes and Persians* (New York: Praeger, 1965); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia* (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2000).

Megiddo, First Battle of (c. 1469 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Egypt vs. the Mitanni kingdom and a Syrian-Palestinian coalition
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Megiddo, on the frontier of Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Egypt wanted to revive and expand its empire.
OUTCOME: The battle resulted in the collapse of the Syrian-Palestinian coalition and the subjugation of much of southwestern Asia to Egypt.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Megiddo, a fortress city strategically situated at the gateway to Mesopotamia, was the scene of many battles and for that reason was prophesied as the site of the Battle of Armageddon (in Hebrew "Hill of Megiddo"), when the forces of good and evil would contend at the end of the world.

The First Battle of Megiddo followed the decline of Egyptian influence in Syria and Palestine after the expansion of the Mitanni kingdom during the HURRIAN CONQUESTS. Egypt's King Thutmose III (fl. c. 1500–1447 B.C.E.), in an effort to restore Egyptian power, undertook a series of campaigns in the Near East during the 1470s. He managed to regain control of Palestine, and his forces invaded northern Syria. Apparently, however, his advance was checked by a coalition of some 330 Syrian and Palestinian princes under the leadership King Kadesh (fl. 1460s B.C.E.) of the Mitanni.

It was about 1469 B.C.E., near the northern Palestinian fortress city of Megiddo, which effectively guarded entry into Mesopotamia, that the coalition forces engaged the Egyptians. The Egyptians divided their forces into three contingents and surprised the fortress defenders at dawn. The princes' army withdrew into Megiddo, leaving their encampment for the Egyptians to loot. Thutmose then directed a seven-month siege of the city, which ultimately collapsed.

The victory at Megiddo not only revived Egyptian power but established an Egyptian empire in southwestern Asia. Except for the Mitanni king himself, the princes of the coalition subjugated themselves to Egypt, and the mighty kingdoms of Babylonia and Assyria, as well as the Hittites, agreed to pay Egypt tribute. Having gained so much, Thutmose invaded southeastern Mitanni, but failed to conquer the kingdom at this time.

See also MEGIDDO, SECOND BATTLE OF.

Further reading: Hans Goedicke, *The Battle of Megiddo* (Baltimore: Halgo, 2001).

Megiddo, Second Battle of (609 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Egypt vs. Judah
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Megiddo, at the frontier of Judah
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Refused passage across Judah to aid his Syrian allies, King Necho of Egypt engaged Judah's army.

OUTCOME: Outnumbered, the army of Judah was defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Despite Megiddo's conquest by the Egyptians in the First Battle of MEGIDDO, over the centuries, the ancient Palestinian strategic crossroads fell to the Israelites, along with many other sites in the area. Following the Fall of NINEVEH in 612 B.C.E., Assyria's ally Egypt resolved to help the Assyrians retake their lost capital at Harran. Egypt's King Necho II (fl. c. 609–593 B.C.E.) asked leave from the kingdom of Judah to cross its territory in order to come to Syria's aid. Judah refused permission, but sent only a small force against Necho's large army. The two forces clashed at Megiddo, where Judah's troops were vanquished, and the nation's king, Josiah, was killed in the battle by an arrow.

Following his victory, King Necho advanced to his Syrian allies, but his efforts to aid in the retaking of Harran failed. Necho returned to Palestine, where he successfully defended his kingdom against Babylonian incursions.

Further reading: Hans Goedicke, *The Battle of Megiddo* (Baltimore: Halgo, 2001).

Meiji Restoration (1863–1868)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tokugawa shogunate vs. forces of the western daimyo (warlords) in support of the Meiji emperor
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Edo (Tokyo) and Kyoto, Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The daimyo of Japan's western provinces, long opposed to the rule of the shoguns, rebelled against the shogun and threw their support behind the new Meiji emperor to end shogun rule and restore Japanese imperial authority.
OUTCOME: The shogun was maneuvered out of power, and the Meiji emperor restored as full head of the Japanese state.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Losses among the Meiji and daimyo forces were light (numbers unknown), but in July 1868, some 3,000 diehard adherents of the Tokugawa shogunate were exterminated.
TREATIES: None

After the early 17th century, the role of the Japanese emperor was reduced to that of a figurehead, with the real governing power lodged in the Tokugawa shogun, a hereditary military ruler. The shogun ruled from Edo (Tokyo), whereas the emperor was ensconced in the ancient city of Kyoto. This dual system of governance was forever altered by the opening of Japan to western trade in the mid-19th century.

At first, the feudal lords of western Japan, the daimyo, were hostile to western traders, but they came to see trade as a positive force and as an opportunity to overthrow the rule of the shoguns. The daimyo advised foreign traders to deal not with the shogun, but with the emperor. This put the shogun at odds with the traders. Nevertheless, when a contingent of Dutch, British, and French trading vessels arrived in November 1865 with armed naval escort, the shogun, fearing naval assault, agreed to persuade the emperor to conclude a trade treaty, which he did.

In 1866, the western province of Choshu rebelled against the shogun, who persuaded the emperor, Komei (d. 1867), to mount a military campaign against the province. The emperor agreed, and the so-called Summer War commenced, but the emperor broke off the campaign as soon as the shogun died in September 1866. Early the next year, the emperor also died and was succeeded by his young son Mutsuhito (1852–1912). Later in the year, the daimyo of the western provinces prevailed upon the new shogun, Yoshinoba (1837–1913), to resign, pointing out to him that the continued existence of the shogunate with imperial rule was tearing the nation apart. Led to believe that he would be given a prominent position in the new imperial government, the shogun resigned in November 1867 and traveled to Kyoto. In fact, the retired shogun was frozen out of power.

At the start of 1868, the daimyo of the western provinces, freed from domination by the shogun, invaded Kyoto and took control of the imperial capital from the Tokugawan troops stationed there. The retired shogun took his troops back to Edo, only to realize that he was greatly outnumbered by the army now prepared to support the emperor. Therefore, he surrendered Edo and retired permanently. Some 3,000 diehard adherents of the shogunate held out on nearby Veno Hill. On July 4, 1868, they were exterminated to a man.

Despite sporadic resistance to the restoration of the full authority of Mutsuhito—now renamed Meiji—in the north, the "revolution" was, for all practical purposes, concluded by the fall of 1868.

Coinciding with the beginning of the Meiji Restoration was the SHIMONOSEKI WAR, which involved the Western powers France, Britain, the United States, and the Netherlands.

Further reading: William G. Beasley, *Meiji Restoration* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1972); John W. Hall, *Japan: From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); Mikiso Hane, *Modern Japan: A Historical Survey,* 3rd ed. (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 2001); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New

York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Memel Insurrection (1923)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Memel insurrectionists vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Memel (Klaipeda), Lithuania
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Governance of the city and district of Memel was disputed between post–World War I Allied authorities and the Lithuanian government.
OUTCOME: The French garrison was driven out of Memel, and the Allies compromised with the Lithuanian government in the creation of Memel as an autonomous district within Lithuania.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French garrison strength was under 1,000 men; number of insurrectionists much greater.
CASUALTIES: Light
TREATIES: Memel Statute, May 8, 1924

Memel (Klaipeda, Lithuania) was a predominantly German-speaking city in western Lithuania. By the terms of the Treaty of Versailles ending WORLD WAR I, Memel had been governed as a mandate of the Allied powers since 1919. Lithuania asked to be given control of Memel, but the Allies demurred, and established a French garrison to administer the local government. On January 11, 1923, a Lithuanian-backed insurrection took place against the garrison, which withdrew under fire. In the garrison's absence, the Lithuanian government took control of the city and district. Seeking a compromise, Allied authorities declared Memel an autonomous region within Lithuania, a situation the Lithuanian government accepted by the Memel Statute of May 8, 1924.

Further reading: Arvids Ziedonis, William L. Winter, and Mardi Valgemäe, *Baltic History* (Columbus, Ohio: Association for the Advancement of Baltic Studies, 1974); Vytas Stanley Vardys and Judith Sedaitis, *Lithuania: The Rebel Nation* (Denver: Westview Press, 1966).

Menander's Wars of Expansion (c. 150–c. 140 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Menander's Greek army vs. the kingdoms in northern India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Under pressure from the north and northwest from the Scythians and Parthians, Menander, ruler of Bactria, turned east and conquered the northern portion of present-day India.
OUTCOME: Menander gained control of northern India as far as Pataliputra, but by 100 B.C.E., the Greek kingdom disappeared from India.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the second century B.C.E., the kingdom of Bactria was in nearly perpetual strife. Euthydemus (fl. early second century B.C.E.) expanded his control to the southwest into Gandhara (northern Afghanistan) and the Punjab. His son Demetrius (fl. mid second century B.C.E.) then conquered the northern half of the Indus Valley. In 175 B.C.E., Eucratides seized control of Bactria itself while Demetrius was away on campaign. During the ensuing civil war, Eucratides captured most of Gandhara and the western Punjab from Demetrius and his successors. After the assassination of Eucratides (c. 162 B.C.E.), one of Demetrius's descendants, Menander (fl. mid second century B.C.E.), was victorious over the descendants of Eucratides, who managed to retain land in the western Punjab and Kabul Valley. Menander then faced invasions by the Scythians and the Parthians, and his control was reduced to southern Bactria, Gandhara, and parts of Arachosia and the Punjab. Pressed from the north and northwest by the Scythians and Parthians, Menander turned his sights east and made conquests in northern India as far as Pataliputra. He had a great influence on India and became known in Indian history as Milinda. The Greek kingdoms declined over the next century as the Hindus and the barbarians pushed the Hellenes out of the region. In about 100 B.C.E., they disappeared from India, and in about 40 B.C.E., they were pushed by the Scythians out of Gandhara.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Griffin, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of Greece and the Hellenistic World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); M. Cary, *A History of the Greek World from 323 to 146 B.C.* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1963); William W. Turn, *Greeks in Bactria and India* (Golden, Colo.: Ares Publishers, 1984); F. W. Walbank, *The Hellenistic World* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1993).

Mercenaries, Revolt of *See* CARTHAGINIAN CIVIL WAR.

Messenian War, First (c. 736–716 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spartans vs. Messenians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mount Ithome region, Peloponnese

DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Spartans wanted to conquer the Messenians to gain access to their fertile lands.
OUTCOME: After two decades of war, the conquest was successful.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None recorded, but the Messenians were compelled to yield to Sparta half of all crops produced.

The Dorians of northern Greece invaded the Peloponnese between 1100 and 950 B.C.E. They conquered the eastern areas of the peninsula, settling in the valley of Lacedaemon, where they made Sparta their capital. The people they conquered, called helots, were enslaved. Next, the Spartans attacked and subjugated the Laconians, after which, beginning about 736, they commenced their two-decade war against the Messenians, also resident in the Peloponnese.

Messenian resistance was concentrated at Mount Ithome, which guarded passage to the fertile plain of Stenyclarus. Under their king (according to legend), Theopompus (fl. 700s B.C.E.), the Spartans finally prevailed against the Messenians by 716. They extorted from the vanquished people half of all their produce, and they subjected the Messenians to general humiliation.

See also MESSENIAN WAR, SECOND; MESSENIAN WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Griffin, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of Greece and the Hellenistic World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); Victor Davis Hanson, *The Wars of the Ancient Greeks* (New York: Sterling, 2002); W. G. Forrest, *A History of Sparta: 950–192 B.C.* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1978); L. H. Jeffery, *Archaic Greece: The City-States, c. 700–500 B.C.* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1976).

Messenian War, Second (c. 650–630 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spartans vs. Messenian rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Messenia
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Messenians wanted to throw off the Spartan yoke.
OUTCOME: Despite early victories, the Messenians were ultimately defeated and enslaved.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Messenians were conquered by the Spartans in the First MESSENIAN WAR. About 650 B.C.E., growing increasingly restive under Spartan rule, they rebelled, rallying around the semilegendary leader Aristomenes (fl. seventh century). The war that ensued was both long and costly, driving the Spartans close to bankruptcy. In 630, at the Battle of Mount Eira, a weakened Spartan army was defeated. This catastrophe elevated Lycurgus (fl. seventh century) to leadership among the Spartans. He directed vast social reforms, which included conscription of all males into military service—a move designed to avoid another economic disaster in warfare. Indeed, under Lycurgus, Sparta became the first recorded civilization devoted primarily to war.

The strategy proved effective. The vast citizen-manned Spartan army crushed the Messenians, reducing them to the status of slaves, or helots.

See also MESSENIAN WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Griffin, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of Greece and the Hellenistic World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); Victor Davis Hanson, *The Wars of the Ancient Greeks* (New York: Sterling, 2002); W. G. Forrest, *A History of Sparta: 950–192 B.C.* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1978); L. H. Jeffery, *Archaic Greece: The City-States, c. 700–500 B.C.* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1976).

Messenian War, Third (c. 464–455 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sparta vs. Messenian helots of Laconia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peloponnese, especially Mount Ithome
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The helots wanted freedom from Spartan domination.
OUTCOME: The helots held out against the Spartans for years; those who survived the war were freed, but exiled.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The third war between the Spartans and Messenians was a slave revolt, the Messenians having been reduced to helots (slaves) by the conquering Spartans. When a major earthquake rocked Sparta in 464, the helots of Laconia took the opportunity to stage a rebellion. However, led by the semilegendary king Archidamus (fl. 476–427 B.C.E.), the Spartans suppressed them.

Still, the Messenians did not give up. They dug in at Mount Ithome in 463 and brilliantly resisted all Spartan attempts at siege. Following this, Sparta turned to Athens

for help, securing 40,000 hoplite (Greek infantry) reinforcements. These soldiers immediately proved undependable, however, because many in their ranks were antagonistic toward Sparta. (Perceived as treachery, this situation ignited the First Peloponnesean War between Sparta and Athens.) Despite the failure of the Athenian reinforcements, Messenian resistance could not long endure. In 455 B.C.E., the Mount Ithome stronghold collapsed. The Spartans, having no wish to attempt to subjugate the Ithome rebels, freed those who had survived the long siege, albeit exiling them from the Peloponnese. These exiles fled to Athens, where they joined the Peloponnesean wars.

See also Messenian War, First; Messenian War, Second.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Griffin, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of Greece and the Hellenistic World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); Victor Davis Hanson, *The Wars of the Ancient Greeks* (New York: Sterling, 2002); W. G. Forrest, *A History of Sparta: 950–192 B.C.* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1978).

Messiah War *See* Ghost Dance Uprising (1890–1891).

Messinan Rebellion (1674–1679)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Anti-Spanish rebels (with French support) vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Messina, Sicily, and adjacent waters
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebellion began with a dispute over the authority of the Spanish viceroy and grew into a full-scale rebellion against Spanish control of all Sicily.
OUTCOME: Although French aid allowed the Messinans to achieve victory, the withdrawal of French support brought about the abject subjugation of Messina.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but heavy as a result of postwar Spanish reprisals.
TREATIES: None

During the 17th century, Messina, Sicily, was controlled by Spain and governed locally by a Spanish viceroy. The contentious citizens of Messina frequently challenged the authority of the Spanish government, and, in 1674, one such challenge erupted into a riot between the viceroy's local supporters, called the Merli (aristocrats), and his opponents, the Malvezzi (democrats). The disturbance led to the removal of the viceroy, and Sicily offered governance not only of Messina but of the entire island to King Louis XIV (1638–1715) of France in return for his support in their opposition to Spain. Louis agreed, was named king of Sicily, and dispatched a fleet to take and occupy Messina in 1676. This marked the commencement of a three-year naval war between France and Dutch-allied Spain on the sea. Although the French prevailed against the Dutch and the Spanish, the expenses of this war and the ongoing Third Dutch War, created a crisis in France. Louis XIV precipitously withdrew the French fleet from Messina, leaving the city's rebels vulnerable to Spanish reprisals. Many were, in fact, executed. As a result of the rebellion, Messina was reduced from a major city to a backwater. Its population was reduced by half, and Spain enforced upon it a great degree of tyranny.

Further reading: Moses I. Finay Denis, Mack Smith, and Christopher Duggan. *History of Sicily* (New York: Viking Penguin, 1987).

Mexican-American War *See* United States–Mexican War.

Mexican Civil War (1857–1860) *See* Reform, War of the.

Mexican Civil War (1871–1877)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebels led by Porfirio Díaz vs. government of Mexico
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tlaxcala and Mexico City
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Díaz sought to topple the government and gain election as president.
OUTCOME: After two unsuccessful attempts at rebellion, Díaz defeated government forces in 1876 and was elected president the following year.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 16,000; government strength unknown
CASUALTIES: Rebels, 1,000+ killed; government forces, 1,900 killed, 800 wounded, 3,000 taken prisoner
TREATIES: None

Three candidates competed for election as president of Mexico in 1871, the incumbent Benito Juárez (1806–72), Sebastián Lerdo de Tejada (1825–89), and Porfirio Díaz (1830–1915). Juárez was reelected and appointed Lerdo as chief justice of the supreme court. Excluded from government, Díaz organized a rebellion, which was quickly put down. Díaz took refuge among mountain Indians until the death of Juárez in 1872 and the ascension to the

presidency of Lerdo, who proclaimed an amnesty for all those who had participated in the 1871 revolt.

Díaz unsuccessfully opposed Lerdo in the election of 1876, then led a revolt against Lerdo. Government forces defeated Díaz's rebels, who withdrew across the border into the United States, where they regrouped and resupplied. While this army, led by General Manuel Gonzalez (1833–93), recrossed the border, Díaz traveled to Veracruz by way of Cuba, then advanced to Oaxaca, where he assumed command of another army. Gonzalez's army came down from the north while Díaz attacked from Oaxaca, and the two forces converged on government troops in the province of Tlaxcala at the battle of Tecoac, November 16, 1876. The government forces were defeated with disastrous losses, and, Díaz advanced on the capital. Before his advance, Lerdo fled into exile, and Díaz was elected president in 1877. He became a ruthless dictator and was himself overthrown in the MEXICAN CIVIL WAR (1911).

Further reading: Enrique Krause, *Mexico: Biography of Power, A History of Modern Mexico, 1810–1996* (New York: HarperCollins, 1998); Walter V. Scholes, *Mexican Politics during the Juárez Regime, 1855–1872* (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1969); Paul Vanderwood, *Disorder and Progress: Bandits, Police, and Mexican Development,* rev. ed. (Wilmington, Del.: SR Books, 1992).

Mexican Civil War (1911)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Federal forces of Porfirio Díaz vs. forces of Francisco I. Madero, Pascual Orozco, and Francisco Pancho Villa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Madero both led and triggered revolutionary opposition to the dictatorship of Porfirio Díaz.
OUTCOME: Díaz was overthrown, but the 1911 war ushered in a long period of violent civil unrest.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Federals, 70,000; Rebel forces, about 20,000
CASUALTIES: Military deaths were under 1,000 total, but civilians suffered more extensive losses.
TREATIES: Treaty of Ciudad Juárez, 1911

Elected president of Mexico in 1877, Porfirio Díaz (1830–1915) had come to power on the heels of a civil war of his own making (*see* MEXICAN CIVIL WAR [1871–1877]). Thereafter, despite the pretense of national elections, Díaz served as Mexico's absolute ruler (with one brief interruption from 1880 to 1884) until 1911. Then, in the presidential election of 1910 the long-corrupt dictator was faced with a real challenge from the popular liberal candidate. Francisco I. Madero (1873–1913) was a frail but wealthy *hacendado* (rancher) and U.S.-educated lawyer from the northern state of Coahuila, who loudly promoted Díaz's ouster and announced his own Plan of San Luis Potosí, which called for liberal democracy in Mexico. President Díaz, in turn, had Madero arrested during the election and proclaimed himself the victor. On November 20, 1910, an outright rebellion, supported by the exiled Madero, broke out against the Díaz dictatorship.

Among those who rallied to Madero's cause was a band of some 500 peasants and outlaws led by a famous bandito leader named Doroteo Arango but known to his followers—and soon to history—as Francisco "Pancho" Villa (1877–1923). By December, when the rebellion spread to the south, into Morelos, Emiliano Zapata (1880–1919), hero of Mexico's poorest, including its Indians, joined the rebellion. Declaring himself to be fighting for "Land and Liberty," Zapata promised to transform this political uprising into a social revolution. By March Zapata had 3,000 troops in the south, and Madero's forces were growing stronger in the north as the venal, demoralized, and barely competent Federales lost control of extended areas of the country. Madero returned from his exile in Texas, crossing the Rio Grande to lead 500 devoted Mexican revolutionaries in an attack on Casas Grande on March 6, 1911. Although Madero suffered a minor wound and his troops met defeat, the revolution itself continued, especially in Chihuahua, where Pascual Orozco (1882–1915) and Pancho Villa led their troops in fights that grew ever bloodier, and where both sides committed atrocities.

In May 1911, they captured Ciudad Juárez, a victory that immediately revived the revolutionary opposition to Díaz throughout the country. Mexico City was wracked by anti-Díaz demonstrations, and the beleaguered dictator signed the Treaty of Ciudad Juárez, which called for his immediate resignation, after which Madero was elected to the presidency. His election, however, did not stem the tide of revolution. Ultimately Madero's revolution proved too conservative for those like Zapata, who dreamed of land for the landless and bread for the starving, and too moderate for those like Orozco, looking for the kind of spoils Mexico's civil upheavals had afforded its victors in the past. The first to break ranks was Zapata.

Realizing Madero's democracy was good for the bourgeoisie but hardly helped the poor peasantry of Morelos, Zapata resumed his social revolution on August 30, 1911. An unhappy Madero reluctantly sent the Indian general Victoriano Huerta (1854–1916) against his old ally. But Huerta had little luck finding, much less defeating Zapata's guerrillas. In November Zapata proclaimed his revolutionary agenda for Mexico in the Plan of Ayala, which included a vast program for the redistribution of land. Recruits flocked to his cause and before the year was out, Zapata's troops had captured Cuernavaca. Throughout

Madero's presidency and beyond, Zapata continued his agrarian rebellion, while further north the revolution's leaders lusted instead for spoils, plotting Madero's overthrow even as they touted liberal ideals. Madero had easily suppressed an attempted coup by former allies of the Díaz regime on December 13, 1911, and he put down a November rebellion in the north almost as easily, but afterward he felt it prudent to enlarge the Federal army from 30,000 to 70,000.

The most formidable of the northern revolts was led by the greedy Orozco, backed by the large landowners who had been the principal mainstays of Díaz. These aristocrats felt threatened even by Madero's very modest social reforms, and they funded Orozco's rebel army, whose troops marched under a red flag and were soon dubbed Colorados or Red Flaggers. They quickly overran Chihuahua and, by March 1912, had soundly defeated Madero's Federales. In response Madero once more sent out the hard-drinking General Huerta, this time to fight the Colorados. He soon not only checked Orozco's advance, but completely defeated him. Chasing the rebel leader across the border into the United States, Huerta mopped up the rebellion by October.

If Madero hoped for some relief, he was bound for disappointment. Almost immediately, Huerta began to show signs of megalomania (at one point he pretty much insanely threatened to execute Pancho Villa for insubordination). The thoroughly puffed up Huerta was soon scheming with the U.S. ambassador to free former Díaz supporters from prison and stage a coup, which cost Madero the presidency and his life in 1913. For the next 20 years, Mexico would be plagued by revolution and civil war.

See also MEXICAN CIVIL WAR (1920); MEXICAN Insurrections; MEXICAN REVOLT (1914–1915); VILLA'S RAIDS AND PERSHING'S PUNITIVE EXPEDITION.

Further reading: Ronald Atkin, *Revolution! Mexico 1910–1920* (New York: 1969); Enrique Krause, *Mexico: Biography of Power, A History of Modern Mexico, 1810–1996* (New York: HarperCollins, 1998); Stanley R. Ross, *Francisco I. Madero, Apostle of Mexican Democracy* (New York: AMS Press, 1970); Paul Vanderwood, *Disorder and Progress: Bandits, Police, and Mexican Development,* rev. ed. (Wilmington, Del.: SR Books, 1992).

Mexican Civil War (1920)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebels vs. Mexican federal government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico (especially Sonora, Veracruz, Mexico City)
DECLARATION: Creation of Sonora as a separate republic
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At issue was the succession to the presidency.
OUTCOME: The incumbent, Carranza, was driven out of office, and succeeded by the rebel leaders, Huerta and Obregón.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebel forces, 25,000; federal forces, 10,000
CASUALTIES: Light; however, Carranza was assassinated.
TREATIES: None

In 1920, Venustiano Carranza (1859–1920), president of Mexico, chose Ignacio Bonillas (fl. 1915–20) as his successor. Álvaro Obregón (1880–1928), minister of war in Carranza's cabinet and a man who had worked faithfully to put Carranza in office, felt betrayed by the anointing of Bonillas. He organized a revolt with Adolfo de la Huerta (1881–1955), former revolutionary and military officer, now governor of Sonora, and General Plutarco Elías Calles (1877–1945), commander of the Sonoran army. Together, they agitated for Carranza's resignation. During this campaign to oust Carranza, a general strike swept Sonora, and Carranza dispatched federal troops to break it. Huerta responded by declaring Sonora a sovereign republic, and Calles and Obregón recruited an army to oppose Carranza. Even Obregón, who had first made Carranza's ascendancy possible by his victories over Francisco "Pancho" Villa (1877–1923), deserted his president. As this popular revolt mounted, Carranza discovered that the government troops would not oppose the rebel army. With his allies and his generals deserting him left and right, he fled Mexico City with 10,000 followers on several trains. They headed toward Veracruz with gold looted from the Mexican treasury. Near Guadalupe, Carranza's lead train was destroyed by a dynamite-filled boxcar and 200 people were killed. As some 20,000 rebels began surrounding the trains, Carranza abandoned the rail lines and fled into the mountains of Puebla with a mere 100 loyalists. On May 14, he was murdered in his sleep by his own bodyguard. Obregón and his army marched into Mexico City unopposed, and Huerta was named provisional president until an election later in the year brought Obregón into office.

See also MEXICAN CIVIL WAR (1871–1877), MEXICAN CIVIL WAR (1911); MEXICAN REVOLT (1914–1915).

Further reading: Ronald Atkin, *Revolution! Mexico 1910–1920* (New York: 1969); Clarence C. Clarendon, *The United States and Pancho Villa; A Study in Unconventional Diplomacy* (Port Washington, N.Y.: Kennikat Press, 1972); John S. D. Eisenhower, *Intervention! The United States and the Mexican Revolution, 1913–1917* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1993); Enrique Krause, *Mexico: Biography of Power, A History of Modern Mexico, 1810–1996* (New York: HarperCollins, 1998); Paul Vanderwood, *Disorder and Progress: Bandits, Police, and Mexican Development,* rev. ed. (Wilmington, Del.: SR Books, 1992).

Mexican-French War (1861–1867)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France and Mexican conservative forces vs. forces loyal to Mexican president Juárez; U.S. forces were available, but never engaged
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France deposed President Benito Juárez and installed and supported Austrian archduke Maximilian as emperor.
OUTCOME: After France withdrew its support for Maximilian, he was deposed and executed, and Juárez was reinstated as president.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French forces, 40,000, augmented by Mexican conservative forces; Liberal forces, 20,000 at any one time; U.S. forces (never engaged) 50,000
CASUALTIES: France, 6,654 killed; Mexican conservatives, 5,671 killed, 2,159 wounded, 4,379 prisoners; Juárez's forces, 31,962 killed (including 11,000 executed), 8,304 wounded, 33,281 prisoners
TREATIES: None

When President Benito Juárez (1806–72) sought to bring economic relief to impoverished Mexico by declaring a moratorium on the payment of foreign debts, he opened the door to European imperialism, providing an excuse for Britain, France, and Spain to send a military force to Mexico, ostensibly to compel the payment of the debt. The joint army landed at Veracruz on December 17, 1861, and advanced to Orizaba. Acting in good faith, however, the British and Spanish contingents withdrew after Juárez persuaded diplomats that the debts would be paid in good time. Emperor Napoleon III (1808–73) of France, however, seized the opportunity to effectively render Mexico a puppet with the intention of creating a new French empire in the New World.

Napoleon III sent an army of 7,500 men under General Charles Ferdinand Latrille de Lorencez (1814–92) against Mexico City, which was defeated at the Battle of Puebla on May 5, 1862, by 12,000 men under General Ignacio Zaragoza (1829–62). (The victory is celebrated today as the Mexican national holiday of Cinco de Mayo.) French casualties were in excess of 400, whereas the Mexicans lost 215 killed and wounded.

After Puebla, Lorencez was relieved and replaced by General Élie Forey (1804–72), who arrived in September 1862 with an additional 30,000 troops. On February 17, 1863, the greatly enlarged French army, augmented by Mexican conservative forces, advanced from Orizaba for a new assault on Puebla, which was defended by a much smaller garrison under General Jesús Gonzales Ortega (1824–81). Under continual guerrilla attack, the French were not able to begin the assault on Puebla until May 4. On May 8, Ignacio Comonfort (1812–63) led a Mexican column to the relief of Puebla, but was ambushed and routed by a French force under General Achille Bazaine (1811–88). Comonfort died in this battle. The situation now hopeless for the Puebla defenders, Ortega surrendered on May 17.

The French army now advanced to Mexico City, marching into the capital on June 7. President Juárez fled the capital and set up a headquarters and government in exile near the Texas border. On June 12, 1863, Archduke Maximilian (1832–67) of Austria was enthroned at the behest of Napoleon III as emperor of Mexico. Although the French emperor intended that Maximilian would govern as his puppet, the new emperor took his office seriously and was determined to govern as his own man and for the benefit of the Mexican people. This notwithstanding, the liberal majority of the Mexican people were opposed to the foreign ruler in their midst, and a guerrilla war commenced.

Throughout the war in Mexico, the ongoing UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR prevented that country's involvement. When the war ended in 1865, however, President Andrew Johnson invoked the Monroe Doctrine, by which the United States had proclaimed its standing position that any act of European aggression against a nation in the Americas would be regarded as an act against the United States itself. General Philip Sheridan (1831–88) was dispatched with 50,000 troops to the Rio Grande, the border with Mexico. A diplomatic standoff developed and, at last, on February 5, 1867, Napoleon III withdrew his troops and support from Maximilian—who, in any case, had proved a disappointment in his failure to bend entirely to the French emperor's will.

With the French forces gone, Maximilian was supported only by conservative Mexicans, but stubbornly refused to abdicate. Juárez dispatched liberal forces under Mariano Escobedo (1827–1902) to attack Maximilian and his forces at Querétaro, which was besieged for 71 days. On May 14, Maximilian was betrayed by one of his own men into surrender. Despite protests and appeals from the international community, he was court-martialed, sentenced to death, and executed on June 19, 1867. With that, the war ended.

Further reading: Michelle Cunningham, *Mexico and the Foreign Policy of Napoleon III* (London: Palgrave, 2001); Enrique Krause, *Mexico: Biography of Power, A History of Modern Mexico, 1810–1996* (New York: HarperCollins, 1998); Ernst Pittner, *Maximilian's Lieutenant: A Personal History of the Mexican Campaign* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1993); Walter V. Scholes, *Mexican Politics during the Juárez Regime, 1855–1872* (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1969).

Mexican Insurrections (1926–1929)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mexican government vs. supporters of the Catholic Church (*cristeros*)

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: President Calles (and successive puppets) enforced the harsh anticlerical provisions of Mexico's 1917 constitution, thereby provoking violent uprisings among supporters of the church.
OUTCOME: Sustained government pressure repeatedly suppressed Catholic violence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mexican federal forces, 79,759; Agrarista militia, 25,000; Catholic rebels, 50,000
CASUALTIES: Federal forces and Agraristas, 45,000–60,000 killed; Catholic rebels, 25,000–40,000 killed
TREATIES: None

Mexico's constitution of 1917 included strong anticlerical measures, which went unenforced until the presidency of Plutarco Elías Calles (1877–1945), who entered office in 1924. When, two years later, the Mexican Roman Catholic Church made an official condemnation of the constitutional provisions, Calles responded harshly and provocatively. He closed Catholic schools, convents, and seminaries, and he ordered all priests to register with the government. Adding insult to injury, he condemned the Catholic Church in Mexico as treasonous. These actions incited Catholics all across Mexico to institute an economic boycott intended to bring the country to its knees. Purchases were cut to the barest of bare essentials. For their part, priests protested by ceasing to perform their offices, a move that created great unrest throughout the country. By the end of 1926, militant terrorist bands known as *cristeros* (for their battle cry, *"Viva Cristo Rey!"*—"Long Live Christ the King!") rebelled against the government, raiding and bringing terror throughout all Mexico. Led by a journalist named Rene Capistran Garza, a general named Enrique Gorostieta, and a friar named José Reyes Vegas (whom many called "Pancho Villa in a Cassock"), the *cristeros* came from all over Mexico and every social class, though 60 percent of them were poor or working class, and most lived in the western states of Michoacan and Jalisco. But this, unlike many of Mexico's civil wars, was a religious, not class, conflict. Revolutionary leaders had simply moved the nation too radically away from the Catholic Church for the comfort of Mexico's people. Nevertheless the Catholic Church quickly disavowed the cristeros. That did not, however, stop the Calles government from nationalizing church property and deporting a number of clergymen and even nuns. Certain prominent Catholic leaders were tried for treason and executed. Although this served to exacerbate antigovernment activity, the Calles regime was willing and able to mobilize extensive forces against the cristeros, and the movement was generally suppressed by the end of 1927 and beginning of 1928.

The elections of 1928 brought Calles's ally Álvaro Obregón (1880–1928) into office. He was assassinated less than a month into his term and replaced by Emilio Portes Gil (1891–1978), who governed essentially as a puppet of Calles. The following year, Mexico was swept by a new wave of religiously motivated antigovernment activity, led by a group of conservative generals. Order was restored, and Calles continued to pull the strings, maneuvering into office Pascual Ortiz Rubio (1877–1963). Before the end of 1929, Ortiz Rubio faced a weak insurrection, but continued in office as Calles's anticlerical puppet.

Further reading: Linda B. Hall, *Alvaro Obregón: Power and Revolution in Mexico, 1911–1920* (College Station: Texas A&M University Press, 1981); Enrique Krause, *Mexico: Biography of Power, A History of Modern Mexico, 1810–1996* (New York: HarperCollins, 1998); Jennice Purnell, *Popular Movements and State Formation in Revolutionary Mexico: The Agraristas and Cristeros of Michoacan* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1999).

Mexican Revolt (1914–1915)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Victoriano Huerta and Álvaro Obregón vs. Emiliano Zapata, Venustiano Carranza, and Francisco "Pancho" Villa. Later, Zapata and Villa vs. Carranza and Obregón.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Mexican government
OUTCOME: Carranza and Obregón defeated Zapata and Villa, and Carranza became president of Mexico.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Huerta and Obregón, 70,000; Zapata, 25,000; Carranza, 22,000; Villa, 40,000
CASUALTIES: Estimates vary wildly; at least 6,000 troops died on all sides; civilian casualties were much heavier, with estimates reaching 1 million during the height of the conflict and its guerrilla aftermath.
TREATIES: None

The Mexican general Victoriano Huerta (1854–1916) overthrew Mexican president Francisco Madero (1873–1913) in a coup d'état of February 18, 1913. However, Huerta, a right-wing dictator, immediately found himself opposed by four distinct and separate forces: Emiliano Zapata (1880–1919), who controlled much of southern Mexico; Venustiano Carranza (1859–1920), who controlled the northeast; Francisco "Pancho" Villa (1877–1923), the popular leader of the north; and Álvaro Obregón (1880–1928), who held the northwest. These three opponents of Huerta controlled perhaps 75 percent of Mexico—but were in no way united.

By the spring of 1914, Huerta had been fought to a standstill within and outside of Mexico City and in Veracruz on the Gulf coast. For his part, U.S. president Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924) refused to acknowledge the legitimacy of the Huerta regime, which was clearly hostile to the United States. Wilson sent an occupying force to Veracruz on April 21, 1914. This, combined with Villa's taking of Zacatecas and Obregón's seizure of Guadalajara, forced Huerta from office. Both Villa and Obregón raced to fill the resulting power vacuum. Because Obregón reached Mexico City first, he took the opportunity to proclaim his newfound ally, Carranza, "First Chief" of Mexico. Late in the year, Obregón and Carranza hammered out the organization of a government.

They labored against a background of sheer anarchy. Then Villa and Zapata occupied Mexico City, while Obregón and Carranza took Veracruz. Together, Villa and Zapata held about two-thirds of Mexico. The United States, however, recognized the Carranza government, and eight other Western powers followed suit. Because Carranza controlled the Mexican-U.S. border region, he was able to procure arms from the United States. Well supplied, and with Obregón's able military leadership, Carranza retook Mexico City early in 1915. Villa headed for the hills. Although Obregón gave chase and ran Villa and his forces to ground at the town of Celaya, fighting a three-day battle in April 1915, Villa, though essentially defeated, withdrew into the countryside of the north. With Zapata, Villa waged a low-level guerrilla war against the Carranza government, which continued through 1920.

See also MEXICAN CIVIL WAR (1911); MEXICAN CIVIL WAR (1920).

Further reading: Clarence C. Clarendon, *The United States and Pancho Villa; A Study in Unconventional Diplomacy* (Port Washington, N.Y.: Kennikat Press, 1972); John S. D. Eisenhower, *Intervention! The United States and the Mexican Revolution, 1913–1917* (New York : W. W. Norton, 1993); Enrique Krause, *Mexico: Biography of Power, A History of Modern Mexico, 1810–1996* (New York: HarperCollins, 1998); Frank McLynn, *Villa and Zapata: A History of the Mexican Revolution* (New York: Avalon, 2002); John Womack, *Zapata and the Mexican Revolution* (New York: Knopf, 1969).

Mexican Revolt (1994–1998)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Popular Revolutionary Army (EPR) vs. Mexican government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southwestern Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The EPR called for a radically new constitution.
OUTCOME: Undecided; a low-level state of guerrilla warfare and general unrest is ongoing as of early 2002.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Almost 400 killed, mostly civilians.
TREATIES: None

Beginning in January 1994, Indian guerrillas, proclaiming themselves the political followers of Emiliano Zapata (1880–1919)—*see* MEXICAN REVOLT (1914–1915)—staged a 12-day uprising in the southern state of Chiapas. Before a truce ended the "Chiapas Rebellion," 145 people were killed.

The peace was tenuous, and sporadic fighting between the Zapatistas and right-wing paramilitary groups in the south continued through 1996, when Mexican president Ernesto Zedillo (b. 1951) was faced with a new and simultaneous revolt, that of the Popular Revolutionary Army (EPR). While attempting to reach a peaceful compromise with the Zapatistas, the Zedillo government was attacked by the EPR in August 1996. The attacks were distributed over six Mexican states, and succeeded only in triggering a major government military counteroffensive, which forced the EPR into the mountains.

Although violence substantially abated by 1998, the EPR has continued to conduct a low-level guerrilla war against government forces and has issued a continual stream of antigovernment propaganda. The object is ultimately to secure a new constitution for Mexico.

Further reading: Tom Hayden, ed. *The Zapatista Reader* (New York: Avalon, 2002).

Mexican Revolts (1810–1815)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mexican rebels (led and later inspired by Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla, parish priest of Dolores) vs. Spanish Mexico (Royalists)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico
DECLARATION: The September 16, 1810, *Grito de Dolores*
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Popular uprising against Spanish rule
OUTCOME: The initial uprising was crushed and its leader executed; however, the independence movement survived and sparked several other revolts, none of which succeeded before the revolution of 1821.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 80,000; Royalist forces, 35,000–80,000
CASUALTIES: Rebels, 15,450 killed; Royalists, 2,145 killed
TREATIES: None

For 300 years today's Mexico and the Mexican borderlands that would become the American Southwest—California, New Mexico, Arizona, and Texas—had belonged to Spain, the world's oldest western empire. In the late 18th

century, Spain had made various efforts to revitalize the northern provinces, setting up a buffer between itself and the United States in hopes of vitiating the "foreign" threat to its North American frontier. Spain's real problems with its empire, however, proved to be internal rather than external. In 1808 Napoleon's (1769–1821) invasion of Iberia had led to a destabilization of the mother country that ultimately cost Spain its holdings in the New World (*see* NAPOLEONIC WARS).

It was the liberals in the Cortes, Spain's traditionally weak parliament, who led the resistance against the French; and it was these same liberals who promulgated reforms during the political chaos created by Napoleon's invasion. They established a representative government under a liberal constitution in 1812 and set up provincial legislatures and town councils in both the mother country and throughout the empire. After Napoleon's defeat and exile to Elba, the Spanish monarchy launched a restoration, dissolving the representative bodies or suspending their privileges, which in turn led to a revolt within Spain by the liberals and their supporters in the military. In the long run, though republican government was restored, the empire fell apart.

The republican movement that began in Spain took firm root in the colonies of the Western Hemisphere. Over the next decade the world witnessed the great Central and South American liberations. In Mexico, the upheavals were fed not only by the liberals' desire for representative government but also by mestizo discontent with social conditions, and the mixture created a cycle of revolt and repression that lasted until Mexico's war for independence became the climax of the New World revolutions. In 1810 a village priest named Miguel Hidalgo y Costillo (1753–1811) joined a group of liberal officers plotting against the Mexican viceroy, rallied 80,000 peasants—mestizos and Indians—into Mexico's first revolutionary army and led them to glory, shouting "Death to the Spaniards!"

Hidalgo y Costilla, parish priest of Dolores, issued his *Grito de Dolores,* the "Cry of Dolores," on September 16, 1810, calling for a revolt against Spanish rule over Mexico. The Grito also called for a policy of racial equality, the breakup of the great haciendas, and the redistribution of the land, which helps explain why Hidalgo y Costillo drew such a substantial following of Indians and mestizos. Led by the priest, they overran a number of towns, then began an advance on the capital, Mexico City. Royalist forces responded by attacking the advancing army at the Battle of Calderón Bridge, near Guadalajara, on January 18, 1811. Hidalgo y Costilla's army was decimated, and the priest himself fled.

A charming but politically naive man, Father Hidalgo imagined peasant dissatisfaction with existing conditions to be aimed mostly at the Spanish-born among the elite (the so-called Gapuchines)—as was his own resentment—rather than at the "white" upper classes in general. Apparently it never occurred to him that the Indians and mestizos might number among their enemies even the Mexican-born, those Creoles who controlled the military and provided most of the officers involved in the coming repressions as well as those leading the revolts. At any rate, after Hidalgo seized Guanajuato, his peasant army slaughtered every ethnic European in the city, Gapuchine and Creole alike. Perhaps deranged by the grisly results of his liberation movement, the priest completely lost control of his followers. Captured by royalist troops in Chihuahua in 1811, Hidalgo was beheaded. His skull remained displayed on a post outside Guanajuato for 10 years.

Nevertheless, his example, together with the *Grito de Dolores,* planted the seed of anti-Spanish revolt. Texas, for example, was embroiled in the Hidalgo revolt from the beginning. More than any other of the empire's borderlands, Texas had continued to suffer under attacks by the Comanche and the Apache, and—late in the 18th century—Spain had consolidated settlement there by ordering its citizens to abandon the missions, presidios, and villages of eastern Texas. In 1779, however, many of those Nacogdoches settlers, unhappy with their new homes around San Antonio de Bexar and the constant Comanche raids to which they were subjected, returned to the area. Enough of them had remained in San Antonio, however, for it to become a Spanish settlement as opposed to a mere cluster of churches, and in 1793, Spain secularized the Alamo mission, distributed its lands, and turned the buildings over to the area's military garrison. By the beginning of the 19th century, only about 3,000 Spaniards, including soldiers and converted Indians, lived in all of Texas, mostly in the scattered eastern settlements, but also around San Antonio and especially along the Rio Grande, where life was dominated by cattle and ranches, run by rancheros to whom the king had granted huge *mercedes* (ranch lands), and manned by mestizo and Indian vaqueros.

It was against the Tejano elite that a militia officer named Juan Bautista de las Casas (d. 1811) in 1811 led a successful uprising fueled by the resentments of poor soldiers and civilians. Answering Hidalgo's call for independence, Bautista unseated the royalist government in San Antonio, only to be captured and executed in a countercoup commanded by local clergy and regular army officers. One of Bautista's supporters—Bernardo Gutierrez de Lara (1774–1841)—escaped the repression to travel to Washington, where he pleaded with Secretary of State James Monroe (1758–1831) for aid in carrying out a revolution in Texas.

Monroe had his own problems: the James Madison (1751–1836) administration was just then staggering under the early defeats of the WAR OF 1812. Monroe did, however, manage to come up with a little money and a few American officers to help Gutierrez raise a motley army of

American mercenaries, Mexican rebels, Indian and mestizo peasants, and even some ethnic French pirates from Louisiana. In effect, Gutierrez had become a figurehead whose function was "to give a Mexican character to the army" of filibusters—soldiers of fortune, who took their name from the Dutch word *vrijbuiter,* who hired their muskets out to the highest bidder, and who were notorious for their dedication to debauchery as well as adventure. Gutierrez provided Madison and Monroe with "deniability" should Spain take umbrage at the coming attack on its sovereignty. Late in 1812, he launched an invasion of the province from the United States.

The Mexican revolutionaries and American soldiers of fortune captured Golidad and took San Antonio; they declared independence; they beheaded the Texas governor, a Spanish general, and 15 others; they began abusing the Mexican and Indian population of the province; and they fell to arguing over the future of Texas. By 1813, Gutierrez's army had swelled to some 1,500 men—850 or so of them American Volunteers, as the freebooters called themselves—and the Spanish viceroy in Mexico City, Francisco Javier de Venegas (r. 1810–13) recognized it for precisely the army of invasion that it was. Not taking kindly to American depredations against Spanish subjects, nor to impudent Mexican revolutionaries, he sent an army under General Joaquin de Arredondo (1768–1837) north to evict the U.S. land pirates and crush the rebellion. Most of the freebooters had deserted Gutierrez's cause by the time royalist forces caught up with them at the Medina River in August of 1814, where the Spanish troops all but annihilated the Americans. Of the 250 freebooters still alive after the battle, 150 of them were slaughtered in flight, "cut . . . in quarters, and suspended on poles and limbs of trees, like beef or pork for the packer. . . ." The republicans of San Antonio, too, suffered a bloody revenge at the hands of Arredondo. He executed 327 people in San Antonio alone.

There were other uprisings similar to Hidalgo's, the most serious led by another priest, Father José Maria Morelos y Pavon (1768–1837). But though Morelos was an altogether more realistic and practical man than Hidalgo, and though he turned his followers against Spain and defined his objectives, his rebellion was put down as brutally by the loyal regular army, and he was captured and executed in 1815. Mexico finally won its independence from Spain not because revolution grew from the class dissatisfactions of the Mexican people, but because its Creole military commanders grew disenchanted with Spanish rule. Thus it was that, six years later, a senior Spanish commander, Agustin de Iturbide (1783–1824), fearing that the more liberal government which had come to power in Spain might deprive him and his fellow officers of their "rights" (and, of course, their privileges), simply switched sides, turned against the viceroy, and launched the MEXICAN REVOLUTION (1821).

See also MEXICAN REVOLUTION (1823).

Further reading: Hugh M. Hamill, Jr., *The Hidalgo Revolt: Prelude to Mexican Independence* (Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1966); Brian N. Hamnett, *Roots of Insurgency: Mexican Regions, 1750–1824* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1986); Enrique Krause, *Mexico: Biography of Power, A History of Modern Mexico, 1810–1996* (New York: HarperCollins, 1998); David J. Weber, *The Mexican Frontier, 1821–1846: The American Southwest under Mexico* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1982); Richard White, *"It's Your Misfortune and None of My Own": New History of the American West* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1991).

Mexican Revolution (1821)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mexican coalition for independence vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico
DECLARATION: Plan of Iguala, February 24, 1821
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mexican independence from Spain—to escape the effects of the new Spanish liberalism
OUTCOME: A strong coalition of rebels and conservatives easily won independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At least 16,000 pro-independence troops; most of the Spanish royalist forces deserted
CASUALTIES: Few in minor skirmishes during 1821, because Spanish royalists deserted and offered little resistance; however, viewed as the culmination of a struggle that began in 1810, the cost of independence was probably half a million Mexican lives.
TREATIES: Treaty of Córdoba, 1821

This is the war by which Mexico won independence from the Spanish Empire, and it is especially interesting in that, unlike most wars of independence, it was a conservative revolution. In 1820, liberal forces assumed leadership of the Spanish government and compelled King Ferdinand VII (1784–1833) to restore the liberal constitution of 1812 (*see* MEXICAN REVOLTS [1810–1815]). Mexico's conservative element decided that the only way to avoid the great wave of liberalism that was sweeping Spain was to declare independence. This radical step was, in fact, a means of maintaining the status quo.

Thus, Mexico finally won its independence from Spain in 1821, not because the revolution stemmed from the class dissatisfactions of the Mexican people, but because its Creole military commanders grew disenchanted with Spanish rule. Men like Mexico's senior Spanish commander, Agustín de Iturbide (1783–1824), fearing that the more liberal government that had come to power in Spain

might deprive him and his fellow officers of their "rights" (and, of course, their privileges), simply switched sides.

To begin the subversion of the Spanish colonial government in Mexico, Iturbide talked the Spanish viceroy, Juan Ruiz de Apodoca (1767–1835), into turning over to him command of the Spanish armies—in order, Iturbide said, to suppress the Mexican rebels led by Vicente Guerrero (1782–1831). With 2,500 Spanish colonial troops under his command, Iturbide did indeed march against Guerrero, not with the purpose of crushing him, however, but of coopting him. Reluctantly, after a few skirmishes, Guerrero was persuaded to join forces with Iturbide.

On February 24, 1821, Iturbide and Guerrero jointly issued the Plan of Iguala, which called for the establishment of an independent Mexican monarchy, the establishment of Roman Catholicism as the state religion, and the proclamation of racial equality for all Mexicans. Rallying to the plan were the rebels Nicolás Bravo (1787?–1854) and Guadalupe Victoria (1789–1843), as well as arch conservatives, such as Anastasio Bustamante (1780–1853). Bustamante had a large contingent under his control, some 6,000 armed men, and he eagerly led them into the cause of independence. As Iturbide and his new allies led their forces in a sweep of Mexico, the remaining Spanish royal forces did not resist, but deserted. This left the new Spanish viceroy, Juan O'Donoju (1755–1821), little choice but to grant Mexico its independence, which was proclaimed in the Treaty of Córdoba of 1821.

Iturbide was proclaimed Emperor Agustín I by his troops, and, like Napoleon (1769–1821), he crowned himself—on May 19, 1822. The United States immediately recognized Mexico as a sovereign state, though Iturbide hardly lasted a year in power (*see* MEXICAN REVOLUTION [1823]).

Further reading: Timothy E. Anna, *The Fall of the Royal Government in Mexico City* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1978) and *Mexican Empire of Iturbide* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1996); Brian N. Hamnett, *Roots of Insurgency: Mexican Regions, 1750–1824* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1986); Enrique Krause, *Mexico: Biography of Power, A History of Modern Mexico, 1810–1996* (New York: HarperCollins, 1998); William S. Robertson, *Iturbide of Mexico* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1986); David J. Weber, *The Mexican Frontier, 1821–1846: The American Southwest under Mexico* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1982); Richard White, *"It's Your Misfortune and None of My Own,"* in *New History of the American West* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1991).

Mexican Revolution (1823)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mexican army vs. government of Agustín I, emperor of Mexico
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico
DECLARATION: Plan de Casa Mata, February 1823
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Overthrow of the short-lived Mexican monarchy and creation of a Mexican republic
OUTCOME: Under the leadership of Antonio López de Santa Anna and Guadalupe Victoria, the Mexican army forced Agustín I to abdicate, and a republic was declared.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Essentially, the entire strength of the Mexican army
CASUALTIES: Few
TREATIES: None

As a result of the MEXICAN REVOLUTION of 1821, conservative Mexican leader Agustín de Iturbide (1783–1824) crowned himself Emperor Agustín I of an independent Mexican monarchy. Agustín ruled with the majesty of an Asian potentate, quickly causing a national financial crisis. The Spanish occupied a fortress on the island of San Juan de Ulloa, situated off Veracruz, and from here they blocked Agustín's collection of duties. With this all-important stream of revenue choked off, he began a general program of confiscation to raise funds. His army did not approve, and, even worse, having gone months without pay, rebelled.

The uprising came when General Antonio López de Santa Anna (1794–1876) was ordered by Agustín to capture San Juan de Ulloa. Once he had command of the army, however, Santa Anna called for the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of an independent Mexican republic. In this he was joined by General Guadalupe Victoria (1789–1843), and the two of them jointly issued the Plan de Casa Mata in February 1823. This declaration called for the abolition of the empire and the adoption of a new constitution and congress for a new republic. The army immediately fell in behind the Plan de Casa Mata, and, confronted by a general mutiny, Agustín I abdicated in March 1823. He fled into European exile. Guadalupe Victoria became the first president of the independent republic of Mexico.

Further reading: Timothy E. Anna, *The Fall of the Royal Government in Mexico City* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1978) and *Mexican Empire of Iturbide* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1996); Brian N. Hamnett, *Roots of Insurgency: Mexican Regions, 1750–1824* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1986); Enrique Krause, *Mexico: Biography of Power, A History of Modern Mexico, 1810–1996* (New York: HarperCollins, 1998); William S. Robertson, *Iturbide of Mexico* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1986); David J. Weber, *The Mexican Frontier, 1821–1846: The American Southwest under Mexico* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1982); Richard White, *"It's Your Misfortune and None of My Own,"* in *New History of the American West* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1991).

Mexican War

See UNITED STATES-MEXICAN WAR (1846–1848).

Mexico, Spanish Conquest of

See SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO (1519–1521).

Miguelite Wars (War of the Two Brothers) (1828–1834)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Miguelites vs. Constitutionalists (with British, French, and Spanish allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pedro I of Brazil sought to oust his brother Dom Miguel from the Portuguese throne and reinstate a constitutional monarchy under his sister, Maria II.
OUTCOME: Once Pedro gathered international support, his forces were able to defeat the Miguelites and constitutional government was reinstated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Miguelites, 80,000; Constitutionalists, under 32,000 (including British, Spanish, and French troops)
CASUALTIES: More than 20,000 killed among all belligerents
TREATIES: Abdication of Dom Miguel, May 26, 1834

Europe was much destabilized by the FRENCH REVOLUTION (1789–1799) and the advent of Napoleon. Portugal struggled, especially in the wake of the PENINSULAR WAR. Its king John VI (1769–1826) had fled to Brazil after the French conquest in 1807, leaving in his wake a French-controlled regency overthrown by Portuguese liberals at Oporto on August 29, 1820 (*see* OPORTO, REVOLUTION AT). They invited John to return to Portugal as a constitutional monarch, and he did so reluctantly on July 4, 1821, leaving behind his eldest son Pedro I (1798–1834) as emperor of the newly independent Brazil. John's return touched off an unsuccessful revolt by his second son, Dom Miguel (1802–66), whose ambitions received the support of absolutist forces in Portugal when his brother ascended in Brazil. In any case, he failed in his attempt to restore the old system (*see* PORTUGUESE CIVIL WAR [1823–1824]) and went into exile in Vienna.

After King John died, the crown fell to Pedro, who—preferring to remain emperor in stable Brazil than to become king in unsteady Portugal—threw his support behind the liberals, issued a constitutional charter based on Britain's parliamentary system, and abdicated in favor of his young daughter, Maria da Gloria (1819–53). The exiled Dom Miguel once again tried to claim the throne and revive the absolute power of the Braganza dynasty, thus sparking a new PORTUGUESE CIVIL WAR (1826–27). When the British intervened on behalf of the constitutionalists, Dom Miguel came to terms with them and ended his second insurrection on April 18, 1828. He was named regent for the new Queen Maria II, whom he married by proxy, and the British withdrew.

Hardly had the English ships set sail, however, before Dom Miguel violated those terms, removing liberal governors from office and replacing them with conservative aristocrats, dissolving the Cortes and replacing it with a puppet assembly, and having himself declared king of Portugal in May. The ship bearing Maria II from Brazil to Portugal was diverted to England, where the British could protect her against the ambitions of her uncle (and husband). Meanwhile, Maria's backers resisted Dom Miguel's coup, only to be defeated at the battle of Coimbra on June 24, 1828.

Dom Miguel was formally crowned on July 11, 1828. Waging war on the constitutionalists, his supporters rapidly gained control of the Portuguese mainland. Liberals took to the Azores, where they were reinforced by volunteers from Brazil, Britain, and France. On August 12, 1828, Maria's supporters defeated a Miguelite naval attack on the Azores at Praia Bay, and afterward they were able to buy a naval squadron in England. Thus, the Azores remained in constitutionalist hands, and a regency on behalf of Queen Maria II was established there in 1829. Back in Brazil, Pedro abdicated his throne in favor of his son and headed for Europe to join the rebel cause, raise an army, and retake Portugal for his daughter. Thus did the war become popularly known as the "War of the Two Brothers."

The British supported Pedro's landing in the Azores in April 1831, where, again with British aid, he assembled an expedition to take Oporto, which fell to him in February 1832. The Miguelites laid siege to Oporto for a year, but the city was relieved by a naval attack under the command of Sir Charles James Napier (1782–1853) (known as Carlo Ponza) off Cape St. Vincent on July 5, 1833. This opened an opportunity for the constitutionalist forces to take Lisbon on July 24, 1833. At this point, Spain joined the fray on the side of Pedro and the constitutionalists, because Dom Miguel was sheltering Don Carlos (1788–1855), the pretender to the Spanish throne. Spanish troops now invaded Portugal and advanced against the Miguelite headquarters at Coimbra to capture Don Carlos (*see* CARLIST WAR, FIRST).

The international imbroglio over Don Carlos helped prompt Spain and Britain to unite with Portugal and France and form the Quadruple Alliance, dedicated not only to preserving constitutionalism in Portugal, but throughout Europe by opposing the Holy Alliance of Austria, Prussia, and Russia. Backed by the Quadruple Alliance and especially with Spanish aid, the constitutional forces quickly took Viseu, Coimbra, and Tomar, achieving final victory over the Miguelites at the Battle of

Santarém on May 16, 1834. Promised amnesty, Dom Miguel formally surrendered on May 26 at Évora-Monte. He renounced the throne and lived out the rest of his life in Germany. Pedro reinstated the constitution of 1826 and installed Maria II as queen of Portugal.

Further reading: David Birmingham, *Concise History of Portugal* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal,* 2nd ed. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976).

Milanese Civil War (1447–1450)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Francesco Sforza vs. republic of Milan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Milan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sforza sought to overthrow the newly created republic of Milan and claim what he deemed his right to a dukedom over the city.
OUTCOME: Aided by Venice, Sforza defeated the republic and was proclaimed duke of Milan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This civil war was associated with the VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1448–1454), in which Francesco Sforza (1401–66) seized Milan and Piacenza, then declared war on Venice. Sforza was the son-in-law of Filippo Maria Visconti (1402–47), the duke of Milan, who died without heirs. In this vacuum, a republic was established for Milan, but Sforza decided to seize the city for himself. In the course of his war with Venice, Sforza suddenly switched sides, allied himself with Venice against republican Milan. He laid siege to the city, which fell to him in 1450 and acknowledged him as duke. The short-lived republic came to an end.

Further reading: Thomas Arnold, *The Renaissance at War* (London: Cassell Academic, 2001); P. S. Chambers, *The Imperial Venice, 1380–1580* (New York: Harcourt, Brace Jovanovich, 1971); Lacy Collison-Morely, *The Story of the Sforzas* (New York: Dutton, 1934).

Milanese-Florentine Wars

See FLORENTINE-MILANESE WAR (1351); FLORENTINE-MILANESE WAR (1397–1402).

Milanese Revolt

See "FIVE DAYS" REVOLT.

Minangkabau War

See PADRI WAR.

Minnesota Santee Sioux Uprising

See UNITED STATES–SIOUX WAR (1862–1864).

Mithradatic War, First (88–84 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pontus (with Greek allies) vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome responded to the campaign of conquest led by the Pontic king Mithradates VI the Great by launching legions that defeated Greece and Pontus.
OUTCOME: Mithradates was forced back into Pontus and had to relinquish most of his conquests as well as render unto Rome a huge indemnity.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Mithradates VI the Great (c. 132–63 B.C.E.) embarked on a campaign to unite under his leadership as emperor the peoples surrounding his kingdom of Pontus. This led to friction with the Roman Empire, which exploded into war when Mithradates, seizing the major cities of Asia Minor, ordered the mass slaughter of many thousands of Romans.

Rome unleashed legions under Lucius Cornelius Sulla (138–78 B.C.E.)—who marched through Mithradates' ally, Greece, and crushed its army in 85—and Gaius Flavius Fimbria (d. 84 B.C.E.), who attacked Mithradates' forces directly. Although Fimbria fell in battle, by 84 B.C.E. the Romans had succeeded in driving Mithradates back within the confines of Pontus. Most of the territory Mithradates had claimed was forfeit, and Rome also imposed a huge indemnity on him.

See also MITHRADATIC WAR, SECOND; MITHRADATIC WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Griffin, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of the Roman World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); B. C. McGing, *The Foreign Policy of Mithradates VI Eupator, King of Pontus* (Leiden, Netherlands: E. J. Brill, 1986); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Mithradatic War, Second (83–81 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pontus vs. Roman legion under Lucius Licinius Murena
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Asia Minor, the region of the Kizil Irmak River
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Lucius Licinius Murena wanted to conquer the Kizil Irmak River territory of Mithradates VI the Great, king of Pontus.
OUTCOME: Murena was defeated, and Mithradates formed an important alliance with Quintus Sertorius, another Roman general.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Lucius Licinius Murena (fl. 83–82 B.C.E.), a power-hungry, glory-seeking Roman general, invaded territory held by Mithradates VI the Great (c. 132–63 B.C.E.) in the region of the Kizil Irmak River. Having lost most of his empire in the First MITHRADATIC WAR, from 88 to 84 B.C.E. Mithradates defended what remained with great vigor. He defeated Murena by 81. The war also propelled Mithradates into the arms of a sympathetic Roman general, Quintus Sertorius, with whom he joined forces in 75, thereby precipitating the Third MITHRADATIC WAR, from 75 to 65 B.C.E.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Griffin, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of the Roman World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); B. C. McGing, *The Foreign Policy of Mithradates VI Eupator, King of Pontus* (Leiden, Netherlands: E. J. Brill, 1986); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Mithradatic War, Third (75–65 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pontus vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought definitively to crush Mithradates and wrest Pontus from him.
OUTCOME: Mithradates was defeated, and Pontus fell to Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents have been identified.

Together, the Roman general Quintus Sertorius (d. 72 B.C.E.) (*see* MITHRADATIC WAR, SECOND) and Mithradates VI the Great (c. 632–63 B.C.E.), king of Pontus, schemed to attack Rome, Sertorius from the west, and Mithradates from the east. The assassination of Sertorius brought a sudden end to the menace from the west, and General Lucius Licinius Lucullus (c. 110–56 B.C.E.) was dispatched with an army to see to the defeat of Mithradates in the east.

The Romans trounced the Pontic forces in a series of battles, at Cyzicus, Cabira, Tigranocerta, and Artaxata, then attacked Mithradates in Pontus itself. Mithradates left his own country, but, by this time, the legions under Lucullus were worn out. They threatened mutiny, which left the general no choice but to withdraw. Despite having won all the battles, Rome therefore fell short of winning the war.

Pompey the Great (106–48 B.C.E.) replaced Lucullus as commander of the Roman forces and brought about an end to the war by definitively defeating Mithradates at the Battle of Lycus in 66 B.C.E. Mithradates sought refuge in the Crimea, where, in profound disgrace, he commanded a slave to put an end to his life. When his son-in-law and ally, Tigranes (c. 140–55 B.C.E.), king of Armenia, was defeated and captured soon after (*see* ROMAN-ARMENIAN WAR [72–66 B.C.E.]), he was compelled to relinquish to Rome all that he and his father-in-law had once ruled.

See also MITHRADATIC WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: John Boardman, Jasper Griffin, and Oswyn Murray, eds., *The Oxford History of the Roman World* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991); B. C. McGing, *The Foreign Policy of Mithridates VI Eupator, King of Pontus* (Leiden, Netherlands: E. J. Brill, 1986); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Mitre's Rebellion (1874)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Liberal forces of presidential candidate Bartolomé Mitre vs. government forces of Domingo Faustino Sarmiento
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Argentina, principally Buenos Aires
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Claiming election fraud, Mitre rebelled against the government.
OUTCOME: Mitre's liberal uprising was quickly crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but light
TREATIES: None

Argentine president Bartolomé Mitre (1821–1906) lost his reelection bid to Domingo Faustino Sarmiento (1811–88) in 1868 and again in 1874. Mitre claimed that the second election was fraudulent and led a liberal rebellion against Sarmiento's handpicked successor, Nicolás Avellaneda (1836–85). Sarmiento's candidate had the strong backing of the military, however, and federal troops crushed the rebellion in Buenos Aires on November 6, 1874. Avellaneda's presidency continued Argentina's conservative, military-backed government through the end of the 19th century.

Further reading: Daniel Lewis, *The History of Argentina* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2001); David Rock, *Argentina, 1516–1982: From Spanish Colonization to the Falklands War* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1985).

Mixton Rebellion (1541)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Zuni, Tewa, and Tiwa Indians vs. colonial forces of Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central New Mexico and Arizona
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A pueblo rebelled against Spanish conquest.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quickly put down, and the Indians were driven out of the pueblos—but they left behind little for the Spanish to enjoy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As early as the first voyage of Columbus in 1492, Indians told Spaniards tales of villages laden with gold, known as the "Seven Cities of Cibola." In search of these fabled cities, Francisco Vásquez de Coronado (c. 1510–54) set out in February 1540 to explore the unknown region north of the Rio Grande. During July 1540, Coronado and his troops encountered the Zuni pueblo of Hawikuh in central New Mexico. When the conquistador imperiously demanded the surrender of the pueblo, he was attacked, but, after an hour of combat, Hawikuh fell to him. Although he did not find gold in Hawikuh, Coronado occupied it and the surrounding Zuni territory, pillaging, food and anything else of value. After Coronado himself had moved on, the men he left behind to garrison the Tewa pueblos began to molest the women there. In 1541, an Indian named Texamatli (d. 1541) led a rebellion against the garrison conquistadores at a town called Mixton. The governor of New Spain, Niño de Guzmán (d. 1550), responded to this uprising by attacking several pueblos. Those Indians who were not killed in battle were burned at the stake. This demonstration of cruelty was utterly foreign to the traditions of the peaceful people of pueblo country. Tewas and Tiwas abandoned their villages to the Spaniards, but practiced a kind of scorched-earth policy, in which they took with them or destroyed virtually all of their possessions, leaving to the conquerors towns that were empty shells.

See also SPANISH CONQUEST OF NEW MEXICO; SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE PUEBLOS.

Further reading: Hugh Thomas, *Who's Who of the Conquistadors* (New York: Sterling, 2000); David J. Weber, ed., *New Spain's Far Northern Frontier: Essays on Spain in the American West, 1540–1821* (Dallas: Southern Methodist University Press, 1988).

Modena-Parma-Papal States Revolts *See* ITALIAN REVOLTS (1831–1834).

Modoc War (Lava Beds War) (1872–1873)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Modoc Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lava beds of northern California in the vicinity of the Lost River
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Modoc resistance to removal to a reservation
OUTCOME: The Modocs capitulated when their leader, Captain Jack, was captured and hanged
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Federal—from 60 to 225 troops and 100 militia for various engagements; Modoc—few, tribe's population about 400
CASUALTIES: Federal—recorded 41 killed, including General Edward R. S. Canby, 52 wounded; Modoc—unknown
TREATIES: None

The Modoc Indians were a small tribe of perhaps 400 individuals living in the rugged Lost River valley of northern California and southern Oregon. During the 1850s, they periodically terrorized travelers along the Applegate Trail, but by the 1860s, under the leadership of Kintpuash (1837–73)—whom the whites called Captain Jack—they sought accommodation and trade with the whites. However, they were unwilling to accept "removal" to a reservation, particularly one they had to share with the Klamath Indians, who were hostile to them. To escape removal, Captain Jack and his followers settled on the Lost River, near Tule Lake, living meagerly by trade with white neighbors.

By the end of the 1860s, increasing numbers of white settlers were moving into the area, and pressure mounted for the Indians' removal. On November 29, 1872, Captain James Jackson (fl. 1870s), heading up a cavalry troop, was sent to Captain Jack's camp to disarm the Indians. A scuffle broke out, shots were exchanged, and one Modoc was killed and another wounded, while two troopers died and six suffered wounds. The army officially dignified the exchange as the Battle of Lost River.

In the meantime, a group of local ranchers took matters into their own hands by attacking a smaller group of Modocs, followers of a man the whites called Hooker Jim (c. 1825–1879). Two ranchers died in the assault and another was wounded, but, as Hooker Jim hurried to join

forces with Captain Jack, 14 more settlers, encountered along the way, were killed.

With a combined strength of 60, Captain Jack and Hooker Jim hid in the twisted, remote lava beds south of Tule Lake, which the Indians called the Land of Burnt-Out Fires, and the whites called Captain Jack's Stronghold. Army efforts to dislodge the Indians failed, and a peace commission was appointed by President Ulysses S. Grant (1822–85) to negotiate with the Modocs. On Good Friday, April 11, 1873, despite warnings from the Modoc wife of his interpreter, General E. R. S. Canby (1817–73) and the other three commissioners were attacked by Captain Jack and others. Canby and another commissioner were killed; two others escaped.

General William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–1891), general in chief of the army, dispatched two large infantry units under General John M. Schofield (1831–1906) to hunt down Captain Jack and other Modocs.

On April 26 Modoc warriors surprised a reconnoitering party, killing all five of the party's officers and 20 enlisted men, as well as wounding another 16.

The Modoc victories took a toll on personnel as well as morale, but the Indians could not sustain the effort. By the middle of May, their food and water dwindling, the Modocs dispersed. On May 28, a cavalry detachment located Captain Jack, his family, and a number of followers. They did not surrender until June 3. With three other Modocs, Captain Jack was convicted of murder and hanged.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Keith A. Murray, *The Modocs and Their War* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1985).

Mogul-Afghan War (1565–1581)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hindustan vs. Kabul (part of Afghanistan)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern India and Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Akbar, Mogul emperor of Hindustan, needed to put down rebellious relatives in neighboring Kabul
OUTCOME: All rebellions were quelled; ultimately, Kabul was annexed to the Mogul Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mogul forces, 50,000; Kabul numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Nations governed by Islamic rulers lacked a system of primogeniture, whereby the oldest son in a family inherits all property and titles. Characteristically, therefore, the question of succession following the death of a ruler was open to dispute, and it provided fertile ground for many wars. In India, Muslims usually resolved the problem of succession in one of two ways. Either the kingdom in question was divided among the rivals or one contender would do battle with the others.

When Akbar (1542–1605), Mogul emperor of Hindustan (the Ganges plain in north India), chose to divide the kingdom, he gave control of Kabul to his half brother, Mirza Hakim (d. 1585). However, in 1565, the Uzbek nobles attacked Kabul, and Mirza Hakim fled to India to ask Akbar's aid. Akbar agreed and led an army to the defense of his brother-in-law. But a disloyal Mogul faction prevailed upon Mirza Hakim to rebel against Akbar. Fortunately for Akbar, Mirza Hakim had little stomach for a fight when the imperial Mogul army showed up. He quickly backed down, and Akbar made peace with him, only to be required to put down other rebellions among relatives and tributaries in the Second MOGUL WAR AGAINST GUJARAT.

Mirza Hakim led another rebellion in 1581. On February 8, Akbar invaded Afghanistan with 50,000 cavalry and 500 elephants. On August 9, he entered Kabul and defeated Mirza Hakim. Akbar then installed his half sister as governor of Mirza Hakim's lands. Mirza Hakim retained nominal title to Kabul, but he had no real power. When he died in July 1585, Kabul was formally annexed to the Mogul Empire.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul Conquest of Bihar and Bengal

See MOGUL WARS AGAINST THE SUR DYNASTY, LATER.

Mogul (Akbar's) Conquest of Kashmir, Sind, Orissa, Baluchistan

See MOGUL CONQUEST OF RAJATHAN.

Mogul (Akbar's) Conquest of Malwa

See MOGUL CONQUEST OF RAJATHAN.

Mogul Civil War (1600–1605)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul emperor Akbar vs. his son Salim
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hindustan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The war began as a dispute between father and son, then progressed to a

minor civil war between supporters of Akbar's son and a rival contender for the throne.
OUTCOME: In the first phase of the conflict, father and son reconciled, but the reconciliation was ambivalent, leaving the country ripe for renewed civil conflict in the later phase of the war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Akbar: unknown; Salim: 30,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Late in the reign of Akbar (1542–1605), Mogul emperor of Hindustan (the Ganges plain in north India), his oldest son, Salim (later reigned as Jahangir [1569–1627]), arrogantly governed Allahabad as if he were an independent monarch. This enraged Akbar, who took various opportunities to vent hostility against his son. This seemed only to feed Salim's arrogance. He formed an army and traveled with it throughout India during 1600–02, calling himself emperor and flouting his aging father's authority. At last, in 1602, the situation seemed to come to a crisis when Salim advanced on Agra, his father's capital, at the head of 30,000 troops. Akbar convinced his son not to fight, however.

Upon withdrawing from the abortive Agra confrontation, Salim hatched a scheme to use his troops to assassinate the man he saw as his arch-rival, Akbar's chief adviser. Although the adviser was warned of the scheme, he decided to face down Salim. That proved a grave mistake; for he was taken prisoner and beheaded, the severed head, on Salim's orders, cast into an outhouse.

Still, Akbar restrained himself and did not retaliate. At this point, he judged his son to be a drunk who lacked self-control. For his part, Salim expressed regret and renewed obedience by presenting his father with a gift of 350 elephants, symbolic of disarmament. In return, Akbar proclaimed Salim crown prince, personally placing the royal turban on Salim's head. Then, however, Akbar ordered his son placed under house arrest, in order to break him of his alcohol and opium addictions. The combined actions shocked Akbar's court, who favored the ascension of Khusrau (d. 1622), Salim's son, as crown prince. A riotous fight between followers of Salim and followers of Khusrau broke out during an elephant joust in 1605. With the fight rapidly escalating into a minor war, Akbar directed Salim's 13-year-old son Khurram (1592–1666)—later to rule as Shah Jahan—to stop the combat.

At his death later in the year, Akbar asserted that Salim, unstable and infirm, was his chosen successor. This left the Moguls ripe for renewed conflict in the MOGUL CIVIL WAR (1607).

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul Civil War (1607)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khusrau vs. his father, Jahangir
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lahore (Pakistan)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Khusrau wanted a territory to rule and attempted to seize Lahore.
OUTCOME: Khusrau's rebellion was crushed, but it gave rise to years of civil strife.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Akbar: Unknown; Salim: 30,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Jahangir (1569–1627) succeeded his father, Akbar (1542–1605), to the Mogul throne in 1605 after rebelling against his father in the MOGUL CIVIL WAR OF 1600–1605. His own reign was destined to be plagued by civil conflict.

Jahangir was successful in restraining his eldest son Khusrau (d. 1622) briefly, but Khusrau fled the royal court in 1607, quickly assembled a moblike army, and besieged Lahore, to coerce his father into giving him a territory of his own. However, Jahangir's forces quickly defeated Khusrau's rabble, and Khusrau was seized, clapped into irons, and disgraced. His titles and status as crown prince were taken from him and conferred on his brother Khurram (1592–1666), who later ruled as Shah Jahan. Seeking to make an example of the rebels, Jahangir beheaded and impaled them by the hundreds. As to Khusrau, he was bound in golden chains for a year. On his release, he called for the death of his father, who retaliated by putting out one of his eyes and imprisoning him through 1622, when Khurram, who had risen against Jahangir in SHAH JAHAN'S REVOLT, ordered this rival strangled to death.

See also MAHABAT KHAN'S INSURRECTION.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul Civil War (1657–1659)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The sons of Shah Jahan, Aurangzeb, Dara Shikoh, Shuja, and Murad, vs. one another; Aurangzeb vs. his father, Shah Jahan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern India
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The sons contended for succession to their father's throne; Aurangzeb, who triumphed over his brothers, then decided to overthrow his father.
OUTCOME: Aurangzeb emerged as the new Mogul emperor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable, but, at most Dara commanded 120,000 men; Aurangzeb, 90,000; Shuja, 45,000; Murad, 10,000; numbers for Shah Jahan unknown.
CASUALTIES: Dara Shikoh lost 10,000 killed at the Battle of Samugarh (May 29, 1658).
TREATIES: None

This civil war may properly be called a war of succession. Acting in the service of his father, Shah Jahan (1592–1666), Aurangzeb (1618–1707) proved a brilliant military commander by the age of 16 during the so-called Wars of AURANGZEB. Yet, while he was off fighting, it was his eldest brother, Dara Shikoh (1615–59), whom Shah Jahan was grooming to succeed him on the throne. In part, this was because Dara Shikoh was Shah Jahan's favorite, and in part the treatment was to keep him under control, to forestall a rebellion against the father.

Dara nevertheless grew restive. Seeing in his brother Aurangzeb as a powerful rival, he undercut Aurangzeb's victories against Golconda and Bijapur (1656–57) by substituting indemnities for conquest and annexation. Following this, Dara assumed the reins of government and summarily cut off all contact with Aurangzeb and his other brothers. His act triggered a war of succession.

Shuja (d. c. 1658) and Murad (d. 1661), two of Dara's brothers, each proclaimed himself emperor and assembled armies to march against Agra, the Mogul capital. Shuja was quickly defeated in a battle on February 24, 1658, and was chased to Bengal. Murad, however, allied himself with Aurangzeb. Together, they defeated an imperial force at Dharmat (April 25, 1658) and a force under Dara at Samugarh, near Agra, on May 29, 1658. This proved one of the most decisive battles in Indian history. Dara Shikoh lost 10,000 men, including nine major Rajput lords and 19 high Mogul nobles. Dara fled after this loss, but was captured at Deodari and summarily executed, strangled by Aurangzeb's slaves on August 30, 1659. In the meantime, Aurangzeb engineered the imprisonment and execution of Murad, then directed the ambush and murder of Shuja in Bengal. With his rivals disposed of, Aurangzeb easily overthrew his father, Shah Jahan, whom he imprisoned for the rest of his life in his own Agra fortress. Aurangzeb proclaimed himself emperor on June 26, 1658.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul Civil War (1707–1708)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Emperor Bahadur vs. (variously) his brothers, the Rajputs, Maratha, and Sikh rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India's Deccan region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bahadur sought to quell rebellion and rivalry for the throne.
OUTCOME: Bahadur triumphed over his brothers and other rebels, but his campaign against the Sikhs proved inconclusive.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Bahadur, 2,000 killed; his brothers probably lost an equal number; other losses unknown
TREATIES: None

At his death, the Mogul emperor Aurangzeb (1618–1707) wanted to divide his kingdom among his sons to avoid the war of succession that customarily followed the death of a Mogul ruler. Despite this, three of his sons violently contended for sole power. Princes Azam (d. 1707) and Kambakhsh (d. 1708), of India's Deccan region, were outraged after their elder brother Muazzam (1643–1712), governor of Kabul (Afghanistan), assumed the Mogul throne in 1707 as Bahadur Shah I. Azam attacked forces under Bahadur and was defeated and slain in 1708. Later that same year, his brother Kambakhsh died in battle.

Bahadur was free of his rivals, but he still needed to solidify his position in an ever-fractious empire. He mollified the Rajputs by releasing Ajit Singh (1678–c. 1720), a crown prisoner since the RAJPUT REBELLION AGAINST AURANGZEB in 1679. He allowed Ajit Singh to rule Marwar (Jodhpur). Bahadur also subverted the Marathas by freeing Shahu (d. 1749), their former ruler, who commenced a civil war against those who had executed his father Sambhagi in 1689 during the MARATHA-MOGUL WAR (1681–1705).

At last, only the Sikhs remained to oppose Bahadur. The emperor launched an assault on Lahore (Pakistan) against the Sikhs in 1710, but the outcome was inconclusive. Although the rebels retreated into the mountains, they remained a threat, and when Bahadur died in 1712, the MOGUL CIVIL WAR (1712–1720) ensued.

See also MOGUL CIVIL WAR (1657–1659).

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press,

1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul Civil War (1712–1720)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Jahandar Shah vs. Farrukh-Siyar; Farrukh-Siyar vs. the Sayyid brothers; Sayyid brothers vs. Muhammad Shah
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Competition for the Mogul throne
OUTCOME: A succession of rulers assumed the throne; the principal result of the civil war was the decline of the Mogul Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the Mogul emperor Bahadur Shah I (1643–1712) died, India's Mogul Empire was thrown into a bitter struggle over succession, which weakened the empire's resources and helped bring about its decline.

The eldest of Bahadur's four sons assumed the throne as Jahandar Shah (d. 1713). He immediately proved an incompetent ruler and was challenged by a relative, Farrukh-Siyar (d. 1719). Farrukh-Siyar allied himself with the Sayyid brothers—Husayn Ali (d. 1720) and Abdullah (d. c. 1721)—to carry out a coup d'état in 1713. At Farrukh-Siyar's direction, Jahandar Shah was strangled and Farrukh-Siyar installed in his place. With the help of the Sayyids, whose puppet he was, Farrukh-Siyar crushed the rebellious Rajput leader Ajit Singh (1678–c. 1720), as well as a powerful Sikh leader, Sanda Singh Bahadur (1670–1716).

Farrukh-Siyar surprised his Sayyid masters by rebelling against them in 1719. The ruthless brothers engineered his overthrow, took him captive, blinded him, and finally murdered him. However, neither of the Sayyids was in the royal line of succession. They therefore installed two new puppets in succession, a pair of weak and ailing underage boys, who lasted only from February to November 1719. Finally they brought to the throne a grandson of Bahadur Shah I, Muhammad Shah (1702–48).

By 1720 the Moguls were in full decline as the warlike Hindu Marathas extended their influence deeply into Hindustan. Muhammad Shah conspired against Husayn Ali, whom he or his henchmen poisoned. Shortly afterward, Muhammad fought Abdullah at the Battle of Hasanpur, near Delhi. Muhammad was victorious and imprisoned Abdullah, thereby bringing Sayyid control of the Mogul Empire to an end. However, the Mogul Empire itself was tottering. For all practical purposes, it fell in 1764, when the Emperor Shah Alam II (1728–1806) allied himself with the British East India Company, which had established a firm foothold in India (*see* SEVEN YEARS' WAR), displacing French colonial power there. The alliance was one-sided; Shah Alam II effectively became a British vassal.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul Conquest of Rajasthan (1561–1595)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul Empire vs. the kingdoms of Rajasthan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rajasthan, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Mogul emperor Akbar wanted to expand the Mogul Empire by dominating the Rajasthan kingdoms.
OUTCOME: All but a few of the Rajasthan kingdoms surrendered.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Moguls, about 60,000; Rajasthan, about 50,000
CASUALTIES: The siege of Chetor (1567–68) cost the Moguls 30,000 killed; in turn, the Moguls slaughtered 28,000 Rajputs there.
TREATIES: None

The Mogul emperor Humayun (1508–56) had spent so much time away from India during the Early MOGUL WARS AGAINST THE SUR DYNASTY (1535–1536), that the Hindu princes of central and western India, unsupervised, had become virtually autonomous. They formed a loosely structured alliance known as Rajasthan (or Rajputana) and, thus unified, created a threat to the Mogul hegemony.

It fell to Humayun's son and successor, Akbar (1542–1605), to deal with the problem of Rajasthan. In 1561, he launched a military campaign to conquer the central kingdom of Malwa, north of the Deccan. The following year, he established, through marriage, an alliance with the ruler of Amber (Jaipur). In this way, Akbar gained control of Jodhpur, Bhatha (Rewa), and a large portion of the Punjab and western Rajasthan by 1564. Next, between 1567 and 1570, Akbar accumulated control over all of Rajasthan by subduing its system of defensive fortresses, beginning with Chitor. This, the most formidable of the Rajasthan fortresses, took two years to capture (1567–68) and cost Akbar perhaps 30,000 of his men. When, at long last, it became apparent to Chitor's defenders that they were doomed, they performed the ritual of *jauhar*—burn-

ing their woman to death in preparation for a suicidal battle. This completed, the garrison of 8,000 sortied out against Akbar and was cut down to a man. After the fall of the fortress, Chitor was sacked with the loss of some 20,000 inhabitants. Ranthambhor, another fortress, also required a long siege, conducted from 1568 to 1569.

Following these brutal victories, Akbar, in 1570, called the Rajput rulers to a conference. Four Rajasthan kingdoms readily acknowledged his sovereignty. Another four soon followed. The only holdout was the western Mewar kingdom, which set up a kind of government in exile on an island in an artificial lake at Udaipur. Remarkably, Mewar managed to remain independent for the balance of Akbar's rule, even as he continued to enlarge the Mogul Empire by annexing Kashmir (1586), taking Sind (1590), annexing Orissa to Bengal (1592–94), and subduing Baluchistan (1595).

See also MOGUL WAR AGAINST GUJARAT, FIRST; MOGUL WAR AGAINST GUJARAT, SECOND.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul-Maratha Wars

See MARATHA-MOGUL WAR (1647–1665); MARATHA-MOGUL WAR (1670–1680); MARATHA-MOGUL WAR (1681–1705).

Mogul-Persian War (1622–1623)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Region around the fortress-city of Kandahar, Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Persians wanted to take Kandahar from the Moguls; the Moguls wanted to recover it.
OUTCOME: The city was taken, and the Moguls failed to retake it.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Abbas I the Great (1557–c. 1628), shah of Persia, wanted to capture the strategically situated fortress-city of Kandahar, which was held by the Moguls. He made an assault against it in 1605–06, but was pushed back by forces under the Mogul emperor Jahangir (1569–1627). In 1622, Abbas led another army against Kandahar, taking it after a siege of 45 days. Immediately, Jahangir planned a campaign to recover the fortress-city, ordering his son Khurram (1592–1666)—who subsequently ruled as Shah Jahan—to take an army from the Deccan into Kabul (Afghanistan) and make the assault. However, Khurram delayed his departure, and his father accused him of being in revolt. This prompted him to lead an army against his father in the so-called SHAH JAHAN'S REVOLT. Weakened by this action, the Mogul imperial forces were unable to retake Kandahar when they finally reached it in 1623, but the city would become a constant bone of contention between Persia and the Mogul Empire.

See also MAHABAT KHAN'S INSURRECTION; MOGUL-PERSIAN WAR (1638); MOGUL-PERSIAN WAR (1648–1653).

Further reading: David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (New York: Longman, 1988); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul-Persian War (1638)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul Empire vs. Persians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kandahar in Kabul (Afghanistan)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mogul emperor Shah Jahan wanted to retake Kandahar, lost earlier.
OUTCOME: The fortress-city was retaken, not through force of arms, but by bribery. Shah Jahan's grander plan, to recapture Samarkand, was aborted.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The strategic fortress-city of Kandahar had been lost by the Moguls during the MOGUL-PERSIAN WAR (1622–1623). In 1638, the Mogul emperor Shah Jahan (1592–1666) wanted to retake it as a step in a campaign to recover his ancestral Timurid homeland of Samarkand. Shah Jahan bribed the Persian governor of Kandahar, thereby obtaining the city's surrender without laying siege to it. Next, Shah Jahan refortified Kandahar and the surrounding area.

Shah Jahan did not succeed in his grand plan of taking Samarkand. Moreover, in the next war with Persia, the MOGUL-PERSIAN WAR (1649–53), Shah Jahan once again lost Kandahar to the Persians—this time permanently, although the Persian occupation continued to raise the ire of the Moguls.

Further reading: David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (New York: Longman, 1988); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul-Persian War (1648–1653)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kandahar, Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Moguls wanted to retake the strategically critical fortress-city of Kandahar.
OUTCOME: The Moguls repeatedly failed to retake the city.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Moguls, 60,000 (under Aurangzeb) and 70,000 (under Dara Shikoh); Persian numbers were greater.
CASUALTIES: Dara's assault on August 21, 1653, resulted in 1,000 Moguls killed and 1,000 wounded; Persian losses unknown.
TREATIES: None

In 1639 Persia invaded the Mogul Empire, capturing the Afghan city of Bamian and threatening the previously contested fortress-city of Kandahar to the south. Shah Jahan (1592–1666), the Mogul emperor, redoubled the fortifications at the strategically critical Kandahar, but for years no further Persian attack came.

In the meantime, Shah Jahan sent his son Murad (d. 1661) to invade Uzbek-controlled Badakhshan in 1646. He was soundly defeated, an event that prompted the Persians finally to mobilize against Kandahar. Preoccupied on other fronts, Shah Jahan delayed dispatching troops to the fortress-city until 1649, by which time Kandahar had fallen to the combined armies of the Persians and Uzbek Turks. The following year, Shah Jahan's son Aurangzeb (1618–1707) led an attack on Kandahar, but failed to retake it. Aurangzeb withdrew from the area, and, in 1652, returned with a larger army of 60,000 men. After two months of fighting, the still-superior Persian forces drove the Moguls into a second retreat. In disgrace, Aurangzeb turned over command of the armies to his oldest brother, Dara Shikoh (1615–59). Augmented to 70,000 men, that army conducted a five-month siege, but also failed to retake the fortress-city. Dara withdrew, having suffered 1,000 killed and an equal number wounded. Kandahar remained in Persian hands.

See also MOGUL-PERSIAN WAR (1622–1623); MOGUL-PERSIAN WAR (1638).

Further reading: David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (New York: Longman, 1988); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul-Sikh War (1675–1708)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul Empire vs. Sikh rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Sikhs wanted freedom from religious persecution.
OUTCOME: The Sikhs fought a long defensive war, but were finally subdued.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Sikhs of northern India, who combined elements of the Muslim as well as Hindu religions, were favored by the Muslim Mogul emperor Akbar (1542–1605), but were disliked by orthodox Muslims as well as Hindus. In 1606, a Sikh guru named Arjun (1563–1606) was tortured to death by order of the orthodox Muslim Mogul emperor Jahangir (1569–1627) on charges that Arjun had supported the rebellion of the emperor's son Khusrau (d. 1622) in the MOGUL CIVIL WAR (1607). The seventh guru, Har Rai (1630–61)—Arjun had been the fifth—threw Sikh support behind the liberal Muslim prince Dara Shikoh (1615–59) against his brother, the new Mogul emperor Aurangzeb (1618–1707). In retaliation, Aurangzeb forced Dara to send his son as a hostage to the Mogul court.

Such incidents steadily heightened the enmity between the Sikhs and the Moguls. At last, the ninth guru, Tegh Bahadur (c. 1621–75) staged a revolt in the Punjab. It proved short-lived, and the guru was taken captive to Delhi, the Mogul capital, where he was beheaded. The execution prompted Tegh Bahadur's son and the 10th guru, Gobind Rai Singh (1666–1708), to assemble a large Sikh army of the Khalsa ("pure"), with which they conducted a defensive war in the Punjab against far superior Mogul forces. Although this army held out for more than three decades, no major battles were fought, and Sikh resistance finally ended when the guru was assassinated in 1708.

See also MOGUL-SIKH WAR (1709–1716).

Further reading: K. S. Duggal, *Sikh Gurus: Their Lives and Teachings* (New Delhi: UBS Publishers, 1998); Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul-Sikh War (1709–1716)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul Empire vs. Sikh rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Punjab region of India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sikhs wanted independence from the Moguls.

OUTCOME: In the course of the war, the Sikhs made many gains, but the resistance collapsed when the Sikh's principal leader was captured and killed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Bahadur Shah I (1643–1712), Mogul emperor of India, secured an alliance with the Sikh followers of Guru Gobind Rai Singh (1666–1708) against the rival Marathas. Following Gobind's death in 1708, the Sikhs under Banda Singh Bahadur (1670–1716) turned on the Mogul garrisons that had been established in their country—the Punjab—and seized the fort at Sirhind in 1710. After this, the Sikhs were virtual rulers of the region, as only the city of Lahore (Pakistan) remained under Mogul control.

Banda conducted a guerrilla war against the Moguls, raiding from hillside strongholds. When Bahadur Shah died in 1712, Banda was able to retake Sadhaura and Longarh, and when the Mogul Empire was weakened by the MOGUL CIVIL WAR (1712–1720), which followed Bahadur's death, Banda and the Sikhs made further inroads. However, Bahadur Shah's successor, Farrukh-Siyar (d. 1719), defeated the wily Banda in battle. Taken captive, he was transported to Delhi, where he was publicly humiliated and tortured to death in June 1716.

See also MOGUL-SIKH WAR (1675–1708).

Further reading: K. S. Duggal, *Sikh Gurus: Their Lives and Teachings* (New Delhi: UBS Publishers, 1998); Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul War against Gujarat, First
(1535–1536)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul India vs. Gujarat
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Region near Delhi, west coast of India, and Kabul (Afghanistan)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Moguls attempted to consolidate their territorial gains in India.
OUTCOME: Bahadur, the Gujarat sultan, was temporarily defeated, only to resume his opposition to the Moguls.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the death of Babur (1483–1530), first Mogul emperor of India, his son Humayun (1518–56) assumed the throne. He proved a grossly incompetent ruler at a time when great vigor was called for. Although Babur had acquired a vast realm, stretching across north India from the Amu Dar'ya (oxus) to the Brahmaputra River, the Moguls at this stage were little more than military occupiers. (*See* BABUR'S CONQUEST OF BIHAR AND BENGAL; BABUR'S INVASION OF NORTHERN INDIA; BABUR'S LAHORE CAMPAIGN; BABUR'S RAIDS ON PUNJAB.) Babur's gains had yet to be forged into a genuine empire. Humayun began his reign in 1530 by failing to subdue the Hindu principality of Kalinjar in Bundelkhand, south of Delhi. Next, he provoked war with the Sur (Afghan) dynasty's Sher Khan (1486–1545), governor of Bihar. In this conflict, Humayun failed to take Sher Khan's key fortress at Chunar. Then Humayun moved south and west to invade Malwa and Gujarat (1535).

This time, Humayun seemed to be on the way to victory. He captured the forts of Mandu and Champaner and pushed Sultan Bahadur (d. c. 1536) of Gujarat all the way down India's west coast, where he secured refuge among the Portuguese. In the meantime, however, Sher Khan proclaimed independence and invaded Bengal in 1536. Worse, Humayun returned to Delhi without leaving behind occupation forces. Bahadur simply reentered his lands, resumed control of them, and continued to oppose Mogul authority.

See also MOGUL WAR AGAINST GUJARAT, SECOND (1572–1573).

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul War against Gujarat, Second
(1572–1573)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul Hindustan vs. Gujarat (with Portuguese aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gujarat
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Moguls wanted to crush Gujarat resistance to their authority in India.
OUTCOME: The Mogul emperor Akbar succeeded in subduing Gujarat opposition.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Moguls, 20,000; Gujarat rebels, 20,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty between Akbar and Portuguese colonists of Diu, 1573

Akbar (1542–1605), Mogul emperor of Hindustan, successfully completed the MOGUL CONQUEST OF RAJASTHAN, then advanced west, toward the kingdom of Gujarat, which had long opposed Muslim authority. Gujarat was defended by a complex of fortresses and fortress-cities, each of which required the mounting of a siege to capture it.

First to fall was Ahmadabad in November 1572. In December, Akbar subdued the fortress at Cambay and scored a victory against usurpers at Sarnal. Following these triumphs, Akbar retired to the court city of Fatehpur Sikri, which he had commissioned to be built to replace the traditional capitals, Agra and Delhi. Insurgents returned to plague Akbar by laying siege to Ahmadabad in 1573. They had counted on the monsoon to prevent Akbar from defending Ahmadabad, but Akbar led his troops through monsoon conditions across more than 500 miles in 11 days. Akbar retook Ahmadabad on September 2, 1573, captured the insurgent leaders and took many other prisoners from among the 20,000 rebels there. The Portuguese, who had supported Gujarat (they occupied the Gujarat island of Diu), concluded a hasty peace with Akbar.

See also MOGUL WAR AGAINST GUJARAT, FIRST.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul Wars against the Sur Dynasty, Early (1535–1536)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Moguls (with Persian allies) under Humayun vs. Surs under Sher Khan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Punjab and Bengal, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sher Khan and Humayun were locked in a struggle over the Indian throne.
OUTCOME: Sher Khan overthrew Humayun, who later was able to win back his throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Sher Khan (1486–1545) became Sur (Afghan) governor of Bihar after he participated in Babur's (1483–1530) Mogul conquest of India. (*See* BABUR'S CONQUEST OF BIHAR AND BENGAL; BABUR'S INVASION OF NORTHERN INDIA; BABUR'S LAHORE CAMPAIGN; BABUR'S RAIDS ON PUNJAB.) When Babur's successor, the Emperor Humayun (1508–56), failed to seize the Bihari fortress of Chunar in 1532, Sher Khan became his rival for power. Humayun left Delhi in 1535 to fight the Fisrt MOGUL WAR AGAINST GUJARAT, and Sher Khan took the opportunity to invade Bengal. At this, Humayun broke off his campaign in Gujarat and marched his army east through the monsoon, reaching Bengal in 1537.

Humayun engaged Sher Khan, only to be called away yet again, this time to combat a revolt in Delhi by younger brothers. In a ruthless masterstroke of strategy, Sher Khan positioned his forces between Humayun and Delhi. The emperor's troops, weakened by the hardships of the monsoon, were slaughtered at the Battle of Chausa in 1539. Humayun himself managed narrowly to escape by floating across the Ganges on inflated animal skins used to carry water. He fled to Agra, where he pardoned his brothers, naming one of them, Kamran (d. 1557), ruler of Kabul and Kandahar. After this, Humayun fled west, where he lost another battle, at Kanauj in 1540, this time nearly drowning in the sacred river before escaping with his defeated troops to Lahore (Pakistan).

In the meantime, Sher Khan established himself as emperor. Wanting to leave no loose ends, Sher Khan pressed the pursuit of Humayun, first into Sind, then east to Rajasthan, then back to Sind and Kandahar. There Humayun's own brother refused to give him refuge, and he fled to Persia. There he unsuccessfully offered to bribe the shah with the 240-carat Koh-i-noor ("mountain of light") diamond in exchange for an army.

It was 1547 before Humayun was able to raise an army and begin the return to Delhi. That journey consumed seven years of fighting in Kamran before he crossed into India in 1554. By this time, however, the mighty Sur armies were embroiled in a three-way war of succession, so that Humayun's combined Mogul-Persian forces were able to defeat the fragmented Sur armies, first in the Punjab and then at Rohtas (Rohtak) in 1555.

The long-suffering Humayun went to Delhi and Agra and reclaimed his throne, only to fall to his death down a flight of stone steps the following year while in a drunken stupor.

See also MOGUL WARS AGAINST THE SUR DYNASTY, LATER (1556–1557; 1575–1576).

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mogul Wars against the Sur Dynasty, Later (1556–1557; 1575–1576)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Moguls vs. Surs
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India, principally Punjab and Bengal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Moguls and Surs contended for control of India.
OUTCOME: The Surs were defeated.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Moguls, 20,000; Surs, 180,000
CASUALTIES: Precise numbers unknown, but, following the Battle of Tukra (Tukuroi), March 3, 1575, the Moguls beheaded their prisoners, creating 80 towers of severed skulls.
TREATIES: None

Akbar (1542–1605), son of the Mogul emperor Humayun (1508–56), inherited the troubled Mogul Indian throne at age 13. The young ruler was faced with the ongoing threat from the Sur dynasty, as well as opposition from the Hindu Rajput rulers (*see* the MOGUL CONQUEST OF RAJASTHAN), the rivalry of his brother, opposition from Gujarat (*see* SECOND MOGUL WAR AGAINST GUJARAT), and a rebellious son.

Humayun's 1555 victory at Rohtas (Rohtak) in the EARLY MOGUL WARS AGAINST THE SUR DYNASTY (1535–1536) had not entirely eliminated the Sur rivals for the throne. Sikander Sur (d. 1558) was vying for control of the Punjab, and Hemu (d. 1556), Hindu prime minister of Sur-dominated Bihar and Bengal, seized Delhi and Agra, establishing himself as the Rajah Vikramaditya. Akbar attended to this threat first, but soon found himself losing the second Battle of Panipat. Some 1,500 Hindu elephants were charging for the coup de grâce when, suddenly, Hemu was felled by an arrow that penetrated his eye. His army broke and ran, and the wounded Hemu was taken captive and executed.

With Delhi and Agra retaken, Akbar returned to the west, where he met Sikander Sur at the Battle of Sirhind (1557) and defeated him. At the defeat, a final Sur pretender, Daud Khan (d. 1576), fled to Orissa. Akbar determined that he could leave the weakly supported man alone for the time being. Years later, in 1574, during the course of Akbar's conquest of Bihar, Daud invaded Bengal with an army of 40,000 cavalry, 140,000 infantry, and 3,600 elephants. By vastly superior tactics, this massive force was defeated by 20,000 Mogul horsemen at the Battle of Tukra on March 3, 1575. While relatively few Sur warriors were killed in the battle, many were made prisoner. These unfortunate men were beheaded, the victors creating 80 towers of their severed skulls.

Daud attacked again at Rajmahal on July 12, 1576, but was defeated, captured, and executed. His death brought an end to Sur opposition to the Moguls in India.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Mohawk-Mahican War (1626–1628)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Iroquoian Mohawks vs. Algonquian Mahicans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vicinity of Albany, New York
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Mohawks sought first to break the Mahican monopoly on the Dutch beaver trade, then to take control of it themselves
OUTCOME: The Dutch reached trading arrangements with both tribes
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Indian policy of Dutch colonists in America vacillated between aggression and cruelty on the one hand and timid defensiveness on the other. The Dutch initially enjoyed friendlier relations with the Indians than did the Spanish or English because, unlike the Spanish, they did not come to conquer, and, unlike the English, they were less interested in settling than in trading.

Henry Hudson (d. 1611), an Englishman sailing for the Dutch, discovered the river that bears his name in 1609. Five years after this, Fort Nassau, a trading post, was built on Castle Island near Albany, the country of the Mahican Indians, with whom they struck a trade agreement in 1618. Fort Nassau was flooded out and abandoned in 1617, but the Dutch West Indies Company, formed in 1621, built Fort Orange on the site of Albany in 1624. The first Indian conflict came two years later, when the Mohawks launched a war against the Mahicans. The Dutch sent a small force under Daniel van Krieckebeeck (d. 1624) to help their trading partners, but were defeated, with the loss of three men in addition to van Krieckebeeck. The Dutch withdrew and concluded a treaty with the Mohawks.

Four years later, in 1628, Mohawk warriors once again hit the Mahicans, but they did not press their advantage. The Mohawks seemed less intent on annihilating the Mahicans than on taking control of the lucrative Dutch trade, much desired by all the beaver-hunting Indians (*see* BEAVER WARS). After 1628, the two tribes apparently reached an accord, because both conducted a profitable trade with the Fort Orangers.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Wilcomb E. Washburn, *The Cambridge History of the Native Peoples of the Americas,* 3 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996–2000).

Moldavian Revolt

See AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1591–1606).

Monfort's Rebellion

See BARONS' WAR.

Mongol-Burmese War (1277–1287)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Burmese Pagans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Borderlands of Burma (Myanmar) and Mongolia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The king of Pagan in Burma resisted Mongol demands for vassalage and tribute.
OUTCOME: The Pagan king ultimately accepted Mongol suzerainty over his kingdom.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Numbers unknown; but, at their greatest extent, Burmese forces outnumbered Mongol forces 3 to 1.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

The Mongol dynastic founder Kublai Khan (1216–94) attempted to force vassalage on the king of Pagan, Narathihapate (d. 1287). The king not only refused, but, as an insult to Kublai Khan, executed the emissary who bore the demand. Taking the initiative, Narathihapate then led an offensive against Kublai Khan in the Yunnan region of China. Narathihapate's elephant-mounted troops terrified the Mongol cavalry at the Battle of Ngasaunggyan in 1277, but commanders were able to avoid a panicked rout by ordering archers to dismount. On foot, the archers were able to disperse the Burmese elephants. That accomplished, they remounted and quickly counterattacked against the vastly superior Burmese forces, which outnumbered them 3 to 1. The counterattack was so vigorous that the Burmese withdrew. (The battle was described in detail by the European traveler Marco Polo [1254–1324], who witnessed it.)

In 1283, the Mongols staged a counteroffensive against the Burmese after turning away another border raid. After defeating the raiders at Bhamo, Yesin Timur (1267–1307), grandson of Kublai Khan, continued to advance through the Irrawaddy Valley and took Narathihapate's capital of Pagan. Narathihapate himself had escaped south to Bassein. Yesin Timur set up a Mongol puppet government—a circumstance that ultimately persuaded Narathihapate to accept Mongol suzerainty over his kingdom; however, his son, objecting to this capitulation, murdered Narathihapate in 1287. War would erupt anew in 1299 (MONGOL-BURMESE WAR OF 1299–1300).

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *History of Burma* (London: Cass, 1967); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); Sir Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (London: Susil Gupta, 1967); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol-Burmese War (1299–1300)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Shan (Mongolian Thai people of northeast Burma) vs. Mongols
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pagan, kingdom in Burma (Myanmar)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongols sought to reassert control of Pagan after the Shan overthrew the Mongol puppet government established in 1287.
OUTCOME: The Mongol force withdrew from Pagan, control of which remained with the Shan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 500 Mongols were killed at the Battle of Myinsaing, 1300
TREATIES: None

Mongol triumph in the MONGOL-BURMESE WAR (1277–1287) resulted in the establishment of a puppet government in the Burmese kingdom of Pagan. In 1299, the Shans of northeast Burma overthrew this government, prompting the Mongols to dispatch a small army to reestablish control. Shan forces resisted from within their fortified city of Myinsaing, killing 500 of the Mongol invaders, checking their advance, but failing to drive them out. The leader of the Shan believed that the Mongols would now send a much larger force and sought to forestall this by bribing the Mongol commander to withdraw. The Mongol commander accepted the bribe and withdrew to the Yunnan province of China. His deed did not go unpunished, however, as Mongol leaders later executed the corrupt commander; the Shan nevertheless remained in control of Pagan, because the Mongols never sent another army to mount a new attack.

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *History of Burma* (London: Cass, 1967); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); Sir Arthur P. Phayre, *History of Burma* (London: Susil Gupta, 1967); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol-Chinese War (1356–1368)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chinese (primarily under Zhu Yuanchang [Chu Yüan-chang]) vs. the Mongol overlords
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China, especially Yangtzi (Yangtse or Chang) River valley
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Chinese sought to overthrow their Mongol overlords.
OUTCOME: Amid a weakening Mongol administration, Zhu Yuanchang evicted the Mongols and established the Ming dynasty.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None; the Mongols, though defeated, refused to surrender

The Yuan dynasty, established in China by Kublai Khan (1216–94), was inherently flawed. Kublai Khan failed to respect Chinese culture and highhandedly appointed Muslim officials to high office, thereby offending the indigenous Chinese officials, the mandarins. He generally relegated the Chinese to a status inferior to the Mongols. Far from subjugating the Chinese, this approach provoked a number of revolts, which Kublai Khan quickly crushed. Over the years, however, the quality of the Yüan emperors declined, and the Mongols became less involved in administering China. By the 1350s, the rebellions became more numerous and intense, especially in the Yangtzi River valley. Local warlords usurped authority, and one of them, Zhu Yuanchang (1328–98), proclaimed himself emperor, establishing a capital at Nanjing (Nanking). From this base, Zhu Yuanchang invaded Beijing (Peking) in 1368, which easily fell to him. He drove the Mongols out of Beijing and the surrounding territory, pushing them to Shangdu (Shang-tu) and, ultimately, to Outer Mongolia. Zhu Yüanchang founded the Ming dynasty, although the dispossessed Mongols persisted in calling themselves the rulers of China.

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley, University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1975); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Civil War (1260–1264)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Kublai Khan vs. forces of Arik-Böke, his brother and rival
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mongolia, especially vicinity of Karakorum
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This was a civil war fought between rival factions.
OUTCOME: The faction led by Kublai Khan prevailed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No document survives

Mangu Khan (c. 1207–59) ruled the Mongols in harmony with his brother Kublai Khan (1216–94). When Mangu died in 1259, however, a younger brother, Arik-Böke (d. 1255), assumed leadership of the "Old Mongol" faction, to oppose Kublai Khan's Chinese-influenced, modern faction. Their respective factions elected both Kublai Khan and Arik-Böke to supreme leadership of the Mongols, and this ignited civil war.

One aspect of the war was the GOLDEN HORDE–IL-KHAN CIVIL WAR, which pitted another of Kublai Khan's brothers, Hülegü (d. 1265), against Berke (d. 1266), the leader of the Golden Horde. Another aspect of the war directly involved Kublai Khan against Arik-Böke. In 1260, Kublai Khan marched an army toward Arik-Böke's capital at Karakorum, sending Arik-Böke into retreat. The following year, the two armies engaged, but fought to a draw. Nevertheless, Arik-Böke attempted to retake Karakorum. Failing in this, he lost a succession of lesser engagements before he finally surrendered to Kublai Khan in 1264. Kublai Khan did not exact personal vengeance on his brother, but released him. It was enough that his forces had been defeated, and, indeed, Arik-Böke was finished as a political power.

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1975); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); Morris Rossabi, *Kublai Khan: His Life and Times* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1989); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Conquest of the Abbasid Caliphate (1255–1260)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. the Abbasid Caliphate and Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mesopotamia (Iraq) and Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Mongols sought the conquest of Mesopotamia, Syria, and, ultimately, Egypt
OUTCOME: The Abbasid Caliphate fell, and the Mongols conquered Mesopotamia and Syria, but failed to hold Syria and also failed to conquer Egypt.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Maximum Mongol strength, 400,000
CASUALTIES: Mongol casualties approached 10,000; other casualties unknown. Many civilian losses in the sack of Baghdad
TREATIES: None

Preparatory to an assault on Egypt, the Mongol khakhan (supreme ruler) Mangu Khan (c. 1207–59) assigned the conquest of the Abbasid caliphate to his brother Hülegü (d. 1265), who had founded the Il-Khan dynasty, which bordered the caliphate. Hülegü advanced from the Oxus (Amu Dar'ya) River to within a few miles of the Nile. Simultaneously, Hülegü's general, Ked-Buka (d. 1260), led a massive Mongol force out of Samarqand in 1256 and attacked the Assassins, a secret Muslim terrorist sect, destroying their power and putting Ked-Buka's army in position to take Baghdad, capital of the caliphate. With brilliant execution of a careful plan, Ked-Buka was able to surround Baghdad and assault it from three sides. The capital fell in 1258, after a yearlong siege, and Hülegü entered it, sacked it, seized the caliph, Al Mustasim (d. 1258), and ordered him trampled to death by horses.

Having captured the Abbasid capital and having killed its caliph, Hülegü invaded the rest of Mesopotamia (Iraq) with a vast army of 400,000. In 1259, he expanded the attack to Syria, and in 1260 the cities of Aleppo, Damascus, Gaza, and Sidon fell to him. These major conquests put Hülegü in position to take Egypt, but Hülegü had to abandon these plans when Mangu Khan died. With a power vacuum back home, Hülegü had no choice but to return. He left Ked-Buka and a garrison of 10,000 soldiers in charge of the conquered territory. This, of course, left him vulnerable to Egyptian attack, which came in 1260. Ked-Buka was killed and his 10,000-man force defeated. An Egyptian army went on to retake Syria.

Further reading: Guy LeStrange, *Baghdad during the Abbasid Caliphate: From Contemporary Arabic and Persian Sources* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1983); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Conquest of the Jin Empire
(1231–1234)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Jin dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongol conquest
OUTCOME: The Jin (Chin) dynasty fell to the conquest.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: About 80,000 Mongols; numbers of other combatants unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Mongol conquest of the Jin in northern China was the prelude to the MONGOL CONQUEST OF THE SONG [SUNG] EMPIRE and the MONGOL INVASION OF EUROPE. It was led by the son of Genghis Khan (c. 1167–1227), Ögedei (d. 1241), who became khakhan (supreme ruler) of the Mongols after the death of his father.

With his brother Tolui (d. 1232) and his leading commander, Sübedei (d. c. 1258), Ögedei advanced into Henan (Honan) Province, Jin territory. Like his father, Ögedei was a master of military strategy and had developed a plan whereby he and Sübedei advanced from the north and Tolui from the south. Tolui fended off Jin opposition and forced the Jin to withdraw into their capital, Kaifeng. Although Tolui died in battle, he had driven the Jin warriors precisely where Ögedei and Sübedei wanted them. Sübedei now led a siege against Kaifeng, constructing a great wall around the capital, by which the Jin were starved into submission. Seeing the collapse of the Jin to be imminent, Song warriors joined the Mongols in their siege. The Jin emperor Ai Zong (Ai Tsung; r. 1224–34), managed to slip through the siege lines, but, believing his situation hopeless, hanged himself. Ögedei's intervention forestalled wholesale destruction of the fallen Jin capital, much of which was preserved.

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1975); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Conquest of the Song Empire
(1234–1279)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Song (Sung) dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China and Southeast Asia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongol conquest
OUTCOME: After sporadic and protracted warfare against stubborn resistance, the Mongols conquered the Song and founded the Yuan dynasty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Kublai Khan fielded an army of 100,000; other numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Often heavy. Kublai Khan lost 60,000 of his army of 100,000; Song losses were heavy, as Song warriors typically fought to the death.
TREATIES: None

Immediately after the MONGOL CONQUEST OF THE JIN [CHIN] EMPIRE in 1231, 1233, and 1234, Ögedei (d. 1241), khakhan (supreme ruler) of the Mongols, commenced a war against the Song dynasty. In contrast to the conquest

of the Jin, war against the Song proved long and arduous—in no small part because the Mongol program of conquest at this point was so ambitious, encompassing the Middle East and Europe, as well as China, that Mongol resources were spread thin.

Warfare against the Song was chronic and indecisive for the first 20 years of campaigning, but was stepped up in intensity under Kublai Khan (1216–94) in the 1250s. Sübedei (d. c. 1258), serving as his chief commander, led a series of sieges, and, in 1252, Kublai Khan himself led an army of 100,000 through Tibet into Yunnan, defeating a Song army there before advancing through modern Laos, where he attacked the Song army from the south. He advanced northward and engaged a large Song army in 1254. Losses to the Song in men and territory were great, but so were losses to Kublai Khan's army, which, by 1254, had dwindled to 20,000.

After Kublai Khan had fought his running war of attrition, his brother, Mangu Khan (c. 1207–59), defeated the Song in a series of speedy victories between 1257 and 1259, when he succumbed to disease. Mangu Khan's death brought a long intermission in the war, which allowed the Song to regroup and, to a large extent, revive. It was not until 1268 that Sübedei's grandson Bayan (1237–95) resumed in earnest the conquest of the Song in a series of devastating victories culminating in the fall of Hangzhou (Hangchow), the Song capital. So determined was Song resistance, however, that the fighting continued even after Hangzhou had been taken. In 1279, a small Song force evacuated the boy emperor in a fleet that rode in the bay of Canton. Mongol vessels attacked, sinking the emperor's ship and drowning him. This at long last ended Song resistance.

The fall of the Song dynasty was the culmination of Mongol efforts to unite all China under its rule. Kublai Khan established the Yüan dynasty in place of the Jin and Song.

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1975); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Dynastic Wars

See Golden Horde Dynastic War.

Mongol Invasion of Annam and Champa

See Vietnamese-Mongol War (1257–1288).

Mongol Invasion of Europe (1237–1242)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Poles and Hungarians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland, Hungary, Austria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongol conquest
OUTCOME: The Mongols swept through Poland and Hungary, bringing great destruction, but they withdrew on the death of the khakhan Ögedei.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mongols, 150,000; at the Battle of Wahlstadt, Poland fielded 40,000; at the Battle of Mohi, Hungary fielded 70,000
CASUALTIES: Totals unknown; at the Battle of Mohi, Hungary suffered 40,000 casualties out of an army of 70,000
TREATIES: None

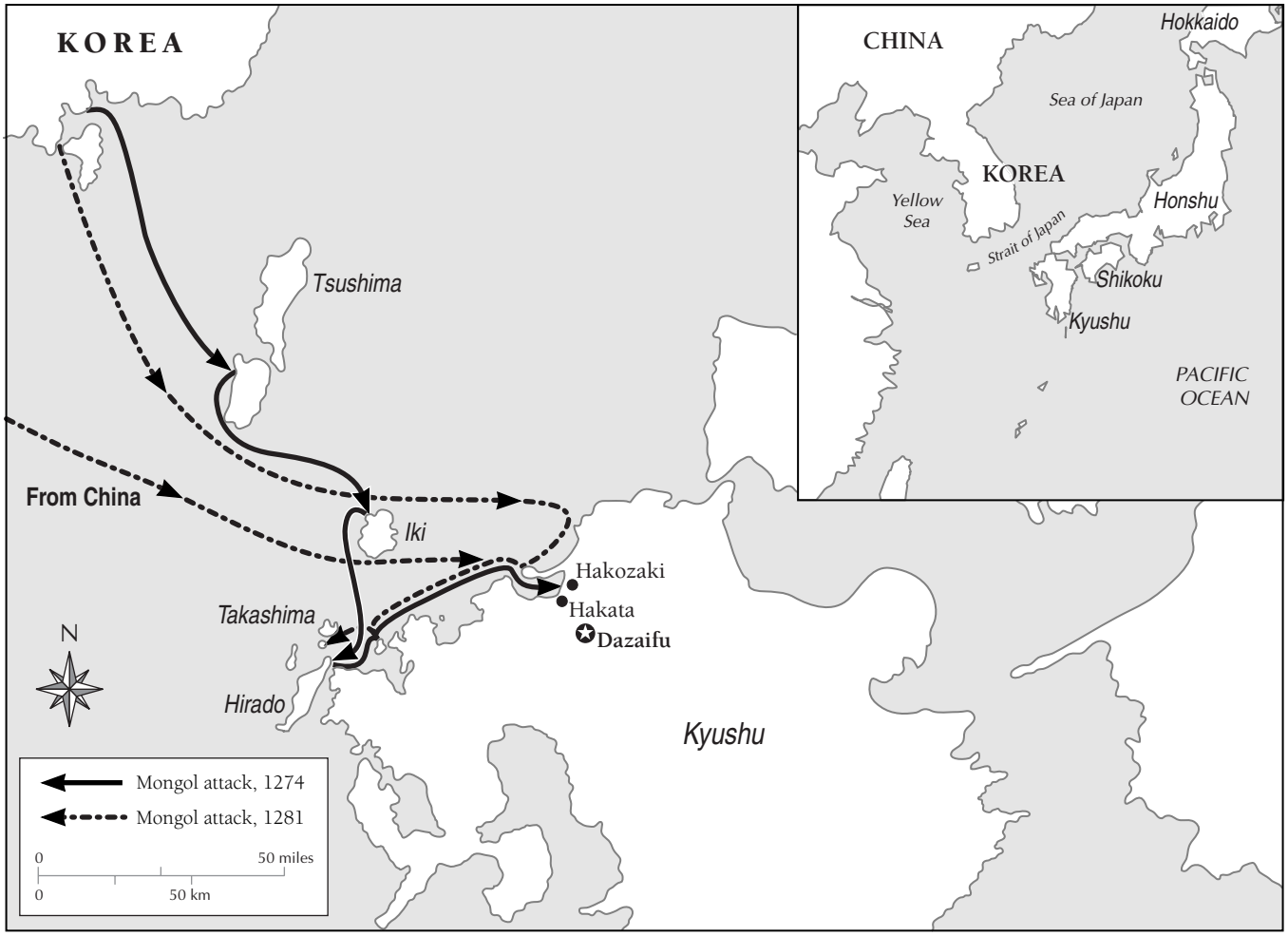
The Mongol invasion of Europe was part of a vast program of conquest including the Mongol Conquest of the Abbasid Caliphate, the Mongol Conquest of the Jin [Chin] Empire, and the Mongol Conquest of the Song [Song] Empire. The movement west of some 150,000 Mongol troops commenced in 1237 and began with the conquest of Russian principalities (Second Mongol Invasion of Russia). By 1240, the Mongol army, under the remarkable commander Sübedei (d. c. 1258), was in Poland. Lublin, Sandomierz, Boleshlav, Chmielnik, and Kraków were either captured or destroyed. The culminating battle came on April 9, 1241, at Wahlstadt, where Henry I of Silesia (1168–1241) led 40,000 troops, including a contingent of Teutonic Knights, in a defensive counterattack against the Mongols. The European troops were heterogeneous, poorly disciplined, and indifferently led. The Mongols, in contrast, were highly trained, highly motivated, and brilliantly led by commanders bred on strategy and tactics. When Sübedei noted that Henry had divided his forces into four units, he employed a so-called suicide tactic (*mangudai*), using a small advance force as a lure to draw the enemy out to attack. The small force would hold the enemy in place, absorbing its blows, until the hidden wings of the Mongol army would close upon the attacker like the jaws of a giant trap. This is precisely what happened at Wahlstadt. Not only was an army of 40,000 routed and decimated, Europe's finest warriors, the Teutonic Knights, were all but wiped out. As for Henry of Silesia, although he fled, Mongol patrols tracked him down, and he was beheaded. This act was intended to intimidate the citizens of nearby Liegnitz into instant capitulation; however, shown Henry's severed head, they resolved instead to resist. The Mongols destroyed the city, albeit incurring heavy losses themselves.

From the bloody triumph of Wahlstadt, the Mongols advanced into Hungary via the Carpathian Mountains, Galicia, Moldavia, Transylvania, and Saxony. Thus the Hungarians were surrounded by hostiles on four sides. Hungary's King Béla IV (1206–70) foolishly sent the bulk of his army (the most formidable in Europe) to the north, near Pest (Budapest), where he thought the main attack would come. At Mohi on the Sajo River, on April 11, 1241, Béla divided his 70,000 men, making a probing attack with an advance unit against a small Mongol detachment. Sübedei, always the master of tactics, hid his main force and, at night, struck the main part of Béla's force, which was sleeping in camp. Surprise was total and resulted in the loss of 40,000 Hungarians, more than half of Béla's army. Thoroughly demoralized after the Battle of Mohi, the rest of the army fled, as did Béla, leaving Pest open to the Mongols. On December 25, 1241, they invaded the city and burned it. From here they raided into Austria (1242) and, doubtless, would have continued their westward advance had word of the death of the khakhan (supreme ruler) Ögedei (d. 1241) not prompted them to return to Asia. Thus the Mongol army returned home undefeated.

Further reading: Jesse Chambers, *The Devil's Horsemen: The Mongol Invasion of Europe* (New York: Sterling, 2001); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Invasion of Japan, First (1274)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongol (with Korean allies) vs. Japan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kyushu, Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongol conquest
OUTCOME: A storm forced an end to the Mongol and Korean amphibious invasion, and the forces withdrew to Korea.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None



Mongol invasions of Japan, 1274 and 1281

Having conquered Korea in 1241 (MONGOL INVASION OF KOREA), the Mongols decided to use the country as a platform from which to launch an invasion of Japan. When the Japanese refused a surrender demand, a combined Mongol-Korean fleet landed at Kakata in Kyushu. Although the Mongols possessed military superiority over the Japanese, a storm wrecked some of the landing fleet, delaying the operation and buying the Japanese time to mass more defenders. Under this pressure, the Mongols and Koreans aborted the invasion and withdrew to Korea.

See also MONGOL INVASION OF JAPAN, SECOND (1281).

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan; From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Invasion of Japan, Second (1281)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols (with Korean allies) vs. Japan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kyushu, Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongol conquest
OUTCOME: The Mongols were unable to breach strong Japanese fortifications and, at sea, were defeated by a combination of a Japanese fleet and a terrible storm or kamikaze ("divine wind").
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mongols, 150,000; Japanese forces were lesser
CASUALTIES: Most of the Mongol army was destroyed.
TREATIES: None

Kublai Khan (1216–94) delayed a second invasion attempt against Japan long after the failure of the first attempt (*see* MONGOL INVASION OF JAPAN, FIRST) and was provoked to the second foray only after Japan not only rejected Mongol demands for submission but also killed Mongol envoys. In 1281, Kublai Khan assembled a Mongol-Korean fleet of 4,500 vessels carrying 150,000 invasion troops. As in the earlier attempt, the invaders seized outlying islands and, from these, mounted an invasion at Kyushu. This time, however, they met intense resistance. Taking a lesson from the first invasion attempt, the Japanese built strong fortifications on Kyushu. These held the Mongol army at bay while a Japanese fleet battled the Mongol armada at sea.

About two months into the operation, disaster struck the Mongol fleet, which was mostly wrecked in a storm (the Japanese believed this to have been a "divine wind, [or *kamikaze*]), leaving the beleaguered attackers on land without supplies. The Japanese counterattacked, wiping out most of the Mongol-Korean army. Japan was never menaced by the Mongols again.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan; From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Invasion of Korea (1231–1241)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Korea
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Korea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongol conquest
OUTCOME: The initial conquest was swift, but subsequent rebellions brought a long period of raiding and suppression of rebel forces.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When a Mongol envoy conveyed the demand of the khakhan (supreme ruler), Ögedei (d. 1241), that Korea must submit to Mongol suzerainty, the messenger was, by way of response, murdered. Ögedei ordered his leading general, Sübedei (d. c. 1258), to invade. Within less than a year, a Mongol puppet was installed on the Korean throne, but a rebellion in 1232 sent him fleeing. When Ögedei ordered the puppet king to report to him at Karakorum, he refused and, in 1235, Ögedei dispatched a force to punish him by subjugating Korea anew. Over the next six years, the Mongols methodically raided Korea and suppressed all opposition. At last, the king submitted entirely to the Mongols, who reinstated him.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan; From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Invasion of Russia, First (1221–1223)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Khivans, Alans, Cherkess, Kipchak Turks, and Russian princes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Uzbekistan, Georgia, Caucasus, and Crimea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongol conquest
OUTCOME: The theater of the war was conquered by the Mongols and became the Kipchak Khanate.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the Battle of the Kalka River, the Kipchaks and Russian princes fielded 80,000 men against an inferior number of Mongols.
CASUALTIES: The Battle of Kalka River resulted in the loss of most of the Kipchak-Russian army of 80,000.
TREATIES: None

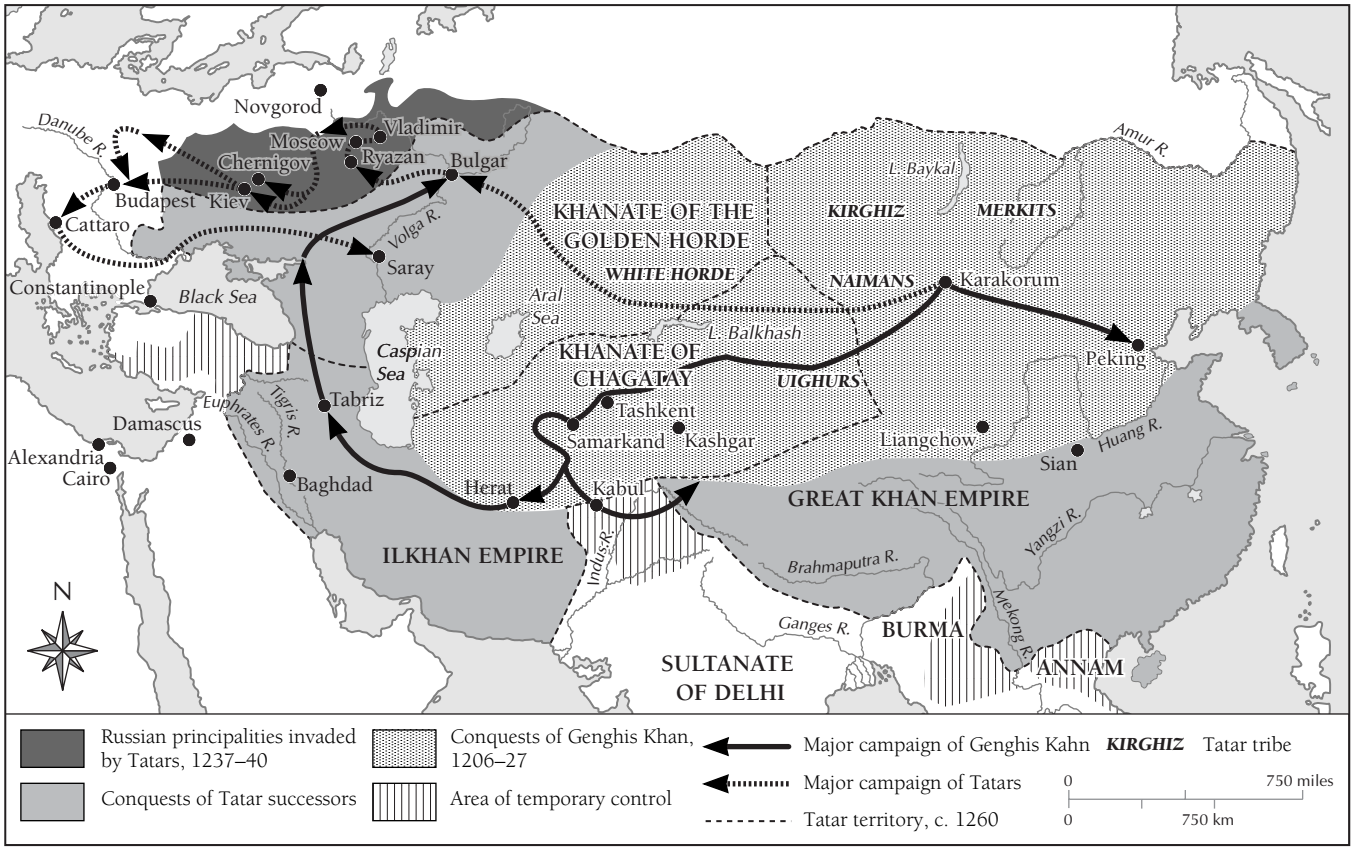
The Mongols' first invasion of Russia was incidental to a punitive pursuit of the shah of Khwarazm (Khiva), who had fled after the Mongols destroyed Bukhara in central Uzbekistan. The shah was run to ground near the Caspian Sea and found dead there in 1221. With two Mongol armies now in the area, however, the Mongol commanders set about raiding through Azerbaijan and Georgia. In Georgia, Tiflis (Tbilisi) fell to the Mongols before the end of the year. The raiders then destroyed Margaha and Hamadan, and in 1222 raided the steppes north of the Caucasus. Here they were confronted by allied Alan, Cherkess, and Kipchak tribes. The Kipchaks were rapidly defeated, but the others united with the Russian princes at the Kalka River. Here, in 1223, the Kipchak-Russian force, approximately 80,000 men, attacked the smaller Mongol army under Sübedei (d. c. 1258). Despite their inferiority of numbers, the Mongols were far better trained, equipped, and led. Sübedei used a fast-moving circling tactic, pouring fire from his archers into the Kipchak-Russian ranks, almost entirely destroying the enemy.

From the Battle of the Kalka River, the Mongols captured the Genoese port of Sudak on the Crimean Peninsula, then marched up the Volga River, where they harassed Bulgars and Kangli Turks. After this, the Mongols returned to Persia. The Mongol emperor Genghis Khan (c. 1167–1227) gave the conquered Russian territory to his eldest son, Jöchi (d. 1227), and, after the Second MONGOL INVASION OF RUSSIA in 1236, it became known as the Kipchak Khanate.

Further reading: Charles J. Halperin, *Russia and the Golden Horde: The Mongol Impact on Medieval Russian History* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987); Geoffrey A. Hoskin, *Russia and Russians: A History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2001); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Invasion of Russia, Second
(1236–1240)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Russians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western and central Russia



Mongol invasions of Russia, 13th century

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongol conquest
OUTCOME: By 1240, the Kipchak Khanate (central Russia) was firmly in the hands of the Golden Horde, as was Kievan Russia (Ukraine).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but heavy among the conquerors and conquered alike
TREATIES: None

The First MONGOL INVASION OF RUSSIA made great inroads into Russian territory and staked out the Kipchak Khanate, but it did not deliver the territory wholly into the hands of what became known as the Golden Horde of Batu Khan. Therefore, in 1236, Mongol forces assembled in Great Bulgaria, near the Volga River, and, after ravaging Great Bulgaria, advanced into European Russia.

Mangu Khan (c. 1207–59) subdued Great Hungary in 1236, defeating the Bashkirs and Kipchaks, then advanced into Hungary proper by 1241. In the meantime, Batu Khan (d. 1256) destroyed the Russian cities of Riazan and Kilomna in 1237, conquered most of central Russia in 1238—the realm of Prince Vladimir falling to him—then went on toward Novgorod. Like many other conquerors after him, Batu Khan was defeated not by an opposing army, but by the elements. His troops survived the bitter winter, only to become bogged down in a vast muddy thaw. Unable to make further headway, Batu Khan withdrew and was idle throughout 1239. In 1240, he renewed the invasion, ravaging Kievan Russia (Ukraine) along the Dnieper River. He destroyed Kiev itself, then established complete control of the area.

Further reading: Charles J. Halperin, *Russia and the Golden Horde: The Mongol Impact on Medieval Russian History* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987); Geoffrey A. Hoskin, *Russia and Russians: A History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2001); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Invasion of Syria (1299–1300)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Syrians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Essentially a massive hit-and-run raid rather than an occupation
OUTCOME: The invasion was successful, but the Mongols either failed or chose not to occupy the region on a permanent basis.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the great age of Mongol expansion, the two centuries spanning 1200 to 1400, Mongol forces under Il-Khan Mahmud Ghazan (r. 1294–1303) attacked and captured Damascus and used this Syrian capital as a base from which they overran all Syria. However, Mahmud Ghazan failed to establish a permanent presence in the region and, no sooner had he completed his conquest, than he withdrew from Syria—which, however, would be subject to periodic Mongol raids.

Further reading: David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Invasions of India (1221–1398)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India, chiefly the Punjab
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongol conquest
OUTCOME: The Mongol raids during this period were disorganized and random.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the Battle of the Indus, Mongol forces numbered 40,000 against Indian forces of 30,000.
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of the Indus, Indian losses were much more than half of the 30,000-man force.
TREATIES: None

Generally, Mongol invasions were major campaigns guided by detailed plans and carefully formulated strategies. In contrast to this, however, the first invasion of India was almost accidental. It came about when the son of the Khwarazm shah, Jalal-ad-Din (or Jalal al-Din; d. 1231), escaped Mongol captivity and fled to Khorasan, where he mobilized resistance, then fled to Afghanistan and organized resistance there as well. From there he took refuge in the Hindu Kush Mountains.

Genghis Khan (c. 1167–1227) led a Mongol army in the Battle of Bamian, laying waste that city, then pressed his pursuit of Jalal-ad-Din into India. He ran his quarry to ground at the Indus River. Genghis Khan commanded about 40,000 troops against Jalal-ad-Din's 30,000. The Muslim forces had the river at their backs, but were protected on the right flank by a bend in the river and, on the left, by a mountain ridge. Genghis Khan perceived that the weaker position was the enemy's left, and he dispatched specially trained mountain cavalry to attack it. Rolling up Jalal-ad-Din's flank, Genghis Khan was able to envelop him completely. Most of the 30,000-man

force was wiped out, although Jalal-ad-Din himself escaped.

After the Indus River battle, Genghis Khan decided to focus his attention on gaining control of Khorasan, so he withdrew from India. The next invasion came in 1241 and was not followed by another until 1292. Another hiatus came until 1299. From this time until 1308, Mongols frequently raided in and about Lahore and throughout the Punjab. After 1308, the Mongols refrained from invasion except for a brief raid on Delhi in 1329. It was not until TAMERLANE'S INVASION OF INDIA in 1398 that the Mongols made a concerted effort to gain control of the region.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981).

Mongol-Persian War, First (1218–1221)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Persia, especially Khwarazm (Khiva)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia
DECLARATION: Genghis Khan against Khwarazm
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The invasion began as retribution for the killing of Mongol trade emissaries.
OUTCOME: Much of Persia was subjugated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mongol, 200,000; other numbers unknown, but much smaller in any single engagement
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The war began after Genghis Khan (1167–1227) sent military aid to Muslim Turks suppressing an uprising in Kara-Khitai. The Mongol mission liberated Kara-Khitai, from which Genghis Khan decided to send a peaceful trading mission into neighboring Khwarazm, one of the three realms that at the time made up Persia (the other two were Transoxiana and Khorasan). Muhammad (r. 1200–20), the shah of Khwarazm, seized the caravan and executed the Mongol emissaries, whereupon Genghis Khan demanded reparation. When no reparation was forthcoming, the Mongol leader declared war.

Genghis Khan sent a 200,000-man army into Persia, destroying all cities that failed to surrender. The population of each resisting city was killed, except for artisans and engineers, who were recruited into the Mongol number. Those cities Genghis Khan destroyed were permitted to rebuild, once they acknowledged Genghis Khan's suzerainty.

In the face of this destruction, the Khwarazmian shah fled. The Mongols gave chase, sacking along the way Bukhara and the capital city of Samarkand in 1220. By timely surrender, Herat and Merv, major centers of trade, wisely avoided destruction. The war continued through 1221 as one of many MONGOL INVASIONS OF INDIA, but Muhammad Khwarazm Shah had been permanently deposed.

See also MONGOL-PERSIAN WAR, SECOND (1230–1243).

Further reading: David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (New York: Longman, 1988) and *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol-Persian War, Second (1230–1243)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mongol conquest
OUTCOME: Persia and the surrounding region fell to the Mongols.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Having escaped the general slaughter of the 1221 Battle of the Indus River during the first of the MONGOL INVASIONS OF INDIA, Jalal-ad-Din (or Jalal al-Din; d. 1231), son of the shah of Khwarazm, fled to Delhi, where he married the daughter of the local sultan. With his father-in-law's aid, he advanced across the Indus in 1224, raided Lahore and the Punjab, both controlled by the Mongols, and captured Tabriz and Tiflis (Tbilisi) in 1225 and Armenia in 1227, where he defeated a small Mongol army. In 1230, the Mongol khakhan (supreme ruler) Ögedei (d. 1241) assembled a major Mongol army to destroy the forces of Jalal-ad-Din. He was surrounded at Diyarbakir in 1231, but eluded capture; however, Syria, Syrian Mesopotamia, and Anatolia (Turkey) fell to the Mongols, along with Persia.

See also MONGOL-PERSIAN WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (New York: Longman, 1988) and *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Mongol Revolts (1755–1760)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. Mongol tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Turkistan and western Mongolia

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Chinese acted to suppress rebellion among the Mongols.
OUTCOME: The Mongols were suppressed, and their territory became an autonomous region under Chinese suzerainty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Mongol tribes, especially the Dzungars, in eastern Turkistan and western Mongolia frequently rebelled against the government of the Chinese emperor Qianlong (Ch'ien-lung; 1711–99). The Chinese general Zhaohui (Chao-hui; 1708–64) led an expedition to crush the rebellions and, in 1757, defeated the Dzungars and other Mongol tribes. Eastern Turkistan and western Mongolia became the Xinjiang Uighur (Sinkiang Uygur) Autonomous Region under the suzerainty of China.

Further reading: Wolfram Eberhart, *A History of China,* 3rd ed. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969); Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture* (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1975); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. A. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001).

Monks, War of the (1465)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tendai warrior monks vs. Shin warrior monks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): In and about Kyoto, Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Religious rivalry
OUTCOME: Inconclusive
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This was a conflict between rival warrior monks: the Tendai, based on a hill in northeast Kyoto called the Hieisan, and the Shin, within Kyoto proper. The Tendai invaded the city and burned down the Shins' Hongwanji Temple. The violence sparked an uprising outside the city as well; other sects began to fight with one another. Despite quick expansion, the war soon petered out, albeit without resolution.

The War of the Monks was a manifestation of the anarchy that prevailed during this period, in which neither emperor nor shoguns (military overlords) had effective power and authority.

Further reading: John W. Hall, *Japan; From Prehistory to Modern Times* (Tokyo: C. E. Tuttle Co., 1971); James Murdoch, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (New York: Routledge, 1996); George B. Samson, *A History of Japan,* 3 vols. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958–63).

Monmouth's Rebellion (1685)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England vs. the duke of Monmouth
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Somersetshire, England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Monmouth sought to succeed Charles II to the throne.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed, Monmouth beheaded, and the other rebels punished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Monmouth's army, 9,000; royalist forces, 2,700
CASUALTIES: Monmouth's army, 1,384 killed in action, 1,000 made prisoner, of whom 200 were executed and 800 transported to Barbados exile; royalists, 400 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

James Scot (1649–85), duke of Monmouth, was proposed by the first earl of Shaftesbury as the heir to the throne of Charles II (1630–85) in preference to the Catholic duke of York, James (subsequently King James II [1633–1701]). When Monmouth attracted many supporters, he was threatened and had to flee for his life to Holland. He returned to England after the death of Charles II, where he proclaimed himself king and raised an army of 9,000 supporters. The duke of York, having ascended the throne as James II, sent an army under Louis de Durfort, the second earl of Feversham (1641–1709) to intercept Monmouth's force. Colonel John Churchill (1650–1722), commanding the Household Cavalry, defeated Monmouth, largely with artillery fire, at the Battle of Sedgemoor, in Somersetshire, on July 6, 1685. Monmouth's force was decimated, and although Monmouth himself escaped death in battle, he was soon captured and beheaded. Of 1,000 of Monmouth's men taken prisoner, 200 were hanged and the rest shipped off to Barbados by judgment of Chief Justice George Jeffreys (c. 1645–89) in what came to be called the Bloody Assizes.

Further reading: David Johnson, *Monmouth's Rebellion* (New York: Viking Penguin, 1968).

Mon Revolt *See* BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1740–1752).

Montenegran-Turkish Wars *See* TURKO-Montenegrin WAR, FIRST; TURKO-MONTENEGRIN WAR, SECOND.

Montenegro Revolt *See* VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1714–1718).

Moorish-Christian Wars in Spain *See* SPANISH CHRISTIAN-MUSLIM WAR (912–928); SPANISH CHRISTIAN-MUSLIM WAR (977–997); SPANISH CHRISTIAN-MUSLIM WAR (1001–1031); SPANISH CHRISTIAN-MUSLIM WAR (1172–1212); SPANISH CHRISTIAN-MUSLIM WAR (1230–1248); SPANISH CHRISTIAN-MUSLIM WAR (1481–1492).

Moorish-Frankish Wars *See* FRANKISH-MOORISH WAR, FIRST; FRANKISH-MOORISH WAR, SECOND.

Moors' Conquest of Spain *See* MUSLIM CONQUEST OF SPAIN.

Morant Bay Rebellion (1865)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain vs. native Jamaican rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morant Bay
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The protestors wanted access to government lands.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was put down harshly, and the British government, to avoid full-scale rebellion, acted to mitigate the effect of the action.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 2,000; government numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Fifteen were killed and 31 wounded in the initial ation, the Morant Bay courthouse arson; three more whites were slain in subsequent action; 439 rebels were executed and 600 more flogged.
TREATIES: None

After hard-pressed Jamaicans were refused permission to use government lands for planting, mobs in St. Ann and St. Thomas parishes set fire to the courthouse at Morant Bay on October 10, 1865, while the parish council was in session. The chief magistrate and 14 other whites were killed (it is not known how many black Jamaicans died). In response, Jamaica's British governor Edward John Eyre (1815–1901) imposed martial law and dispatched troops to suppress the "rebellion." George William Gordon (d. 1865), a prominent black merchant, was executed as a ringleader, producing outrage throughout the island. In a successful effort to forestall a greater rebellion, the Jamaican assembly voted itself out of existence, the Crown recalled Governor Eyre, and Parliament created Jamaica as a crown colony under a royal governor. However, government troops burned some 1,000 native huts, executed 439 rebels, and sentenced another 600 to flogging. Eyre, brought up on government charges for his brutality in suppressing the uprising, was acquitted.

Further reading: Gad J. Heuman, *The Killing Time: The Morant Bay Rebellion in Jamaica* (Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press, 1994); Edward Long, *History of Jamaica* (Montreal: McGill-Queens University Press 2003).

Morgan's Raids on Panama (1668–1671)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Morgan's buccaneers vs. Spanish colonial forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Panama
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Morgan was hired by the British Crown to harass the Spanish along the Spanish Main.
OUTCOME: Morgan's raids in Panama disrupted Spanish interests there and netted Morgan a personal fortune.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Morgan's raiders numbered about 2,000. Panama was defended by fewer than 3,000 Spanish troops.
CASUALTIES: 406 buccaneers killed or wounded; 782 Spanish troops killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

Henry Morgan (c. 1635–88), a Welsh mariner, was hired by the English Crown to harass vessels on the so-called Spanish Main—the South American coastal region between Panama and the Orinoco River. On July 10, 1668, Morgan led a fleet of a dozen ships manned by 460 pirates, who captured the port town of Porto Bello on the Caribbean side of the Panamanian isthmus. One hundred thirty men of the Spanish garrison were killed before the survivors surrendered.

The following year, Morgan sailed again, but his 200-gun flagship, *Oxford,* exploded, with the loss of 200 men. It was December 16, 1670, before he made a new assault, with 37 ships manned by about 2,000 "buccaneers." They raided the rich Spanish fortress-city of Panama in January 1671. In February the city's defenses were breached and the city sacked.

Morgan withdrew on February 24 with a vast hoard of treasure and 600 prisoners, ripe for lucrative ransom. Although Morgan deserted some of his men and sailed off, he was knighted in 1673 and returned to Jamaica the following year as its deputy royal governor.

Further reading: Peter Earle, *Sack of Panama* (New York: Viking Penguin, 1982); Albert Marrin, *Terror of the Spanish Main: Sir Henry Morgan and His Buccaneers* (New York: Penguin, 1999).

Moriscos, Revolt of the (1568–1571)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish vs. Moriscos rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Andalusia, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Crown wanted to suppress all Muslim practice within Spain.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed in Andalusia and the surviving Moriscos dispersed throughout Spain.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 5,000; Moriscos, 30,000
CASUALTIES: Spain, 1,550 killed or wounded; Moriscos, 21,000 killed
TREATIES: None

The Moriscos were Spanish Muslims who had been forcibly baptized by order of the Spanish Crown. In Andalusia, the Moriscos defiantly continued to speak and write in Arabic and to wear Muslim dress. To enforce religious conformity, King Philip II (1527–98) decreed harsh measures of subjugation, thereby provoking an armed rebellion at Alpujarras beginning on December 25, 1568. The initial attack was repulsed, but the violence spread to Granada, which was badly damaged by the Moriscos, and the rebels soon controlled the Alpujarras region.

In January 1569, 5,000 Spanish troops slaughtered large numbers of Moriscos at the Battle of Alfajarali Pass, but by August, the Moriscos had recruited some 30,000 troops and the revolt continued. At last, in 1571, Don Juan (John of Austria, 1547–78) led a substantial force against the Moriscos. His first assault failed, but a second attack on the Moriscos stronghold of Galera, on February 10, resulted in the deaths of 2,500 rebels. Further action prompted some Moriscos to surrender and others to disperse throughout Spain, where they persisted in clinging to Muslim practices and dress until they were deported from Spain by royal order in 1609. They were resettled mainly in North Africa.

Further reading: Henry Charles Lea, *The Moriscos of Spain: Their Conversion and Expulsion* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1968); J. B. Trend, *Origins of Modern Spain* (London: Russell and Russell, 1965).

Mormon War *See* Utah War (Mormon War) (1857–1858).

Moroccan Civil War (1645–1668)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hassani Berbers vs. Sa'ad dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morocco
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hassani sought to overthrow the Sa'ad dynasty and establish their own.
OUTCOME: The Hassani dynasty was proclaimed in 1649, but the civil war continued until the fall of Marrakesh in 1668.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the reign of Sultan Zidan (1608–28) the Sa'ad dynasty, rulers of Morocco, entered a sharp decline. This led to a long period of civil war, from about 1645 to 1668, waged chiefly by the Hassani Berbers, who lived on the desert's edge. In 1649, the civil war reached a climax when Muhammad XIV (fl. 17th century) captured Fez and established the Hassani dynasty. However, this did not bring an end to rebellion and civil war throughout Morocco. Hassani forces continually fought resistance and did not complete the conquest of the country until 1668, when Marrakesh at last fell to them. It was then under Mulay al-Rashid, as Rashid II (r. 1668–72), that final consolidation of Morocco was achieved, from 1668 to 1672.

Further reading: Howard H. Hourami and Malise Ruthven, *A History of Arab Peoples* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2002).

Moroccan Insurrection *See* Rif War (1919–1926).

Moroccan War (1907–1912)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Morocco vs. France and Spain; Germany vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morocco
DECLARATION: None—although the war may be traced to the Algeciras Convention of April 7, 1906
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Morocco
OUTCOME: France was granted a protectorate over Morocco
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Morocco, 15,000; France, 32,000; numbers for other belligerents unknown
CASUALTIES: Morocco, more than 3,000 killed; France, 1,424 killed or wounded; casualties for other belligerents unknown

TREATIES: Algeciras Convention, April 7, 1906; Treaty of Fez, March 30, 1912

In Algeciras, Spain, on April 7, 1906, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Spain, France, Great Britain, Italy, Morocco, Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, Sweden, and the United States concluded the Algeciras Convention, which affirmed the territorial integrity of Morocco even as it authorized France and Spain to police the country. The convention had come about after Germany challenged the impending partition of Morocco by France and Spain.

North Africa, in the early 20th century, became an arena for European power politics. In 1898 the French had unsuccessfully attempted to gain control of the Egyptian Sudan, and now, through agreements with Spain, Italy, and Britain, France sought to strengthen its hold on Saharan Africa by converting the Sultanate of Morocco to a French protectorate. Kaiser Wilhelm II (1859–1941) of Germany moved to preempt this by intervening personally with the sultan of Morocco, Abd al-Aziz IV (1878–1943) in 1905. Wilhelm believed his call on the sultan would persuade Britain to back down from its recently concluded Entente Cordiale with France. The diplomatically inept kaiser had miscalculated, and his overtures to the sultan succeeded only in drawing Britain and France closer together.

Finding himself caught in a European squeeze, the sultan of Morocco requested an international conference at Algeciras, Spain, during January 16–April 7, 1906, to resolve peacefully what was developing into an explosive crisis. The convention concluded the following: Affirmation of the independence of Morocco (which pleased Germany) and the award to France of control over much of "independent" Morocco, including regulation of the Moroccan police and finances (which was contrary to the German interest). France and Spain were permitted to establish within Morocco a paramilitary police force, and France was authorized to create a substantially French-controlled state bank.

In 1907, Moroccans rose up against foreigners in Casablanca. This brought a violent and overwhelming response from French troops, who killed thousands of Moroccans and occupied Casablanca. Yet native Moroccan dissent and resistance only increased. Abd al-Hafiz (1875–1937), brother of Sultan Abd al-Aziz IV, deposed the sultan on grounds that he had sold out Morocco and failed in his stewardship of Islam. In 1909, the brother was proclaimed sultan, but he found himself engulfed in the momentum of the ongoing uprising—and called on the French and Spanish for military aid in restoring order.

On the Moroccan coast, Rif tribespeople attacked the Spanish troops, who were defeated at the Battle of Melilla in 1909. When the Rif attacked Fez, the French responded with a major force and occupied the city.

Wilhelm II, never pleased with the Algeciras Convention and now alarmed by French military actions in Morocco, sent in 1911 the German gunboat *Panther* to Agadir. Emergency negotiations between France and Germany averted war when the kaiser backed down and formally recognized French rights in Morocco. The kaiser was allowed to save face by obtaining from France the cession of a small area of the Congo.

On March 30, 1912, the sultan of Morocco concluded with France the Treaty of Fez, by which France was granted a full protectorate over Morocco.

Further reading: Edmund Burke III, *Prelude to a Protectorate: Precolonial Protest and Resistance, 1860–1912* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1976); C. R. R. Pennell, *Morocco since 1830: A History* (New York: New York University Press, 2001).

Moroccan Wars in West Africa (1591–1618)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Morocco (with a largely mercenary army of Spanish and Portuguese troops) vs. Songhai Empire and other West African peoples
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): West Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Colonial conquest
OUTCOME: Morocco overran, devastated, and colonized West Africa, only to withdraw when colonization proved costly and insufficiently profitable.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Moroccan forces, 4,000 against Songhai; Songhai opposition numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but heavy among the Songhai
TREATIES: None

In 1591, a Moroccan army, consisting mainly of Spanish and Portuguese mercenary troops, about 4,000 strong and equipped with European firearms, invaded the Songhai Empire in West Africa. The Songhai warriors had never experienced European weapons before and were quickly overwhelmed. The mercenaries overran and sacked Timbuktu (Tombouctou) and they destroyed Gao, the Songhai capital. This devastation ended the Songhai Empire.

From Songhai, the Moroccans fanned out over the central Niger Valley, and when the university at Timbuktu threatened to become a center of religious and political opposition, the Moroccans destroyed it. In the end, the Moroccan military triumph was total, but the cost of maintaining colonial dominion in West Africa grew prohibitive, and Sultan Zidan (d. 1606) of Morocco withdrew all of his forces in 1618. Many Moroccan colonists remained, and some prospered whereas others perished in

the power vacuum that was left by the precipitous withdrawal of the conquerors.

Further reading: J. F. A. Ajayi and Michael Crowder, *History of West Africa,* 2nd ed., 2 vols. (London: Longman, 1976–1987); J. D. Fage and Roland Oliver, eds., *The Cambridge History of West Africa,* 8 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1975–1980); Rodney Steel, *History of West Africa* (New York: Facts On File, 2003).

Moro Wars (1901–1913)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Moros of southern Philippines vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Luzon and other southern Philippine islands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Moros resisted U.S. occupation and administration, largely on religious and cultural grounds.
OUTCOME: Moro resistance was eventually suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 1,200 U.S. troops; 5,000 Moros
CASUALTIES: U.S. casualties light, fewer than 100 battle deaths total; 600 Moros died in the fall of Bud Dajo, 1906
TREATIES: None

The principal United States effort in the suppression of the PHILIPPINE INSURRECTION (1899–1902) was in the northern Philippines, especially on Luzon. The southern islands were largely neglected, and it was here that resistance to the U.S. presence grew early in the 20th century. In 1899, Brigadier General John C. Bates (1842–1919) had negotiated an agreement with the sultan of Sulu, nominal leader of the Moros, an Islamic people living on Mindanao and the Sulu Archipelago, by which the sultan recognized U.S. sovereignty. In return, the United States agreed to provide protection for the sultan's subjects, grant him sovereignty in criminal cases, respect Islamic religious customs, and even permit slavery in the area. But the sultan's control of the Moros, a people with a strong warrior tradition, was tenuous at best, and their resistance to the Americans took on the intensity of a religious war.

In November 1901, Captain John J. Pershing (1860–1948) led two troops of the 15th Cavalry and three infantry companies to Mindanao with the purpose of persuading the Moros to cooperate with the U.S. government. With great diplomatic skill, Pershing won over those Moros living on the north shore of Lake Lanao. Those on the southern shore, however, frequently skirmished with U.S. troops as well as with a U.S.-sanctioned native Moros constabulary. Brigadier General George Davis (fl. late 19th and early 20th centuries) sent 1,200 U.S. troops to take the Moro stronghold at Pandapatan, which was neutralized at the cost of 60 Americans killed and many more wounded. At this site, the army established Camp Vicars, with Pershing in command. From this base, between June 1902 and May 1903, Pershing launched a new diplomatic campaign, but failed to cajole cooperation from the Moros. Pershing then conducted a series of restrained but highly effective military expeditions, which also included diplomatic elements.

By the summer of 1903, when Pershing returned to the United States, the most acute Moros violence had been quelled—but flare-ups were chronic, and the new military governor of the Moro province, Major General Leonard Wood (1860–1927), entirely lacked Pershing's understanding, skill, and tolerance in dealing with the Moro people. He was determined to beat them into absolute submission to U.S. authority, and he was especially zealous in his effort to eliminate slavery in the province. Wood's approach provoked a guerrilla war, fought from Moro strongholds called *cottas*. In October 1905, a major guerrilla leader, Dato Ali (d. 1905), was targeted by Wood, who sent Captain Frank R. McCoy (fl. early 20th century) with 115 men against his cotta. McCoy's command ambushed and killed Dato Ali on October 22. Even this victory, however, did not end the Moro resistance. At the end of 1905, a large contingent of Moros took up positions at Bud Dajo, a crater atop a 2,100-foot-high extinct volcano, which proved to be a formidable natural fortress. The existence of this stronghold became a great embarrassment to U.S. authority in the province, and, on March 5, 1906, Colonel Joseph W. Duncan (fl. early 20th century) attacked the position in force. Bud Dajo fell on March 8, 18 of Duncan's troops having died, along with some 600 Moros.

The reduction of Bud Dajo brought relative peace to the Moro province for the next three years, but it did nothing to salve Moro resentment against American dominion. Pershing, now a general, returned to the Philippines in 1909 and was assigned to the Mindanao region. He was distressed by attitudes there, which he considered dangerous, and, as he had done years earlier, he embarked on a campaign of building trust and relationships. He resolved to bring enduring peace to the Moro province by disarming the tribe. He issued a disarmament order on September 8, 1911, setting a deadline of December 1. In October, however, the Moros reacted violently and, on December 3 and 5, Pershing dispatched troops to put down an incipient rebellion. The Moros sent word that they wished to negotiate peace, but they used the ensuing armistice to begin the reoccupation of Bud Dajo on December 14. Pershing responded by surrounding the stronghold on December 22. Bud Dajo was evacuated within two days, and, once again, Moro resistance died down, but did not completely end. In January 1913, following two more major skirmishes, more than 5,000 Moros, including women and children, holed up on Bud

Bagsak, another extinct volcano. Pershing had no desire to precipitate the slaughter of families and so attempted to persuade the Moros to evacuate. When they would not, on June 11, 1913, Pershing launched a coordinated land and amphibious assault on Bud Bagsak. Moro guerrillas had established well-defended cottas at Langusan, Pujagan, Matunkup, Puyacabao, Bunga, and at Bagsak, but, one by one, these fell to the assault. On June 15, Bud Bagsak was captured, and the Moro Wars quickly ended.

See also PHILIPPINE INSURRECTION (1896–1898); PHILIPPINE INSURRECTION (1899–1902); SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR (1898).

Further reading: Brian McAllister Linn, *The U.S. Army and Counterinsurgency in the Philippine War, 1899–1902* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1989); John E. Walsh, *Philippine Insurrection, 1899–1902* (New York: Scholastic, 1973).

Mountain Meadows Massacre (1857)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Utah Indians, Mormons vs. California-bound emigrants of the Francher Company
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Utah
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Utah Indians and a group of Mormons attacked anti-Mormon emigrants who had threatened to annihilate the Mormons.
OUTCOME: Following a federal investigation, Brigham Young punished those involved, but failed to stem the tide of anti-Mormon sentiment in the West.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 50 Mormon militiamen; 200 Utah; 100 Francher Company emigrants
CASUALTIES: 82 emigrants
TREATIES: None

In September 1857, Utah Indians and local Mormon settlers ambushed and killed 100 California-bound emigrants, known as the Francher Company, in a remote area of southern Utah. There were several interrelated factors that precipitated the incident, called the Mountain Meadows Massacre. First, the doomed emigrant company, composed entirely of non-Mormons, arrived in Utah at an extremely tense time. In 1857, during what became known as the UTAH WAR (or Mormon War), the Mormons anticipated armed conflict with the federal government and U.S. Army troops then traveling into the region. Second, the Francher Company's members were from Missouri and Arkansas and made no secret of their intense dislike for Mormons. Some emigrants actually bragged of direct involvement in earlier anti-Mormon violence in Missouri and Illinois. In response, the Mormons refused to trade with the emigrants or sell them badly needed food and supplies.

Further aggravating the situation was a third factor stemming from ongoing difficulties with the Indians of southern Utah. The Indians, after years of tense relations and some armed conflict with Mormon settlers, had finally established a reasonably good relationship with their new neighbors. In this relationship, the Indians believed (or wanted to believe) that the Mormons had given them tacit approval to raid and steal from non-Mormon emigrant companies passing through the region. To make matters worse, the Indians accused the Francher Company itself of killing their livestock and poisoning their wells.

Thus, when the Francher Company reached southern Utah, the situation had become critical, particularly after local Mormons refused to sell the emigrants food. The angry emigrants retaliated by destroying Mormon property and vowing to return to Utah with an armed force to wipe "every damn Mormon off the earth." The alarmed Mormons, in conjunction with their Indian allies, decided to take a drastic course of action. On September 11, 1857, at Mountain Meadows, 50 Mormon militiamen and 200 local Indians surrounded and killed all the Francher Company members, except for 18 small children.

When news of the massacre first reached church leader Brigham Young (1801–77) in Salt Lake City, he did not believe that local Mormons were involved and initially viewed the incident as an Indian affair. Young sought to cover up details of direct Mormon involvement, in particular that of John D. Lee (1812–77), the primary local Mormon leader involved; however, under national public pressure, Young finally excommunicated him.

Mormon involvement in the Mountain Meadows Massacre contributed to a negative image of the entire Latter-day Saints movement. That image persisted among many non-Mormon Americans for years to come.

Further reading: Juanita Brooks, *The Mountain Meadows Massacre* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1987); Morris Shirts, *The Mountain Meadows Massacre: Another Look* (Cedar City: Southern Utah University Press 1992).

Mozambican Civil and Guerrilla Wars (1976–1996)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Front for the Liberation of Mozambique (FRELIMO) ruling party vs. the Mozambican National Resistance Organization (RENAMO) and other anti-Marxist factions (with support from South Africa); FRELIMO guerrillas also raided neighboring Rhodesia (Zimbabwe)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mozambique
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Mozambican government

OUTCOME: The brutal civil war brought general ruin to Mozambique and was resolved mainly through exhaustion on all sides; the Marxist regime was ended, and a democratic government installed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: FRELIMO, 40,000 (supported by 30,000 troops from neighboring countries); RENAMO, 15,000
CASUALTIES: At least 500,000 died on all sides, and at least 2 million refugees were created by the conflict, combined with drought, disease, and starvation.
TREATIES: Cease-fire, October 4, 1992

As a result of the MOZAMBICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE, which ended in 1974, the African country of Mozambique had won its independence from Portugal. The success of that revolution was due largely to the leadership of the Front for the Liberation of Mozambique (FRELIMO). FRELIMO not only led the revolution, but, afterward, installed a Marxist government and outlawed all competing political parties.

Within two years of FRELIMO's ascendency, Mozambique was in political and economic chaos. Skilled workers, especially whites, had fled the country. Food and all manner of imported goods were at critical shortages due to an inept and ruinous nationalization of commerce and industry and the collectivization of agriculture. The result was universal discontent and outrage. Rebellion was frequent and corruption rampant. The government dealt summarily and brutally with any offenders it caught. Many were packed into "reeducation camps," which quickly became overcrowded, squalid concentration camps.

During this period of intense internal conflict, guerrilla forces from Mozambique began a war of incursion and raids into neighboring Rhodesia, which, at the time, was still ruled by a white colonial government. The border between the two nations was closed from 1976 until 1980, when Rhodesia became independent as Zimbabwe. During this period, border clashes were routine.

In the meantime, FRELIMO found itself under siege by an array of anti-Marxist factions, the most important of which was the Mozambican National Resistance (MNR), which sought to undermine the regime by concentrating its attacks on what was left of the nation's infrastructure. Roads, railroads, and, most important of all, oil pipelines were sabotaged.

From South Africa (at the time ruled by a white government), troops invaded southern Mozambique, from which the African National Congress (ANC), a South African nationalist organization, mounted raids into South Africa.

Under pressure from all quarters, Samora Moisés Machel (b. 1933), president of Mozambique, assumed direct command of his country's military in 1983. He intensified campaigns against the various rebel factions within Mozambique, and in 1984 made what was to him a distasteful agreement with South Africa. In exchange for Mozambique's pledge to expel the ANC, the South African government promised to withdraw its support for the MNR. In fact, support was officially withdrawn, but the government continued to funnel covert aid to the right-wing movement.

In 1986, Joaquim Chissanó (b. 1929) replaced Machel as president of Mozambique and presided over a wholly defensive war against multiplying numbers of anti-Marxist rebel factions. Always companions of war in poor nations, starvation and disease swept Mozambique by the late 1980s, killing thousands. Nearly 2 million refugees fled the more ravaged areas, creating a hopeless situation.

In 1989, Afonso Dhlakama (b. 1954), leader of the MNR, opened talks with representatives of the Roman Catholic clergy to formulate a peace plan that might begin to heal the desperate nation. The clergy brokered talks between the MNR and other rebel factions and President Chissanó; Zimbabwe's president, Robert Mugabe (b. 1924), served as moderator of the rancorous talks. At last, in 1990, FRELIMO turned its back on Marxism, deeming it a failure. The party acceded to most of the MNR demands, and a new democratic constitution was adopted.

On paper, at least, Mozambique became a free-market democracy, in which all political parties were welcome and civil rights assured. In fact, dissident MNR rebels continued their program of sabotage of the infrastructure, but when a formal cease-fire was hammered out on October 4, 1992, the fighting stopped. By this time, disease, starvation, and a killing drought had sapped even the guerrillas' will and ability to fight. The nation was in extremis, having lost at least 500,000 in battles and massacres as well as to disease and famine created or exacerbated by the war. UN peacekeeping forces arrived, oversaw the disarmament of all parties, and arranged multiparty, free elections. Chissanó won reelection in October 1994, and, amid international aid and reconstruction work, most of Mozambique's 2 million refugees had returned by 1995.

Further reading: Hilary Andersson, *Mozambique: A War against the People* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1992); William Finnegan, *A Complicated War: The Harrowing of Mozambique* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993).

Mozambican War of Independence
(1962–1974)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. Mozambican rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mozambique (Portuguese East Africa)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mozambican independence from Portugal

OUTCOME: After unremitting pressure, Portugal, its own government transformed by a coup d'état, granted Mozambique its independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Portuguese forces, about 40,000 troops; FRELIMO, 10,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Cease-fire, 1974; independence granted, 1974

Mozambique was a longtime colony of Portugal, known as Portuguese East Africa, and was caught up in the general movement, during the 1960s, for the independence of all European African colonies. In 1962, the leaders of many nationalist factions met in Dar es Salaam the capital of Tankanyika (Tanzania in 1964) in an effort to create a united front. The result was the Front for the Liberation of Mozambique (FRELIMO).

FRELIMO's leader, Eduardo Mondlane (d. 1969), took a core group of several hundred guerrillas into Algeria for training in guerrilla warfare tactics. In the meantime, other rebels began a war of resistance against the Portuguese military in Mozambique. This conflict remained at a relatively low level until 1964, when Mondlane's specially trained guerrillas were committed to battle. The FRELIMO squads soon overwhelmed the Portuguese patrols in Mozambique's two northern provinces, and Portuguese authorities rushed reinforcements to the south in an effort to hold the line there. The guerrillas kept up the pressure, however, and Portugal found that its defensive war was a costly drain on its national resources. Portuguese agents were dispatched to Dar es Salaam to assassinate Mondlane. He was murdered in 1969, but command of FRELIMO was quickly taken up by another guerrilla leader, Samora Moisés Machel (b. 1933). Unlike Mondlane, Machel was a committed Marxist, and from this point forward, FRELIMO became a Marxist rebel movement.

Machel attacked the Portuguese with renewed resolve. Although he was outnumbered 4 to 1, he more than held his own against the Portuguese. Then, in 1974, a military coup d'état toppled the Lisbon government, and the new Portuguese regime was prepared to negotiate. In 1974, during a cease-fire, Mozambique was offered limited independence. Machel held out for full independence, and the new Portuguese regime, seeking to avoid further drain on its resources, agreed.

The war ended, but white colonial rebels attempted to undermine the settlement by seizing the government in a coup in 1975. FRELIMO—now aided by Portuguese troops—suppressed the white rebels, and Machel became the first president of independent Mozambique. Within a year, the new nation, which Machel immediately transformed into a Marxist dictatorship, was torn by the Mozambican Civil and Guerrilla Wars (1976–1992).

Further reading: William Finnegan, *A Complicated War: The Harrowing of Mozambique* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993); Thomas H. Henriksen, *Revolution and Counterrevolution: Mozambique's War of Independence, 1964–1974* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1983).

Muhammad of Ghur, Conquests of
(1175–1206)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Ghur (led by Muhammad) vs. Ghaznivid India and other Indian kingdoms
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India and Pakistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Muhammad built a vast Ghurid empire in India, established Islam in India, and created the basis of what would become the Mogul Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents identified; existence of formal treaties unlikely

Muhammad of Ghur (Mu'izz-ud-Din Muhammad ibn Sam, d. 1206) was the greatest of the Ghurid leaders and one of the principal founders of Islamic rule in India. He operated in conjunction with his brother, Ghiyas-ud-Din Muhammad (fl. late 12th century) and began his military career by participating in the Ghurid conquest of Khorosan in 1173. In that same year, he led his army in the successful conquest of Ghazni.

From 1175 until he died in 1206, Muhammad of Ghur conducted a dozen campaigns of conquest in India.

In 1179, he attacked and defeated the Ghaznivid garrison of Peshawar. Sind fell to his armies in 1182, and three years later the Ghaznivid principality of Sialkor (Kashmir) also fell under his domination. The key city of Lahore was captured in 1186, and the entire Punjab region came under the control of Ghur the following year. This completed his conquest of what had been the Ghaznivid Empire in India. (Driven from India, the Ghaznivids fled east to Bihar and Bengal, where Muhammad's forces conquered them by 1200.)

In 1191, Muhammad of Ghur suffered his only reversal in India. The Rajput rulers, among them the western Chalukyas, attacked his forces at the Battle of Taraori near Thanesar along the Sarsuti River. The next year, however, he redressed this defeat by returning to the same battlefield and destroying the Rajput army.

In 1193, Muhammad of Ghur overran and conquered Delhi, took Kannauj, and, in 1194, sacked Benares (Varanasi). The great fortress at Gwalior fell to him in 1195,

and Bihar succumbed in 1197. In 1198, Muhammad led an invasion of Bengal; a by-product of the campaign was the disruption of Indian Buddhism.

In each region he conquered, Muhammad of Ghur set up a brutally oppressive government. He was well aware that Muslims were a minority in India, and he was determined to suppress the Hindu majority by whatever means were necessary. Perhaps inevitably, Muhammad of Ghur was assassinated, in 1206. His chief lieutenant, a former slave named Qutb-ud-Din Aybak (d. 1210), assumed control of the Ghurid empire, establishing what would come to be called the "slave dynasty" and the Delhi sultanate, which, together, endured for almost 90 years—from 1206 to 1290. This was the forerunner of the great Mogul Empire.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); David Morgan, *The Mongols* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986); J. J. Saunders, *History of the Mongol Conquests* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Douglas E. Streusand, *Formation of the Mughal Empire* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Muqanna, Revolt of (775–778)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Shi'ite followers of Muqanna vs. the Abbasid caliph
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Khorasan, Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Religious dispute over the basis of power of the caliphate
OUTCOME: The rebellion was put down, but the underlying controversy remained unresolved.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Muqanna, the so-called Veiled Prophet, was Hashim ibn Hakim (d. 779), a Shi'ite who was also animated by Zoroastrian and Manichaean beliefs, who led a revolt of Shi'ites who challenged the basis on which the Abbasid caliph claimed authority: descent from Abbas (d. 653), the prophet Muhammad's (570–632) uncle. The Shi'ites claimed the power to govern derived from Ali (c. 600–661), husband of Fatima (606–632), Muhammad's daughter.

Muqanna led his followers in a three-year revolt, which ended in his defeat at the hands of Abbasid caliph, Muhammad al-Mahdi (742–786) in 778. Muqanna retired to his stronghold at Sanam and, the following year, committed suicide. With this, the revolt was suppressed, but the religious controversy remained unresolved and persists today.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986); Muhammad-Husagh al-Tuba-Tabai, *Shiite Islam* (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1975).

Murrel's Uprising (1835)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebel slaves vs. U.S. authorities
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mississippi and Tennessee
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Abortive slave uprising designed to create a criminal empire.
OUTCOME: With the arrest of the leader of the uprising, the revolt failed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 45 participants in the uprising were hanged.
TREATIES: None

This abortive rebellion was planned by a Tennessee plantation owner, John A. Murrel (1794–1844). The leader of a horse-stealing and slave-stealing gang working in Tennessee and elsewhere in the South, Murrel conceived a scheme to organize a large-scale slave revolt with the object of creating a crime empire in the southern states. He planned a coordinated uprising among slaves in Nashville, Memphis, Natchez, New Orleans, and other southern cities to commence on July 4, 1835. When authorities discovered his scheme, however, Murrel was arrested. The rebellion fell apart, but uprisings did occur in some places. Thirty blacks and 15 whites were apprehended in Mississippi and Tennessee. Tried and convicted of conspiracy, all were hanged. Murrel, the instigator of it all, had been arrested, so did not participate in any of the action; therefore, he was sentenced to a prison term of 10 years. Released after having served a portion of his sentence, he was broken in health and died very shortly after he left prison.

Further reading: Thomas Wentworth Higgenson, *Black Rebellion: Five Slave Revolts* (New York: Da Capo Press, 1998).

Muscovite Conquest of Novgorod (1471–1479)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muscovy under Ivan III (with aid from Tver and Pskov) vs. Novgorod (with Polish aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Novgorod
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of Novgorod
OUTCOME: Novgorod fell to Ivan III.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Alliances between Novgorod and Lithuania and between Novgorod and Poland; alliances between Muscovy and Tver and Pskov

In the Middle Ages, Muscovy was the core of what would become the Russian Empire. Ivan III (the Great; 1440–1505), grand prince of Muscovy, took up the mantle of his father, Basil II (1415–62), and was committed to the aggrandizement of Muscovy. He set his sights on Novgorod, a key trading city, which controlled vast territories in the Russian north. Not only was Novgorod an attractive prize, it had for years competed with Moscow for trade and power in the region. In addition, there was a profound religious conflict between the two principalities. Novgorod championed Roman Catholicism, whereas Moscow was the seat of Orthodox Christianity.

In 1471, Novgorod struck an alliance with Poland. Realizing that this portended an invasion, Ivan III seized the initiative and preemptively declared war on Novgorod. He put his troops on the march immediately, but his first two major victories did not come until 1475, at the Battle of the Shelon River and the Battle of the Shilenga River. Novgorod was betrayed by Poland, which reneged on its promises of military aid. Fearing annihilation, Novgorod surrendered to Ivan III, paying him a massive indemnity of 15,000 rubles and conceding to him the right to nominate an archbishop for the city. Moreover, Novgorod agreed to forswear any alliance with Lithuania, which would have posed both a military and an economic threat to Muscovy.

As much as Ivan III had gained in his war against Novgorod, he demanded more, namely, the title of "lord" of Novgorod. This was too much for some of the citizens of Novgorod, who staged a rebellion in 1477 and attempted to take over the city. Ivan III secured military aid from the cities of Pskov and Tver, which furnished large armies to march against Novgorod. The Novgorodians sued for peace and asked for negotiation. Ivan III refused and forced the city into unconditional surrender after the resignation of its leader in January 1478. Ivan confiscated all monastery estates under Novgorod control and imprisoned many Novgorod boyars (aristocrats). Although Novgorod secured Polish aid in 1479 for another uprising, it was quickly crushed—and Ivan acted against the city with a brutality so decisive that no further rebellion was possible.

Further reading: Ian Grey, *Ivan III and the Unification of Russia* (London: English Universities Press, 1964); Geoffrey A. Hoskin, *Russia and Russians: A History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2001).

Muslim-Byzantine Wars

See Byzantine-Muslim War (633–642); Byzantine-Muslim War (645–656); Byzantine-Muslim War (668–679); Byzantine-Muslim War (698–718); Byzantine-Muslim War (739); Byzantine-Muslim War (741–752); Byzantine-Muslim War (778–783); Byzantine-Muslim War (797–798); Byzantine-Muslim War (803–809); Byzantine-Muslim War (830–841); Byzantine-Muslim War (851–863); Byzantine-Muslim War (871–885); Byzantine-Muslim War (960–976); Byzantine-Muslim War (995–999); Byzantine-Muslim Wars (1030–1035).

Muslim Civil War (657–661)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mu'awiyah (and supporters) vs. the caliphate line of Ali
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mu'awiyah sought the caliphate of the Muslim Empire.
OUTCOME: Mu'awiyah prevailed over the line of Ali ibn Abi Talib, thereby creating the Umayyad caliphate and bringing about the division of the Muslim world into two major sects, the Shi'ites and the Sunnis.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The war was fought over a dispute as to the identity of the true Muslim caliph. Mu'awiyah (c. 602–680), Syrian governor, had reason to believe that the fourth caliph, Ali ibn Abi Talib (c. 600–661) had participated in the murder of his predecessor, Uthman ibn Affan (d. 656), who was Mu'awiyah's cousin. Mu'awiyah led an uprising against Ali ibn Abi Talib, to which Ali responded by invading Syria. Ali's forces clashed with Mu'awiyah's in a protracted battle at Siffin in 657. After three months of combat, the two sides called a truce and opened negotiations to determine the true caliph. During this period, Mu'awiyah unilaterally proclaimed himself caliph in Jerusalem in 660, and, in 661, Ali was assassinated by a member of the Kharijite sect. This sect, which developed during the negotiations between Mu'awiyah and Ali ibn Abi Talib, believed that piety and worth, not right of inheritance, should determine who would become caliph. Under pressure from the Kharijites and Mu'awiyah, al-Hassan (628–673), Ali's eldest son, renounced the caliphate in 661. Thus Mu'awiyah became the first Umayyad caliph. He established Damascus as the capital of the Muslim world. However, Mu'awiyah's ascension had a profound effect on Muslim life, dividing the faith between two major sects: the Shi'ites, who support the divine right of the line of Ali, and the Sunnis, who support the Umayyad line.

See also MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (680–692); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (743–747); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (809–813); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (861–870); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (936–944); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (945–948); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (976–977); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (1102–1108).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986).

Muslim Civil War (680–692)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Umayyad clan vs. Ali clan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria and Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The clans disputed the right to rule as caliph.
OUTCOME: Abd al-Malik ascended the throne and eliminated his chief rival.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Mu'awiyah (c. 602–680), who came to power as a result of the MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–661), died in 680, leaving the succession to the caliphate unsettled. His son Yazid I (c. 645–683) ascended the throne, but was opposed by factions in Mesopotamia (Iraq) and Syria. The Kufan clan supported Husayn ibn Ali (629–680), who was a son of Ali ibn Abi Talib (c. 600–661), the caliph Mu'awiyah had opposed. Thus the war was a conflict between the Umayyad clan (partisans of Yazid I) and the Ali clan (partisans of Husayn).

Husayn set out from Mecca to meet the forces of Yazid, but Husayn was killed after the Kufans deserted him at the Battle of Kerbela in 680. Abdallah ibn Zubayr (d. 692) successfully led an army of Meccans and Medinans in opposing the invasion of Yazid's army in 682. Yazid died the following year, leaving Zubayr to be recognized as caliph of most of the Muslim Empire, Arabia, Mesopotamia, and Egypt.

Zubayr's caliphate proved short-lived. Marwan ibn al-Hakam (623–685) fought Zubayr's forces to defeat at the Battle of Marj Rahit, just outside Damascus, in 684. Al-Hakam became caliph, but presided over a deeply divided realm. His son, Abd al-Malik (646–705), who succeeded him after his death in 692, attempted to bring unity by leading a siege against Mecca, the capital from which Zubayr ruled as a rival caliph. Al-Malik's Syrian forces killed Zubayr, leaving Al-Malik the sole caliph.

See also MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–661); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (743–747); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (809–813); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (861–870); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (936–944); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (945–948); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (976–977); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (1102–1108).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986).

Muslim Civil War (743–747)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Marwan II vs. various rebel groups
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Arab empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Marwan II sought to eliminate rebellion from his caliphate.
OUTCOME: All of the major rebel groups were put down, except for the Abbasids.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the death of Abd al-Malik (646–705) in 705, the Arab empire was ruled by successively less effective caliphs, and during 743–744, three weak rulers rose and fell in succession, unable to command the support of the people. The typically stormy empire was rocked by rebellion during this period until the ascension in 744 of Marwan II (d. 750), last of the Umayyad caliphs. Marwan II made liberal use of military force to put down rebellions in Arabia, Syria, Persia (Iran), and Mesopotamia (Iraq), but one group, the Abbasids, centered in Khorasan, Persia, remained undefeated and went on to oppose the Umayyad clan in the ABBASID REBELLION of 747–750.

See also KHARIJITE REVOLT; MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–661); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (680–692); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (809–813); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (861–870); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (936–944); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (945–948); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (976–977); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (1102–1108).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986).

Muslim Civil War (809–813)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Allah al-Ma'mun vs. his brother, Muhammad al-Amin
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Khorosan, Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Allah al-Ma'mun sought to assume sole rule over the Arab Empire.
OUTCOME: Allah al-Ma'mun defeated his brother's forces, then imprisoned his brother, who was subsequently killed; al-Ma'mun thus became sole caliph.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The ABBASID REBELLION of 747–750 ushered in the Abbasid caliphate over the Arab Empire, and in 802 Caliph Harun al-Rashid (766–809) declared that his two sons would jointly inherit the throne, Muhammad al-Amin (785–813) succeeding him as caliph and Allah al-Ma'mun (785–833) as ruler of Khorosan and the eastern portion of the empire. After al-Rashid died, however, al-Ma'mun rebelled, seeking to seize the entire empire from his brother. He was backed by Persian forces under Tahir ibn Husain (d. 822), who defeated al-Amin's army in Khorosan, advanced into Mesopotamia, acquired most of al-Amin's holdings, then laid siege to Baghdad in 809. After two years under siege, the capital fell. In 812, al-Amin surrendered and was made a prisoner. He attempted to escape in 813, but was killed.

The death of al-Amin left al-Ma'mun sole caliph, but the bitter warfare between the brothers had brought permanent unrest to Mesopotamia, Syria, and Egypt.

See also MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–661); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (680–692); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (743–747); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (861–870); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (936–944); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (945–948); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (976–977); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (1102–1108).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986).

Muslim Civil War (861–870)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Turkish interests in the caliphate vs. various rebel groups
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Arab Empire, especially Uzbekistan, Persia, Arabia, Egypt, and Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Turks sought to dominate the caliphate, creating disorder and rebellion in the process.
OUTCOME: After years of misrule, the Turks withdrew their interest in the caliphate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the mid-ninth century, Turks were included in the government of the Arab caliphate, an action that led to disorder. During the period of the civil war of 861–870, Turks installed their own puppet caliphs, who were disposed of—either deposed or assassinated—when they ceased to do Turkish bidding. Without a strong central government, the far-flung empire was swept by revolt and rebellion. Transoxiana (Uzbekistan), Persia (Iran), Arabia, and Egypt all saw rebellion, and in 869, the ZANJ REBELLION, a revolt among black slaves in Mesopotamia (Iraq), lasted 15 years.

At last, in 870, unwilling to continue financing chronic warfare, the Turks suddenly broke off their involvement in the caliphate. They left al-Mo'tamid (d. 892) on the throne, and the Arab Empire in economic and political shambles.

See also MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–661); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (680–692); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (743–747); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (809–813); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (936–944); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (945–948); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (976–977); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (1102–1108).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986).

Muslim Civil War (936–944)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Abbasid forces under Muhammad ibn-Ra'iq vs. Hamdanids and Ikshidids
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Abbasid caliph employed ibn-Ra'iq to restore the Arab Empire.
OUTCOME: Syria was restored, except for two cities; the war ended in an uneasy truce.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 944

Turkish misrule during the MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (861–870) left the Arabian caliphate greatly weakened and reduced. What had once been a vast empire had been cut down to the province of Baghdad. In an effort to restore the empire, Abbasid caliph Ahmad ar-Radi (d. 940) appointed Muhammad ibn-Ra'iq (d. 942) to command an army and serve essentially as dictator over the realm. The idea was to give ibn-Ra'iq sufficient power to restore order and control.

Ibn-Ra'iq first confronted the Hamdanids in Syria, then repulsed an invasion by the Egyptian Ikshidids. In this way, Syria was returned to the caliph's fold. However, the Hamdanids returned to capture Aleppo and Hims in northern Syria after the death of ibn-Ra'iq. At this point, in 944, the caliph concluded a truce with the Hamdanids.

See also MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–661); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (680–692); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (743–747); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (809–813); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (945–948); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (976–977); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (1102–1108).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986).

Muslim Civil War (945–948)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hamdanids vs. Ikshidids vs., separately, Byzantines
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hamdanids had to resist invasion both from the Ikshidids and the Byzantines.
OUTCOME: Although the Hamdanids successfully resisted the Byzantine invasion to retain northern Syria, the drain on military resources caused the Hamdanids to relinquish the southern and central regions to the Ikshidids.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After a truce ended the MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (936–944), a new war erupted the next year when Sayf al-Dawla (d. 967), in Syria, led the Hamdanids against invading Ikshidids from Egypt. The Hamdanids held Aleppo, in northwestern Syria, and, from this base, were at first highly successful in repelling Ikshidid incursions; however, when the Byzantines invaded the north, Hamdanid forces became too widely dispersed, and the Hamdanids were compelled to relinquish central and southern Syria to the Ikshidids by 948. Al-Dawla was able to retain northern Syria against the Byzantines.

See also MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–661); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (680–692); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (743–747); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (809–813); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (861–870); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (976–977); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (1102–1108).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986).

Muslim Civil War (976–977)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hamdanids, and Karmathians vs. Fatimids
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Hamdanids and Karmathians sought to seize control of central and southern Syria from the Fatimids.
OUTCOME: Despite initial Hamdanid-Karmathian success, the Fatimids ultimately retained control of central and southern Syria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Muslim Fatimids, who claimed direct descent from Fatima (c. 606–632), daughter of the prophet Muhammad (570–632), invaded southern and central Syria in 969 and seized control of the region from the Ikshidids. In an effort to eject the Fatimids from the region, the Hamdanids, based in northern Syria, allied with the Karmathians, who had already been victorious against the Fatimids in Egypt, and mounted an offensive in 976. The Fatimids fled, but returned in 977 and scored a decisive victory against the allied Hamdanids and Karmathians at the Battle of Ramleh. Once again, southern and central Syria were in Fatimid hands.

See also KARMATHIAN REVOLT; MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–661); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (680–692); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (743–747); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (809–813); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (861–870); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (936–944); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (945–948); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (1102–1108).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann

K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986).

Muslim Civil War (1102–1108)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rival Muslim groups, principally Seljuks led by Kilij Arslan I, vs. Seljuks led by Ridwan.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central and southern Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In an era of instability brought about by the First Crusade, rivals sought dominance of large portions of Syria.
OUTCOME: Ridwan took the principal city of northern Mesopotamia (Iraq), Mosul, but failed in his bids to subdue other rivals throughout the region, especially in rural areas.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The incursions of the Crusaders not only posed an external threat to the Arab world, but brought about internal warfare as well. The Seljuk Turks, who held most of urban central and southern Syria, were pitted against other Muslim groups, which controlled the rural districts in the region. Dissent among the Seljuks was bitter.

Mosul, the major city of northern Mesopotamia, fell to the Seljuk warrior leader Kilij Arslan I (d. 1108) in 1102. Attacked by another Seljuk leader, Ridwan (d. 1117), Kilij fought the Battle of the Khabur River against him in 1108 and was killed. Ridwan took over Mosul and, from this city, attempted to conquer more territory and defeat other Muslim groups as well as rival Turks. He made little progress, and the region remained fragmented under repeated European onslaught.

See also MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–661); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (680–692); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (743–747); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (809–813); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (861–870); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (936–944); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (945–948); MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (976–977).

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Muslim Conquest of the Deccan

See DELHI SULTANATE RAIDS IN SOUTH INDIA (1307–1313).

Muslim Conquest of Persia (634–651)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslim Arabs vs. Sassanid Persians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia (Iran and Iraq)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Muslims sought to conquer Persia.
OUTCOME: After a long struggle, the Sassanids were defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At al-Qadisiyah, the Persians fielded 50,000 men, the Arabs 30,000.
CASUALTIES: Persian casualties at the Battle of Nhavand (641) were reported in excess of 100,000; Arab casualties were far less.
TREATIES: None

After the death of the Muslim prophet Muhammad (570–632), Islam began an era of expansion outside Arabia. Muslim armies swept into Mesopotamia, then through Palestine and Syria into Byzantine Damascus, where they stalled for a six-month siege. They were also stymied at first by the Sassanids when they attempted to invade the Persian Empire. At the Battle of the Bridge, in 634, the Sassanid army dealt the Muslims a severe defeat, sending Muhammad's army in retreat to Hira. However, Muhammad counterattacked at Buwayb in 635, near Kufah (Iraq). This checked the Persian advance, while a new Muslim army of 30,000 men under Caliph Omar (c. 581–644) defeated the superior Persian army (50,000 troops) at al-Qadisiyah in 637. This was followed later the same year by the capture of Ctesiphon, the Persians' winter headquarters. In December 637, the Arabs enjoyed another triumph, at the Battle of Jalula, north of Ctesiphon. These victories brought central Persia under Muslim control.

The Islamic forces continued to consolidate their gains over the rest of the decade. In 641, a major victory at Nahavand devastated Persian forces. A small Muslim force lured a much larger Persian army into pursuit, then fell upon this army when it was trapped between two narrow mountain passes. Persian casualties were catastrophic, reportedly in excess of 100,000 men. Despite continued resistance through 651, Sassanid control of Persia disintegrated. Yazdegerd III (d. 651), last Sassanid king of Persia, took refuge in Merv and was assassinated there in 651. This brought the Muslim conquest of Persia to an end.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann

K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986); Bernard Lewis, *The Middle East: A Brief History of the Last 2000 Years* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1997).

Muslim Conquest of Sind (708–712)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslim Arabs vs. Baluchistan and Sind
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Sind was subdued and used as a base from which further conquests were launched.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the death of Muhammad the Prophet (570–632) his heirs expanded Islam far beyond Arabia, sweeping through Byzantine-held territories and the Sassanids' Persian Empire. Muslim invaders arrive in northern India about 650 and, between this time and 707, overran and conquered Baluchistan, a desert region in modern western Pakistan. This was followed by the Arab invasion of Sind, led by Muhammed ibn Kasim, who subdued the region by 712. From the bases they established in Sind, the Muslims mounted raids into Rajputana and Gujarat. Although Rajputana largely yielded, Gujarat resisted and prevailed, repulsing the Arab invaders.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History of India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981).

Muslim Conquest of Spain (711–718)

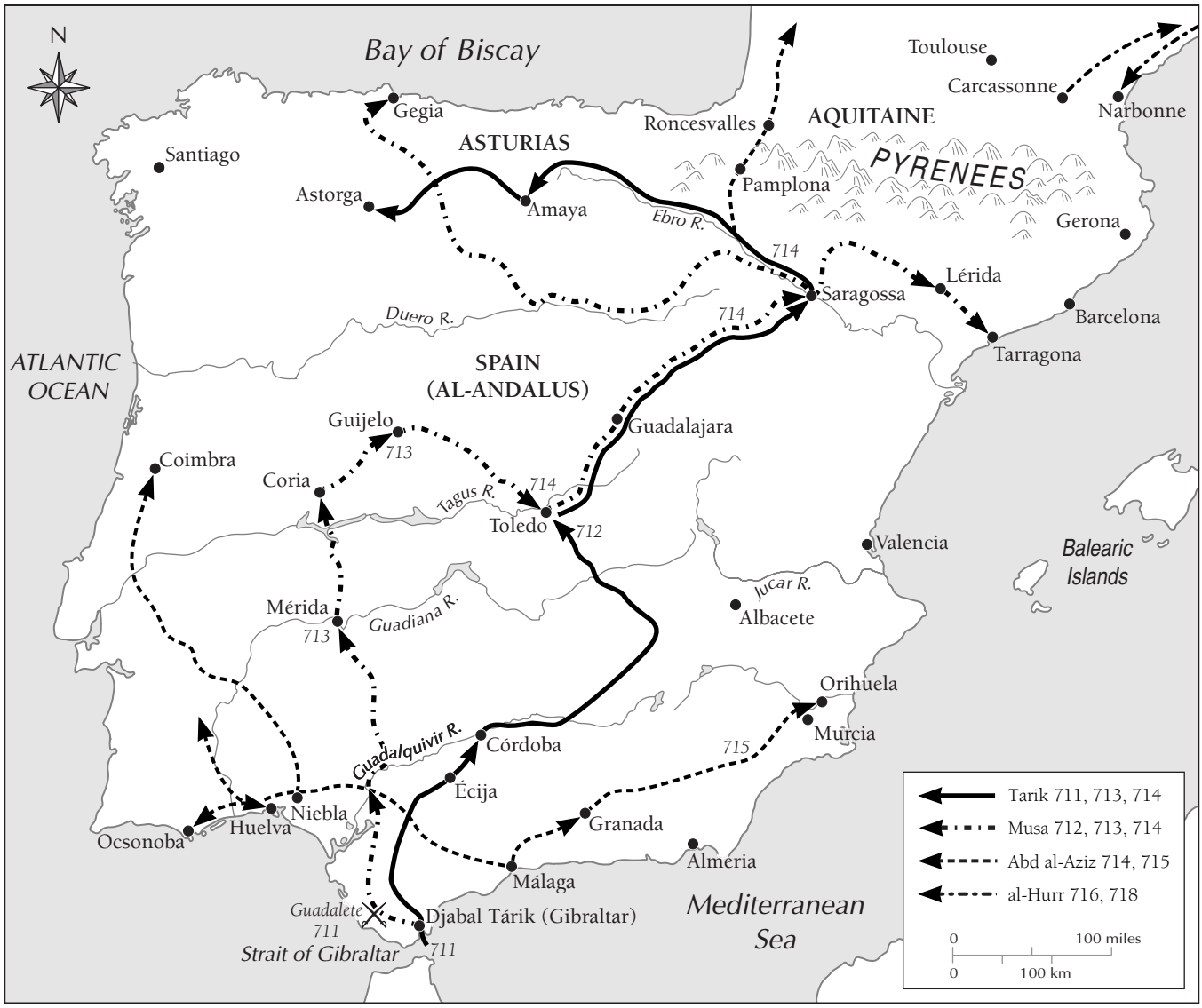
PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Arabs (Moors) vs. Visigoths and Spanish Christians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Arabs sought conquest of Spain.
OUTCOME: Most of Spain fell into Arab (Moorish) hands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Arabs commanded at least 50,000 men.
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but consistently heavy among the Visigoths
TREATIES: Treaty with the Visigoths at Murcia, 713

When the Umayyad clan took over the Islamic Empire at the end of the seventh century, Muslims began a new wave of conquests that would extend Islam to its utmost. During this period, Spain was controlled by the Visigoths, who had earlier conquered certain Arab territories. Musa ibn-Nusayr (c. 660–c. 714), Arab viceroy in North Africa, decided to invade Spain in an effort to regain some of what had been lost. Tarik ibn-Ziyad (d. c. 720) was sent at the head of an Arab-Berber army to attack across the Gibraltar strait in 711. On July 19, 711, at the Battle of Laguna de Janda, ibn-Ziyad defeated King Roderick (d. 711) and his forces. Roderick, last of the Visigoth kings, fell in battle.

The force of ibn-Ziyad's personality was such that many in Roderick's defeated army joined him in completing the conquest of Spain. Córdoba and Toledo, the Visigoth capital, fell by early 712. At this point, Musa ibn-Nusayr joined the campaign at the head of 18,000 Arabs, who landed at Algeciras in June 712. The army advanced to Medina-Sidonia, which fell to it, then to Seville and Mérida, the latter falling to the Arabs on June 30, 713. At this point, ibn-Nusayr and ibn-Ziyad linked up, ibn-Ziyad having by this time acquired the support of Spain's Jews.

After campaigning together for a time, ibn-Ziyad launched a separate campaign against northwest Spain, conquering León and Astorga. Musa ibn-Nusayr returned to Damascus, Syria, in 713 after installing his son, Abd al-Aziz (d. 716) as emir in the south of Spain. Negotiating from a position of great strength, al-Aziz made peace with the Visigoths at Murcia, making the remaining Visigoths in southern Spain Arab vassals. In the meantime, elsewhere in Spain, the Arab conquests continued: Saragossa fell in 714 and Barcelona in 717. The culmination of the Arab conquest came in 718, after the Spanish Christians had been pushed to the mountainous regions of northern and western Spain and the Muslims—now known as the Moors—controlled territory touching the Pyrenees.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Charles C. Torrey, ed. *History of the Conquest of Egypt, North Africa, and Spain* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1922).



Muslim conquest of Spain, 711–718

Muslim Dynastic War (1196–1200)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Al-Malik al-Adil vs. the sons of Saladin
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Egypt
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The original dispute involved control of the sultanate of Cairo, but grew to encompass the entire Ayyubid Empire.
OUTCOME: Al-Malik al-Adil achieved control of the empire Saladin had divided between his sons.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Hoping to avoid a ruinous dynastic struggle, the Muslim leader Saladin (c. 1137–93) wisely apportioned his great Ayyubid Empire in Egypt and Syria among designated heirs before his death. Unfortunately, he overlooked the sultanate of Cairo, and in 1196, three years after Saladin's death, two of his sons, al-Afdal (r. 1186–96) and al-Aziz (r. 1193–98), the sultan of Syria and the sultan of Egypt, fell to disputing over control of Cairo. Al-Malik al-Adil (d. 1218), Saladin's brother, also participated in the dispute, fighting on both sides until he himself gained the upper hand over his nephews. In January 1200, al-Adil fought the critical Battle of Bilbeis, Egypt, and was able to seize control not only of Cairo but of the entire empire Saladin had left to his sons. Thus, for a time, Egypt and Syria were united under his rule. Nevertheless, the defeat of Saladin's heirs did not bring peace to the Ayyubid dynasty. Disputes, quarrels, and armed

conflict persisted, the Ayyubids were progressively weakened, and Ayyubid control of the empire finally collapsed in 1250 in a rebellion by the Mamluks.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970).

Muslim Invasion of Egypt (639–642)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslim Arabs vs. Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Egypt
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Muslims overran Egypt and occupied its major cities.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the first epoch of Islamic expansion, an army under Amr ibn al-'As (d. 633) defeated Byzantine forces at the Battle of Babylon, which took place near Heliopolis in July 640. This victory served as al-Aslon's springboard to an assault on the fortress city of Babylon itself in April of the following year. From here, al-Aslon led a Muslim assault on the Egyptian capital, taking Alexandria in September 642 after a prolonged siege.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); Sir John Bagot Glubb, *The Great Arab Conquests* (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1963); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Charles C. Torrey, ed. *History of the Conquest of Egypt, North Africa, and Spain* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1922).

Muslim Invasion of India (661–663)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslim Arabs vs. India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sind and lower Indus Valley, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Raids, preparatory to invasion and eventual conquest
OUTCOME: The raids were successful, but the invasion was not immediately succeeded by occupation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Muslim Arabs, having expanded through India and having made a truce with the Byzantine Empire (in 659), turned their attention to an advance into India. Under the command of Ziyad ibn Abihi (d. 672), Arab forces reached the borderlands of India by 661, then conducted raids into Sind and the lower Indus Valley. At this point, the invasion did not result in occupation.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); Sir John Bagot Glubb, *The Great Arab Conquests* (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1963); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Charles C. Torrey, ed. *History of the Conquest of Egypt, North Africa, and Spain* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1922).

Muslim Invasion of Morocco (681–683)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Arab Muslims vs. the Berbers of Morocco (with Byzantine allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morocco
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Arabs penetrated deeply into Morocco before they were driven out by a Berber counterattack conducted in concert with Byzantine action.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Egypt having been invaded and occupied during the MUSLIM INVASION OF EGYPT from 639 to 642, the Arabs used it as a staging area for an invasion of Morocco, which started in 681 under the command of Okba ibn Nafi (fl. late seventh century). The invaders advanced all the way to the Atlantic before they were beaten back to Cyrene by Berbers who had allied themselves with the Byzantine garrison at Carthage. Ibn Nafi was killed in the retreat.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); Sir John Bagot Glubb, *The Great Arab Conquests* (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1963); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Charles C. Torrey, ed. *History of the Conquest of Egypt, North Africa, and Spain* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1922).

Muslim Invasion of Southern France *See* FRANKISH-MOORISH WAR, FIRST.

Muslim Invasion of Transcaspia (716)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslim Arabs vs. the peoples of the Transcaspian region
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Territory between the Oxus River and the Caspian Sea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Arabs dominated the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

One of the landmarks in the great movement of Muslim expansion out from the Middle East (*see* MUSLIM INVASION OF EGYPT) was the overrunning of the Transcaspian region. The Yemenite commander Yazid ibn Mohallib (fl. early eighth century) led an invasion that swept through and dominated the territory bounded by the Oxus (Amu Dar'ya) River and the Caspian Sea.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); Sir John Bagot Glubb, *The Great Arab Conquests* (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1963); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970).

Muslim Invasion of Transoxiana (674–676)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Arab Muslims vs. the Byzantines
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Transoxiana Uzbekistan and Anatolia (Turkey)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Initially victorious in Transoxiana, the Arabs lost heavily in Anatolia and were forced to withdraw from Anatolia as well as the entire Transoxiana region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: A treaty was concluded between the Arabs and Byzantines in 679, pledging 30 years of peace and an Arab tribute to the Byzantines.

After raiding India (*see* MUSLIM INVASION OF INDIA) and while engaged in general warfare against the Byzantines, the Muslims invaded Transoxiana. In 674, Muslim forces took Bukhara and, two years later, the leading trading city of Samarqand. However, these conquests were temporary, as the Byzantines defeated the Arabs in a major land battle at Armorium (in Anatolia, 669) and also in two major sea battles, at Cyzicus (Kapidagi) in the Sea of Marmara (672) and at Syllaeum (679).

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); Sir John Bagot Glubb, *The Great Arab Conquests* (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1963); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970).

Muslim Raids on Aquitaine and South France

See FRANKISH-MOORISH WAR, FIRST.

Muslim Rebellion in China (1863–1877)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manchu Chinese forces vs. Muslim rebels in Turkistan; Russian peripheral involvement
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Turkistan
DECLARATION: Yakub Beg proclaims an independent Turkistan, 1863
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: China sought to reclaim rebellious Turkistan.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was put down, but a separate treaty had to be made with a Russian occupation force.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Manchu forces, 100,000; rebel strength unknown
CASUALTIES: Known to be very high among Muslim civilians
TREATIES: Treaty between China and Russia, 1881

In 1863, Muslim tribes in Chinese Turkistan—west of Tibet—rebelled against the Manchu (Qing or Ch'ing) rulers. Under Yakub Beg (1820–77), the rebels established a breakaway government at Kashi, near territory controlled by Russia. Always fearful of rebellion, the Russians sent troops into Turkistan in 1871, but in 1872 signed a trade treaty with Yakub Beg, thereby legitimating his claim to sovereignty.

Although the Russians were satisfied that they had controlled the Muslim rebellion as far as their interests were concerned, the Chinese sent an army of 100,000 under General Zuo Zongtang (Tso Tsung-t'ang; 1812–1885) to put down the rebels in Turkistan. In 1876, Tso engaged Beg at Kashi and defeated him. Later that year, Tso captured the Muslim capital at Urümqi, and on May 16, 1877, took the principal Muslim stronghold of Turfan. This forced Beg to acknowledge Chinese authority over Turkistan. Now, however, it was the Russians who presented a problem. They declined to leave Turkistan until 1881, when they concluded a treaty with China in which Turkistan reverted back to the Chinese—in exchange for 9 million rubles. The money was compensation to Russia

for the cost of the occupation—even though China had not authorized that occupation.

Further reading: Aitchen Wu, *Turkistan Tumult* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970).

Muslim Revolt (656)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Caliph Ali ibn Abi Talib vs. the rebels Talha and Al-Zubair
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mesopotamia (Iraq)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebels sought to topple Ali ibn Abi Talib.
OUTCOME: The rebels were defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebel forces numbered 30,000; Ali ibn Abi Talib's strength was similar.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Arab world was rocked by turbulence after the passing of the prophet Muhammad (570–632). In 656, the third caliph, Uthman ibn Affan (d. 656), was assassinated and succeeded by the cousin and son-in-law of Muhammad, Ali ibn Abi Talib (c. 600–661). Two followers of Muhammad, Talha (d. 656) and Al-Zubair (d. 656) rebelled against him with the support of Muhammad's widow, A'ishah (614–678). The rebels recruited a 30,000-man army and fought the so-called Battle of the Camel near Basra, Mesopotamia (Iraq) on December 4, 656. (A'ishah observed the battle at close quarters while seated on a camel.) The battle ended when Talha and Al-Zubair were killed. A'ishah was captured and sent into exile. However, Ali's ascension to the caliphate did not bring stability, but ignited the Muslim Civil War (657–661).

See also Afghan Revolt.

Further reading: Karen Armstrong, *A Short History of Islam* (New York: Random House, 2002); P. M. Holt, Ann K. S. Lambton, and Bernard Lewis, *The Cambridge History of Islam,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates: The Islamic Near East from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century* (New York: Longman, 1986).

Mysore War, First (1767–1769)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: British East India Company vs. Mysore
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mysore (modern location's name), India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The East India Company sought dominance in the region.
OUTCOME: After the company's chief allies withdrew, Mysore defeated the army of the company and concluded a peace favorable to Mysore.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: British East India Company, 1,400 British infantry, 800 British cavalry, 9,000 Sepoy troops; Mysore forces, 42,000 infantry, 28,000 cavalry
CASUALTIES: East India Company forces, fewer than 1,000 killed or wounded; Mysore forces, 7,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of 1769

The British East India Company competed for supremacy in Indian trade with the Mysore kingdom and the Marathas. Striking an uneasy alliance with the Marathas and Hyderabad, the East India Company attacked Mysore in 1767 and defeated Mysore forces led by the Muslim Hyder Ali (1722–82). On September 24, 1767, an Anglo-sepoy force of more than 11,000 fought a Mysore force of 42,000 infantrymen and 28,000 cavalry troops at Trincomalee. Despite being massively outnumbered, the Anglo-sepoy army scored a major victory, inflicting some 4,000 casualties on the enemy while suffering 48 British and 67 sepoy casualties. Just a few days later, 65,000 Mysori attacked the Anglo-sepoy camp at Changama and were repelled, losing 2,000 killed or wounded. The defenders suffered 170 casualties.

While this action was taking place, another Anglo-sepoy force stormed the Mysore fortress at Mulwagal, inflicting 1,000 casualties at a cost of 230 killed or wounded.

In 1768, both the Marathas and the forces from Hyderabad withdrew from the alliance, and Haidar, who had always evaded the British, menaced the East India Company headquarters at Madras in 1769. In April of that year, Britons concluded a peace, primarily on Mysore terms, and the stage was set for a Second Mysore War.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History of India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Jac Weller, *Wellington in India* (London: Greenhill Books, 2001).

Mysore War, Second (1780–1784)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mysore (with French aid) vs. the British East India Company (Anglo-Indian forces)

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mysore (Karnataka) and Madras (Tamil Nadu), India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dominance of Mysore
OUTCOME: After initial successes, Mysore was defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mysore, 90,000; France, 1,000; Anglo-Indian forces, 12,000
CASUALTIES: Mysore, 16,500 killed or wounded; Anglo-Indian, 4,573 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner; French losses unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Mangalore, 1784

As with the AMERICAN REVOLUTION, Britain fought the Second Mysore War against both indigenous people and the French, who had established a presence in India, allied with Hyder Ali (1722–82), at Pondicherry on the Karnataka coast. Before the war got under way in earnest, the British had seized Pondicherry as well as Mahe (on the Malabar coast) from the French.

In July 1780, Hyder led an army of 55,000 infantry, 28,000 cavalry, 7,000 rocketeers and artillerymen, and 400 French gunners against the British in the Karnataka. This massive force readily overwhelmed the Anglo-Indian garrison of 3,853 at Perambakam (Pollilur) on September 10. More than 300 British soldiers were killed in battle, as were some 1,700 sepoys. At least 1,000 prisoners were taken, most of whom died in captivity, making this one of Britain's costliest defeats in India.

After triumphing at Perambakam, Hyder overran the Karnataka and menaced the British stronghold of Madras. An Anglo-Indian force of about 10,500 met Hyder's army of 40,000 at Porto Novo on June 1, 1781, defeating it soundly. Three thousand Mysoris died, and twice that number were wounded. This Anglo-Indian victory was followed by two more, at the Second Battle of Pollilur (August 27), in which 12,000 Anglo-Indian troops defeated more than 80,000 Mysoris, and at Sholingarh, where fewer than 9,000 Anglo-Indians defeated 70,000 of Hyder's troops. Sholingarh brought the Mysoris close to defeat; however, French naval forces intervened with the capture of Trincomalee on the coast of Ceylon (Sri Lanka) on August 30, 1782. From here, the French were able to send aid and arms to Haidar, and, on June 13, 1783, the French garrison at Cuddalore, consisting of 3,000 French regulars, 3,000 sepoys, and 5,000 Mysori troops, coordinated with the French fleet to defeat an Anglo-Indian force of nearly 10,000. Despite this victory, however, the 1783 Treaty of Paris, which ended the American Revolution, mandated the withdrawal of French support from Mysore, and, the following year, the Mysoris had little choice but to make peace.

See also MYSORE WAR, FIRST; MYSORE WAR, THIRD; MYSORE WAR, FOURTH.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History of India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Jac Weller, *Wellington in India* (London: Greenhill Books, 2001).

Mysore War, Third (1790–1792)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mysore vs. the Anglo-Indian forces of the British East India Company
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mysore (Karnataka), India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Domination of Mysore
OUTCOME: Mysore relinquished about half of its territory to the British East India Company.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mysore, 45,000; Anglo-Indian forces, 61,000
CASUALTIES: Mysore, 23,000 killed, wounded, or died from illness; Anglo-Indian forces, 1,500 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

The successor of Hyder Ali (1722–82) as leader of the Mysori opposition to the hegemony of the British East India Company was Tippu Sultan (1749–99). On December 28, 1789, he attacked British defenses at Travancore and was repulsed at terrible cost: 2,000 killed or wounded out of the 15,000 he committed to the battle.

Seeking to forestall any further attacks, Charles, Lord Cornwallis (1738–1805), recently named governor-general of British India, invaded the territory controlled by Tippu, laying siege to the Mysore stronghold of Bangalore during March 5–21, 1791. Of the 8,000 Mysoris holding this position, 3,000 were killed or wounded before resistance collapsed. Moreover, Tippu's attempt, on March 7, to relieve the siege was likewise repulsed at great loss to the Mysori—2,000 killed or wounded.

Maintaining the momentum of these victories, Cornwallis led 23,000 men against Mysore fortifications of Carigat; the resulting battle, sometimes called the Battle of Arikera, resulted in 2,000 casualties among the 20,000 Mysori defenders and the loss of the fortifications.

In 1792, Cornwallis led a massive army, consisting of 9,000 British regulars, 22,000 sepoys, 18,000 Hyderabad cavalrymen, 12,000 Maratha mercenary troops, complete with artillery, in a wide-ranging campaign. Of this number, 8,700 were deployed against Seringapatam, Tippu's stronghold, a fortification celebrated as perhaps the most formidable on the subcontinent and garrisoned by 45,000 Mysoris. Despite being overwhelmingly outnumbered, Cornwallis stormed the bastion on February 6 and, at the cost of 535 killed and wounded, inflict-

ing3,000 casualties among the Mysori. When an additional 9,000 Anglo-Indian troops arrived a few days later, Tippu surrendered, but no definitive treaty was concluded. Indeed, Tippu used the truce that commenced in March 1792 to regroup for a new war, which came seven years later.

See also MYSORE WAR, FIRST; MYSORE WAR, SECOND; and MYSORE WAR, FOURTH.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History of India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Franklin B. Wickwire and Mary B. Wickwire, *Cornwallis: The Imperial Years* (Durham: University of North Carolina Press, 1980).

Mysore War, Fourth (1799)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mysore (with a limited French aid) vs. the British East India Company and Hyderabad
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mysore (Karnataka), India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Domination of Mysore
OUTCOME: Tippoo, son of Haydar Ali, died in battle; that portion of Mysore not lost in the Third Mysore War was now divided between the British and their Hyderabad allies.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mysori forces, 25,000; Anglo-Indian forces, 57,000
CASUALTIES: Mysori losses, 11,000 killed; Anglo-Indian losses, 1,464 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

The final bout between Britain and Tippu Sultan (1749–99) was staged in 1799.

Anglo-Indian commanders used about half of the available force of 57,000 men against the Mysori when war resumed in 1799, as British authorities responded to an attempt by Tippu, leader of the Mysori, to make an anti-British alliance with France. Two Anglo-Indian forces converged on Tippu's stronghold at Seringapatam. Tippu unsuccessfully attempted to stop the convergence at Sedaseer Hill on March 6, 1799, but was defeated with the loss of 2,000 troops. On March 27, Tippu offered battle at Malavelley and was again defeated, losing half of his attacking force of 2,000.

The two defeats left Seringapatam ripe for attack, although, as in the Third MYSORE WAR, it remained a formidable objective, excellently situated and garrisoned by 13,737 Mysori and 120 French troops. In addition, 8,100 Mysori soldiers were positioned on a fortified island southeast of the fortress city. The Anglo-Indian force began its siege on April 17, and the fortress fell on May 4, with great loss of life. The attackers lost 389 killed or wounded, whereas the garrison suffered at least 6,000 deaths, including that of Tippu Sultan. Added to the number of defenders killed during the siege itself, Mysori losses at Seringapatam reached 9,000 killed.

See also MYSORE WAR, FIRST; MYSORE WAR, SECOND; and MYSORE WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford History of India,* 4th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981); Franklin B. Wickwire and Mary B. Wickwire, *Cornwallis: The Imperial Years* (Durham: University of North Carolina Press, 1980).

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Nadir Shah's Abdalis Campaign *See* Persian-Afghan War (1726–1738).

Nadir Shah's Conquest of Bokhara and Khiva (1740)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. Uzbeks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Region of Bukhara and Khiva (Uzbekistan)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest and territorial expansion
OUTCOME: Nadir Shah achieved quick victory and annexed territory south of the Aral Sea.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Nadir Shah (1688–1747), perhaps the greatest military mind in later Persian history and the last of the great Asian conquerors, decided to annex the region south of the Aral Sea. He invaded the land of the Uzbeks and defeated that tribe in two battles, one at Charjui and one at Khiva. After Charjui, the great trading city of Bukhara fell to him. The Battle of Khiva yielded Khiva and put Nadir Shah in position to annex the region he desired.

Further reading: Peter Avery, Gavin Hamblin, and Charles Melville, eds., *From Nadir Shah to the Islamic Republic: The Cambridge History of Iran,* 7 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia,* 2 vols. (New York: RoutledgeCurzon, 2003).

Nadir Shah's Conquest of Meshed
See Persian-Afghan War (1726–1738).

Nadir Shah's Coup d'Etat *See* Persian-Afghan War (1726–1738); Persian-Civil War (1725–1730).

Nadir Shah's Invasion of Afghanistan *See* Persian-Afghan War (1726–1738).

Nadir Shah's Invasion of India *See* Persian Invasion of Mogul India (1738–1739).

Nadir Shah's Invasion of Mesopotamia
See Turko-Persian War (1730–1736).

Namibian War of Independence (1966–1990)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: SWAPO (Namibian nationalist guerrillas) vs. Union of South Africa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Namibia and Angola
DECLARATION: UN Resolution 435, calling for Namibian independence, passed in 1966, was the closest thing to a declaration of war.

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: SWAPO sought to drive out the South African mandate government from Namibia and achieve full independence.
OUTCOME: After years of guerrilla fighting, independence was achieved in 1990.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: SWAPO, 18,000; South African forces, 30,000
CASUALTIES: Total deaths, about 25,000, including civilians
TREATIES: U.S.-brokered peace, 1988

During the 1960s, African countries were swept by a tide of independence, as former colonies, protectorates, and mandate territories stirred with nationalism and, in most cases, achieved independence. Namibia, formerly a German colony—and, since the end of WORLD WAR I, a mandate territory of South Africa—was nominally given its independence by a UN resolution in 1966. The white government of South Africa refused to abide by the resolution, however, and did not relinquish control of Namibia. This led Namibian nationalists to organize the South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO), a guerrilla liberation movement.

At first, SWAPO was ineffective; however, when the Portuguese were driven out of neighboring Angola in the ANGOLAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE, that newly independent nation offered Namibian guerrillas aid and bases of operations in Angolan territory. Cuban troops in Angola offered to train the SWAPO guerrillas. After these developments, the guerrilla war in Namibia intensified, and South African troops made incursions into Angola to raid guerrilla bases. SWAPO, however, continued to retaliate in Namibia.

The war ground on for a decade before the United Nations condemned South Africa in 1976 for its illegal occupation of Namibia. In 1977, the United Nations declared SWAPO the exclusive legal representative of Namibia, and in 1978 called for an international conference to resolve the long Namibian crisis. As a result of the conference, South Africa agreed to allow free elections in Namibia; however, the South African government soon reneged on the offer. In 1979, South Africa rejected a new UN initiative to settle the dispute, and a 1981 peace conference in Geneva also broke down. By this time, however, the stumbling block had been defined: control of Namibia's only deep-water port, Walvis Bay. The United States, fearing Cuban influence in Namibia, sided with South Africa to the extent that it favored refusing to pull out until the Cubans left Angola. Although the dispute remained unresolved, a cease-fire was agreed on in 1984, to be supervised by a UN commission. The following year, South Africa agreed to the installation of a multiracial government.

Despite these concessions, SWAPO pressed on with the war, demanding both the implementation of the UN resolution for Namibian independence and the withdrawal of Cuban troops from Angola—for these now loomed as a menace to an independent Namibia. The United States mediated an agreement in December 1988, whereby Cuba, South Africa, and Angola agreed on a timetable for Namibian independence. For its part, Cuba agreed to make a phased withdrawal of its troops from Angola.

On April 1, 1989, SWAPO guerrillas invaded Namibia from their bases in Angola. They were met by Namibian security police forces, which killed several hundred of the invaders and effectively put an end to SWAPO raids across the border. The peace process then continued, as thousands of Namibian refugees peacefully left Angola to return to Namibia. One of these refugees, the nationalist leader Samuel S. Nujoma (b. 1929), won election as Namibian president when South Africa finally pulled out of the country. Namibia achieved full independence on March 21, 1990. SWAPO became a powerful force in the nation's Constituent Assembly.

Further reading: Ronald F. Dreyer, *Namibia and Southern Africa: Regional Dynamics of Decolonization, 1945–1990* (New York: Routledge, 1994); Stanley Shoeman and Elna Shoeman, *Namibia* (Santa Barbara, Calif.: ABC-Clio, 1997).

Naning War (1831–1832)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain vs. Naning
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Naning, Malay Peninsula
DECLARATION: 1831, Britain against Naning
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Britain sought to compel Naning to pay to them the annual tribute formerly paid to the Dutch.
OUTCOME: After a brief but inordinately costly war, Naning agreed to pay the tribute.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the 17th and 18th centuries, Minangkabau immigrants from Sumatra settled in Naning, a Malay state, paying a regular tribute for this privilege to the Dutch East India Company. In 1799, the Dutch government assumed control of the financially ailing Dutch East India Company. By a treaty of 1824, the Dutch ceded Malacca—including nearby Naning—Singapore, and Pinang to the British. In 1829 the British attempted to collect the annual tribute (amounting to 10 percent of the agricultural output of the country) that had been paid by Naning to the Dutch. The ruler of Naning, Datuk Abdul Saiyid (r. 1801–32), refused. Two years later, British authorities dis-

patched a small expeditionary army to enforce payment, but it was defeated. A larger expedition was mounted in 1832 and was resisted for three months. Although the British eventually extracted the tribute payment, the costly effort discouraged other countries on the Malay Peninsula from negotiating trade treaties with the British. The net effect was to retard the progress of British trade in the East Indies through the mid-19th century, making this a very costly conflict.

See also ANGLO-DUTCH WAR IN JAVA; PADRI WAR.

Further reading: Barbara Watson Andaya and Leonard Y. Andaya, *History of Malaysia* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 2001); D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981).

Napoleonic Wars (1795–1815)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. the major European powers, Great Britain, and the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Europe, Russia, Egypt, Syria
DECLARATION: Various
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rise of Napoleon Bonaparte from an obscure artillery officer to emperor of France during the French Revolution inspired his attempt at world conquest, after the Revolution itself had sparked a series of conflicts across Europe.
OUTCOME: Napoleon was ultimately defeated and expelled from France to die in exile, while a Europe transformed by the Napoleonic Wars tried to put together a lasting peace.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Some 12 million men were mobilized among all belligerents during the era of the Napoleonic Wars.
CASUALTIES: Estimates of casualties during the Napoleonic Wars vary widely but most historians agree that nearly 6 million troops were killed on all sides.
TREATIES: Major treaties of 1795–1805 include Treaty of Campo Formio (October 17, 1797); Treaty of Amiens (March 27, 1802); Treaty of Pressburg (December 26, 1805); Treaty of Tilsit (July 7–9, 1807); Treaty of Schönbrunn (October 14, 1809); First Peace of Paris (May 30, 1814); Second Peace of Paris (November 20, 1815).

This entry covers the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) to supreme power in France and an overview of his wars of conquest. For a full account of Napoleon's role in the Revolution, *see* FRENCH REVOLUTION. For Napoleon's role in the French Revolutionary wars, *see* the COALITION, WAR OF THE FIRST, and the COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND. For more on the post-Revolutionary conquests themselves, *see* COALITION, WAR OF THE THIRD; NAPOLEON'S WAR WITH AUSTRIA; PENINSULAR WAR; and NAPOLEON'S INVASION OF RUSSIA. For the conclusion of the wars, the peace settlement, and their historic impact, *see* HUNDRED DAYS' WAR.

For some 20 years the history of Europe at the end of the 18th and beginning of the 19th centuries was intertwined and inseparable from the fortunes of a single man, Napoleon Bonaparte. From his relatively obscure origins in Corsica, Bonaparte's military prowess and political acumen swept him to personal dominance over most of the Continent. At its height, Napoleon's empire stretched from Spain to the Russian border. Napoleon ruled France, Catalonia, the Netherlands, the Dalmatian coast, and northern Italy, and members of his family reigned over Spain, modern-day Germany and Poland, and the rest of Italy. For some of these countries, French occupation brought a centralized rule and liberal institutions that provided them for the first time with a true sense of national identity. Even after Napoleon's downfall in 1815, the empire's legal codes and administrative systems continued to operate for decades or longer in the once-occupied territories. Certainly the history of warfare during the first decades of the new century centered on the doings of the man who made himself Emperor Napoleon I.

During two decades of revolution and war, Napoleon changed the history of France and of the world. When that ended, a Europe much rattled by revolution and its global impact met in victory at Vienna to try to put the Old World back together, only to discover that Europe as conceived by the conservative representatives of the traditional regimes had vanished. Ultimately, in the wake of the French Revolution and the rise to power of one of the preeminent personalities of the 19th century, Napoleon Bonaparte, the old regimes of continental Europe eventually, if quietly, modernized their governments and internationalized their relations.

Destined to become perhaps the most brilliant figure in military history, the emperor-to-be was born Napoleone Buonaparte on August 5, 1769, in Ajaccio, Corsica, a politically turbulent island recently acquired by the French Crown from the Republic of Genoa. He was the second surviving son of Carlo Buonaparte (1746–85), a lawyer who claimed descent from the 12th-century military aristocracy of Tuscany, and his wife, Maria Letizia Ramolino (1750–1835). Carlo Buonaparte had married the comely and strong-willed Letizia when she was 14, and they eventually had eight children, whom they raised through difficult times. A number of Corsicans, led by Pasquale Paoli (1725–1807), resisted France's occupation of the island, and Carlo Buonaparte counted himself among them. But when Paoli fled the island, Carlo came to terms with the French ancien régime, winning the protection of a new governor and appointment to the judicial district of Ajaccio as an assessor.

Using his political connections, Carlo obtained Napoleone's admission to the preparatory military

academy at Autun, where the nine-year-old Buonaparte learned to speak French and temporarily dropped the "e" from his Christian name. A few months later, Carlo saw years of struggle culminate in success when the French court recognized the Buonapartes' Corsican patents of nobility, a vital step in securing the military future of his son, because the French officer corps recruited only from the aristocracy. Napoleon received a king's scholarship for the offspring of poor nobles and moved on to a more distinguished school in the Champagne region of eastern France, the Royal Military College at Brienne-le-Château, which he attended from April 1779 to October 1784. Spurned as a provincial and a foreigner, Corsican by birth, blood, and the bonds of childhood, Napoleon continued for some time after his arrival on the Continent to feel he was an outsider, and he kept aloof and threw himself into his studies.

If he was never the reincarnation of a typical 14th-century condottiere that some biographers later made him out to be, from the beginning Napoleon shared few, if any, of the traditions and adopted almost none of the prejudices of his new country, however French his education. Remaining Corsican by temperament, he became, through both that education and his own reading, a man of the 18th century, of both its belief in enlightenment and its absolutism. Though in Champagne, he managed to graduate only near the bottom of his class, 42nd of 58 members, a final report praised his conduct and mathematical skills (his accomplishments were weak, said the school, in music, dancing, and other social skills) and concluded, "This boy will make an excellent sailor." But Napoleon abandoned the navy for the artillery, which enjoyed little prestige among the country's officer nobility but was the most forward-looking arm of the French military and on the cutting edge of 18th-century technology. At 15, Napoleon pursued his studies at the École Militaire in Paris, and a year later—about half the time it took most cadets to graduate—he was assigned as a second lieutenant in the artillery regiment of Le Fere, a kind of training school for young artillery officers.

Back in February 1785, Napoleon's father had died of stomach cancer, leaving his family in straitened circumstances. Although not yet 16 and not the eldest son, the young lieutenant had assumed the position of head of the family. In these twilight years of the ancien régime, garrison duty was leisurely, with light workloads and long leaves, which Napoleon not only took but abused. Garrisoned at Valence, Napoleon read more widely than the average young officer. Plunging especially into works on strategy and tactics, he fell under the influence of the military theorist J. P. du Teil (fl. 18th century). He wrote *Lettres sur la Corse,* a history of Corsica that revealed his romantic feelings for his native island. At the same time, having read Voltaire and Rousseau and steeped himself in the liberal ideas sweeping France, he believed political change was imperative, although as a career officer he seemed leery of radical social reform. He went back to Corsica in September 1786 and did not rejoin his regiment until June 1788. He soon garnered a post at the Auxonne artillery depot, and—as an aide to senior officers engaged in technical experiments—he acquired practical experience as well as influential friends. It was here, in 1789, that Buonaparte first saw active service when he and his troops were sent to quell food riots.

Later that year, the National Assembly, meeting to write a national constitution, granted Pasquale Paoli permission to return to Corsica. Napoleon asked for leave to follow him and joined Paoli's group in September 1789. But Paoli did not much care for the Buonapartes. In Paoli's eyes not only had Napoleon's father deserted the Corsican cause back in the days of the ancien régime, but these days, his son was nothing better than a foreigner. The disenchanted young soldier returned to France, where he was transferred to the Grenoble artillery regiment in February 1791, securing promotion to first lieutenant. He immediately joined the Jacobin Club of Grenoble, at a time when that debating society still favored a constitutional monarchy. Soon the local club's president, Napoleon made speeches declaiming against nobles, monks, and bishops. In September 1791, Napoleon took three months' leave to return to Corsica. There he contrived to have himself elected lieutenant colonel of the newly formed Ajaccio National Guard, whose commander in chief was none other than Pasquale Paoli, with whom he soon had yet another falling out. When he failed to return to France, he was listed as a deserter in January 1792, but after France declared war on Austria in April, he was both forgiven his offense and—apparently through patronage—promoted to the rank of captain. However, instead of rejoining his regiment, in October 1782 Napoleon returned to Corsica, which was well on the way toward civil war, and joined the Corsican Jacobins. Many of the island's natives, including Paoli, had always seen in France's revolutionary turmoil a chance to seize their own independence. Rising to power on the back of the National Guard, Paoli was by this time acting as a virtual dictator and preparing to separate Corsica from France. Only the Jacobins stood in his way, and when civil war broke out in April 1793, Napoleon—at the head of the pro-French Ajaccio Volunteers—acted vigorously, if unsuccessfully, to suppress what was now considered a rebellion. As a result, in June, Paoli had the Buonaparte family sentenced to "perpetual execration and infamy." With his family, Napoleon fled to Marseille on June 10, 1793.

Back in France, Maximilien Robespierre (1758–94) and his radical Jacobins, despite pockets of resistance, were running the country. Now a republic, France was beleaguered on all fronts, at war with most of Europe and fighting rebellion in the countryside. She needed all the soldiers she could get, especially young Jacobins like

Napoleon who, upon rejoining his regiment in Nice in late June, wrote a pamphlet entitled *Souper de Beaucaire,* which argued fervently for united action by all republicans rallied around the Jacobins and the National Convention who had, the past autumn, abolished the monarchy. The exhortation caught the attention of Augustin Robespierre (1764–94), brother of Maximilien and the Jacobin government's representative in the south, and Napoleon would soon use this new contact in the government to good advantage.

At the end of August 1793, government troops had retaken control of Marseille, but they were brought up short at the port of Toulon, where defecting royalists had allowed the British to occupy the town. The scratch revolutionary army was trying to dislodge them, so far unsuccessfully, making Toulon Augustin's biggest headache. When the French artillery commander was wounded, Buonaparte obtained the post through the commissioner to the army, Antoine Saliceti (fl. late 18th century), who was a Corsican deputy to the National Assembly and a friend of Napoleon's family. It was the first real opportunity in Napoleon's career, and the greatest opportunist of the age played it for all it was worth, rising to major in September and adjutant general in October. With backing from Augustin Robespierre, he persuaded his reluctant superiors to adopt his plan of employing artillery to force the port's British supporting fleet to withdraw, and in December he carried out the plan. Receiving a bayonet wound on December 16, he nevertheless watched the next day as British troops, harassed by his artillery, evacuated the port and the British ships sailed away. Toulon, an embarrassment to the republic for months, had fallen within 48 hours of Napoleon's taking direct charge. On December 22, Buonaparte, aged 24, still hobbling from his leg wound, was promoted again, to brigadier general. Augustin Robespierre wrote to his brother Maximilien, by then head of the government in all but name and the leading figure behind the Reign of Terror, praising what Augustin called the "transcendent merit" of the young republican officer.

As a reward for his able command of the artillery, Napoleon was designated artillery commander of the French army in Italy in February 1794. Following the overthrow of Maximilien Robespierre in July of that year, however, Buonaparte was thrown into prison from August 6 to September 14, but he was already too well connected politically to long remain there. Following his release, he declined artillery command of the Army of the West and was assigned instead to the war office's Topographical Bureau. Soon appointed second in command of the Army of the Interior, he ended the Parisian uprising of 13 Vendémiaire (October 5, 1795), which was mounted in protest against the new constitution introduced by the National Convention. Napoleon dispersed the insurrectionists with his beloved artillery, thereby saving the Convention. The Directory, as the new government was called, rewarded him with full command of the Army of the Interior, at which point he married Josephine de Beauharnais (1763–1814), the rather notorious widow of a titled republican general, and changed his name to Bonaparte.

Once in command of the Army of the Interior, Napoleon moved vigorously against Piedmontese (Sardinian) and Austrian forces, bringing about an armistice with the Piedmontese by the end of April after defeating them at Ceva and Mondovi in April, thereby securing the cession of Savoy and Nice to France. He next moved swiftly and brilliantly against the Austrians, defeating them at Lodi on May 10, then entering Milan on May 15. He drove the Austrian forces out of Lombardy during May and June. Mantua, the last Austrian stronghold in the region, fell to Napoleon in February 1797 following a lengthy siege. Next Napoleon advanced toward Vienna itself, a move that sent the Austrians to the peace table. The commander himself negotiated the Treaty of Campo Formio on October 17, 1797, by which the War of the First Coalition—the first of the French Revolutionary Wars—was ended.

Napoleon reshaped Italian politics, creating the Cisapline Republic, establishing what were in effect various puppet governments in Italy, and pillaging Italian art collections to help finance French military operations. He was hailed as a hero by the Directory, which proposed to send the conqueror of Italy to invade England. But Napoleon successfully promoted another grand strategy: the invasion of Egypt in order to secure a staging area for an invasion of British India, in what is known as the War of the Second Coalition.

Taking Malta on the way, while deftly avoiding the British navy under Horatio Nelson, Napoleon managed to occupy Alexandria and Cairo in late 1798, where he wisely guaranteed the preservation of Islamic law but set about modernizing the secular government. But then the British fleet destroyed the French fleet at Aboukir Bay, cutting off Napoleon from France, and the Ottoman Turks declared war on France in February 1799. Napoleon preemptively invaded Syria, only to be stopped at Acre by British-led Ottoman troops, and the French army fell prey to the plague. By the time Bonaparte returned to Cairo in June, the French government had reached a crisis under the onslaught of the Second Coalition victories in Europe.

Napoleon embarked for France on August 24, 1799, arriving in Paris on October 14 to discover that he had been recalled by the members of the Directory to help again to "save" the Revolution. He participated in the coup d'état of 18 Brumaire (November 19) against the Directory, which was reconstituted with Napoleon as one of its three consuls. Appointed commander of the Paris garrison, Napoleon was elected first consul under the new constitution of the Year VIII, with power to appoint mem-

bers of the Consulate itself, government officials, and judges. Installed in February 1800, Napoleon consolidated what soon amounted to dictatorial power and radically centralized the government, bringing it under his personal control. The French Revolution was over.

The nation favored the first consul, and there was remarkably little opposition. Wracked by years of revolutionary terror and lawlessness, still faced with a formidable royalist faction, the people—whose yearning for stability was almost tangible—were willing to hand over authority to one strong man. Buttressed by the new and highly authoritarian constitution that a plebiscite of his weary fellow citizens backed almost unanimously, Napoleon radically restructured the French national debt, setting the French economy on a sound footing. He encouraged the development of industry and the improvement of the educational system, and he initiated an ambitious program of construction inspired by the classical examples of imperial Rome. He created the Code Napoleon, which codified civil law by amalgamating the old customs of northern France with the Roman law of the south. Also included was a new criminal code to be enforced by judges. These changes were sweeping, and over the years the code would be extended to regulate and transform every aspect of French life, and then, as it came to cover Napoleon's conquests, the life of much of Europe. One provision in particular, requiring the equal division of property between sons, did more than the Revolution to destroy the power of France's—then the Empire's—landed gentry. Equally as significant, the first consul concluded the 1801 Concordat with Pope Pius VII (1742–1823), reestablishing Roman Catholicism as the state religion, or—as the Concordat would have it—at least "the religion of the great majority of the French people," whose practice was authorized "in conformity with any police regulations that may be necessary for public order."

In April 1802, church bells rang out for the first time since the onset of the Revolution, as if in celebration of a new civic harmony within France and a new peace in Europe. For Napoleon, needing peace at home and abroad to give time for his reforms to take effect, had moved decisively in May 1800 to bring an end to the War of the Second Coalition. Crushing the Austrians at the Battle of Marengo on June 14, 1800, he did indeed initiate a brief interval of peace with all Europe, including Britain, the next year. The failure of William Pitt's (1759–1806) coalition on the Continent forced him to resign as British prime minister, and the incoming government—its members emotionally fatigued by almost a decade of fruitless fighting—signed the Treaty of Amiens on March 27, 1802. Although the peace—with Great Britain still deeply suspicious and France full of expansionist ambition—was destined to be not much more than a brief truce, it did nevertheless provide Napoleon nearly 15 months to complete his civic and clerical reforms and to reshape his army. A grateful France made Napoleon first consul for life on August 2, 1802.

To the chagrin of the British, much of France's newfound energy seemed devoted to ship building, and not just to constructing ships of the line, but also flat-bottomed barges that could only, they decided, be intended for an invasion of their island. Worse still, in 1803 Napoleon set about once again to reshape the face of Europe. In Holland he occupied the Batavian Republic and in Switzerland the Helvetian Republic. He annexed Savoy-Piedmont, then took the first step toward abolishing the Holy Roman Empire by means of the Imperial Recess of 1803, which consolidated free cities and minor states dominated by the Holy Roman Empire. He also attempted to recover the Caribbean island of Haiti, which had rebelled against French colonial domination. To help fund these adventures and to ensure, at the very least, America's neutrality in what was surely the coming war with Britain, Napoleon sold Louisiana—ceded to France by its ally, Spain, in 1800 under the secret Treaty of San Ildefonso—to the United States at a cut-rate price, extracting in exchange vague promises of friendship that fell far short of Bonaparte's hopeful prediction to the U.S. diplomats that the Americans would fight Britain again.

Britain was even more irritated by Napoleon's determination to turn Europe into a huge market reserved exclusively for French goods. Not only did France control the continental coastline from Genoa to Antwerp, it was also charging extortionate customs duties that much affronted the commercially minded island sea power. Thus Napoleon's renewed aggression in Europe, coupled with his refusal to grant trade concessions to Britain, led the English to reignite war—on the slim pretext that he was not living up to the Treaty of Amiens—in May 1803. As Napoleon prepared to invade England with an army of 170,000 troops, an assassination scheme, financed by the British, was discovered. Alarmed by the plot, the French Senate—nudged along by Napoleon—petitioned the first consul to establish a hereditary dynasty. Once more, Bonaparte eagerly seized opportunity and, on December 2, 1804, as Pope Pius VII looked on, he crowned himself emperor.

Eliminating the republic for which he had supposedly fought for so long and so ostentatiously, Napoleon created a royal court populated by former republicans and royalists alike. Not content merely to create a dynasty for France, he would eventually install members of his family on the thrones of the newly created kingdoms of Naples, Holland, Westphalia, and Spain. Meanwhile, he went to war with the world.

From the moment he became emperor, Napoleon was almost constantly at war. Great Britain proved his most dogged opponent, but Prussia, Russia, and Austria also joined in the series of coalitions stitched together to stop Napoleon's march across Europe. Backed by an entirely

new kind of army—ideologically conscripted rather than professionally recruited—he was a master strategist, particularly skilled at the rapid deployment of masses of troops and mobile field artillery. Until 1812—with some important exceptions—the French military was usually successful. One of those exceptions came in October 1805, when British admiral Horatio Nelson (1758–1805) annihilated the French navy at the Battle of Trafalgar off the coast of Spain. Preoccupied with Austria and Russia, Napoleon was probably not aware that the battle—which cost Nelson his life—was one of the turning points in history. In the short term, it meant Napoleon had to call off his elaborate plans to invade England; in the long run, Nelson's victory ensured the British navy would rule the seas for more than a century.

Forcing the Russians to capitulate and sign the Treaty of Pressburg after the Battle of Austerlitz in December (his single greatest military victory), Napoleon abolished the Holy Roman Empire and organized in its stead the Confederation of the Rhine, a French protectorate of German states. In an attempt to ease hostilities with Britain, Napoleon offered to return Hanover to British control, which provoked a war with Prussia in September, though Napoleon easily defeated this Fourth Coalition. Once again, he forced major concessions from Prussia and its ally, Czar Alexander I, creating the French-controlled Grand Duchy of Warsaw, gaining Russian recognition of other European entities spawned by Napoleon, and removing from Prussia all lands between the Rhine and Elbe rivers.

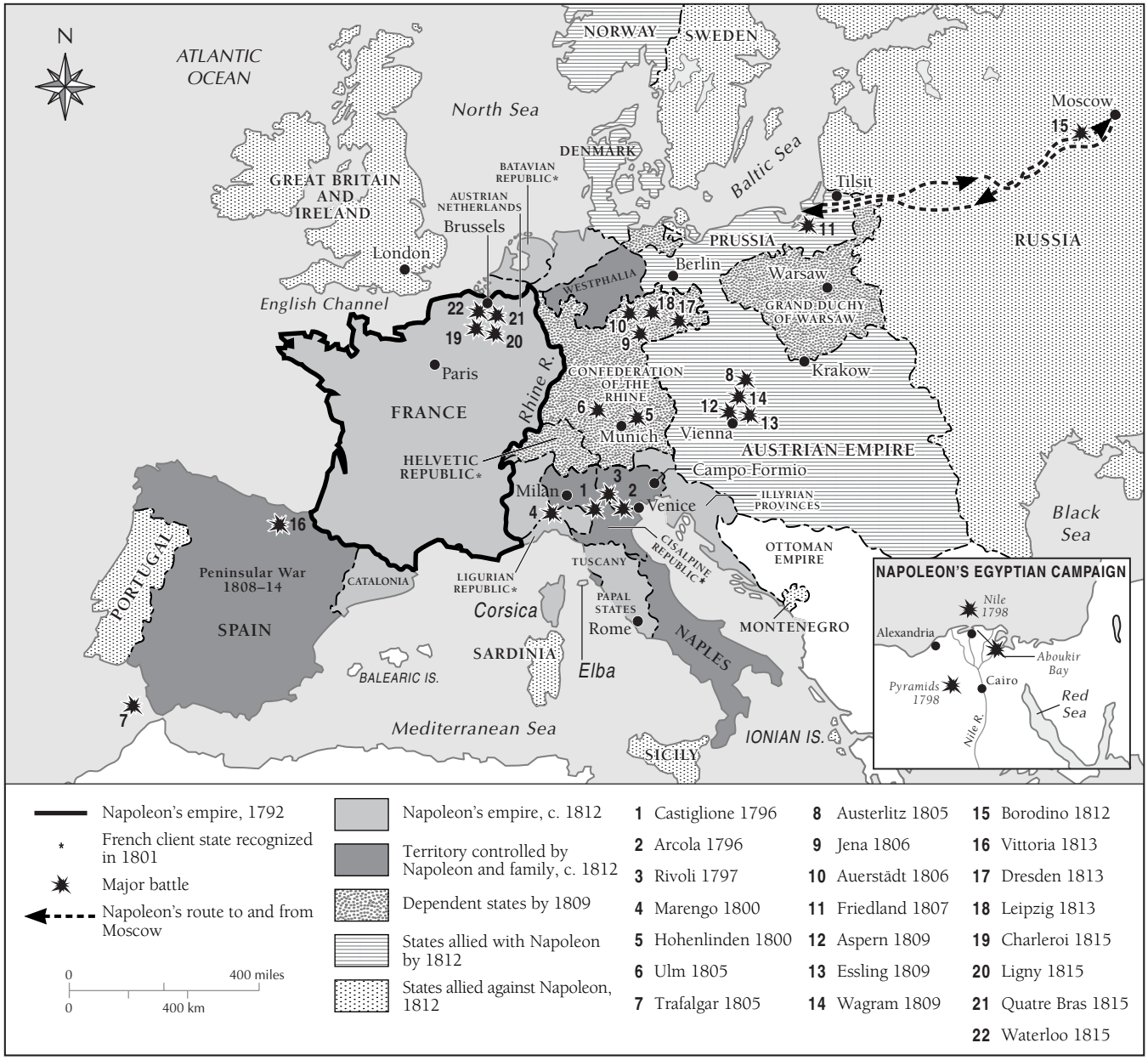
The emperor now enjoyed unparalleled sway over Europe, but he was not satisfied. Unable to defeat Britain by military means, he instituted in 1806 the Continental System, a blockade of British trade intended to destroy England's economy. Britain responded with the Orders in Council, which called for its own naval blockade of Napoleonic Europe. The Continental System, and the British response, created tremendous unrest throughout Europe, and Portugal immediately announced that it would not participate. Napoleon launched the Peninsular War to compel Portugal's obedience, which provoked unrest in Spain and led to the abdication of King Charles IV (1748–1819) and his son Ferdinand VII (1784–1833). When Napoleon replaced them with his brother, Joseph Bonaparte (1768–1844), a popular revolt broke out in Spain and in Spanish holdings around the world. With Napoleon embroiled on the Iberian Peninsula, Austria formed the Fifth Coalition, won a few early victories, then lost decisively. Napoleon's marriage to Marie-Louise of Austria followed the 1809 armistice.

By 1809 Napoleonic France had annexed the Low Countries and western Germany and set up satellite kingdoms in eastern Germany and Italy, Spain, and Poland. Despite the enmity his empire provoked, Napoleon hoped that his union with one of Europe's oldest royal families, in addition to providing an heir, would guarantee him Austrian friendship and bring peace to Europe. Instead, English-backed guerrillas continued to threaten his grasp on Spain and Portugal, and Russia—nervous about the substantial French forces in Poland—also refused to participate in the Continental System. These irritations provoked Napoleon to overreach himself beginning in 1810.

Following an enormous effort requiring every country in Europe, including a reluctant Prussia, to contribute a contingent, the emperor assembled 650,000 troops along the Russian frontier, where he planned one of his lightning campaigns that would destroy the Russian forces in six weeks and allow him to impose a humiliating peace. But the invasion failed miserably in the cold Russian winter, and by December of 1812, the Prussians had deserted the Grand Army and turned against the French, the Austrians had likewise withdrawn and were growing increasingly hostile, and even stalwart Italy was turning its back on Napoleon. They would all hail the formation of yet another anti-French Coalition—the sixth—consisting of Prussia, Russia, Britain, and Sweden. In Austria, Napoleon's own father-in-law was mobilizing against him.

This time, the forces arrayed against France would no longer be armies of mercenaries but those of nations fighting for their freedom. And even though, in Paris, the emperor built a new army, with which he defeated coalition forces in 1813 and brought about a brief armistice, the French themselves had lost their enthusiasm for a European empire. Napoleon's goal of conquest was no longer that of the French nation. In August, Austria joined the Sixth Coalition. Napoleon promptly defeated Austrian troops at Dresden but, badly outnumbered, the French were in turn trounced at the Battle of the Nations at Leipzig on October 16–19, 1813. Napoleon retreated across the Rhine, but refused to surrender any conquered territory. The next year, when coalition armies invaded France itself, the emperor prevailed against each attempt to penetrate to Paris until repeated mauling of his dwindling forces prompted a mutiny of his marshals and the fall of the capital on March 31, 1814. A few days later, on April 4, Napoleon abdicated in favor of his son.

The allies rejected this "solution," and Napoleon abdicated unconditionally on April 6. He was exiled to the British-controlled island of Elba. In a matter of days, the empire had vanished, and in Napoleon's place the victors had enthroned the Bourbon Louis XVIII (1755–1824), whose brother had lost his head to the Revolution 21 years before. On May 30, the new king signed the First Peace of Paris, which Charles Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord (1754–1838) negotiated to retain those "natural" frontiers of France in place since 1792. A great congress was summoned at Vienna to set in order a post-Napoleonic Europe, but within weeks, thanks to Talleyrand's diplomacy, the allies' wartime unity had begun to evaporate and the diplomats were engaged in bitter squabbles. They had at least managed to agree to the creation of a



Napoleonic Wars, 1792–1815

moderately powerful state in the Netherlands as a buffer against a resurgent France when the congress was interrupted by news that Napoleon had escaped from exile and was on his way to Paris.

He landed, with a few hundred followers, at Cannes on March 1, 1815, aware that Louis XVIII was unpopular, that the peasants feared a restoration of the aristocracy would cost them all they had gained in the Revolution, and that the middle class hated a reactionary regime threatening to its own class hegemony. Troops sent by the king to arrest Napoleon instead joined him, and yet again a Bourbon monarch fled Paris. Napoleon occupied the city, which joyfully acclaimed the return of its emperor on March 20. The Congress of Vienna spurned Napoleon's claim that his intentions were peaceful and labeled him an outlaw. Seeking to forestall combined attack by Russian and Austrian armies, Napoleon decided to strike first in order to divide and destroy Prussian and Anglo-Dutch armies in Belgium. Indeed, Napoleon prevailed against the Austrians at Ligny on June 16 and against the British at Quatre-Bras on the same day, but he was defeated at Waterloo by Arthur Wellesley (1769–1852), duke of Wellington, reinforced by troops under Gebhard von Blücher (1742–1819) on June 18, 1815.

The duke of Wellington claimed Waterloo had been nearly a draw and a very close call, but even had Napoleon won, the world was determinedly arrayed against him and would have quickly crushed his restoration. Now he was on the run, a mere fugitive, who reached the port of Rochefort in early July hoping to find a ship to take him to the United States. But the British, always his nemesis, were still strictly enforcing their blockade, and Napoleon had no way out. Napoleon returned to Paris, abdicated for the second time on June 22, and surrendered to the captain of the *Bellerophon,* a British warship, cheekily seeking asylum in England. The British demurred, and he was exiled again, this time to the desolate South Atlantic island of Saint Helena. There he composed his memoirs and grew increasingly ill. Some authorities believe that he succumbed, like his father, to cancer of the stomach on May 5, 1821; others have theorized that he died of gradual arsenic poisoning, which may have been the result of a deliberate assassination effort or due to overmedication with the arsenic-based drugs popular at the time.

HISTORICAL IMPACT OF THE WARS

The Congress of Vienna, which had been so shocked by Napoleon's escape that it interrupted its bickering, picked up where it had left off in March. Both a diplomatic conference and a glittering social occasion, the delegates discussed the fate of their world amid a gala of balls and receptions where old Europe celebrated its survival. Austria's foreign minister, Prince Klemens von Metternich (1773–1859), whose shadow stretched long over the future of Europe, dominated the proceedings as diplomats from Britain, Russia, and Prussia worked to restore a balance of power that would ensure their old order continued to thrive indefinitely. Much of their attention focused on the undoing of Napoleon's reforms in Europe, but—terrified by both the Revolution and the attendant nationalism that gave rise to France's empire—they hoped to do more than merely restore the balance of power.

They hoped to come up with a settlement designed to prevent any such events from recurring. Thus all the powers, including the constitutionally governed Britain, placed great emphasis on principles of legitimacy for monarchies. Some of Napoleon's innovations, long envied and often imitated, the congress was not willing to forego. Having striven to copy his efficient and centralized administration, they retained the improved bureaucratic and fiscal systems he had imposed on his conquests, and where these conflicted with the old feudal aristocracy, they often set aside old and once-cherished privileges. Napoleon's Civil Code, too, they left intact, underpinning the legal systems not just of France, but also of Holland, Belgium, Italy—wherever had trodden the troops of the Grand Army.

Napoleon's rise had transformed many institutions beyond the ability of the European peacemakers to change—indeed, beyond remedy by the art of diplomacy altogether. Not only did his conquests spread revolutionary ideology to much of western Europe and destroy the old order inherited from the 18th century in major sections of the Continent, but in such areas as Belgium, western Germany, and northern Italy, Napoleon's armies consolidated what before had been scattered territories. This welter of states was never truly restored. Such developments, added to an intense resentment toward Napoleonic hegemony, did indeed spark a growing nationalism in these areas, as well as in Spain and Poland. And even Prussia and Russia, more resistant to the siren call of revolution, had introduced political reforms to strengthen their states and resist Napoleon's war machine.

Napoleon's impact was felt outside Europe as well, most spectacularly in Latin America. When Bonaparte placed his inept brother on the Spanish throne, he unintentionally united all Creole society in opposition to Joseph, and mobs drove French emissaries out of capitals across the lower half of the Western Hemisphere. Then Spanish officialdom itself, increasingly viewed as the puppet of a French usurper, came under attack. For a year, Spanish viceroys clung to power, but in 1810, Latin America's Creole population arose, almost as one, to depose their already powerless rulers. The rebellions struck every Latin country in the New World but Peru. Years later, Spain and Portugal would make a feeble stab at reclaiming some of their lost colonial empires, but by then the United States, backed by Great Britain, was determined to stop them, setting the stage for U.S. president James Monroe to issue the seminal Monroe Doctrine, by which the United States proclaimed itself the defender of republican government in the Americas.

Perhaps just as significantly, Great Britain, protected by the English Channel from Napoleon's army, was also transformed by the long series of conflicts. Fifteen years of continuous war against the French emperor (and 10 years of war against the French Revolution before that), although arduous for those at the front on land or sea, was nevertheless a godsend for British industrialists and empire builders. Honed by Napoleon's constant pressure, the Royal Navy came to rule the waves, not only protecting the island kingdom from invasion but also keeping the ocean lanes open for British export. The navy enforced the Orders in Council, which not only blockaded France and her allies but also permitted neutrals to trade with the enemy only if they paid duty on their cargoes. Although this ultimately provoked the War of 1812 with the United States, it also gave Britain's fledgling industries the security they needed to expand.

Britain's military victories in the Napoleonic Wars also expanded its empire. French possessions in the Caribbean and Mediterranean soon joined its growing—and captive—imperial market. When Holland fell to France, the British seized Dutch territories in Africa and Asia. The expanded colonial demands for British goods

helped offset the decline in trade with a continental Europe squeezed by economic sanctions, but more important, it stoked the fires of Britain's industrial revolution and gave rise to one of the greatest colonial empires the world had ever seen. But even the protection afforded by the British navy, and the expanding industrial economy that ultimately helped to wear Napoleon down, could not prevent the French revolutionary example from spurring a new wave of democratic agitation in British society.

Thus Britain was as anxious to preserve some of the old order as the Europeans coming under Metternich's sway. The Treaty of Vienna they produced disappointed the growing number of nationalists, who had hoped for an officially unified Germany and Italy, and it certainly daunted democrats and liberals, but—thanks in no small measure to Talleyrand—it was not truly reactionary, nor as punitive toward France as it might have been. After Vienna, conservatism dominated the diplomatic and political agenda of Europe through the mid-1820s, with major governments, even in Britain, employing police agents to ferret out revolutionary agitators. The balance of power worked out at the congress would preserve the peace in Europe for more than half a century, but in the long run the conservative political order it worked to reestablish was doomed by the boost given to national movements in the Napoleonic Wars.

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Napoleon's Egyptian Campaign

See COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND.

Napoleon's German Campaign

See COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND.

Napoleon's Invasion of Russia (1812)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Russia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia
DECLARATION: France against Russia, April 8, 1812
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When Russia renounced Napoleon's Continental System, because the trade boycott against Britain was ruining the Russian economy, and made peace with the British, Napoleon invaded his erstwhile ally.
OUTCOME: Napoleon's Grand Army nearly perished in the harsh Russian winter, leaving Napoleon vulnerable to a new coalition of forces in Europe.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 500,000 in Russia; Russia, 409,000
CASUALTIES: France, 334,000 killed, 180,000 wounded, 100,000 captured; Russia, 150,000–200,000 killed, 150,000 wounded, 50,000 deserted
TREATIES: First Peace of Paris, May 30, 1814

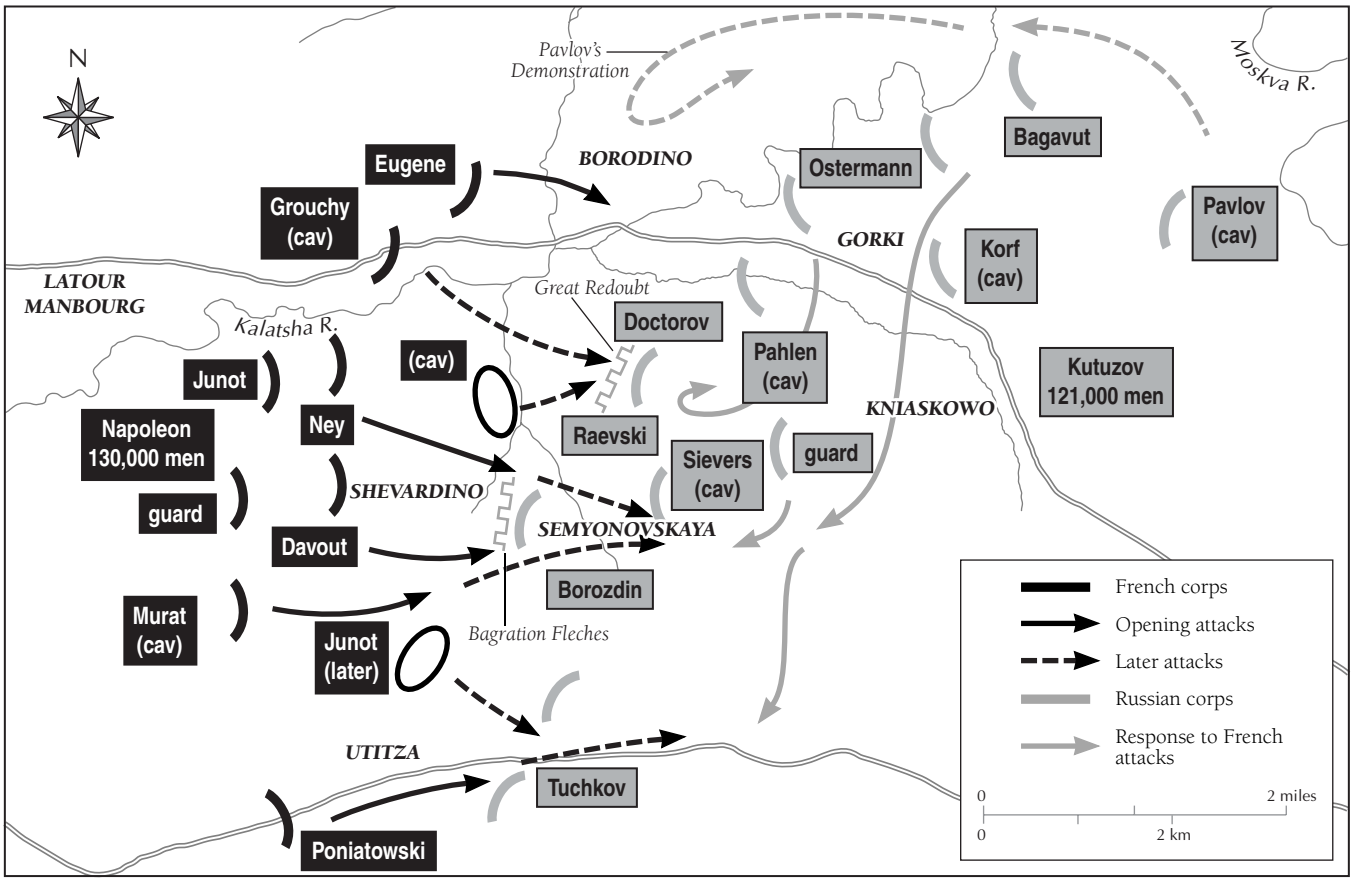
Since the Congress of Erfurt in the fall of 1808, Russia's Czar Alexander I (1777–1825) had shown himself increasingly less willing to deal with Napoleon (1769–1821) as a trusted ally or to enforce his Continental System of trade restrictions against the British. By the summer of 1812, Napoleon had massed his troops in Poland to intimidate Alexander into staying the course, but in June 1812—after attempts to heal the rift had failed—the czar made peace with Great Britain, and Napoleon's Grand Army of 500,000 invaded Russia.

The Russians retreated, adopting a "scorched earth" defense that kept the French army from the approaches to Moscow until the beginning of September. At Borodino, the Russian commander, Mikhail Kutuzov (1745–1813), engaged Napoleon in a savage, bloody, indecisive battle that did not prevent the French from entering Moscow a week later, after the Russians had abandoned the city. A huge fire broke out that same day, although no one knows whether it was deliberately set by the Russians or occurred accidentally at the hands of French looters. In any case, it destroyed the greater part of the town, and afterward, Alexander refused to treat with Napoleon. Stranded in the heart of Russia with winter coming on, Napoleon withdrew. But early snows made the retreat disastrous. By December, although he managed to preserve himself and the core of his Grand Army, much of his forces were destroyed or had deserted him, and although 40,000 made it out alive, fewer than 10,000 men fit for combat remained in Napoleon's main force.

THE AFTERMATH

The French catastrophe cheered all Europe. Though Arthur Wellesley (1769–1852), duke of Wellington, had earlier failed to take Burgos in Spain, in 1813 he routed the French at Vitoria and pursued them back into their home country. Napoleon's Prussian allies, smelling weakness in the Russian and Spanish setbacks, formed a new coalition with Russia, Sweden, and Austria to wage a "War of Liberation." Having pursued Napoleon's army into France itself, Wellington laid siege to Bayonne and Bordeaux, where his efforts merged with the general allied effort. This brought the PENINSULAR WAR—which had brutalized Spain and detonated Latin American revolutions—to a close.

Meanwhile, at the Battle of Nations in Leipzig on October 16–19, 1813, coalition powers defeated the Grand Army. Napoleon rejected the allies' offer of a peace that stipulated France's pre-1792 frontiers on the Rhine and



Battle of Borodino, September 7, 1812

along the Alps as its "natural" borders and stubbornly held his ground. But in March 1814, Paris was captured by the allies, and Napoleon relinquished the battle, abdicating as emperor and accepting—under the Peace of Paris—exile from Europe to the island of Elba (*see* NAPOLEONIC WARS).

Further reading: Alan Palmer, *Napoleon in Russia* (New York: Carroll and Graf Publishers, 2003); Richard K. Riehn, 1812: *Napoleon's Russian Campaign* (New York: Wiley, 1991).

Napoleon's North Italy Campaign

See COALITION, WAR OF THE FIRST.

Napoleon's Peninsular Campaign

See PENINSULAR WAR.

Napoleon's Reconquest of Egypt

See COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND.

Napoleon's Second Italian Campaign

See COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND.

Napoleon's War with Austria (1809)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France (including Bavarian forces) vs. Austria (nominally heading a Fifth Coalition)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Austria
DECLARATION: Austria on France, February 9, 1809
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Austrian Hapsburgs, always jealous of Napoleon's domination of Europe, attacked France while Napoleon was preoccupied with fighting in Spain and Portugal.
OUTCOME: Napoleon soundly defeated the Hapsburgs and allied himself to them by marriage.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 169,400; Austria, 136,200
CASUALTIES: France, about 30,000 killed or wounded; Austria, 80,855 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Schönbrunn (or Treaty of Vienna), October 14, 1809

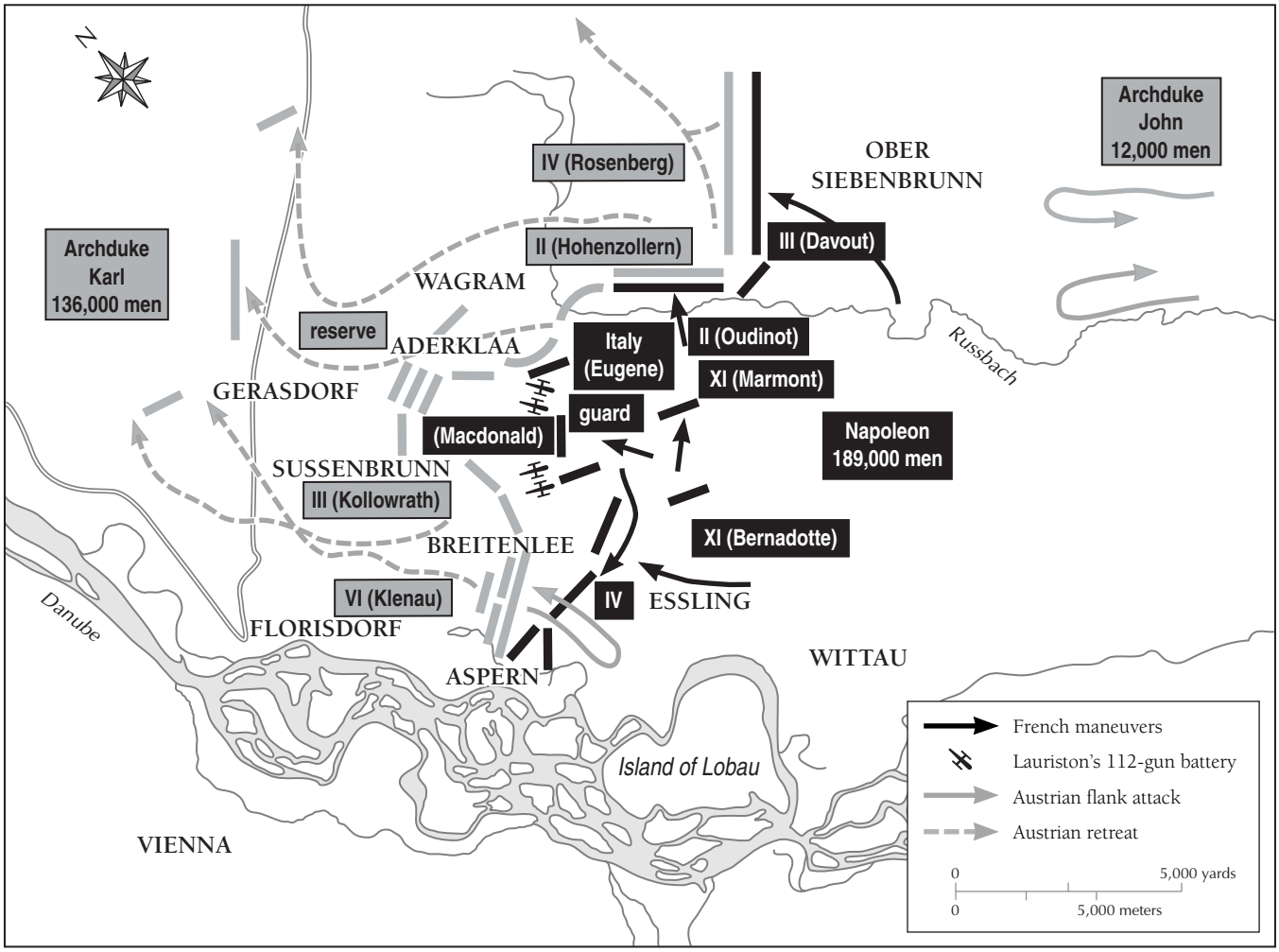
In 1809 while Napoleon (1769–1821) was caught up in the PENINSULAR WAR, the Hapsburgs invaded Bavaria on April 9, 1809, in hopes of rousing all Germany against a common foe, but they only succeeded in catching Napoleon's undivided attention. Napoleon marshaled a

large army to confront the Austrians, but the first action of the war was against the Tyrolean peasantry, which rose in rebellion against Bavarian garrisons on the southern flank of Napoleon's main army. Although a French force of 36,000 attacked 40,000 Austrians at Sacile on April 16, the combination of the uprising and Austrian resistance overwhelmed the attack: 3,500 French soldiers were killed or wounded, and another 6,000 taken prisoner.

Three days later, on the war's main front in Bavaria proper, a French army was more successful, penetrating Austrian lines, albeit at great cost. Of 22,000 French troops engaged, 4,000 were killed or wounded, whereas Austrian casualties were about 3,000. Nevertheless, Napoleon personally led a force to exploit the breach in the Austrian lines and scored a stunning victory at Abensberg on April 19–20. Of about 14,000 men, the Austrians lost 2,700 killed or wounded and 4,000 taken prisoner. French losses were negligible. This action exposed the left wing of the Austrian army of 27,000 men, which Napoleon attacked on April 21 and drove back across the Iser River at Landshut. Austrian losses were about 2,000 killed or wounded, 3,312 captured, and another 2,653 missing. Of some 70,000 French soldiers in the region, 1,500 were killed or wounded.

From the triumph at Landshut, Napoleon turned north to reinforce the 36,000 French troops menaced by an army of 75,000 on the Danube. Napoleon arrived just in time on April 22 to repulse an Austrian attack at Eggmühl. The repulse cost the French 3,000 killed or wounded, about the same as the casualties inflicted on the Austrians.

Although it had suffered a series of stinging defeats, the Austrian army withdrew in good order, whereupon Napoleon turned down the Danube in an advance on Vienna. This brought an Austrian counterattack on April 24 at Neumarkt-St. Vieth, which took a sharp toll on the Bavarian division there, but failed to stop Napoleon, who entered Vienna without resistance on May 13.



Battle of Wagram, July 4–6, 1809

In the meantime, the French Army of Italy engaged in an offensive on the Piave River beginning May 7–8. A large force of 44,800 Frenchmen defeated 20,750 Austrians and broke through to the Isonzo River by May 18. Here the French cleared the Austrian border defenses—which, badly outnumbered, nevertheless fought valiantly—and invaded Austrian territory from the south.

During the action in Bavaria and Italy, an Austrian army defeated combined French and Polish forces in Poland and, on April 19, took Warsaw. Thus Poland fell under Austrian control.

In the meantime, the main Austrian army, though so far defeated, remained intact and, on May 21, repulsed a major thrust by Napoleon at Aspern-Essling. Thirty percent of the French forces engaged, 21,000 men, were killed or wounded, at a cost, however of 23,340 Austrians killed, wounded, captured, or missing.

The costly repulse at Aspern-Essling inspired the people of the Tyrol, who once again rose up in rebellion. However, the Austrians were having their own trouble in Poland, and when the nation erupted into widespread rebellion, the Austrian army had to relinquish Warsaw and begin a general withdrawal southward.

As for Napoleon, after the terrible defeat at Aspern-Essling, he regrouped with 188,900 men for an all-out push against 146,000 Austrians on the Danube. Crossing this river on July 4–5, Napoleon engaged the Austrian forces in the culminating Battle of Wagram beginning on July 5. The battle continued the next day and would stand with Leipzig and Borodino as the bloodiest clash of the NAPOLEONIC WARS. Napoleon lost 24 percent of his army during these two days, 6,901 killed and 26,757 wounded (some authorities put the losses even higher). Austria lost 5,631 killed, 18,119 wounded, and 18,000 captured (again, some historians believe the losses were significantly greater). Despite his staggering losses, Napoleon forced the retreat of the Austrians, who, fighting a desperate rearguard action, sued for an armistice on July 10. While this ended fighting on the main Bavarian front, combat in the Tyrol continued until the conclusion of the Treaty of Schönbrunn on October 14, whereupon the Austrians summarily abandoned the Tyrolean rebels. These warriors were finally pacified the following year.

By terms of the October treaty, Austria ceded some 32,000 square miles of territory and 3 million of its 16 million subjects.

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Napoleon's Waterloo Campaign

See HUNDRED DAY'S WAR.

Naresuen's First Invasion of Burma

See SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR.

Naresuen's Second Invasion of Burma

See BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1599); SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR.

Natchez Revolt (1729)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Natchez Indians vs. French settlers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lower Mississippi Valley
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Natchez resistance to French invasion
OUTCOME: The Natchez were defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At least 200 colonists in initial raids
TREATIES: None

In the 18th century, the Natchez Indians lived just east of the present-day Mississippi city that bears their name. On November 28, 1729, the tribe attacked Fort Rosalie, a French settlement and military outpost, killing about 200 French colonists. The initial assault was followed by scattered raids throughout the lower Mississippi Valley. The "revolt" was the culmination of long-deteriorating relations between the French and the Natchez. There had been outbursts of violence in the past, but open warfare had been avoided largely through the diplomacy of Tattooed Serpent, brother of the Natchez principal chief, known as the Great Sun. After the death of Tattooed Serpent, however, the French governor of Louisiana, Sieur Chepart (d. 1729), summarily ordered the removal of the Natchez from their sacred Great Village, opposite Fort Rosalie on the bluffs of the Mississippi. Even at this outrage, the tribal "queen mother," Tattooed Arm, counseled peace, but to no avail. The Natchez Revolt was under way.

Among those taken captive in the attack on Fort Rosalie was the governor, whom the Natchez warriors regarded with such contempt that none of them would defile a weapon by taking his life. Sieur Chepart's execution was assigned to a Stinkard, a member of the lowest caste in the hierarchy of Natchez society. Death by the blade was deemed too noble, and the Stinkard was ordered to club the governor to death.

French colonial officials retaliated against the Natchez with vigor, dispatching several invasion forces out of New Orleans. The Natchez and the Yazoo Indians, who had joined in the uprising, were soon defeated in battle. Those captured (about 400) were sold into West Indian slavery. Survivors who evaded capture sought refuge among the Chickasaws.

The defeat of the Natchez brought peace to the lower Mississippi Valley only until 1732, when the French renewed prior demands that the Chickasaws expel English traders from their villages and, with them, refugees from the Natchez Revolt (*see* CHICKASAW RESISTANCE).

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Nat Turner's Rebellion

See TURNER'S REBELLION.

Navajo War (1861–1863)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Navajo Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): New Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Navajos were responding to the provocations of New Mexican settlers and an unprovoked attack by the U.S. Army with raids; the United States intended to subdue the Navajos and imprison them at Bosque Redondo to keep them from hampering its war against the Confederacy, or worse, from joining forces with the South's Rebels.
OUTCOME: The Navajos were defeated under a harsh, take-no-prisoners campaign by the U.S. Army and forced en masse onto Bosque Redondo.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Kit Carson's regiment, 736; Navajo, unknown
CASUALTIES: Navajo, around 500 killed or died, wounded unknown, 8,000 taken captive and forced onto Bosque Redondo; U.S. and CSA—Unknown
TREATIES: None, but a later Peace Commission, formed to investigate the charges of inhumane conditions at Bosque Redondo, negotiated a treaty in 1868 that returned the Navajo to their traditional homelands in New Mexico.

At the beginning of the American Civil War, the United States found itself faced not only with half a country in rebellion (*see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: WESTERN THEATER), but also two major Indian uprisings—one with the Apaches (*see* APACHE UPRISING), the other with the Navajos. The outbreak of civil war drained the army of the West, especially its officers. One-third of the army's officer corps—313 officers—left primarily western commands to take up arms on the side of the Confederacy. At this time, Confederate Lieutenant Colonel John Robert Baylor (1822–94) took advantage of the Union army's weakness to sweep through the southern New Mexico Territory, from the Rio Grande to California, and proclaim the Confederate Territory of Arizona, which encompassed all of present-day Arizona as well as New Mexico south of the 34th parallel. Baylor appointed himself governor. There was not much the Union could do about it. Colonel Edward R. S. Canby (1817–73), commander of the Department of New Mexico, had his hands full with Navajo raids in New Mexico and unauthorized, provocative New Mexican counterraids.

Indeed, the very people Canby was trying to protect, the citizens of New Mexico, repeatedly provoked the Navajo by raiding them and taking captives whom they subsequently sold as slaves. In retaliation, the Navajo, joined by Mescalero Apaches, Utes, Comanches, and Kiowas, ravaged the countryside in the spring of 1860. Learning that the majority of New Mexicans were loyal to the Union, Canby hastily sought to organize them as the First and Second Regiments of New Mexican Volunteers. This gesture, however, failed to bring the volunteers under Canby's control.

In September and October 1860, New Mexico volunteers invaded Canyon de Chelly and destroyed Navajo crops, seized Navajo livestock, and took Navajo captives, killing one of the major peace-minded chiefs—Zarcillos Largos (d. 1860). The attack marked a period in Navajo history that the Indians came to call "the Fearing Time," a period of war and, ultimately, of defeat and exile.

Meanwhile, Navajos, Utes, and Apaches continued to raid freely as the distracted U.S. Army geared up to meet the Confederate invasion of New Mexico. Then, at Fort Faunteroy on September 13, 1861, the New Mexico volunteers engaged in a massacre of Navajos gathered there peacefully, enraging tribesmen and swelling the ranks of the war-minded faction, whose members—led by Manuelito (c. 1818–93)—struck out with renewed fury.

It had become clear to Canby that the army proper was going to have to take the matter in hand, and he proposed a firm policy for dealing with the Navajos. Those, he announced, who agreed to settle on a reservation would be spared and protected by the United States government; those who refused would be branded enemies and hunted down. It fell to Canby's successor—General James H. Carleton (1814–73)—to carry out the plan.

A veteran Indian fighter, Carleton was also considered a humanitarian, which in the second half of the 19th century meant he wished to see a transformation of Native American culture and the ultimate assimilation of the Indians into Anglo-American society. To further that end, he set up a reservation at Bosque Redondo, a barren flat on eastern New Mexico's Pecos River. He then turned his attention to the Mescaleros, whom he quickly defeated and resettled on the reservation. Then, he unleashed on the Navajos his best colonel—Christopher Houston "Kit" Carson (1809–69). Ordered to prosecute his campaign

until headquarters concluded that the Navajo had been effectively punished, Carson succeeded in killing 13 warriors before the end of the month, taking 11 women and children captive. Far more significant was the widespread destruction of Navajo fields and orchards. Carleton offered a $20 bounty for each horse or mule captured and a dollar for each sheep. Although Navajo raiding continued—10,000 sheep were stolen in August alone—the Indians did begin to surrender to confinement at the Bosque Redondo: 51 at the end of September, 188 in November, more than 500 in January. By March, a total of 2,138 Navajos were sent from Fort Canby, New Mexico, to the Bosque.

Not to be satisfied, however, until every last Navajo had been consigned to the reservation, Carleton pressed his campaign relentlessly. He repeatedly admonished Carson and his officers that they were to negotiate nothing with the Navajo, for the Indians' choice was as simple as it was absolute: either go to the Bosque or be destroyed. On December 31, 1863, Carleton issued an order for the kind of hard winter campaign soldiers dreaded almost as much as the Indians did.

On January 6, 1864, Carson and 389 officers and men set out from Fort Canby to strike from the west the Navajo's ancient stronghold, Canyon de Chelly. Two more companies approached from the east. On January 12, a patrol in advance of Carson's main body engaged a party of Navajo, killing 11 of them. Otherwise, Carson's command fought no Navajos. Instead, on January 15, 60 Navajos surrendered to Carson, complaining that the ceaseless warfare was starving them. After destroying dwellings and orchards, Carson declared the Canyon de Chelly Expedition ended, and even more Navajos dejectedly marched off to the Bosque. By late 1864, three-quarters of the Navajo tribe had accepted concentration on the reservation.

The Bosque Redondo was a place to be dreaded. Although government wagons were furnished to transport the very young, the old, and the infirm, the remainder took an infamous "Long Walk." Conditions at Fort Canby, the jumping-off point for the Bosque, were deplorable, and 126 Navajos died of dysentery there. More died en route to the Bosque itself; reportedly, some, no longer able to march, were shot by their soldier escorts. The entire affair was reminiscent of the Cherokees' Trail of Tears. Eventually, 8,000 Navajos crowded the reservation, but, with an inefficiency and inhumanity that had become routine, the government failed to supply sufficient rations to feed this population. To his credit, General Carleton was unremitting in his pleas for 2 million pounds of food, 13,000 yards of cloth for clothing, 7,000 blankets, 20 spinning wheels, 50 mills for grinding corn, farm implements, and seeds. Finally—perhaps it was his special nod toward the amenities of white civilization—Carleton asked for 600 cotton handkerchiefs.

Congress did appropriate funds, but the amount fell short of what was needed. Attempts to teach the traditionally peripatetic Navajo and Apache Indians sedentary farming techniques likewise failed. By 1864, conditions at "Fair Carletonia"—as the soldiers sardonically christened the Bosque—were desperate. After enduring through 1868, Manuelito, Barboncito, and other chiefs were permitted to journey to Washington, D.C., to inform President Andrew Johnson of conditions at the reservation. A month later, peace commissioners visited the Bosque Redondo and concluded that the Navajos "had sunk into a condition of absolute poverty and despair." A treaty was concluded on June 1, 1868, returning the Indians to their homeland and declaring it their new reservation.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Alvin M. Josephy, *The Civil War in the American West* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1991); F. Stanley, *The Apaches of New Mexico, 1549–1590* (Pampa, Tex.: Pampa Print Shops, 1962); Ruth Roessel, ed., *Navajo Stories of the Long Walk Period* (Tsaile, Ariz.: Navajo Community College Press, 1973); Robert M. Utley, *The Indian Frontier of the American West, 1845–1890* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1984).

Neapolitan Revolt (1485–1486)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Angevin barons vs. Ferdinand I of Naples
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Naples
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Angevin barons, oppressed by high taxes, sought to overthrow Ferdinand I.
OUTCOME: With the aid of Lorenzo de' Medici of Florence, Ferdinand I defeated the barons and maintained his throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Ferdinand I (1423–94) ruled Naples with an iron fist, imposing a heavy tax burden on the Angevin barons of that city-state. At length, the barons rebelled against Ferdinand in 1485, seeking to replace him with René II (1451–1508) of Lorraine or Frederick of Aragon, Ferdinand's own second son. At first, Ferdinand acted against the rebellion through police actions, including arrests of subversives, followed by trials and executions, but as the movement against him gained ground, especially after Pope Innocent VIII (1432–92) threw his support behind the barons, he appealed to Lorenzo de' Medici (1449–92)

of Florence for military assistance (*see* FLORENTINE WAR WITH THE PAPAL STATES). Lorenzo's intervention in 1486 defeated the papal supporters of the Angevin barons and preserved Ferdinand on the throne. This, in turn, led Milan's Lodovico Sforza (1451–1508), who feared Ferdinand's growing power, to invite Charles VIII (1470–98) of France to intervene in the wars among the Italian city-states. (*See* ITALIAN WAR OF CHARLES VIII.)

Further reading: Benedetto Croce, *History of the Kingdom of Naples* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970); Christopher Duggan, *A Concise History of Italy* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994); Charles L. Killinger, *The History of Italy* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing, 2002).

Neapolitan Revolt (1820–1821)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Neapolitan nationalists (Muratists) vs. Ferdinand I, king of the Two Sicilies (backed by the Holy Alliance)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Naples
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Muratists rebelled against the despotism of Ferdinand I.
OUTCOME: Ferdinand I secured Austrian aid in crushing the rebellion and reestablishing despotic rule over Naples.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Neapolitans: 50,000; Holy Alliance: 60,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The fall of Napoleon (1769–1821) in 1815 brought an end to the Decennio, the decade of French rule in Italy. Resented by Italian nationalists, Napoleon's puppets were often admired by liberals for the political reforms they brought in their wake. Thus, when the old despot, Ferdinand I (1751–1825) was restored as king of the Two Sicilies (that is, Naples and Sicily), the Muratists, followers of Joachim Murat (1767–1815), the late Napoleonic king of Naples, attempted to carry out democratic reforms to government under Ferdinand's reactionary rule. When the reforms failed, a Muratist cavalry regiment mutinied in the town of Nola on July 11, 1820. Ferdinand I called on the army to put down the mutiny, but the officers, sympathetic to the Muratist soldiers, refused. Their cause attracted support from the Carbonari, a nationalist fraternity that had been formed under the French dominance and had since become chief among those groups calling for a liberal revolution against Ferdinand. Led by veteran general Guglielmo Pepe (1783–1855), the insurgency burgeoned and the violence magnified into a week of riot and revolt. The king felt that he had no choice but to grant Naples the constitution the revolutionaries sought. However, a Sicilian junta opposed the Neapolitan constitution, and the new Neapolitan parliament sent an army under Pietro Colletta (1775–1831) to suppress the Sicilian government. This touched off a revolt in Palermo, the chief city of Sicily, which prompted the Holy Alliance, a reactionary league of European nations, to send troops to "restore order" in Sicily and Naples. The Neapolitans called on Ferdinand I to travel to Ljubljana, Austria (today the capital of Slovenia), to block intervention from the Holy Alliance. He agreed to go but betrayed Naples by formally requesting military aid from Austria. Sixty thousand Austrian troops marched on Naples in March 1821. The Neapolitan army, consisting of some 50,000 citizen-soldiers mobilized by the constitutionalists, could hardly stand up to the Hapsburg regulars. They crumpled even before the Austrians reached the border. Ferdinand resumed his despotic reign over Naples and denounced the constitution. He enforced his rule by means of an Austrian army of occupation, which remained in Naples through 1827.

Further reading: Benedetto Croce, *History of the Kingdom of Naples* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970); Christopher Duggan, *A Concise History of Italy* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994); Charles L. Killinger, *The History of Italy* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing, 2002).

Netherlands' War of Independence

See EIGHTY YEARS' WAR.

Nebuchadnezzar's Campaigns

(605–561 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Babylon vs. (variously) Judah, Arab tribes, and Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Judah, Syria, Palestine, and Egypt
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest; expansion of the Babylonian Empire
OUTCOME: Despite some reversals, Nebuchadnezzar was an active and successful conqueror, who greatly enlarged Babylon in extent and influence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Nebuchadnezzar II (c. 630–562 B.C.E.) was the second king of the Chaldean dynasty of Babylonia. His entire reign, from about 605 to about 561 B.C.E., was marked by military campaigns. His first significant campaign came in 607–606, when, as crown prince under his father, Nabo-

polassar (fl. 625–605 B.C.E.), he commanded an army in the mountains north of Assyria. When Nabopolassar returned to Babylon, Nebuchadnezzar led military operations entirely in his own right.

When Babylonian forces were defeated in battle by the Egyptians during 606–605, Nebuchadnezzar was appointed to command Babylonian forces. He proved a brilliant general—far superior to his father—and defeated the Egyptian army at the battles of Carchemish and Hamath. These victories gave Babylon control of all Syria.

Following the death of Nabopolassar on August 16, 605, Nebuchadnezzar returned to Babylon and assumed the throne. Then, between June and December of 604, after receiving the submission of local states, including Judah, he captured the important city of Ashqelon. He set about expanding his armies by hiring Greek mercenaries, whom he sent campaigning into Palestine. Within three years, Babylon controlled the region. However, during 601–600, his armies tangled with Egyptian forces and suffered severe losses. This defeat precipitated the desertion of some vassal states, including Judah.

During 600–599 B.C.E., Nebuchadnezzar regrouped his forces and, in particular, repaired and refitted his war chariots. By the end of 599–598 (December to March), Nebuchadnezzar resumed campaigning to regain control of Palestine. He attacked the Arab tribes of northwestern Arabia to clear the way for an assault on and occupation of Judah. That attack came in 597, and on March 16 of that year, Nebuchadnezzar took Jerusalem, ousting the king, Jehoiachin, and deporting him to Babylon.

After the conquest of Judah, Nebuchadnezzar led a campaign into Syria during 596–595. However, he had to return to Babylonia to repel a threatened invasion of the eastern portion of his realm, apparently from Elam (southwestern Iran). Nebuchadnezzar also faced internal dissension during this period. Late in 595–594, a rebellion broke out among some elements of the army. Evidently, the rebellion was extinguished, because Nebuchadnezzar launched two new campaigns in Syria during 594.

Nebuchadnezzar's military activities after 594 are not recorded in any surviving chronicles, but are mentioned in the Old Testament. Here we learn of another attack on Jerusalem and a 13-year siege against Tyre. Nebuchadnezzar may also have invaded Egypt. According to the Bible, the second siege of Jerusalem was successful. The city fell to Nebuchadnezzar in 587–586. Nebuchadnezzar purged the city of certain prominent citizens, who were deported to Babylon. A second wave of deportations occurred in 582.

Fragmentary cuneiform references suggest that Nebuchadnezzar's culminating operation was an invasion of Egypt, in 568–567 B.C.E.

See also ASSYRIA, FALL OF; MEGIDDO, SECOND BATTLE OF; NINEVEH, FALL OF.

Further reading: Sabatino Moscati, *Ancient Semitic Civilizations* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, Capricorn Books, 1960); Donald John Wiseman, *Nebuchadnezzar and Babylon* (London: Oxford University Press, 1985).

Neuchâtel, Insurrection at (1856–1857)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Neuchâtel republicans vs. Neuchâtel royalists (backed by Prussia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Neuchâtel, Switzerland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The royalists sought to overthrow the republican government of Neuchâtel and establish Prussia's Frederick William IV as prince of Neuchâtel.
OUTCOME: A stand-off developed between Prussia and Neuchâtel, but war was averted by diplomatic compromise.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: Compromise of 1857

The Congress of Vienna that followed the conclusion of the NAPOLEONIC WARS temporized in the case of Neuchâtel, establishing it simultaneously as a new Swiss canton and as the property of the king of Prussia. This prompted the Swiss to rebel in 1848, a year in which revolution swept Europe, and to declare Neuchâtel a republic. In 1852, the major European powers responded with the London Protocol, which confirmed the rights of Prussia's Frederick William IV (1795–1861) to the canton, but also advised him to forestall action unless the powers concurred. Frederick William agreed to the London Protocol but nevertheless endorsed a coup by Neuchâtel's royalists in 1856. The coup d'état fizzled, resulting in the mass arrest of 530 aristocrats. When the republic of Neuchâtel refused to release the plotters, Prussia vowed to go to war. The Swiss then mobilized for combat as well, but war was staved off by the diplomatic intervention of France's Napoleon III (1808–73). He decided to back the claims of Neuchâtel, and the British supported this decision. Frederick William was thus put in an embarrassing position, which French diplomats resolved by suggesting that he retain his title of prince of Neuchâtel but simultaneously renounce sovereignty over it, thereby allowing the canton to remain an independent republic. In return, Neuchâtel officials agreed to release the aristocrats without taking further action against them. Prussia and Neuchâtel demobilized their armies, and war was averted.

Further reading: Edgar Bonjour, H. S. Offler, and G. R. Potter, *A Short History of Switzerland* (Westport, Conn.:

Greenwood Press, 1985); William Martin, *Switzerland: From Roman Times to the Present* (London: Elek, 1971).

Nez Percé War (Chief Joseph's Uprising) (1877)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nez Percé Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portions of Idaho, Washington, Oregon, and Montana
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A Nez Percé faction refused to relinquish their lands and move to a reservation; when pressured by the United States, they fled for Canada; the U.S. Army sought to prevent their escape and their joining Sioux leader Sitting Bull in Canada
OUTCOME: Nez Percé surrender and removal to reservations
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States—5,000; Nez Percé—300 warriors
CASUALTIES: United States, civilian and military—92 killed, about 57 wounded; Nez Percé—(according to Nelson Miles) 120 killed in action, 205 died en route, 150 captured and turned over to Cheyenne, wounded unknown, though many who survived the journey, wounded, sick, or exhausted, died soon thereafter
TREATIES: None

The Nez Percé of central Idaho, southeastern Washington, northeastern Oregon, and parts of Montana fell into sharply divided "treaty" (pro-white) and "non-treaty" (anti-white) factions after an 1863 gold rush had prompted a revision of an earlier treaty that had defined the boundaries of the Nez Percé homelands. The revised covenant carved the mineral-rich lands out of the original allocation. Those Indians whose homes remained within the revised boundaries signed the treaty; those who were dispossessed refused to sign. Prominent among the latter was the revered Chief Joseph (d. 1871), who repudiated the treaty and lived with his people in land now claimed by the government.

For many years, few whites were actually interested in the particular area, however, and Joseph was left in peace. Indeed, in 1873, two years after Joseph's death, President Ulysses S. Grant (1822–85) set aside part of the Wallowa Valley as a reservation. At this very time, however, Oregon settlers began to covet the land for grazing and lobbied for its reopening to white settlement. General Oliver O. Howard (1830–1909) headed a negotiating committee charged with persuading the nontreaty Nez Percés to leave the disputed lands. The conference, which took place between November 12 and November 15, 1876, broke down, but Young Joseph (c. 1840–1904), who had become chief upon the death of his father, nevertheless marched off with the nontreaty faction to the reservation, realizing that war with the whites would be useless.

As was frequently the case, the younger men in the tribe could not reconcile themselves to the situation. On June 13 and 14, 1877, while traveling to the reservation, some young warriors, drunk, killed four whites. Although Young Joseph tried to convince his followers to seek reconciliation with white authorities, the nontreaty Indians now decided to turn south, toward the Salmon River, instead of continuing to the reservation, and in the course of their run, 15 more settlers were slain.

General Howard dispatched 100 cavalrymen under Captain David Perry out of Fort Lapwai. Persuaded by panic-stricken civilians to strike, Perry confronted the Indians on June 17 at White Bird Canyon. Joseph sent a delegation under a flag of truce, intending to talk peace, but a party of trigger-happy civilian volunteers opened fire, inciting an attack on Perry's troops, one-third of whom—more than 30 men—were killed.

On June 22, Howard moved about 400 men to White Bird Canyon. Once again, a Nez Percé leader, Chief Looking Glass (c. 1823–77), offered reconciliation, and, once again, civilian volunteers attached to the army force provoked a fight. Under attack on July 1, the regulars trained their Gatling guns against the village, killing several people, including women and children, and sending Looking Glass over to the side of the hostiles.

Ten days of pursuit and attack followed, with the Indians usually maintaining the advantage. On July 9 and 10, the Indians besieged a force of volunteers at a place the whites dubbed Mount Misery. Howard was able to bring his main force to the Nez Percés' rear, and on July 11, the two-day Battle of Clearwater began, which ended in the Indians' withdrawal. However, exhausted by the battle, Howard could not give chase and thereby failed to bring the war with the Nez Percé to an immediate conclusion.

The army pursued the fugitive Indians until August 9, when Colonel John O. Gibbon (1827–96), leading 15 officers, 146 enlisted regulars, and 45 volunteers, surprised a camp on the Big Hole River, Montana. Looking Glass led a quick and successful counterattack, killing two of Gibbon's officers, 22 regulars, and six civilians, and wounding five more officers, 30 enlisted men, and four civilians. The Nez Percés then traveled 100 miles, killing nine whites, seizing 250 horses, and raiding a wagon train before they entered the newly established Yellowstone National Park, where they terrorized visitors.

Howard gave chase while the seventh Cavalry, under Colonel Samuel D. Sturgis (1822–76), attempted unsuccessfully to block the escape route. On August 19, 200 warriors skirmished with troopers on Camas Meadows and made off with 150 army mules, having killed one trooper and wounded seven. On September 13, the seventh Cavalry engaged Nez Percé at the site of present-day

Billings, Montana, and, once again, the army took serious casualties. Sturgis lost three men killed and 11 wounded.

The Nez Percés fled northward, toward Canada, where they hoped Sitting Bull (c. 1831–90), in exile there, would welcome them. But, only 40 miles south of the border, they paused to rest. On September 30, on the northern edge of the Bear Paw Mountains, they were attacked by about 400 regulars under Colonel Nelson A. Miles (1839–1925). The Indians dug in, and the Battle of Bear Paw Mountain lasted six snowy, miserable days, from September 30 to October 5.

During the battle, the Indians held council. Chief Joseph argued for surrender. Looking Glass wanted to fight, but they agreed to talk terms. On October 1, under a flag of truce, Joseph went to meet Miles to negotiate surrender terms. Talks broke down, and Miles decided to hold the chief hostage but exchanged him for one of his own men held captive. On October 5, Looking Glass was struck in the forehead by a stray bullet and killed, whereupon Chief Joseph surrendered to Miles, making a speech of heart-wrenching, desperate eloquence:

> I am tired of fighting. Our chiefs are killed. Looking Glass is dead. Toohoolhoolzote is dead. The old men are all dead. It is the young men who say yes or no. He who led on the young men [Joseph's brother, Ollokot] is dead. It is cold and we have no blankets. The little children are freezing to death. My people, some of them, have run away to the hills, and have no blankets, no food; no one knows where they are—perhaps freezing to death. I want to have time to look for my children and see how many of them I can find. Maybe I shall find them among the dead. Hear me, my chiefs! I am tired; my heart is sick and sad. From where the sun now stands I will fight no more forever.

For three months, 800 Nez Percés traveled more than 1,700 miles, consistently eluding or defeating the army. Chief Joseph, aided by Miles and Howard, who had come to respect him deeply, spent the rest of his life unsuccessfully petitioning for the land originally promised by President Grant. Joseph died on a reservation in 1904.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Merrill D. Beal, *"I Will Fight No More Forever": Chief Joseph and the Nez Percé War* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1963); Mark H. Brown, *The Flight of the Nez Percé* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1967); Alvin M. Josephy, *The Nez Percé Indians and the Opening of the Northwest* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1965).

Nian Rebellion (1853–1868)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nian (Nien) rebels vs. Manchu China

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Yellow (Huang) River Valley of China

DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Nian rebelled against the ineffectual Manchu government.

OUTCOME: For many years, the Nian controlled much of northern China, but, following the death of their leader, the movement began to collapse, and the rebellion was crushed by 1868.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Nian rebels, 50,000

CASUALTIES: Civilian and military casualties, more than 4 million

TREATIES: None

An offshoot of the Buddhist-inspired White Lotus secret societies, the Nian were outlaw bands of Chinese peasants army deserters, and smugglers living along the Yellow River, who had raided the Manchu (Qing or Ch'ing) Empire sporadically since the early 1800s. Victims of long-term famine, they took to plundering Anhui (Anwei), Henan (Honan), and Shandong (Shantung) during the early 1850s when the Manchus were preoccupied with the Taiping Rebellion. Soon, the Nian assumed paramilitary status, fortifying villages and using these as bases from which to conduct their raids. The Manchu government acted ineffectually against the Nian, who now numbered between 30,000 and 50,000, organized into five armies, and who came to control much of northern China, establishing in this region a kind of shadow government.

The death of the Nian leader Zhang Luoxing (Chang Lo-hsing) in 1863 at the government's siege at Zhi-ho (Chih-ho), the Nian citadel, brought disorder to the Nian. Had they been able to coordinate their actions with the Taiping rebels of southern China, the Manchu dynasty might well have been overthrown. But, disorganized now, the Nian fell prey to an imperial assault under a series of generals, Senggelinqin (Seng-ko lin-ch'in; d. 1865), Zeng Guofan (Tseng Kuo-fan; 1811–72), and Li Hongzhang (Li Huang-chang; 1823–1901). The imperial troops laid siege to all of the Nian fortress villages, starving the inhabitants into surrender. Through systematic sieges, the rebellion was put down by 1868.

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Nicaragua, Spanish Conquest of

See Spanish Conquest of Nicaragua.

Nicaraguan Civil War (1909–1912)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conservative Party opposition (backed by U.S. intervention) vs. the nationalist forces of President José Santos Zelaya.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nicaragua
DECLARATION: Demonstrations against Zelaya's government began at Bluefields on October 10, 1909.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conservatives, supported by the United States, rebelled against nationalist and dictatorial government.
OUTCOME: Installation of a Conservative Party regime, friendly to the United States
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Fewer than 1,000 U.S. Marines; rebel and government forces at variable strength
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

A backwater of the old Spanish Empire, Nicaragua had been inspired by the revolutions in Mexico and El Salvador to depose its imperial intendant in 1811. When Guatemala declared its independence from Spain in 1821, both countries united briefly with Mexico but often fought against one another for supremacy until 1826, when Nicaragua joined the United Provinces of Central America. By the time it seceded from that federation in 1838, liberal and conservative factions were already battling with each other and would continue to do so throughout Nicaraguan history. The discovery of gold in California in 1848 made Nicaragua a strategic location for interocean travel, which caught the attention of U.S. railroad and shipping magnate Cornelius Vanderbilt (1794–1877). Backing the Conservative Party, Vanderbilt just about owned the country when famed soldier of fortune William Walker (1824–60) attempted his ill-starred invasion at the behest of the Liberals, then made himself president in 1856 (*see* WALKER'S INVASION OF NICARAGUA.)

After Vanderbilt's transit-company army and the forces of five republics from the former United Provinces routed Walker the following year, Nicaragua was ruled until 1893 by Conservatives, supported by the United States and routinely in the pay of North America's profit-minded big business interests. The Conservatives brought relative peace but little in the way of freedom or democracy to the people of Nicaragua, and they were ousted by the Liberal presidency of José Santos Zelaya (1853–1919).

Zelaya, a committed nationalist but a brutal dictator, promoted schemes for Central American reunification and refused to grant U.S. businesses the kind of concessions they demanded to build a canal across his country, which encouraged Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919) and his friends to turn to Panama. As if that weren't dangerous enough, rumors spread that Zelaya planned to invite Japan to construct a canal that would compete with the projected U.S. waterway. Not content to alienate U.S. business interests and foil North American "progress," Zelaya displayed open hostility toward U.S. diplomats in the capital, Managua. The United States promptly turned its support to Zelaya's Conservative opposition and urged its members to stage a revolt.

Juan J. Estrada, Adolfo Díaz (1874–1964), and Emiliano Chamorro Vargas (1871–1966) led a group of powerful and influential Nicaraguans in the rebellion beginning on October 10, 1909. At first localized near Bluefields, on Nicaragua's eastern coast, the conflict slowly spread west. Two American citizens, Leonard Croce and Leroy Canon, volunteered for service as officers in Chamorro's revolutionary army and were captured by Zelaya's troops. Despite the warnings of his own advisers, Zelaya ordered the execution of the two Americans, an act that prompted U.S. secretary of state Philander Knox (1853–1921) to sever diplomatic relations with the Zelaya government on December 1, 1909.

Simultaneously, the navy was ordered to organize the Nicaraguan Expeditionary Brigade of marines, which arrived at Cristobal, Canal Zone, on December 12. The marines then boarded the USS *Buffalo* bound for Corinto, Nicaragua. Their arrival in Nicaragua persuaded Zelaya to resign office, on December 16, in favor of José Madriz (fl. 1909–10) and to flee to political asylum in Mexico. Immediately, relations with the United States improved, and the marines sailed back to Panama on March 22, 1910.

The departure of Zelaya by no means left Nicaragua peaceful, however. In the vicinity of Bluefields, where the revolt had started, fighting broke out between rebels loyal to Juan J. Estrada and forces loyal to President Madriz. Seeking to restore order, U.S. naval commander William W. Gilmer, skipper of the USS *Paducah,* riding off Bluefields, issued a proclamation to both sides forbidding fighting within the city. Gilmer requested a contingent of marines to enforce his proclamation. Two hundred marines under Major Smedley D. Butler (1881–1940) arrived from the Canal Zone on May 30.

The principal dispute at Bluefields was the disposition of the customs house there. Estrada's rebels had seized it and used it as a source of finance. On May 27, Madriz's army retook it, even though Estrada's forces still occupied the city. Estrada demanded that customs duties be paid to his men in the city, whereas Madriz insisted that they be paid at the customs house he now controlled. U.S. authorities, feeling that Madriz was becoming dictatorial and dangerous, ordered that customs duties be paid to Estrada. This provided the financial support he needed to continue his revolt against Madriz. While the U.S. Marines maintained civil order in Bluefields—and oversaw the rebuilding of the local hospital, market, and sanitary facilities there—Estrada took Managua on August 23. He was inaugurated as president on August 30, and, on September 4,

the Marines pulled out of Bluefields and sailed back to Panama.

However, Nicaragua was still rocked by unrest. Zelaya's followers were still active, and many in Estrada's own party became dissatisfied over the paltry shares of power and spoils they received. Nicaraguans more generally objected to U.S. imperialism and the various trade considerations and monopolies the United States received. When fighting broke out in Managua, Elliott Northcott (1869–1946), U.S. minister to Nicaragua, persuaded Estrada to resign in favor of his vice president, Adolfo Díaz. This relieved tensions for a short time, but in 1912, General Luis Mena, who had been war minister under Estrada, took a portion of the army to Masaya and then instigated the seizure of American-owned steamships on Lake Managua.

U.S. officials appealed to Díaz for assistance. He replied, in turn, with a request for U.S. military aid, and 100 sailors from the USS *Annapolis* arrived in Managua on August 4, 1912, while 353 marines, under Smedley Butler, set off from Panama for Corinto. On August 14, the Marines and 80 more seamen left Corinto by train for Managua, arriving on August 15. Thus backed, George F. Weitzel (b. 1873), who had replaced Northcott as minister in Managua, demanded that Mena immediately return the vessels that had been appropriated. When Mena refused, more marines were called up.

On September 6, the First and Second Marine Battalions of the First Provisional Regiment, Colonel Joseph H. Pendleton (1860–1942) commanding, arrived in Managua to join the small force already there. Assuming command of the combined forces, Pendleton loaded three marine companies onto a train bound for Granada, to confront Mena. At La Barranca, a hill near the town of Masaya, the forces of General Benjamin Zeledon (1879–1912), a supporter of Mena, blocked the train. Butler set up a conference between Pendleton (along with Admiral William H. H. Southerland [1852–1933]) and Zeledon, who eventually agreed to allow the marines to pass. On September 19, however, within the city limits of Masaya, revolutionary troops ambushed the train, which, putting on full speed, managed to get through the city without serious harm. At San Blas, on the outskirts of Granada, Butler informed General Mena's representatives that he would attack Granada if Mena did not surrender. Ailing, Mena gave up in return for safe conduct to political asylum in Panama.

The marines had achieved control of the rail line but still had to take Zeledon's stronghold in the Barranca-Coyatepe hills and his rebel positions in Masaya and León. On October 2, marine and Nicaraguan government troops commenced artillery bombardment of the hills, then, on October 3, stormed Zeledon's positions, readily taking them. Now the Nicaraguan troops descended on Masaya, which they ravaged and looted. Seeking to avoid Masaya's fate, León quickly surrendered to the U.S. Marines. This ended the revolt against the Díaz regime. In November 1913, most of the marines returned to Panama, leaving behind a contingent of 100 to guard the U.S. legation—and to supply the muscle needed to bolster the U.S.-friendly, Conservative Díaz government.

See also Honduran Civil War; Nicaraguan Civil War (1925–1933).

Further reading: Thomas P. Anderson, *Politics in Central America: Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua* (New York: Praeger, 1988); Jonathan R. Barton, *Political Geography of Latin America* (New York: Routledge, 1997); Eduardo Crawley, *Nicaragua in Perspective* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1984); Thomas W. Walker, *Nicaragua,* 4th ed. (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 2003).

Nicaraguan Civil War (1925–1933)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nicaraguan Liberals vs. Nicaraguan Conservatives (aided by U.S. troops)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nicaragua
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After the failure of a U.S.-sponsored Liberal-Conservative coalition government and the withdrawal of long-standing U.S. occupation forces, liberal and conservative factions vied for control of the country.
OUTCOME: Conservatives retained power; Augusto César Sandino, the leading Liberal guerrilla commander, was assassinated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: U.S. military contingent, 2,000 marines; Nicaraguan government and rebel forces at variable strength
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Though the citizens of the United States liked to think of their country as a champion of democracy and human rights, those living in Central and South America often had a different historical notion about the behemoth to their north. Beginning in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, when U.S. foreign policy more openly served the economic imperialism of American big business interests, the United States helped to create a series of Latin American client republics. The conservative governments of such countries were supported by the U.S. military and often controlled behind the scenes by U.S. corporations interested only in the profits they could exploit. Because these corrupt governments tended to be brutal and repressive, popular national liberation movements in Latin America usually took on a decidedly anti-North American, anticapitalist tone.

In Nicaragua, from the time the country became independent in 1838, Liberals struggled for power with Con-

servatives, who were in the thrall of Cornelius Vanderbilt (1794–1877) and his transportation companies from the start and who grew especially friendly toward U.S.-owned fruit producers. In 1893, Liberals regained power but, under threat by the United States, were forced to yield to the Conservatives in the NICARAGUAN CIVIL WAR (1909–1912). To shore up the new government and protect American business interests, the United States dispatched a detachment of marines to the scene. This small force of about 100 men continuously occupied Nicaragua until 1925, when the United States helped engineer a coalition government between Conservative president Carlos Solórzano (fl. 1920s) and Liberal vice president Bautista Sacasa (1874–1946). Believing it had "solved" the long-standing animosities, the U.S. government withdrew its marines, which sparked another civil war.

On October 25, 1925, shortly after the marines left, General Emiliano Chamorro Vargas (1871–1966) and Adolfo Díaz (1874–1964) staged a coup, which drove the Liberals, including Sacasa, out of office. Soon after, Solórzano also resigned, and, in January 1926, Chamorro became president. The United States refused to recognize his elevation to office, and, in the meantime, the charismatic General Augusto César Sandino (1893–1934) led Liberals in a revolt against Chamorro. In the course of the revolt, Sandino's followers ("Sandinistas") seized U.S. businesses and property in Nicaragua, which prompted the United States to dispatch gunboats and marines to the country. Their presence brought about a truce, during which Chamorro stepped down as president and left Nicaragua. In October 1926, the Nicaraguan congress elected the Conservative Díaz president.

At this point, Sacasa returned from his exile in Mexico and, with Mexican support, set up a rival Liberal government on the east coast of Nicaragua. This triggered a civil war between Sacasa's followers—a rebel army under General José María Moncada (1868–1945)—and the government forces of Díaz. At the urging of U.S. business and the request of the Conservative president, U.S. president Calvin Coolidge (1872–1933) authorized military aid in 1927, including several warships and a contingent of 2,000 marines. The United States also supplied Díaz with weapons and other materiel.

U.S. intervention in the Nicaraguan Civil War incited Augusto Sandino to join the fight, leading a brilliant guerrilla campaign against the marines and other gringo interlopers. In the face of this new development, Coolidge dispatched former secretary of war Henry L. Stimson (1867–1950) to Nicaragua to mediate between the rival leaders Díaz and Moncada. He persuaded them to disarm and to allow the United States to supervise the upcoming election. On November 4, 1928, Moncada, the Liberal candidate, was elected. But Sandino refused to accept the U.S.-mediated result placing a rival general, even if he was Liberal, in power, and his guerrillas continued to clash with the marines. The United States responded by sending light bombers over the mountain regions known to harbor Sandinista guerrillas. After the bombings, Sandino fled to Mexico but continued to direct guerrilla activities from there.

In 1932, Sacasa himself was elected to the presidency in another U.S.-supervised election and began negotiating with Sandino. The rebel leader agreed to end the war as soon as U.S. Marines withdrew, which they did in 1933 after training the Nicaraguan National Guard to maintain order for the new civilian president and leaving a hand-picked man, Anastasio Somoza Garcia (1896–1956), in charge of the guard. Granted amnesty by Sacasa, Sandino returned to Nicaragua and, in 1934, was assassinated by soldiers of the Somoza-controlled force in Managua. This created a Liberal political martyr and an enduring symbol of resistance to oppression and to U.S. imperialism in Nicaragua. Four decades later, liberal socialist elements, calling themselves Sandinistas, would clash with the ruling Somoza presidential regime, which was supported by the United States, in yet another civil conflict, the NICARAGUAN CIVIL WAR (1978–1979).

Further reading: Thomas P. Anderson, *Politics in Central America: Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua* (New York: Praeger, 1988); Jonathan R. Barton, *Political Geography of Latin America* (New York: Routledge, 1997); Eduardo Crawley, *Nicaragua in Perspective* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1984); Donald Clark Hodges, *Intellectual Foundations of the Nicaraguan Revolution* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1986); Thomas W. Walker, *Nicaragua,* 4th ed. (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 2003).

Nicaraguan Civil War (Sandinista Revolution) (1978–1979)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sandinista rebels vs. Nicaragua's government forces under dictator Anastasio Somoza
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nicaragua
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The growing brutality and greed of the Somoza dynasty had long fed unrest in Nicaragua, which exploded in a Marxist revolution in 1979.
OUTCOME: Somoza fell from power, fled the country, and was later assassinated, whereas the Sandinistas assumed control of the country and installed a military junta.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sandinistas, 5,000; National Guard, 13,000
CASUALTIES: 10,000 Nicaraguans killed including 7,000 civilians
TREATIES: None

On July 17, 1979, the longtime president and brutal dictator of Nicaragua, Anastasio Somoza Debayle (1925–80), resigned his office and fled before the advancing revolutionary army of the Marxist Sandinistas. Nicaragua had undergone a revolution, and the United States was deeply implicated in the struggle.

For about a century after Nicaragua became independent in 1838, the nation was torn by power struggles between Liberals and Conservatives. The Conservatives were especially friendly to outside business interests, and that included U.S. fruit producers. In 1893, the Liberals regained power but were persuaded under threat of force by the United States to yield to the Conservatives in 1909. To back up the new government and to protect American business interests in Nicaragua, a U.S. Marine detachment was dispatched to the scene (*see* NICARAGUAN CIVIL WAR [1909–1912]). It remained until 1925, when its withdrawal sparked an outright civil war between Liberals and Conservatives (*see* NICARAGUAN CIVIL WAR [1925–1933[).

Before the U.S. Marines left, a coalition government had been formed with the election of a Conservative as president and a Liberal as vice president, but hardly had the marines reached home before the Nicaraguan Army staged a coup d'état, which led to a Liberal revolt. In 1927, the United States again sent thousands of marines to put down the Liberal insurrection. However, two elections held under U.S. supervision resulted in the election of Liberal presidents in 1928 and 1932. After training the Nicaraguan National Guard to maintain order, the marines withdrew in 1933, leaving a handpicked man, Anastasio Somoza Garcia (1896–1956), in charge of the guard. The Liberal government of the early 1930s was far more moderate than earlier Liberal regimes; however, one important "radical" leader remained, Cesar Augusto Sandino (1893–1934), who led a resistance movement not only against the Conservatives, but opposed to the U.S. presence as well. Somoza, knowing the United States would support him if he made a bid for power, took his chance and invited Sandino to a peace conference but arranged to have him abducted and murdered by the National Guard. With Sandino out of the way, Somoza rallied support for the ouster of President Juan Bautista Sacasa (1874–1946) in 1936, after which Somoza was elected president. Somoza ran the country with an iron hand until 1956, when he was assassinated by a nationalist poet. But during his long tenure, Somoza laid the foundation of a modern dynasty, appointing his family members to the highest government posts and manipulating government policy to facilitate his amassing a fortune in money and land. Following Somoza's assassination, first his oldest son Luis (1922–1967) and then his third son, Anastasio Somoza Debayle (1922–1967), succeeded him as president.

The new leader transformed the National Guard into a private palace army under his personal control. He struck a deal with the Conservative Party to succeed himself as president in 1971 in return for giving the Conservatives 40 percent of the legislature. Then the devastating 1972 earthquake, which destroyed a large part of the capital city of Managua and brought in millions of dollars in foreign aid, mostly from the United States, swelled the Somoza fortune in real estate, construction, finance and insurance companies, and a range of businesses. By then, the Somoza family already held half of the nation's land deeds and owned outright a quarter of the best arable land. Given its wealth and American business contacts, the regime, distastefully arrogant and distressingly repressive though it was, came to be regarded by the United States as a bastion against incursions of communism into a chronically unstable Central America.

After Somoza's "election" to a third term in 1974, the Sandinistas, a leftist guerrilla force named in honor of Augusto César Sandino, stepped up their hitherto sporadic attacks and abducted high-ranking members of the Somoza government. The president waged a two-and-a-half-year counterinsurgency campaign, killing thousands. In 1977 the U.S. State Department signaled a change in attitude toward Somoza (and developing country dictators in general) under President Jimmy Carter (b. 1924) by citing the regime for human rights violations. That same year Nicaragua's Roman Catholic hierarchy accused the government of torturing and summarily executing civilians in its brutal anti-Sandinista campaign. The murder of opposition publisher Pedro Joaquin Chamarro (d. 1978), owner of the newspaper *La Prensa,* in 1978 led to rioting by thousands of Nicaraguans, who not without reason blamed Somoza for his death.

Antigovernment activity grew apace, and calls came for Somoza's resignation both at home and in the United States. In August 1978, Sandinista guerrillas invaded the national palace and held some 1,500 people hostage, including members of the Nicaraguan Congress, until Somoza—in a telling show of weakness—released 59 political prisoners and gave them safe passage out of the country. Invading Sandinistas from Costa Rica sparked a successful revolution on May 29, 1979, which after seven weeks of fighting reached the capital in Managua. The summary execution of a U.S. news reporter by Somoza's troops, caught on camera and broadcast nationwide in the United States, not only enlisted popular support for the Sandinistas in North America, but also ensured there would be no U.S. Marines rushing in to save wealthy conservatives this time around. On July 17, 1979, Anastasio Somoza Debayle resigned as president, fleeing two days later, first to Miami and then to Paraguay, where he was assassinated in a September 1980 bazooka attack.

The Sandinistas broadcast over government radio that a cease-fire was in place. A five-man military junta was installed and immediately set about reforming the country's institutions and economy, nationalizing all of the

Somozas' vast holdings, banks, insurance companies, mineral reserves and forests. Turning to the United States with requests for foreign loans and expanding ties with many noncommunist nations, Nicaragua also established particularly close relations with Cuba, a country that had much resembled Nicaragua during the early days after the CUBAN REVOLUTION. The new U.S. president, Ronald Reagan (1911–2004), took the growing ties between the only Marxist-Leninist governments in the Western Hemisphere as evidence of an expanding communist presence in Central America and not only cut off economic aid to Nicaragua, but authorized some $20 million to create and arm Nicaraguan counterrevolutionaries to fight the Sandinistas. Reagan justified his actions by pointing to the fact that the Sandinistas were building a huge army themselves and, so he claimed, were acting in concert with Cuba to destabilize the government of neighboring El Salvador. Whether or not Reagan's claims were justified—and there were soon Congressional white papers to say they were not—his funding of a counterrevolutionary force operating out of neighboring nations was both a venerable dollar-diplomacy tradition and insurance that another civil war would follow (*see* NICARAGUAN CIVIL WAR [1982–1989]).

Further reading: Thomas P. Anderson, *Politics in Central America: Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua* (New York: Praeger, 1988); Jonathan R. Barton, *Political Geography of Latin America* (New York: Routledge, 1997); Eduardo Crawley, *Nicaragua in Perspective* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1984); Donald Clark Hodges, *Intellectual Foundations of the Nicaraguan Revolution* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1986); Thomas W. Walker, *Nicaragua,* 4th ed. (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 2003).

Nicaraguan Civil War (1982–1990)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The contras (adherents of the former Nicaraguan dictator Anastasio Somoza) vs. Nicaragua's Sandinista government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nicaragua's border regions
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Right-wing remnants of Somoza's National Guard sought, with massive U.S. aid, to overthrow the new revolutionary government of the Marxist Sandinistas.
OUTCOME: The Sandinistas were able to contain the rebels, but at the cost of U.S. hostility and economic ruin, which led to their defeat by a U.S.-backed opposition candidate in the first general election under the new constitution
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Contras—15,000; Sandinistas—60,000
CASUALTIES: More than 30,000 Nicaraguans killed
TREATIES: 1990 cease-fire between contras and UNO (National Opposition Union), followed by 1991 treaty in Managua

Some of the former Nicaraguan National Guard called *Somocistas* because of their loyalty to the late dictator, Anastasio Somoza Debayle (1925–80), went into exile in Miami with Somoza when he first fled the country after the Marxist Sandinistas had staged their successful national revolution in 1979 (*see* NICARAGUAN CIVIL WAR [1978–1979]). Others fled to neighboring Honduras, El Salvador, and Costa Rica. All of them were soon plotting to overthrow the National Liberation Front's five-man military junta that the Sandinistas had installed. The country the Sandinistas inherited was devastated economically and socially, so Sandinistas turned to the United States, and received from the administration of President Jimmy Carter (b. 1924) recognition and economic aid, but they also established particularly close relations with Cuba.

When U.S. president Ronald Reagan (1911–2004) took office in 1980 he made much of these growing ties with Cuba, claiming they were evidence of an expanding communist presence in Central America. In 1981, he suspended U.S. economic aid and authorized some $20 million to create and arm Nicaraguan counterrevolutionaries to fight the Sandinistas. The Sandinistas, he claimed, were curtailing civil liberties and setting up a socialist economy, which was clearly true. Also, he pointed to the fact that the Sandinistas were building a huge army themselves. Finally, he claimed that not only were the Sandinistas in league with Communist Cuba, together they aimed to destabilize all of Central America, beginning with neighboring El Salvador. Congress openly questioned that claim. On the other hand, it was certainly clear that the Reagan administration wanted to destabilize Nicaragua.

By the mid-1980s, the Somocistas were joined by Nicaragua's Miskito Indians, who were resisting the Sandinistas' attempts to resettle them away from the Coco River on the Nicaraguan-Honduran border. In January 1982, Nicaraguan troops crossed the border into Honduras, raided several Miskito villages, and killed more than 100 Indians, alienating in the process many Sandinista sympathizers at home and abroad. Some Miskitos headed for rebel camps across the border while others joined a guerrilla outfit in southern Nicaragua called the Alianza Revolucionaria Democratia, which accused the Sandinistas of being Stalinists. In Honduras and El Salvador, the contras—as the counterrevolutionaries there had come to be called—now numbered about 15,000 soldiers. In 1983 and 1984, the contras, financed by the United States and trained covertly by the Central Intelligence Agency, made incursions into Nicaragua, inflicting costly damage by blowing up bridges and oil tanks, and

earning a brutal reputation for the zeal with which they avenged themselves on the mostly Sandinista-sympathizing population.

The Sandinista government responded with a further military buildup and by speeding up their domestic political reforms. In November 1984, the Sandinista National Liberation Front (FSLN) and its presidential candidate, Daniel Ortega Saavedra (b. 1945), won 63 percent of the vote in an election that international observers, including former U.S. president Jimmy Carter, deemed fair and competitive, and Ortega was inaugurated in January 1985. Two years later the Constituent Assembly produced a constitution that called for regular elections, the first for national office to be held in 1990. Growing ever more legitimate in the eyes of other nations, the Nicaraguan government was eventually able to acquire critical equipment for its military, such as assault helicopters, and to mount an effective counterinsurgency campaign that by the late 1980s contained and demoralized the contras.

President Reagan wanted to provide additional backing for the contras, but he encountered domestic resistance to more massive aid. In El Salvador, the United States found itself supporting a client regime that openly violated human rights, including the widely documented murder of U.S. missionary nuns. Congress wanted no part in protecting the brutal government of El Salvador from the perhaps chimerical threat of the Sandinistas, nor in supporting a counterrevolutionary campaign linked to the Somoza family's interests and its savage former national guard. In 1987, it voted against supplying further military aid to the contras.

That led to one of the century's more bizarre presidential scandals, which cast a telling light on the tangled web of world diplomacy and shadow government in the late 20th century and moved the Nicaraguan civil war from the battlefield to the plane of international politics. In 1979, Iranian followers of the Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini (1901–89) seized 90 American diplomats at the U.S. embassy in Tehran. The resulting "Iran Hostage Crisis" blighted Jimmy Carter's last year in office but ended on the day Ronald Reagan became president, when Khomeini—much to Reagan's political benefit—released the hostages. However, another round of kidnappings, inspired by those in Iran, soon followed in Lebanon. Most of the new hostages were to remain in captivity, their whereabouts unknown and their kidnappers unidentified throughout the Reagan presidency. The Reagan administration was especially worried about hostage William Buckley (1928–85), because his captors knew that Buckley was the CIA's head of station in Beirut. Fearing the political cost of appearing weak, President Reagan declared he would not under any circumstances negotiate with terrorists for hostages. Then, in 1985, a group of Israelis told Reagan's National Security Advisor, Robert MacFarlane (b. 1937), that an Iranian arms dealer could gain the release of the hostages if the United States were willing to trade antitank missiles, which Iran desperately needed for its war with Iraq (*see* IRAN-IRAQ WAR), in exchange for Tehran's promise to use its influence over the kidnappers. MacFarlane outlined the arms-for-hostages plan for President Reagan, but Secretary of State George Schultz (b. 1920) and Secretary of Defense Caspar Weinberger (b. 1917) both strongly opposed it. They left the meeting with Reagan and MacFarlane, believing the plan was dead and buried.

Instead, according to MacFarlane, the president told him to go ahead. MacFarlane got one arms shipment off and one hostage returned. MacFarlane then turned a second shipment over to one of his Security Council deputies, Colonel Oliver North (b. 1943). North, a Vietnam veteran and right-wing zealot, had—so he claimed—become the protégé of CIA director William Casey (1913–87) when he (North) came up with a plan to transfer money received from arms sales to Iran to the contras. This would need to be done secretly because Congress had banned such funding. Casey gave North the go-ahead, North recruited former CIA and U.S. military men to help him. Soon he was talking about expanding the mission into a permanent, off-the-shelf covert enterprise, always ready for use in circumventing congressional oversight of secret CIA operations.

Unfortunately for North, the second shipment of arms-for-hostages went sour, and, while he was preparing to arrange a third, an obscure Middle Eastern magazine broke the story that would lead to the unraveling of the Iran-contra plans. Within days of finding out that North and MacFarlane had been to Iran, U.S. newspapers ran stories about the affair. As in the Watergate scandal that had torpedoed Richard Nixon's presidency, the White House issued baldly conflicting statements. President Reagan rushed to appoint a commission headed by Senator John Tower (1925–91), which produced a scathing indictment of the administration. Congress also followed the Watergate pattern by creating a special committee to investigate, and a special prosecutor was appointed. President Reagan invoked "national security" as an excuse for withholding evidence, a strategy that famously had failed Nixon in the case of Watergate. Meanwhile, Oliver North, under a congressional grant of immunity, freely admitted at least those of his lies, deceptions, and illegal activities covered by the immunity, in all of which he implicated his superiors, including the president.

CIA director Casey, whom North had identified as the prime mover of the entire operation, had died of a stroke, and others in the administration either remained adamant in their denials or claimed loss of memory. Oliver North was given a suspended sentence on a number of the counts on which he was found guilty, and even these convictions were overturned on appeal. (He would later run for the U.S. Senate, then became a radio talk-show host).

MacFarlane unsuccessfully attempted suicide early in the scandal. Ronald Reagan emerged legally unscathed, though the scandal, coupled with the precipitous crash of the stock market, cast a pall over the final days of his administration.

In some ways, the Iran-Contra scandal, born of the war in Central America and hostilities in the Middle East, was the greatest nonevent of the 20th century. Although its implications were staggering (an out-of-touch president, a fanatical junior officer running major illegal foreign-policy initiatives unsanctioned by any elected authority, a Central Intelligence Agency making plans to institutionalize the illegal circumvention of Congress) U.S. citizens seemed not much to care. For the Nicaraguans, however, the Reagan administration's meddling approach to their internal affairs was very much a matter of concern.

Reagan had denounced the 1984 Nicaraguan election as a sham. Since 1982, the United States had used its leverage within the World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank to block Nicaraguan loan requests. In 1985, the Reagan administration declared an outright embargo against the country. Such measures, combined with the social and economic dislocations of the civil war with the Sandinistas' own economic errors, caused an already weak economy to plummet after 1985. In response to an annual inflation rate in 1988 of 30,000 percent, the Sandinistas introduced harsh and unpopular austerity measures in 1989, slashing government programs in health, education, housing, and nutrition, which formed the background for the 1990 elections. Held under intense international scrutiny, the elections were marred by increased contra violence, but they were held nevertheless, and ended with a surprise. The U.S.-backed and -financed National Opposition Union and its presidential candidate, Violeta Barros de Chamorro (b. 1929), widow of a newspaper publisher martyred by former dictator Anastasio Somoza, won in an upset, and a peaceful transition ensued between the Sandinista administration and hers. The contras agreed to an immediate cease-fire, and eventually Barros persuaded them—despite the resistance of some very strong factions—to lay down their arms altogether. The civil war was over.

Further reading: Thomas P. Anderson, *Politics in Central America: Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua* (New York: Praeger, 1988); Jonathan R. Barton, *Political Geography of Latin America* (New York: Routledge, 1997); Robert Busby, *Reagan and the Iran-Contra Affair* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1987); Eduardo Crawley, *Nicaragua in Perspective* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1984); Jiri Valenta and Esperanza Durán, eds., *Conflict in Nicaragua: A Multidimensional Perspective* (Boston: Allen Unwin, 1987); Thomas W. Walker, *Nicaragua,* 4th ed. (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 2003).

Nicopolis, Crusade of (1396)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Crusaders (under Sigismund of Hungary) vs. Ottoman Turks (under Bayazid I)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bulgaria
DECLARATION: Papal call to arms, 1396
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The crusaders wanted to check ongoing Ottoman conquests.
OUTCOME: The crusaders suffered disastrous defeat at the Battle of Nicopolis.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 100,000 crusaders (of whom many subsequently deserted)
CASUALTIES: Thousands of crusaders fell, and some 10,000 were taken prisoner.
TREATIES: None

In 1396, Pope Boniface IX (c. 1355–1404) proclaimed a crusade against the Ottoman Turks, who spread panic throughout Europe because of their conquests in the Balkans and their assault upon Constantinople. An army of some 100,000 assembled in Buda, from which Hungary's King Sigismund (1368–1437) led them down the Danube to seize two Ottoman forts. The crusaders were charged with liberating from the Ottomans those towns and villages through which they advanced; however, the crusaders behaved poorly and pillaged most of the communities that lay in their path.

At Nicopolis (Nikopol, Bulgaria), the ill-disciplined crusader army began to fall apart in earnest. The crusaders laid siege against the Ottoman fortress but soon grew restless in this thankless work. Without a firm battle plan or an agreed-upon chain of command, individual leaders took action on their own. John the Fearless (1371–1419) of France led his knights in an ill-advised attack against Sultan Bayazid I's (1347–1403) army. He and his forces fell victim to the Ottoman tactic of luring the enemy with an apparently vulnerable front line, only to envelop and destroy the attackers from the flanks. John's knights were slaughtered, and the 16,000 men Sigismund sent to his relief fared little better. In addition to thousands slain in battle, 10,000 were made prisoner. Some of these were subsequently ransomed at great cost, while others were executed.

Sigismund fled the battle, escaping back to Hungary by ship. For his part, Sultan Bayazid I continued unchecked his conquest of the Balkans.

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Nigerian-Biafran War (1967–1970)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nigeria vs. Biafra
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Biafra
DECLARATION: Biafra declared independence on May 30, 1967.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Biafra sought independence; Nigeria sought to reclaim Biafra.
OUTCOME: Biafra was defeated, mainly as a result of a long and intensive blockade that held the nation under a state of siege.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Nigerian army, 200,000; Biafran army, 50,000
CASUALTIES: Battle deaths, 45,000 on both sides; 500,000 civilians died, mainly as a result of starvation
TREATIES: None

Biafra broke away from Nigeria in 1967, seven years after Nigeria achieved independence from Britain. In 1960, when independence came, the Ibo people of eastern Nigeria, who—under British colonial rule—had become an educated elite and were now essentially a privileged class, assumed economic and political dominance in the new nation. This alienated the less privileged Islamic Hausa people of the north, who rioted against the Christian Ibo. In an effort to establish some semblance of home rule, the Nigerian government divided the nation into three states, corresponding to the territorial concentrations of the Ibo, the Hausa, and the Yoruba peoples. Far from bringing peace, this prompted the Ibo to secede from Nigeria. After the military governor of the eastern region, Lieutenant Colonel Chukwuemeka Odumegwo Ojukwu (b. 1933), declared an independent state of Biafra on May 30, 1967, the new country's Ibo army went on the offensive and made a major push toward the Nigerian capital of Lagos. The Nigerian army stopped the advance and counterattacked, invading Biafra and overcoming stout resistance to capture the Biafran capital, Enugu, on October 4, 1967. This was followed by peace negotiations early in 1968, which, however, came to nothing.

As the Civil War continued, the Nigerian government—determined to bring the oil-rich area back into its territory waged total war against Biafra, mainly in the form of a blockade, which created a famine throughout the region. European powers intervened in the struggle, the British, the Soviets, and Italy giving aid to Nigeria, whereas France supplied arms to beleaguered Biafra. For the new nation, however, it was a losing battle. Port Harcourt, Aba, and Owerri, all key cities, fell in 1968. Although Owerri was retaken in 1969, the Biafran army was overwhelmed by a counteroffensive from a now well-equipped Nigerian army of 200,000 men. Biafra's military defeat took place against a background of great civilian suffering, as the nation's name became an international byword for want and starvation. Biafra surrendered to Nigeria on January 12, 1970. Ojukwu fled to exile in the Ivory Coast. Civilian losses in Biafra topped 500,000, almost all from starvation and diseases related to malnutrition.

See also CONGOLESE CIVIL WAR.

Further reading: J. F. A. Ajayi and Michael Crowder, *History of West Africa,* 2nd ed., 2 vols. (London: Longman, 1976–1987); J. D. Fage and Roland Oliver, eds., *The Cambridge History of West Africa,* 8 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1975–1980); Rodney Steel, *History of West Africa* (New York: Facts On File, 2003); John De St. Jorre, *The Nigerian Civil War* (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1972).

Nigerois Civil War (1990–1995)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nigerois government vs. Tuareg rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Niger
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Tuaregs sought autonomy.
OUTCOME: Limited autonomy was granted.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Thousands of civilian deaths, mainly due to general privation created by the war
TREATIES: Treaty of Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso), October 9, 1994; additional treaty, April 24, 1995

In Niger, Africa, the Tuareg tribe of the northern desert was frequently at odds with the mainstream government. Tuareg separatists often fought with government troops in the capital city of Niamey. At last, in May 1990, the government retaliated with a major raid in Tchin Tabaraden, in which hundred of Tuaregs were killed or arrested. In response, the Tuaregs stepped up attacks in the north, hitting government security forces as well as foreign tourists. The government mounted a new sweep against rebel activity in August 1992, rounding up members of the Tuareg Liberation Front of Air and Azawad (FLAA) and declaring a state of emergency in the northern region.

The civil war created great hardship for the people, and the FLAA agreed to a truce while the government sent aid to the starving. Although fighting between the govern-

ment and the Tuaregs was largely suspended during 1993, violent unrest was common elsewhere in Niger, triggered mainly by the depressed economy. Under general pressure, the government negotiated in 1994 terms of limited autonomy for some 750,000 Tuaregs affiliated with the Coordination of Armed Resistance (CRA) organization. On October 9, 1994, CRA signed the formal Treaty of Ouagadougou, and other Tuareg groups fell into line with a treaty of April 24, 1995. With the war formally concluded, the Nigerois government granted amnesty to all Tuaregs and released its political prisoners. At this point, only a single rebel group, the Democratic Renewal Front, held out, but even the DRF agreed to the treaty terms in 1997.

Further reading: Samuel Decalo, *Historical Dictionary of Niger* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press, 1996); Rodney Steel, *History of West Africa* (New York: Facts On File, 2003).

Nika Revolt (532)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nika rebels (supporters of Hypatius) vs. Byzantine emperor Justinian I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Nika rebels protested general corruption and extortionate taxation.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed, but it did prompt Justinian I to step up reform of Byzantine government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 30,000 rebels were killed
TREATIES: None

The Byzantine Empire was plagued by despotism and corruption at regional levels of government, a situation the emperor Justinian I (483–565) attempted to alleviate by acting against many imperial officials and administrators. This produced some improvement, but not enough to prevent a popular uprising in Constantinople in protest against exorbitant taxes and government-sanctioned extortion. The battle cry of the rebellion was *Nika!,* meaning victory.

When a mob surrounded Justinian's palace, the emperor contemplated fleeing the city, but his wife, Theodora (c. 508–548), stood firm and persuaded her husband to do likewise. Justinian ordered his two top generals, Belisarius (c. 505–565) and Narses (c. 478–573), to lead the imperial bodyguard and other troops against the rebels. In a fierce action, some 30,000 Nika rebels, having proclaimed Hypatius (d. 532) emperor, were killed. Hypatius was captured and executed as a traitor. Although the rebellion thus collapsed, it did move Justinian to act more aggressively against corrupt and abusive officials. More administrators were removed from office.

See also Gothic (Italian) War; Justinian's First Persian War; Justinian's Second Persian War; Roman-Persian War (572–591); Vandal-Roman Wars in North Africa.

Further reading: Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2003).

Nineveh, Fall of (612 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Medes, Babylonians, Scythians, and Persians vs. Assyrians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nineveh, Assyria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Presumably conquest
OUTCOME: Nineveh fell.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents exist

The capital city of the great Assyrian Empire, Nineveh, on the Tigris, was so strongly fortified that it was deemed impregnable. It was surrounded by seven miles of walls, which, in some places, were almost 150 feet thick. Despite this, a combination of Medes, Babylonians, Scythians, and Persians overran Nineveh and destroyed the city in 612 B.C.E. Beyond this fact nothing is known, and no details of the military operation exist. It is possible that the main assault was amphibious, using rafts with battering rams and other siege devices on the Tigris, which was at high flood stage during this time.

See also Assyrian Wars (c. 746–609 B.C.E.).

Further reading: William Cullican, *The Medes and Persians* (New York: Praeger, 1965); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia* (New York: I. B. Tauris, 2000).

Nine Years' War

See Grand Alliance, War of the.

Norman-Byzantine War, First (1081–1085)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Normans vs. Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Italy and the Balkans
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ultimately, the Normans' leader, Robert Guiscard, intended to seize the Byzantine throne.

OUTCOME: Guiscard died before he could carry out his plan in earnest.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The dashing Norman soldier Robert Guiscard (c. 1015–85) campaigned with his brother Roger I (c. 1031–1101) to gain control of Apulia, Calabria, and Sicily, lands granted him by the pope. In the process of fighting Muslim forces in southern Italy, Guiscard ran afoul of the Byzantine Empire. This prompted the avaricious Guiscard, with his son Bohemund I (c. 1056–1111), to mount an invasion of the Balkans. He captured Corfu and Dyrrachium, then decided to attack the emperor, Alexius I Comnenus (1048–1118), with the objective of taking the imperial crown for himself. His scheme was delayed by the ongoing wars in Italy, however, and by the time he was ready to commence his attack against Cephalonia in 1085, he succumbed to the plague.

See also NORMAN-BYZANTINE WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: David C. Douglas, *The Norman Achievement, 1050–1100* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969)); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1996).

Norman-Byzantine War, Second (1098–1108)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Normans vs. Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Byzantine Empire and Jerusalem
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Norman leader Bohemond sought to complete his late father's plan to topple Alexius I Comnenus from the Byzantine throne.
OUTCOME: Bohemond was ultimately defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the First NORMAN-BYZANTINE WAR, from 1081 to 1085, Robert Guiscard (c. 1015–85) had planned to topple Alexius I Comnenus (1048–1118) from the Byzantine throne and seize it for himself. Guiscard's death from plague in 1085 ended this scheme until 1098, when Guiscard's son Bohemond I (c. 1056–1111) attacked the empire. During this war, he also participated in the First CRUSADE and became vassal to Geoffrey of Bouillon (c. 1053–1100), the Latin ruler of Jerusalem. His campaign against the empire was interrupted during 1100–03, when he was held prisoner by the Muslims in the Holy Land. On his return to Europe in 1103, he pressed his campaign against Alexius I Comnenus, whom his father had been unable to defeat, but was himself defeated by 1108. His bid for the Byzantine throne came to an end.

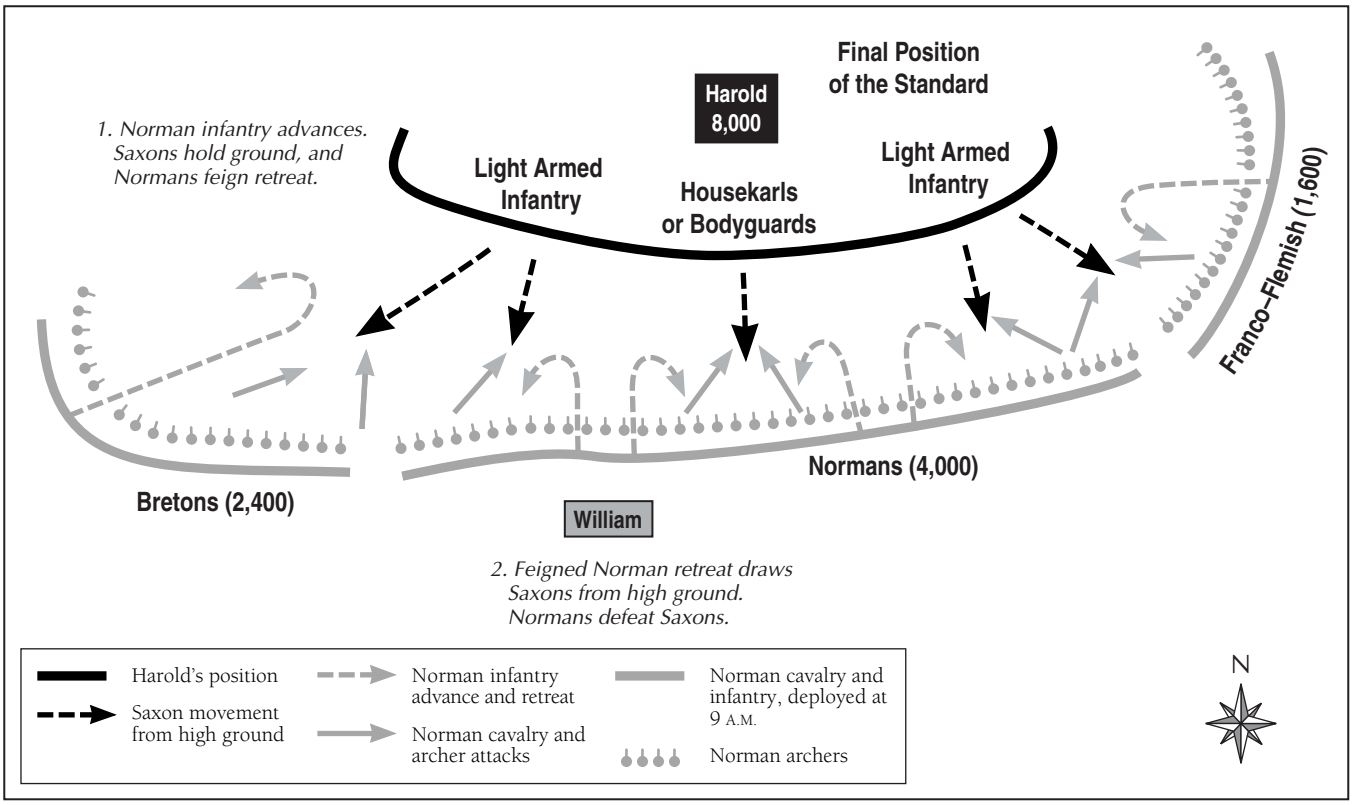
Further reading: David C. Douglas, *The Norman Fate, 1100–1150* (London: Eyre Methuen, 1976); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1996).

Norman Conquest (1066)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: William I (Normans) vs. Harold Godwinson (Saxons)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: William fought Harold for the English throne.
OUTCOME: William won the decisive Battle of Hastings and thereby claimed the throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 4,000–7,000 on each side
CASUALTIES: Both side lost about one-quarter of their troops.
TREATIES: None

The Normans, named for the Vikings ("Norsemen") from whom they were descended, made their homeland in northwestern France. Over the course of about three generations of intermarriage with the area's Frankish tribes, they had transformed themselves from pagan raiders into devout, if fierce, Christian crusaders. From Normandy, they launched sporadic conquests by which, during the course of the 11th century, they created a patchwork empire from the North Sea to the Mediterranean. Leading the way were freelancing Norman knights fighting for feuding Lombards and Greeks, and picking up what fiefs they could along the way. By mid-century they had taken most of southern Italy, and in 1061 they defeated the Muslim occupiers of Sicily. Soon the knights would seize Greek Corfu and invade the Byzantine Balkans. In 1098, as a result of their service in the First CRUSADE, they established the principality of Antioch. Long before that, however, their much-hailed leader William I (the Conqueror; c. 1027–87) had added Anglo-Saxon England to the piecemeal dominions of Normandy.

England's King Edward (c. 1003–1066), known as the Confessor for his piety, was related to the Norman



Battle of Hastings, 1066

nobility through his mother. During the years of Canute's reign in England (c. 995–1035), Edward had spent much of his youth and young manhood 100 miles across the English Channel in exile at the Norman court. Nine years after he ascended to the throne in 1051, he named William, duke of Normandy, as his heir. It was this claim that William sought to assert after Edward died on January 5, 1066.

However, William was not the only contender.

Harold Hadrada (d. 1066), king of Norway and the most renowned Viking warrior of his day, hoped to reassert the Scandinavian claim to the Crown established early in the century by King Canute (d. 1035). Edward had further complicated matters by changing his mind on his deathbed and naming Harold Godwinson (c. 1022–66) as his successor, or so Godwinson, the earl of Wessex, claimed. Not only an English baron, he was the most powerful magnate on the island, and he moved decisively to have himself crowned Harold II of England at Westminster Abbey only hours after Edward had been buried in the famous church.

Harold had trouble justifying his actions. Only two years before he had appeared at the Norman court and sworn fealty upon holy relics to William as the rightful heir to the English throne. Now, however, he claimed he had been forced to take the oath when his ship accidentally ran aground on the Normandy coast, but neither the knights in France nor the pope in Rome accepted his version of events. Set to march with Pope Alexander II's (d. 1075) blessing under the three-tailed papal banner, William's forces swelled mightily as knights from every principality in northern France rushed to join the now holy cause.

Meanwhile, Harold was suffering problems enough at home. His own brother, Tostig (d. 1066), rose up to challenge him, and upon being quickly defeated, united with Hadrada in the Norwegian invasion of England. Harold not only repulsed the Norwegian invasion at the Battle of Stamford Bridge on September 25, 1066, but killed both Tostig and Hadrada. This left only William as his rival for the throne.

Now time and distance worked against Harold Godwinson and became the key factors in the Norman conquest of England. When the Norman fleet landed at Pevensey on the southwest coast of England in late September, King Harold's Anglo-Saxon army was in York, about 200 miles away, celebrating its victory over the Norwegians.

At least 7,000 Normans disembarked from the 700 or so vessels of William's armada in an operation that was a nightmare of logistics. Some 3,000 cavalry mounts had to be offloaded from makeshift wattle stalls down shaky

wooden ramps. The invaders brought ashore cartloads of arms and the heavy armor the Normans were becoming famous for wearing, and they dragged onto the beach the tools and planks they needed for building fortifications, the pots and supplies for setting up camp and cooking, and barrels of French wine to shore up their courage. Blessed by favorable winds for the passage over, they now managed to land virtually unopposed, securing a beachhead without a single loss of life.

Godwinson rushed south to do battle with William. The army Harold Godwinson had force-marched to Sussex was of approximately the same size as William's—somewhere between 4,000 and 7,000 troops—but it consisted mainly of untrained and poorly armed peasants, whereas William commanded a professional force. Moreover, Harold lacked both archers and cavalry. He compensated for this by deploying his troops on a ridge about 10 miles northwest of Hastings, but he made the serious tactical error of packing his soldiers closely together. This transformed them into ready targets for William's fine archers. Yet Harold's men did fight back, exacting a terrible toll on Williams's bowmen and prompting him to pull them back. William then sent in his cavalry. From their well-defended positions, Harold's troops decimated the horsemen in their first assault.

Not one to panic, William persisted. He wore away at the Saxons by alternating cavalry charges and bow attacks all day. When he saw that Harold's army was wearing down, William feigned two retreats late in the day. These lured the Saxon troops out of their protected position. Once they were in the clear, William suddenly wheeled about and counterattacked, routing the tired Saxon army.

Harold fell in battle, killed by a stray arrow, and the leaderless army began to fall apart. Those who did not surrender scattered in defeat. William advanced against London to cut off the city. He met with no resistance from the nobles in the surrounding area, and, at Westminster, on Christmas, 1066, William was crowned King William I of England.

Although the Norman victory at the battle of Hastings had been decisive, it was yet another five years before the Anglo-Saxons were fully subjugated. Meanwhile, William's army of occupation frequently faced rebel forces, most notably in Yorkshire and on the isle of Ely in the east. At length, the conquest was completed in 1072, when the Normans secured England's northern border with an attack through Scotland.

See also NORMAN-FRENCH WAR; WILLIAM I'S INVASION OF SCOTLAND.

Further reading: Timothy Baker, *The Normans* (London: Cassell, 1966); R. Allen Brown, *The Norman Conquest* (London and Baltimore, Md.: E. Arnold, 1984); N. J. Higham, *The Norman Conquest* (Stroud, Gloucestershire: Sutton Pub., 1998).

Norman-French War (1077–1082)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Normans under William I the Conqueror vs. the French under his son, Robert Curthose
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Normandy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Robert Curthose sought to topple his father.
OUTCOME: The rebels were defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Once William the Conqueror (c. 1027–87) had completed the NORMAN CONQUEST of England, he chose to reign, for the most part, from his native Normandy, and leave the administration of his island kingdoms to regents. Back in the north of France, except for an attempted coup by a few English earls and yet one more—the final—Danish invasion in 1085, his time was taken up with defending Normandy's frontiers against hostile neighbors. Not the least of these was King Philip I (1052–1108) of France, who very much desired to prevent the union of Normandy and England under a single ruler. Toward that end he backed William's first son, young Robert Curthose (c. 1054–1134), in a series of rebellions. Not that Curthose needed much encouragement—he bitterly resented his father's refusal to let him play a vital role in the governing of the French province, which William had nominally handed over to him in 1066 when he went off to invade Anglo-Saxon England. Easily defeated in his initial outing, Robert for a while reconciled with his father, until further disagreements led to renewed fighting. At one point, the son's challenge was serious enough, that William was forced to launch an operation from England (*see* WILLIAM I'S INVASION OF NORMANDY) and ultimately he was forced to send his son into exile. Thus thwarted, Philip I would prevail briefly when Robert returned to Normandy in 1087, on the death of William, and inherited the title of duke of Normandy, reigning as Robert II. He did not lay claim to the throne of England, which fell to his brother William II. Shortly, however, this William, too, reunited the kingdoms.

Further reading: Timothy Baker, *The Normans* (London: Cassell, 1966); Richard F. Cassidy, *The Norman Achievement* (London: Sedquick and Jackson, 1986); David C. Douglas, *The Norman Achievement, 1050–1100* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969) and *William the Conqueror* (London: Eyre and Spottiswoode, 1964).

North Africa, French Conquest of

See FRENCH CONQUEST OF NORTH AFRICA.

North America, Spanish Conquests in

See SPANISH CONQUEST OF NORTH MEXICO (NORTH AMERICA).

Northern Ireland Civil War (1969–2001)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Northern Irish Protestants vs. Northern Irish Catholics; also involved: British peacekeeping and policing troops
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Ireland, with some terrorist activity in England (mainly London)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In general, Northern Irish Catholics wanted independence from England and union with the Republic of Ireland; Northern Irish Protestants, the nation's majority, have wanted to remain politically connected with England, which provided defense.
OUTCOME: After a new National Assembly was created and the Irish Republican Army (IRA) disarmed, hopes ran high for a sustained end to the civil war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Approximately 3,000
TREATIES: Agreement of May 22, 1998, establishing a Northern Ireland National Assembly

For centuries, Britain had oppressed the Irish. The British put down the 1916 EASTER UPRISING, but it produced a great wave of support for Irish independence—both in Ireland and among many in Britain. In 1921, the Irish Free State was created, divided from Northern Ireland, which was still a part of Britain (*see* ANGLO-IRISH CIVIL WAR). Subsequently, the Free State became a sovereign nation. The chief difference between independent Ireland and Northern Ireland was religion. Ireland was and is about 95 percent Roman Catholic. Northern Ireland is 60 percent Protestant. The Catholic minority in Northern Ireland, feeling politically and economically oppressed by the Protestant majority, demanded union with independent Ireland. The Protestant majority, fearing absorption into Catholic Ireland, sought to remain attached to the United Kingdom.

Catholics and Protestants in Northern Ireland fought frequently after the break with the Irish Free State. However, in 1968, when the Catholic minority staged massive civil rights protests, violence became acute, and British troops were called in to maintain order. The British military presence has remained a part of Northern Irish life —much resented by the Catholics, who saw themselves as oppressed not only by their Protestant fellow citizens but by an army of occupation from a Protestant nation, England, and in the service of Protestantism in Northern Ireland.

Both the Catholics and the Protestants developed paramilitary organizations to wage civil war. The Irish Republican Army (IRA) and its even more radical and violent wing, the Provisional Wing (Provos) of the IRA, carried out the Catholic military agenda, whereas the Protestant Ulster Defence Association was the militant arm of Northern Ireland Protestants. Caught in the middle were noncombatant citizens and the British military. From 1969 into the 1970s, these paramilitary organizations staged violent demonstrations, engaged in street fighting, planted bombs, and carried out political assassinations.

To cope with the crisis, the British government suspended the Stormont, the Northern Ireland parliament, in 1972 and took over administration of the government. The following year, a plebiscite was held on the question of union with Ireland. By an overwhelming majority, union was rejected, and a coalition government—Catholic and Protestant—was formed. However, radical Protestants, led by the Reverend Ian Paisley (b. 1926), set out to destroy the coalition. They did so primarily through political means, sending a hard-line slate of members to the British parliament and calling a general strike that brought about the collapse of the reconstituted Stormont.

In the meantime, violence continued—a daily affair of action and reaction, offense and reprisal. Catholic terrorism was carried out against British troops in Ulster and against British civilians in England, especially London. At last, in 1983, a new bill was introduced in the British parliament, attempting to form a third home rule government for Northern Ireland, but a Roman Catholic boycott killed the bill. The following year a new plan for union with Ireland was also developed, and, this time, a majority approved it—but the union did not come to pass, and the violence continued through the early 1990s.

In 1993, the Downing Street Declaration pledged the commencement of peace talks between Britain and Ireland. In response, in September 1994, the IRA declared a cease-fire, which the Protestant paramilitary organizations agreed to the following month. In 1995, a "Framework Document" outlined and addressed key political issues. The atmosphere was generally hopeful until a bomb was exploded in London in an IRA terrorist attack in February 1996. This was followed by renewed street fighting in Portadown, Northern Ireland, in July. The IRA, however, was determined to play a role in the joint British-Irish peace talks, which were restricted to peaceful groups only. Therefore, the IRA unilaterally reinstated the cease-fire in July 1997. In September, the IRA's political wing, known as Sinn Fein, headed by the fiery Gerry Adams (b. 1948), was admitted to the talks—and Adams presented himself in a statesmanlike manner. The talks produced, on April 10, 1998, an agreement that created a National Assembly for Northern Ireland, which would work cooperatively with the Republic of Ireland and which included a balance of Protestant and Catholic representation.

Hard-liners and diehards continued to perpetrate acts of violence—the most notorious group calling itself the "Real IRA." However, public disgust at the renewed killings—most notably a car bomb detonation at Omagh on August 15, 1998, which killed 28 and wounded some 330—undercut support for the militants. At the end of October 2001, the IRA announced, unilaterally, that it had begun to destroy its arsenal. This act of good faith seemed to mark an end to 32 years of Irish civil war. Since then fitful initiatives attempting to establish real peace have made uneasy headway, and while Northern Ireland remains volatile both socially and politically, the once almost universal violence has abated.

Further reading: Jack Holland, *Hope against History: The Course of Conflict in Northern Ireland* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); George J. Mitchell, *Making Peace* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2000).

Northern War, First (1655–1660)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sweden vs. Poland and Denmark
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland, Holstein, Schleswig, and Denmark
DECLARATION: Sweden against Poland, 1655
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sweden's Charles X sought glory and conquest.
OUTCOME: The Swedes made remarkable initial advances but ultimately failed to hold the territories gained, except in Poland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sweden, 50,000; Poland and Denmark, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Roskilde, 1658, and Treaty of Oliva, 1660

The great Swedish warrior king Charles X (1622–60) sought to push his kingdom's dominion into the Baltic and, by the Second POLISH-SWEDISH WAR FOR LIVONIA from 1600 to 1611, asserted a claim as "Protector of Poland." King John II Casimir (1609–72) of Poland refused to recognize the protectorate, whereupon Charles declared war.

Charles personally led a large army of invasion, which seized Warsaw after a three-day battle. With this, Poland was conquered, and Charles now pressed on into Lithuania, which the Swedes quickly occupied. Charles's Prussian ally, Frederick William (1620–88), secured peace with Poland, which allowed Charles to advance westward to fight Denmark (Poland's ally) for possession of Holstein, Schleswig, and most of Jutland. Having secured these territories, Charles led an extraordinary assault across the ice from Jutland with the object of taking Copenhagen, the Danish capital. For the moment, the Swedish king contented himself with holding the island of Fünen, pending the terms of a Danish-Swedish peace. Displeased with the Treaty of Roskilde, Charles advanced on Copenhagen and laid siege to the city. Ships of the Dutch fleet—Holland was a Danish ally—forced the lifting of the Swedish blockade of Copenhagen.

In the meantime, in Schleswig and Holstein, Polish forces drove out the invading Swedes. Next, the Danes and Norwegians defeated the Swedes at Bornholm and Trondheim, prompting Charles to sue for peace.

Negotiations dragged on, then faltered, but the Danish victory at the Battle of Nyborg in November 1659, which resulted in the defeat and capture of Sweden's best soldiers, prompted the Swedish government—now under the control of a regency, Charles having succumbed to a fever—to conclude the Treaty of Oliva in 1660. By this treaty, Sweden was confirmed in its rights to Livonia, while the Danes claimed Bornholm and Trondheim, and Brandenburg retained East Prussia.

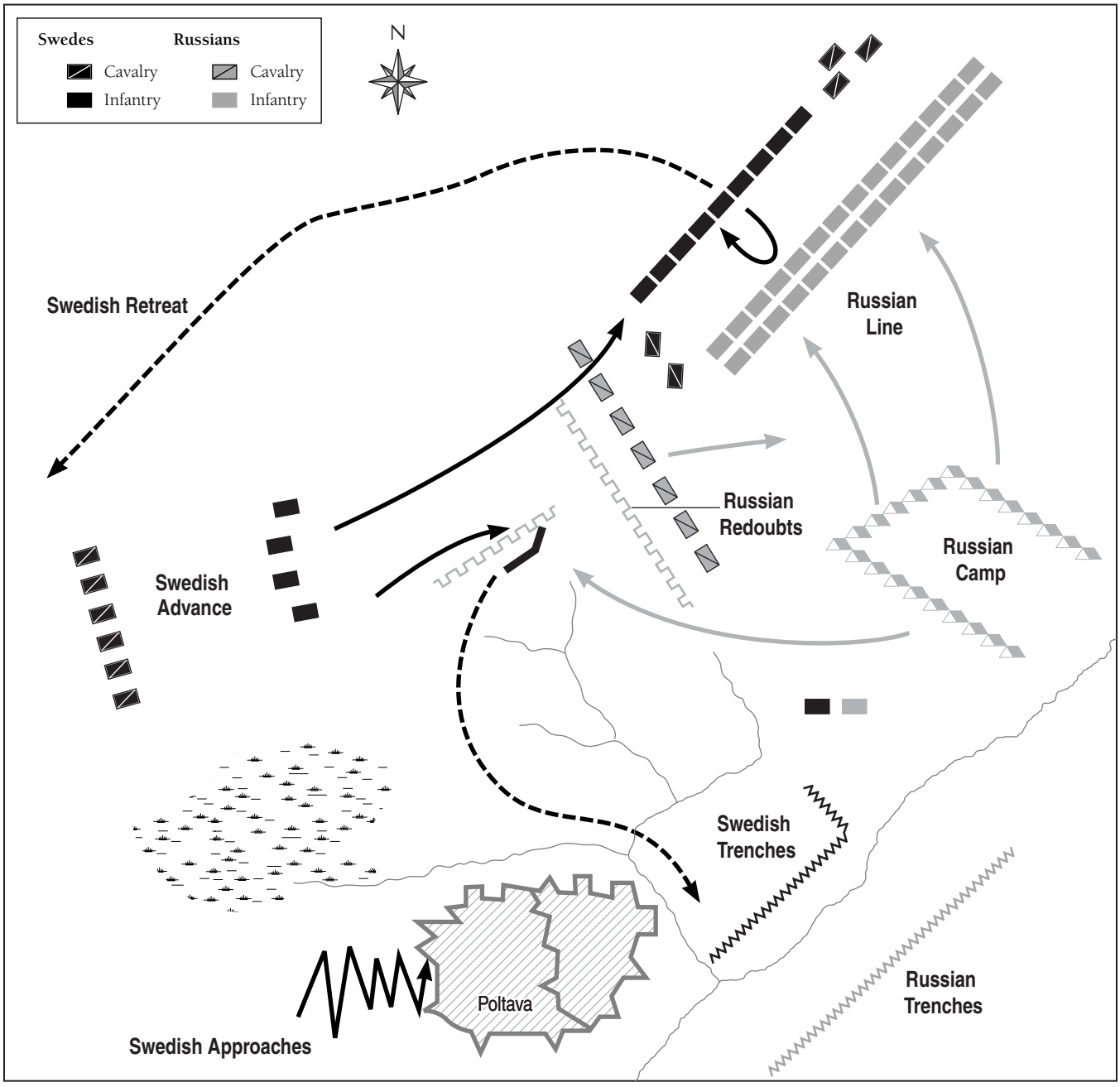
Further reading: Robert I. Frost, *The Northern Wars: State and Society in Northeastern Europe, 1558–1721* (New York: Longman, 2000); W. Glyn Jones, *Denmark: A Modern History* (Dover, N.H.: Croom Helm, 1986); Jerzy Lukowoski, *Concise History of Poland* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2002); Stewart Oakley, *War and Peace in the Baltic, 1560–1790* (New York: Routledge, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, ed., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1941–50, reprinted 1971); Michael Roberts, ed., *Sweden's Age of Greatness, 1632–1718* (London: Macmillan, 1973); Franklin D. Scott, *Sweden, the Nation's History* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1988); Vytas Stanley Vardys and Judith Sedaitis, *Lithuania: The Rebel Nation* (Denver: Westview Press, 1966); Arvids Ziedonis, William L. Winter, and Mardi Valgemäe, *Baltic History* (Columbus, Ohio: Association for the Advancement of Baltic Studies, 1974).

Northern War, Second (Great Northern War) (1700–1721)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sweden vs. Poland, Russia, Prussia, Saxony, Hanover, and Denmark
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Baltic, Poland, Denmark, Russia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Charles XII wanted to achieve dominance in the Baltic and beyond.
OUTCOME: Sweden was ultimately defeated by a large coalition.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The largest army fielded was a Swedish force of 80,000.

CASUALTIES: At the disastrous Battle of Poltava, Charles XII lost virtually all of his 80,000-man army, by death, capture, and desertion.
TREATIES: The Treaties of Stockholm, 1719–1720 and the Treaty of Nystad, 1721

During the 16th and 17th centuries, Sweden had expanded its hold over the coasts of the Baltic Sea, much to the irritation of its neighbors. Russia resented having its access to a northern port blocked by such Swedish-controlled lands as Estonia, Ingria, Karelia, and Livonia. Denmark-Norway, already glum over the loss of its Scandinavian provinces to the Swedes, was especially unhappy about Sweden's alliance with Holstein-Gottrop. For it was this alliance that held Denmark in check from the south and prevented the Danes from again taking control of Schleswig and Holstein. The Germans, the house of Brandenburg in particular, which lusted after Swedish Pomerania, deplored the role Sweden played in



Battle of Poltava, June 28, 1709

the Holy Roman Empire. Finally, the Poles continued to stew over the loss of Livonia, holding it still Polish by any honest reckoning.

The atmosphere was already charged with danger, then, when Sweden's Charles XI (1655–97) died, making a 14-year-old the heir to the throne. Denmark-Norway took Charles XII's (1682–1718) ascension as the signal to organize an anti-Swedish coalition, and the young king was immediately confronted by three threats: the Danes invading Holstein-Gottrop, King Augustus II (1670–1733) of Poland attacking Livonia at Riga, and Russian czar Peter I (the Great; 1672–1725) laying siege to Narva in a bid for Ingermanland.

The new king showed some strategic brilliance when he concentrated his forces first on Denmark, forcing King Frederick IV (1670–1730) to withdraw Denmark and Norway from the anti-Swedish alliance and to sign, in August 1700, the Treaty of Traventhal, which returned the status quo ante bellum. Then, quickly, Charles turned his attention to Peter's army at Narva, forcing the Russians to lift the siege there, before he marched to the relief of Riga, driving the Poles and the Saxons into retreat as he pushed on through Livonia to invade first Lithuania, then Poland itself, where he seized both Cracow and Warsaw.

Augustus II of Poland, commanding some 10,000 men, met Charles at the Battle of Pultusk, about 32 miles north of Warsaw, on April 13, 1703. The two armies were fairly evenly matched, but Charles XII trounced Augustus, sending his army into full retreat. On the heels of this victory, the Polish diet installed Charles's candidate, Stanislaus I Leszczynski (1677–1766), on the Polish throne in 1704. Two years after taking Poland, Charles moved against Lithuania and chased Augustus II into Saxony. It was this invasion of Saxony, finally, that led Augustus, after six years of fighting, to relinquish his Polish throne. For, though he fought Charles to a standstill, he nevertheless agreed, under the Treaty of Altranstadt in September 1706, to renounce his royal claim in favor of Stanislaus and to break with his Russian allies. For his part, Charles clearly intended to continue on into Peter the Great's vast kingdom.

Meanwhile, the czar had used the period when Charles had focused on defeating Augustus to reorganize the Russian army and to entrench Russia on the east coast of the Baltic, where in 1703 Peter founded both the city of Saint Petersburg and the naval port of Kronstadt.

Thus was Russia the better prepared when Charles marched from Saxony in September 1707 at the head of an 80,000-man army through Poland and Lithuania and into Russia. Like other invaders who would come after him, including Napoleon I (1769–1821) and Adolf Hitler (1889–1945), Charles fell victim to the Russian winter and to the dogged resistance of the Russian soldier. He failed to reach Moscow and turned instead toward the Ukraine, where he joined forces with the Cossack insurrectionist leader Ivan Mazeppa (c. 1640–1709). His army greatly reduced by the hardships of Russia, Charles was badly defeated at the Battle of Poltava on June 28, 1709. He had only 1,800 men with him when he fled to Turkish Moldavia.

While Charles was in ignominious retreat, Augustus returned to Poland and overthrew Stanislaus, and Peter I invaded Ingermanland, as well as Livonia and Finland. Prussia conquered Pomerania. Poland, Russia, Prussia, Saxony, Hanover, and Denmark now leagued against Sweden. The Swedes managed to defeat a Danish army in Skåne, Sweden, and a combined Danish-Saxon army in Pomerania, but a Russian, Danish, and Saxon coalition defeated the Swedish army in Holstein. At this time, too, the Swedish fleet fell to Russia.

Sweden began negotiating a peace, but the process was interrupted by Charles XII, who goaded the Turks into war with Russia. From a headquarters at the Baltic town of Stralsund, Charles ordered the war to resume, but the anti-Swedish coalition quickly besieged Stralsund, which fell in December 1715. Charles made for Sweden, where he raised a new army to invade Norway (at the time a Danish possession), but the king fell victim to an enemy bullet while he was commanding the siegeworks outside of Frederikshald in December 1718.

Without their commander in chief, the Swedish army withdrew and marched home, and Sweden now entered into negotiations that resulted in the Treaties of Stockholm. Hanover collected from Sweden the duchies of Bremen and Verden in exchange for an indemnity. To Prussia went Stettin and parts of Pomerania. Denmark relinquished most of its war gains, except for Schleswig, taking an indemnity payment in exchange. By the Treaty of Nystad, Sweden ceded Livonia, Ingermanland, a portion of Karelia, and various Baltic islands to Russia, which relinquished Finland in return. Russia became the dominant power in eastern Europe.

Further reading: Robert I. Frost, *The Northern Wars: State and Society in Northeastern Europe, 1558–1721* (New York: Longman, 2000); R. M. Hattan, *Charles XII of Sweden: Union, Disunion, and Scandinavian Integration* (New York: Weybright and Talley, 1969); W. Glyn Jones, *Denmark: A Modern History* (Dover, N.H.: Croom Helm, 1986); Jerzy Lukowoski, *Concise History of Poland* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 2002); Stewart Oakley, *War and Peace in the Baltic, 1560–1790* (New York: Routledge, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, ed., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1941–50, reprinted 1971); Michael Roberts, ed., *Sweden's Age of Greatness, 1632–1718* (London: Macmillan, 1973); Franklin D. Scott, *Sweden, the Nation's History* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1988); Vytas

Stanley Vardys and Judith Sedaitis, *Lithuania: The Rebel Nation* (Denver: Westview Press, 1966); Arvids Ziedonis, William L. Winter, and Mardi Valgemäe, *Baltic History* (Columbus, Ohio: Association for the Advancement of Baltic Studies, 1974).

Northumberland's Rebellion (1408)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scottish rebels (under the earl of Northumberland) vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Northumberland was rebelling against Henry IV.
OUTCOME: The rebel army was crushed and Northumberland killed in battle.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Henry IV (1357–1413) could hardly have gained his throne without the support of Henry Percy (1342–1408), first earl of Northumberland, and early in Henry's reign Northumberland remained an important member of the English privy council. But the earl and his son (Shakespeare's "Hotspur," Sir Henry Percy [1366–1403]) both grew disenchanted with the Crown when Henry failed to reward them sufficiently for their service in Scotland. They ultimately rose up against the king in PERCY'S REBELLION, which led to Hotspur's death and Northumberland's complete alienation. He joined the conspiracy to oust King Henry and replace him with Edmund Mortimer (1376–1409) that lay at the heart of GLENDOWER'S REVOLT. Informed of the plot, Henry caused the arrest of Northumberland's coconspirators, who were subsequently executed. As for Northumberland, he escaped to Scotland, then to Holland. In the summer of 1406 he returned to Scotland, where he raised a small army to raid the north of England just across the Scottish border. The raids had little effect, and on February 19, 1408, he was trapped at Bramham Moor by a force under the local sheriff, Thomas Rokeby. The rebels were soundly defeated, and Northumberland was among the slain.

Further reading: Bryan Beran, *Henry IV* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1994); E. F. Jacob, *The Fifteenth Century, 1399–1485* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1961).

Northwest Rebellion

See RIEL'S SECOND REBELLION.

Norwegian Invasion of Scotland (1263)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Norway vs. Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Largs, Scotland—on the Clyde River
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King Haakon IV of Norway sought conquest.
OUTCOME: A storm wrecked Haakon's fleet, and his land forces were readily defeated; ultimately, Norway sold the Hebrides to Scotland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown; Haakon's fleet numbered 100 ships.
CASUALTIES: Unknown, although well over half of Haakon's fleet was lost.
TREATIES: No treaty ended the war; the 1266 Treaty of Perth transferred sovereignty of the Hebrides to Scotland.

Haakon IV (1204–63), king of Norway, invaded Scotland in the summer of 1263 by sending a fleet of 100 ships to the port of Largs. King Alexander III (1241–86) of Scotland entered into deliberately protracted negotiations with Haakon, extending talks into the fall, which, he knew, was the stormy season. Haakon's fleet was decimated by storms, leaving his land troops without supply. Alexander defeated Haakon at the Battle of Largs, which sent the Norwegian king fleeing back to his homeland. He died en route, however, at Kirkwall in the Orkneys, and his successor, King Magnus IV (1238–80), sold Alexander control of the Hebrides Islands in 1266. To cement relations between Scotland and Norway, Magnus married his sons to the daughters of the Scottish king.

Further reading: T. K. Derry, *A Short History of Norway,* 2nd ed. (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1968).

November Insurrection

See POLISH REBELLION (1830–1831).

November (October) Revolution

See BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION; FEBRUARY (MARCH) REVOLUTION; KORNILOV'S REVOLT.

Novgorod, Sack of (1569–1570)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Czar Ivan IV "the Terrible" vs. Novgorod
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Novgorod
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The czar sought retribution for what he falsely asserted was the disloyalty of the metropolitan of Novgorod.
OUTCOME: The city was all but completely destroyed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 60,000 citizens of Novgorod were killed outright; others subsequently died of plague brought on by their inability to dispose of corpses. The death toll in Tver (Kalnin) and other towns along the czar's route to Novgorod is unknown.
TREATIES: None

In the 14th and 15th centuries, Novgorod—one of the oldest of Russia's cities whose history stretches back at least to 859—engaged in a long, bitter, and often destructive battle for supremacy with Moscow. During the course of this struggle, Novgorod not uncommonly turned to Lithuania for help. Soundly defeated by Moscow in 1386, the city stubbornly continued its opposition to and maintained its alliance with Lithuania, however sporadic. Then in 1471, Grand prince of Moscow Ivan III (the Great; 1440–1505) defeated Novgorod and annexed much of its northern territories (*see* MUSCOVITE CONQUEST OF NOVGOROD).

Though forced in 1478 finally to recognize Moscow's sovereignty, opposition by the city's leading citizens remained a Novgorod tradition until Ivan IV (the Terrible; 1530–84) became czar and decided to put an end to Novgorod's history of disloyalty. In December 1569, Ivan relied on trumped-up evidence that the Novgorod metropolitan had secretly concocted an alliance with Lithuania to justify launching a military expedition against the city. On the way to Novgorod, his troops destroyed various villages and towns, including, most notably, Tver (Kalinin), whose citizens were massacred.

On January 2, 1570, Ivan and his troops arrived at Novgorod. They swept through the city, looting and destroying churches and monasteries and putting to death, by cold-blooded, methodical execution, some 60,000 residents of the city at the rate of 500 to 1,000 daily. At length exhausted, the czar pardoned the survivors of the massacre—but the town was piled so high with rotting corpses that plague broke out and killed many of those who had escaped execution.

To impress the people back in Moscow, Ivan returned bearing the corpses of the Novgorod metropolitan and other church and city leaders suspected of plotting against Russia.

See also LIVONIAN WAR.

Further reading: Robert Auty and Dimitri Obolensky, *An Introduction to Russian History* (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Robert O. Crummey, *The Formation of Muscovy* (London: Longman, 1987); Henri Troyat, *Ivan the Terrible* (London: New English Library, 1985).

Numantian War (137–133 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Numantia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Numantia, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to conquer the stubbornly defended Spanish town of Numantia.
OUTCOME: After an eight-month siege, the town fell.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rome, 60,000; Numantia, numbers unknown, but certainly far inferior to Rome
CASUALTIES: Only 4,000 Numantians survived the eight-month Roman siege.
TREATIES: None

This may be seen as a phase of the CELTIBERIAN WARS, from 154 to 133 B.C.E. Numantia was a Celtiberian town located near modern-day Soria, Spain, along the Duero River. In the past, the town had repulsed a number of Roman attempts at conquest. In 137, Gaius Hostilius Mancinus (fl. mid-second century) B.C.E.) led 20,000 Roman legionnaires against Numantia and was forced to surrender, leading to the general demoralization of Roman troops in Spain.

In 134, Scipio Aemilianus (c. 185–129 B.C.E.) was sent to take charge of the legions and revive their spirit. With 60,000 men, he renewed the siege of Numantia, which endured for eight months before a mere 4,000 starving survivors surrendered. Scipio Aemilianus gave no quarter. After destroying Numantia, he ordered the execution of some of his prisoners and the enslavement of the rest.

See also LUSITANIAN WAR.

Further reading: John S. Richardson, *Romans in Spain* (London: Blackwell, 1998); Colin Wells, *The Roman Empire,* 2nd ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1995).

Numidian War *See* JUGURTHINE WAR (NUMIDIAN WAR) (112–106 B.C.E.).

O

Octavian's War against Antony
(33–30 B.C.E.)

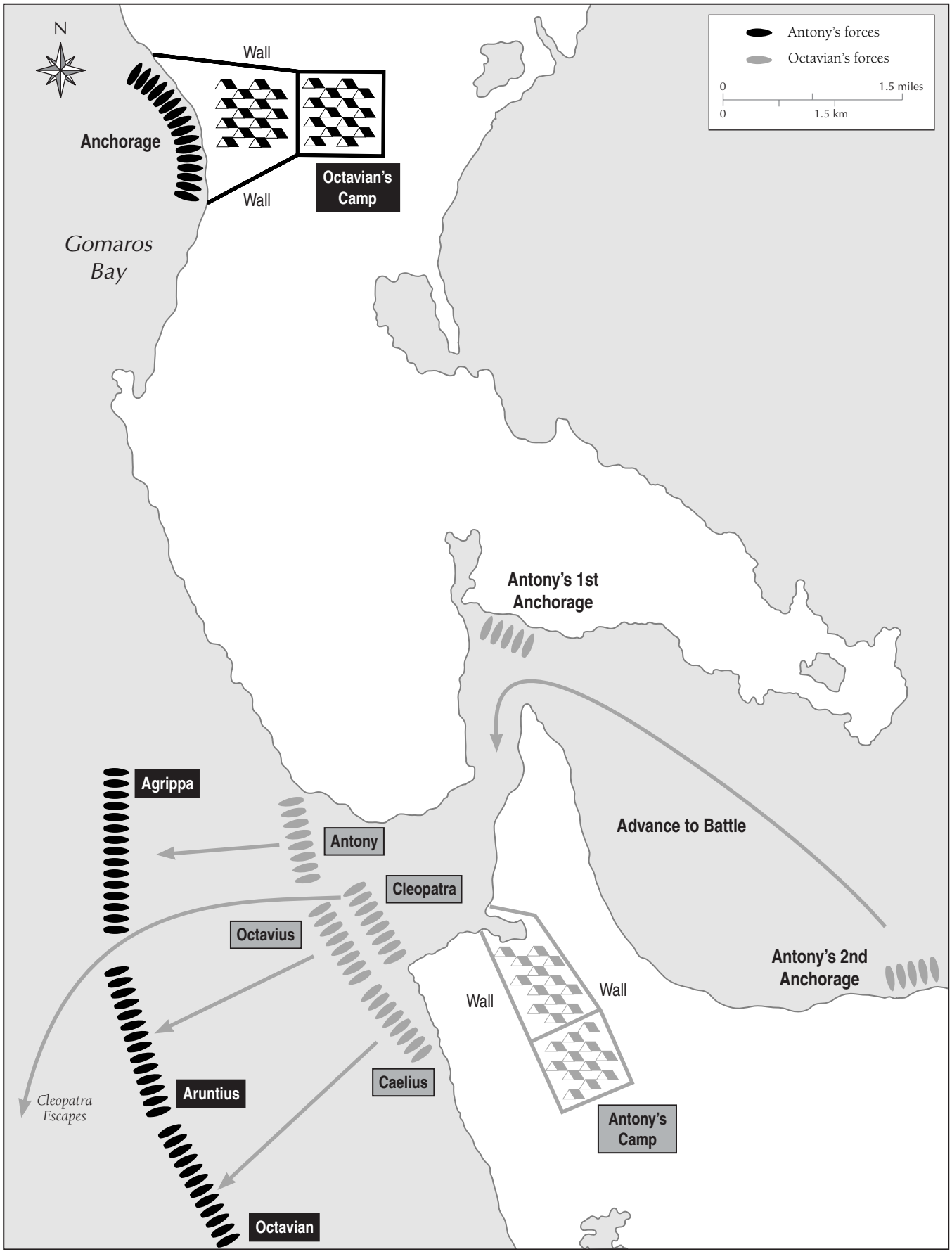
PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mark Antony and Cleopatra vs. Octavian
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Egypt
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession and control of Egypt
OUTCOME: Antony and Cleopatra were defeated; Octavian conquered Egypt and subsequently, as Caesar Augustus, was the first emperor of the Roman Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Antony and Cleopatra's forces, 40,000; Octavian's forces, 40,000
CASUALTIES: At Actium, 5,000 of Antony's men died.
TREATIES: Egyptian capitulation and tribute, 30 B.C.E.

After the assassination of Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) in 44 B.C.E., two of his cohorts, his second-in-command Marcus Aemilius Lepidus (d. c. 13 B.C.E.) and his right-hand man Marcus Antonius (c. 83–30 B.C.E. ["Mark Antony" to the English-speaking, Shakespeare-reading world]) formed the Second Triumvirate with Caesar's nephew and adopted heir, 18-year-old Gaius Octavius (63 B.C.E.–14 C.E.; called Octavian by English scholars and soon to be known throughout the world and for eternity as Rome's first and greatest emperor, Augustus Caesar. Though the three, with good reason, hardly trusted one another, they managed to coexist until 36 B.C.E., when Lepidus—resentful of the growing domination of the triumvirate by Octavian and Antony—attacked Octavius in Sicily, only to lose his army to the younger man and find himself placed under lifelong armed guard.

Meanwhile, Antony—having taken Rome's Eastern Empire as his share of the Triumvirate's division of power—was refused aid by Octavian in the further execution of the ongoing ROMAN-PARTHIAN WAR (55–38 B.C.E.) So, instead, Antony turned to Julius Caesar's former lover, Cleopatra (69–30 B.C.E.), queen of Egypt. Thus began one of the great sexual-political-military liaisons of history, a heated affair hardly affected by the fact that in 40 B.C.E., when Antony returned to Rome to patch up matters with Octavian, he entered into a politically necessary marriage with Octavian's sister, Octavia (69–11 B.C.E.). The speed with which Antony returned to Egypt and the openness of his infidelity with Cleopatra affronted not only his official wife but enraged her powerful brother. Octavian was soon joined in his anger by the whole of Rome itself when news spread that Antony was turning over liberal patches of the Eastern Empire to Cleopatra and her children, three of them in fact sired by Mark Antony.

Pushed by Octavian, the Roman Senate declared war on Antony and Egypt. Antony was portrayed throughout Rome as a traitor, and Octavian was thereby able to persuade all of Italy and the western Roman provinces to withdraw allegiance from Antony and swear loyalty to himself. Officially, Antony was stripped of all Roman titles and honors, and the Senate declared war on Cleopatra, which was also war against Antony.

Together, Antony and Cleopatra assembled an army and a fleet, which sailed to Greece during 32–31 B.C.E. to wait out the winter. In the spring, Octavian and his lieutenant, Marcus Vipsanius Agrippa (63–12 B.C.E.), crossed the Adriatic with a force of comparable size to that of



Battle of Actium, 31 B.C.E.

Antony. On September 2, 31, the Battle of Actium was fought on the Ionian coast of Greece. While Agrippa blockaded Antony's fleet, Octavian cut off the overland supply routes of his army. Antony then ordered a retreat and took his chances running the naval blockade. Most of the ships, together with the troops they held, were sunk or surrendered. Antony and Cleopatra made it successfully through the blockade, however, and managed to regroup. In 30, when Octavian invaded Egypt, Antony was at first able to mount a creditable defense, pushing the Romans back before they reached Alexandria. However, Antony's army soon deserted to the enemy, leading both Antony and Cleopatra to commit suicide.

Octavian looted the treasures of Ptolemaic Egypt and forced the Egyptians to pay a heavy tribute. With the conquest of Egypt, Octavian was the preeminent leader of the known world. As Caesar Augustus, he became the first emperor of the Roman Empire.

See also Octavian's War against Pompey; Roman Civil War (49–44 B.C.E.); Roman Civil War (43–31 B.C.E.).

Further reading: Anthony Everitt, *Cicero: The Life and Times of Rome's Greatest Politician* (New York: Random House, 2002); A. H. Jones, *Augustus* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1970); E. S. Schuckburgh, *Augustus Caesar* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995).

Octavian's War against Pompey
(40–36 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Octavian vs. Pompey the Younger
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily and Sardinia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At issue was control of Sardinia and Sicily in an effort to secure a reliable supply of grain for Rome.
OUTCOME: Octavian ultimately prevailed, capturing both Sardinia and Sicily and ensuring the free passage of grain to Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown; Octavian dispatched a fleet of 120 vessels against Pompey's smaller fleet.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Misenium, 39 B.C.E.

Following the death of Pompey the Great (106–48 B.C.E.) in the Great Roman Civil War (50–49 B.C.E.), his son Pompey the Younger (Sextus Pompeius Magnus) (75–35 B.C.E.) fled to Egypt and then to Spain, where he continued to oppose the forces of Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) and his successors. Pompey the Younger captured Sicily and, operating from there, blockaded shipments of grain to Rome. From there, too, he launched an attack on Sardinia, which he seized from Octavian (63 B.C.E.–14 C.E.) in 40 B.C.E. This prompted Octavian and Mark Antony (c. 83–30 B.C.E.) to conclude the Treaty of Misenium with Pompey the Younger, by which Pompey was made governor of Sicily and Sardinia and was compensated for property seized from Pompey the Great. In return, Pompey the Younger agreed to transport grain to Rome.

The treaty did not long endure. In 38, Octavian regained Sardinia, but when he attempted to capture Sicily as well, his fleet fell victim to a combination of Pompey's sailors and a severe storm.

In 36, Octavian launched a new naval attack against Pompey's Sicily, sending against him 120 ships under Marcus Vipsanius Agrippa (63–12 B.C.E.). At the naval Battle of Naulochus, Pompey's fleet was defeated. Pompey himself escaped to Asia Minor, but was captured in 35 by Mark Antony and was subsequently killed. Rome never again suffered a threat to its supply of grain.

See also Octavian's War against Antony; Roman Civil War (43–31 B.C.E.).

October (November) Revolution
See Bolshevik Revolution; February (March) Revolution; Kornilov's Revolt.

"October War"
See Arab-Israeli War (Yom Kippur War) (1973).

Odaenathus's Gothic Campaign (266)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Odaenathus vs. Goth raiders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Asia Minor
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Backed by his patron, Rome's emperor Gallienus, Odaenathus launched a punitive expedition against the Goths.
OUTCOME: Odaenathus subdued the barbarian raids but was soon afterward murdered.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the middle of the third century, the Goths took advantage of Rome's wars with Persia to ravage Asia Minor. Teutonic "barbarians" of mixed Scythian and German stock, though less Asian than the Sarmatians, they consisted of two main groups: the Ostrogoths, or East Goths, from the Dnieper-Don steppes, who were primarily horsemen, and Visigoths, or West Goths, from the Carpathians, who

relied primarily on infantry. But the Goths also became a seafaring people, and their most destructive raids into the Roman Empire came by water, across the Black and Aegean Seas.

During the ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (257–261), a Romanized Arab, Septimus Odainath (or Odaenathus) (d. c. 267), prince of Palmyra, rose to prominence by effectively defending the empire's eastern provinces against Shapur I (d. 272), who had captured the Roman emperor Valerian (d. c. 261) in battle, and by defeating and executing one of the "Thirty Tyrants" named Quietus (d. c. 261). After Valerian died in captivity, the new emperor Gallienus (d. 268) graced Odaenathus with the title "Dux Orientus" and made him a virtual coruler of the Eastern Empire. Accompanied and aided by his wife, Zenobia (d. after 274), Odaenathus led the ARAB INVASION OF PERSIA in 262 and had recaptured Rome's lost provinces east of the Euphrates by 264.

Because he was already in the area, it was only natural that Odaenathus take on the Goths then raiding throughout Asia Minor. Backed by Gallienus and reinforced with Roman troops, Odaenathus launched his army of light foot soldiers and Arabian cavalry on a successful punitive expedition against the Goths in 266. The expedition, however, is mostly significant for its conclusion. Soon after completing his last "mission" for Rome, the Dux Orientus was murdered, at which point his title passed to his son, Vaballathus (d. c. 273), but his power—over Palmyra and the Eastern Empire—effectively passed to his widow, celebrated for her beauty and her military acumen, but not necessarily for her loyalty to Rome (*see* ZENOBIA'S CONQUEST OF EGYPT and AURELIAN'S WAR AGAINST ZENOBIA).

Further reading: Peter Brown, *The World of Late Antiquity, A.D. 150–750* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1989); Richard Stoneman, *Palmyra and Its Empire: Zenobia's Revolt against Rome* (reprint, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1995).

Offa's Wars (771–796)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mercia's Offa vs. various rebellious lords and subkings and the Welsh
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England below Yorkshire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The forging of Anglo-Saxon England
OUTCOME: Offa obtained and maintained control over most of England south of Yorkshire; Wales remained wildly independent.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

From ancient Mercian lineage, Offa (d. July 796) became one of the more powerful Anglo-Saxon kings in England after he seized the throne during a civil war following the murder of his cousin, King Aethelbald (r. 716–57). Ruthlessly suppressing the small states in and around Mercia, he forged a united kingdom south of Yorkshire. By 774, lesser kings in the region were paying him homage as "king of the English," and he married his daughters to the rulers of Wessex and Northumbria. Offa's England was, however, an unstable place, and in addition to the wars he had waged to unite the kingdom before 774, he was forced afterward to engage in a number of disciplinary conflicts from 775 through 796 against upstart rebels, most often in Kent, but also in Wessex and East Anglia.

Offa's goal throughout was to establish himself on a par with the monarchs of continental Europe, and though he quarreled frequently with the king of the Franks, Charlemagne (c. 742–814) nevertheless concluded a commercial treaty with Offa in 796. Offa was also on good terms with Rome and allowed Pope Adrian I (pope from 772–95) to increase his control over the sometimes maverick English church. None of his European prestige, however, helped Offa much with the Welsh, who stoutly resisted conquest, and Offa ultimately gave up on these stubborn people, erecting an earthen boundary, Offa's Dyke, to separate England from Wales—and to provide something of a fortified position to defend against raids and other incursions.

See also AETHELBALD'S WARS.

Further reading: Frank Stenton, *Anglo-Saxon England,* 3rd ed. (Oxford, UK: Clarendon Press, 1971).

Og's Rebellion (1480)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Angus Og vs. the Macdonald and Maclean clans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northwestern Scottish Highlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Domination of the Highlands
OUTCOME: Og defeated his father, the Lord of the Isles, and caused great and violent feuding throughout the Highlands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but the Battle of Bloody Bay is believed to have been extraordinarily savage.
TREATIES: None

In the northwest of Scotland, the Macdonald clan dubbed themselves the "Lords of the Isles" and rebelled against the Scottish Crown in the MACDONALD REBELLION in 1411. After years of chronic unrest and uprising, the

Crown reached an agreement with the Macdonalds, which, however, turned Angus Og (d. 1490), bastard son of the current lord of the Isles, against his father as well as the Crown. His break with his father divided the northwestern Highlands into two warring factions. In 1480, at the Battle of Bloody Bay, Og, allied now with the Macleod and MacKenzie clans, fought his father and his allies, the Macleans. Og not only enjoyed victory, he captured and imprisoned his father (as well as two of his principal Maclean officers) and persisted in stirring up violent feuding in the Highlands. The assassination of Og in 1490 ended this.

Further reading: W. Croft Dickinson, *Scotland from the Earliest Times to 1603,* 3rd rev. ed. (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1977).

Old Zurich War (1436–1450)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Zurich and Austria (with French aid) vs. Schwyz, Glarus, and the Swiss Confederacy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Zurich and the Toggenburg
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Toggenburg
OUTCOME: Zurich relinquished the Toggenburg to Schwyz, and the house of Savoy was installed in the Aargau (Switzerland).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Schwyz and Swiss Confederacy, 20,000; Zurich and allies, 40,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Ensisheim, 1444; Peace of Constance, 1446

The Old Zurich War grew from a territorial dispute created by the death of the last count of Toggenburg in 1436. The Toggenburgs, always vassals of either German kings or Holy Roman Emperors, boasted extensive possessions in what is now northeastern Switzerland. The dying off of the dynasty not only raised questions about who would rule some of the large Toggenburg holdings but fed the greed of nearby towns. The Toggenburg lands were bounded to the west and to the southwest by the free cities of Zurich, Schwyz, and Glarus—all members of the Swiss Confederation. To the southeast, Toggenburg possessions bordered lands held by two of the three leagues later known collectively as the Grisons.

While the southeasternmost part of the territory was quickly claimed (and occupied) by the newly formed Zehngerichtenbund (League of Ten Jurisdictions), the rest of the Toggenburg inheritance fell open to dispute. The House of Raron (in distant Valais) managed successfully to claim most of the countship, but the dependencies nearest to Lake Zurich and a tract to the east of them was promptly invaded by the men of Schwyz, who blocked the road to Zurich. These moves were, of course, fiercely resented by Zurich, whose leaders desired to control at least the shore of the lake if nothing else. When a meeting of the Swiss confederates in 1437 authorized Schwyz and Glarus to retain nearly all the occupied zone, Zurich rejected the settlement out of hand and appealed to the Imperial Diet in 1440. The Austrian duke and German king Frederick III (1415–43) allied his forces with Zurich, which prompted Schwyz and its ally Glarus to declare war on Zurich and Austria.

During the opening clash, Zurich's burgomaster, at the head of its army, was killed, sending the forces of Zurich into headlong retreat. The Imperial Diet now called for conciliation, whereupon Zurich broke with Austria, which rejected the directive of the Diet. Joining the side of Schwyz, the Swiss Confederacy aided the city with some 20,000 troops in its siege against Zurich. Frederick obtained aid from France—40,000 men—who were nevertheless defeated by the much smaller Schwyz-Swiss Confederacy force in 1444.

The Peace of Ensisheim was concluded in 1444, but Zurich refused to be a party to it. Two years later, however, the Peace of Constance ended the Austrian-Zurich alliance and gave some territory back to Zurich, but yielded to Schwyz most of Toggenburg. Austria remained involved in sporadic fighting in the region until a special court of arbitration ordered Austria out of the Aargau (Switzerland) altogether and installed there the house of Savoy. Ultimately, the major portion of the Toggenburg countship was sold by the house of Raron to the prince-abbot of Sankt Gallen in 1468, only to become a ground for discord during the Swiss Reformation (*see* the VILLMERGEN WAR, SECOND).

Further reading: William Martin, *Switzerland: From Roman Times to the Present* (New York: Praeger, 1971).

Onin War (1467–1477)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rival shogun clans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kyoto and environs
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the shogunate
OUTCOME: The issues of succession remained unresolved throughout the long and ruinous war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

A feudal dispute erupted into chaotic warfare in western Japan. Yoshimasa (1435–90), the Ashikaga shogun (mili-

tary overlord), retired in 1467, triggering a dispute over succession to his shogunate. Rival families started a full-scale war in and about Kyoto, which was largely destroyed in the conflict. Even though the leaders of the warring factions, Yamana Mochitoyo (1404–73) and Hosokawa Katsumoto (c. 1430–73), both died in 1473, their partisans continued to fight, ultimately bringing some dozen major military families into the fray and laying waste to the entire region around Kyoto. The Onin War produced nothing but general ruin and failed to resolve the succession to the shogunate.

See also JAPANESE CIVIL WARS (1450–1550).

Further reading: Thomas Keirstead, *The Geography of Power in Medieval Japan* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1992); H. Paul Valery, *The Onin War* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1966).

"Operation Iraqi Freedom"

See UNITED STATES–IRAQ WAR.

"Operation Just Cause"

See UNITED STATES INVASION OF PANAMA.

Opium War, First (1839–1842)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain vs. China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The China coast
DECLARATION: China attacked the British ships sent to protect the opium trade on September 4, 1839.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British used Chinese trade policies against the importation of opium and China's treatment of opium merchants as a cause for going to war and forcing "open" trade policies on the traditionally insular Qing (Ch'ing) dynasty.
OUTCOME: China was forced to open its ports to British and other foreign trade and to grant a number of humiliating concessions
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: British forces, 12,000; Chinese forces, 45,000
CASUALTIES: Britain, about 100 killed or wounded; China, about 6,800 killed, wounded, or captured
TREATIES: Treaty of Nanking, August 29, 1842

Basically trade wars in which Western nations gained commercial privileges in China, the Opium Wars (fought from 1839 to 1842 and 1856 to 1860) were the first major military confrontations between China and the European West. Since the beginning of the 19th century British traders had been illegally importing the drug into China, leading to widespread social and economic disruption and degradation. They not only ended Chinese isolation from other civilizations, but began for China a century of mistreatment and humiliation at the hands of foreign powers, leading to the decay of the Qing dynasty and, ultimately, revolution, civil war, and the ascendancy of communist rule.

The First Opium War began when British merchants ignored a Chinese prohibition against the importation of opium. On March 30, 1839, the Chinese imperial commissioner, Lin Zexu (Lin Tse-hsü)—frustrated by the insouciance of British merchants toward official China—confiscated and destroyed all the smuggled opium in British warehouses and ships in Canton (Guangzhou [Kwangchow]), British tempers, from merchant to skivvy, flared, and the antagonism between the British and Chinese officialdom only increased a few days later when drunken British sailors killed a Chinese villager. The British government, which did not recognize the Chinese legal system, refused to turn the accused men over to the local courts.

Hostilities broke out, and Britain responded by dispatching warships and troops to attack the China coast. In rapid succession, the cities of Hangzhou (Hangchow), Hong Kong, and Canton fell under attack and were blockaded by the British. A small amphibious force sailed up the Pearl River and assaulted the fortifications surrounding Canton. The city fell in May 1841, followed soon by Amoy and Ningbo (Ning-po). After a lull in the fighting when disease struck the British forces, renewed efforts resulted in the taking of Shanghai and Xinjiang (Chinkiang). Outmatched by British troops and equipment, the Chinese capitulated when British navy ships appeared in August 1842.

The subsequent Treaty of Nanjing (Nanking) was harsh. In addition to agreeing to pay a $20 million indemnity, the Chinese opened the ports of Canton, Xiamen (Amoy), Fuzhou (Foochow), Ningbo, and Shanghai to British trade and residence. China also granted Britain the right of "extraterritoriality," whereby British residents in China were subject not to Chinese legal jurisdiction but to that of special consular courts. The greatest prize ceded to the Crown was Hong Kong, which was transferred to Britain in perpetuity.

The trade and legal concessions made to the British under the treaty were soon extended to other Western powers, and China's long isolation came to an end. The Second OPIUM WAR erupted in 1856.

Further reading: Jack Beeching, *The Chinese Opium Wars* (New York: Harcourt, 1977); Hsin-pao Chang, *Commissioner Lin and the Opium War* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1964); Peter Ward Fay, *The Opium War, 1840–1842* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1975); W. Travis Hanes and Frank Sanello, *The Opium Wars: The Addiction of One Empire and the Corruption of Another* (Naperville, Ill.: Sourcebooks Inc., 2002).

Opium War, Second (1856–1860)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain and France vs. China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The China coast
DECLARATION: England and France attacked China after the *Arrow,* a Chinese-owned ship flying the British flag, was seized by the Chinese.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After the First Opium War, the British and the French (and other Western powers, including the United States) sought further trade concessions and, once again, used China's enforcement of its ban on the opium trade as an excuse to go to war and get them.
OUTCOME: China was forced to open more of its ports to British and other foreign trade and to grant Great Britain further land around Hong Kong in a "lease" to last 99 years
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anglo-French forces, 17,700; Chinese forces, 30,000
CASUALTIES: Anglo-French, nearly 900 killed or wounded; Chinese, more than 7,000 killed, wounded, or captured
TREATIES: Treaty of Tientsin (Tianjin or Tianjian [Tientsin]), June 28, 1858 (reaffirmed and expanded in 1860) plus copycat treaties with France, Russia, and the United States

The First OPIUM WAR resulted in the opening of several Chinese ports as well as the cession of Hong Kong to Great Britain. By 1856, the British (and the French) were restless for further trade concessions. In that year, Chinese officials seized the *Arrow,* a Chinese-owned ship flying the British flag and engaged in smuggling opium. The British, seeking to extend their trading rights in China, used the seizure as an excuse to renew hostilities. They were joined in the hostilities by the French, who used as *their* excuse the murder of a French missionary in the interior of China. In late 1857 a combined English and French force attacked, occupying Canton (Guangzhou [Kwangchow]). Next, the force took forts near Tianjin, and treaties were concluded between China and Britain as well as similar treaties between China and France, Russia, and the United States.

The new treaties with the Western powers caused widespread outrage in China and failed to receive ratification. Foreign diplomats were refused entrance to Beijing (Peking), and a British force was slaughtered outside of Tianjin in 1859. A renewed Anglo-French assault captured Tianjin and defeated a Chinese army outside of Beijing. The Chinese emperor, Xianfeng (Hsien-feng; 1831–61), fled, and his commissioners concluded new treaties embodying the provisions of the Tianjin agreement and adding four more ports to the list of those now open to foreign trade.

Of special importance, the Kowloon Peninsula on the Chinese mainland was added to the Hong Kong colony, and in 1898 a large area beyond Kowloon, together with the surrounding islands (the "New Territories"), was leased to Great Britain for 99 years.

See also BOXER REBELLION.

Further reading: Jack Beeching, *The Chinese Opium Wars* (New York: Harcourt, 1977); D. Bonner-Smith, *The Second China War, 1856–1860* (New York: Hyperion, 1994); W. Travis Hanes and Frank Sanello, *The Opium Wars: The Addiction of One Empire and the Corruption of Another* (Naperville, Ill.: Sourcebooks Inc., 2002); Douglas Hurd, *The Arrow War: an Anglo-Chinese Confusion, 1856–1860* (New York: Macmillan, 1967).

Oporto, Revolution at (1820)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Oporto Jacobins vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Oporto and Lisbon, Portugal
DECLARATION: Coup of August 24, 1820
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Jacobins sought the ouster of the British regency in Portugal.
OUTCOME: In a bloodless revolution, the British regency was evicted and the Portuguese king returned to his throne as a constitutional monarch.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: None

As a result of the British victory over Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) in the PENINSULAR WAR from 1808 to 1814, Portugal came under the rule of a British regency, its king, John VI (1769–1826), having fled to Brazil to establish a government in exile. During the regency, Portuguese radical nationalists—popularly called Jacobins—fomented rebellion, calling for the removal of the British marshal in charge of the Portuguese army, William Carr Beresford (1768–1854). To counter the Jacobin movement, Beresford went to Brazil in an effort to persuade the king to return. In Beresford's absence, on August 24, 1820, the Jacobin Club of Oporto conspired with high-ranking military officers to stage a coup d'état. A junta was summarily established, and the revolution was accomplished with nothing more than a volley of musket fire.

The revolution spread to the Portuguese capital, Lisbon, within a matter of days. A quick revolt took place on September 15, 1820, and the junta ousted the regency and convened a session of the Cortes (parliament). The small contingent of British military was ejected from the country, Beresford was recalled to Britain, and John VI did return to Portugal, without the intermediation of a foreign regency and as a constitutional monarch. The king had left his first son behind as Emperor Pedro I (1798–1834) of Brazil, but his second son, Don Miguel

(1842–66) could not reconcile his father's return with his own ideas of absolute monarchy and his own ambitions for such a crown. Backed by his Braganza family in Portugal, he tried to extend their dynasty in a stop-and-go rebellion that ultimately led to the MIGUELITE WARS (1828–34).

See also BRAZILIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; PORTUGUESE CIVIL WAR (1823–1824); SPANISH CIVIL WAR (1820–1823).

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveira Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976).

Orange River War (1846–1850)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Boers vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Africa, between the Vaal and Orange rivers
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Frontier conflict between colonial rivals
OUTCOME: Inconclusive, although the British beat back a Boer incursion across the Vaal River
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Boers, 1,000; British, 1,000
CASUALTIES: 100 killed or wounded on both sides
TREATIES: None

Throughout much of the 19th century, the Boers (Dutch colonial farmers of South Africa) came into increasing conflict with the British who had control of the region. During 1835–37, some 12,000 Boers migrated northward and established their own independent states. Along the frontier between these new Boer states and the British colonial holdings warfare developed during 1846–50. There was only a single set battle, and no war was formally declared. However, the chronic conflict near the Great Kei River and in the area between the Orange River and the Vaal River was dubbed the Orange River War.

The single major battle of the war, at Boomplaats, on August 29, 1848, resulted in the defeat of the Orange Colony Boers under General Andreas Pretorius (1798–1853) by a British force commanded by Sir Harry Smith (1787–1860). As a result, the Boers retreated across the Vaal, but violence continued sporadically.

See also BOER UPRISING; BOER WAR, FIRST; BOER WAR, SECOND; BOER-ZULU WAR; JAMESON RAID.

Further reading: Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2001).

Oranges, War of the (1801)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France and Spain vs. Portugal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France wanted Portuguese cessions of territory and concessions of trade; under pressure from Napoleon, Spain cooperated in war against Portugal.
OUTCOME: Portugal ceded territory in Brazil and Portugal and made other concessions; Napoleon was unsatisfied.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Badajoz, June 6, 1801

Threatened by Napoleon I (Napoleon Bonaparte; 1769–1821), Spain joined France in a brief war to compel Portugal to cede much of its territory to France and to close its ports to British trade. French forces, joined by Spanish troops under General Manuel Godoy (1767–1851), invaded in April 1801. The Portuguese were defeated along the Spanish border at the Battle of Olivenza, whereupon Godoy sent to the queen of Spain a basket of oranges picked at nearby Elvas, with a message announcing his intention to march to Lisbon. However, Portugal quickly agreed to the Treaty of Badajoz on June 6, 1801, shutting its ports to British trade, granting special trading status to France, ceding Olivenza to Spain, ceding part of Brazil to France, and paying monetary reparations. Napoleon, wanting more of Portugal itself, denounced the treaty, prompting Spain to take a stand against France. Napoleon threatened to devastate both Spain and Portugal, but he was unable to make good on his threat because of war pressures elsewhere.

See also NAPOLEONIC WARS.

Further reading: David Chandler, *Campaigns of Napoleon* (London: Cassell, 1997); Charles J. Esdaile, *The Wars of Napoleon* (London: Pearson, 1996); Gunther Eric Rothenberg, *The Napoleonic Wars* (London: Cassell, 1999).

Orléans, Siege of (1429)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: English forces for Henry VI and Burgundian allies vs. Joan of Arc and forces for the French heir Charles
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): City of Orléans in southern France
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A contest for the French throne following the death of King Charles VI.
OUTCOME: The dauphin ascended to the throne.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: English, 5,000; Joan was accompanied to Orléans by several hundred troops.
CASUALTIES: English, 500 killed or captured; French, unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1420, during the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, England's King Henry V (1387–1422) became heir to the French throne, by courtesy of the Treaty of Troyes, upon the death of French king Charles VI (1368–1422). The deal was denounced by Charles's son, the dauphin, and his followers, and when Charles died, the dauphin claimed the crown as Charles VII (1403–61). Unfortunately, the English, too, decided to press their claim, and they allied with Philip III (the Good; 1396–1467), duke of Burgundy—whose forces controlled much of northern France—to keep Charles from taking the throne. As it happened, Henry V died the same year as Charles VI, so it was not he but his infant son, Henry VI (1421–71), in whose name the English regent, John Plantagenet (1389–1435), duke of Bedford, took control of English holdings in northern France. Five years after the death of this father, Charles VII had not yet been crowned, since Reims, traditional site of French coronations, lay under the control of his enemies.

Even worse, Bedford soon attacked the south, sending 5,000 troops to conquer Maine, a border region between those French lands recognizing Henry of England as king and those recognizing Charles as king. After taking Maine, Thomas de Montacute (d. 1428), earl of Salisbury, launched the siege of Orléans, a city which had become key to maintaining the dauphin's ambition. Not only the French were unhappy with Salisbury. His action had been taken against the advice of the duke of Bedford himself, who argued for an advance into Anjou instead. Salisbury managed to capture some important places upstream and downstream from Orléans, along with the bridgehead fort on the south bank of the Loire River opposite the city itself, before he died from a battle wound on November 3.

His successor in command, William de la Pole (1396–1450), earl of Suffolk, did little to advance the siege before December of 1428, when John Talbot (1384–1453 [later earl of Shrewsbury]) and Thomas Scales arrived to push him forward. Under their influence the English began to build impressive siegeworks, including forts, and to press harder on the city, and a French attempt to cut the besiegers' line of supply was defeated in the Battle of the Herrings on February 12, 1429. Still, as the weeks went by, Orléans held out.

Part of the reason lay with a young French peasant girl, the deeply religious Joan of Arc (1412–31), who would lead the defense against the siege after forcing an audience with the dauphin and persuading him to accept what she saw as her divine mission to save the city. In fact, the defenders, under Jean d'Orléans (1403–68), comte de Dunois (bastard son of Charles VII's late uncle Louis, duc d'Orléans [1372–1407]), were considering capitulation when Joan had her audience. At length, she persuaded Charles to send an army to relieve the besieged town.

With several hundred of the dauphin's troops, Joan set out for Orléans. From Chézy five miles upstream, Joan distracted the English with a diversionary feint against one of the English forts, and entered Orléans with supplies on April 30. On May 4 she attacked the principal English forts, and within three days they had all been stormed. Suffolk abandoned the siege. What was more, the English were forced out of Troyes, Châlons, and Reims. There, at last, Charles was crowned. Although ultimately the English would execute Joan as a witch and a heretic, the "Maid of Orléans" had loosened England's grip on French lands for good.

See also ROSES, WARS OF THE.

Further reading: Anne Curry, *The Hundred Years War* (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Desmond Stewart, *The Hundred Years' War: England in France, 1337–1453* (New York: Penguin USA, 1999); Jonathan Sumption, *The Hundred Years' War: Trial by Fire* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2000).

Oruro Revolt (1736–1737)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. the Oruro Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Peru
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rebellion against intolerable working and living conditions in the mines of central Peru
OUTCOME: The rebels sacked the city of Oruro, but the rebellion was extinguished by Spanish colonial troops.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Oruro Indians of Peru were treated essentially as slaves by the mine owners in the central portion of that colony. The horrific conditions drove the Oruros to desperation, and they rallied behind Juan Santos, who led them in revolt. In 1737, they overran the city of Oruro before colonial troops put down the rebellion.

Further reading: J.R. Fisher, *Silver Mines and Silver Miners in Colonial Peru,* 1776–1824 (Liverpool: Centre for Latin-American Studies, University of Liverpool, 1977).

Oswald's Wars (1633–641)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Oswald, king of Bernicia, and Penda, king of Mercia vs. Cadwallon, king of Gwynedd, Wales; later, Oswald vs. Penda

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England, primarily Northumbria and Wales
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Domination over Anglo-Saxon England
OUTCOME: Oswald amassed a large Anglo-Saxon kingdom, but was killed in battle by his former ally, Penda, who elevated Mercia to a long period of dominance over Anglo-Saxon England.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

During the Middle Ages, England was a region of fragmented kingdoms. The death of Edwin (585–632), king of Deira, enabled Oswald (c. 605–641), son of the Bernician king Aethelfrith (fl. 593–616), to regain dominance of both Bernicia and Deira after he had been exiled from Northumbria (the region encompassing Bernicia and Deira) in 616. With King Penda (c. 577–655) of Mercia, Oswald now attacked King Cadwallon (d. 634) of Gwynedd, in northern Wales. After a year of combat, the forces of Cadwallon were defeated, and Cadwallon himself killed at the Battle of Heavenfield in 634.

Oswald now fought to secure his Northumbrian borders and extend his realms south. Along with battle, he used a dynastic marriage to secure control of Wessex. This, however, turned his ally Penda against him, and the two led armies into combat at the Battle of Maserfeld in 641. There Oswald fell, propelling Penda and the kingdom of Mercia to dominance over Anglo-Saxon England. Mercia would come to dominate England for a century and a half. Oswald, who had tried to bring peace to his realm and who founded a famous monastery at Lindisfarne to bring Christianity into pagan Northumbria, was later canonized.

See also AETHEBALD'S WARS (733–750); AETHELFRITH'S WARS (593–616).

Further reading: Frank Stenton, *Anglo-Saxon England,* 3rd ed. (Oxford, UK: Clarendon Press, 1971).

Ottoman-Byzantine Wars

See BYZANTINE-OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1302–1326); BYZANTINE-OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1329–1338); BYZANTINE-OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1359–1399); BYZANTINE-OTTOMAN TURK WAR (1422); BYZANTINE-OTTOMAN Turk WAR (1453–1461).

Ottoman Civil War (1403–1413)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Four sons of Sultan Bayazid I of the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ottoman Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Ottoman sultanate
OUTCOME: After a long civil war, one son emerged victorious and ruled as Muhammad I.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Sultan Bayazid I (1347–1403) was killed at the Battle of Angora in 1403, his death began a period known as the Interregnum, during which four of his six sons tore the fledgling Ottoman Empire apart in their quest for domination of the sultanate. Muhammad, or Mehmed I (1389–1421), captured Karaman and made this city his stronghold. Süleyman (d. 1411) had control of the empire's European territories. Both Isa Bey (d. 1405) and Mustafa, or Musa Bey (d. 1413), took territories in Anatolia Turkey.

Süleyman struck an alliance with the Byzantine Empire in 1405 and met Isa in battle. Defeating Isa's army, he strangled his brother. Mustafa attacked Süleyman in 1406, fighting him and the Byzantine co-emperor John VIII Palaeologue (1390–1448) in Thrace. When Mustafa's Serbian and Bulgarian allies fled the field, however, Süleyman was able to take Adrianople (Edirne), the Ottoman European capital. Mustafa regrouped, assembling an army of Turks and Wallachians, against Adrianople. In the course of the battle, Mustafa persuaded Süleyman's contingent of Janissaries to defect to his side, and Süleyman was captured. Mustafa had him strangled as well.

After the death of Süleyman, Mustafa laid siege to Constantinople but suffered defeat at sea. Despite this loss, Mustafa was still more powerful than Muhammad and was dominant in the region. He attacked Serbia in 1406 and conquered Salonika, blinding its ruler, a son of Süleyman. Muhammad, however, with a large Turkish force and allied with the Byzantines, lifted Mustafa's siege of Constantinople and regained the loyalty of the Janissaries. He waged unremitting war on Mustafa, fighting him in three separate battles before he definitively defeated his brother in 1413. Like Isa and Süleyman, Mustafa was executed by strangulation. Muhammad I assumed the Ottoman throne and set about rebuilding the empire.

Further reading: Ducas, *Decline and Fall of Byzantium to the Ottoman Turks,* trans. Harry J. Magonlias. (Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1975); Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Picador, 2003); Colin Imber, *Ottoman Empire: 1300–1650* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Halil Inalcik, *The Ottoman Empire: The Classical Age, 1300–1600* (London: Phoenix Press, 2001).

Ottoman Civil War (1481–1482)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bayazid II vs. Djem
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ottoman Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Ottoman sultanate following the death of Muhammad II the Conqueror
OUTCOME: Djem was defeated several times and ultimately fled to Rhodes, where he was imprisoned for the rest of his life.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Although Sultan Muhammad, or Mehmed II (the Conqueror; 1429–1481) had greatly expanded the Ottoman Empire, leaving a firm foundation for the great future conquests of the 16th-century sultans, his death left unresolved many of the problems caused by his internal policies. The taxes he had imposed to finance his conquests, for example, had led during the last year of his reign to a virtual civil war in Constantinople between major factions of the janissaries and the Turkish aristocracy. Muhammad's son, Bayazid (1447–1513), left Amaysa to assume the throne at the behest of the Janissaries, who dominated the capital militarily and whom Bayazid had courted with promises of a full amnesty for their rebellion and an increase in pay for their services, the latter always a key attraction for mercenary troops. Bayazid II's first act was to kill the grand vizier, who had backed the other candidate for Muhammad's throne, Djem (1459–95), governor of Karaman and Bayazid's younger brother, who had already been proclaimed sultan in the old Ottoman capital of Bursa. Djem proposed to his brother that Bayazid rule Ottoman Europe and let Djem assume control of Anatolia. Bayazid rejected this proposal. He then managed to conciliate the nobility with his essentially pacific plans for consolidating his father's empire, which downgraded the Janissaries. Bereft of his major support, Djem nevertheless came to fight. The two met in battle at Yenishehr in 1481. Defeated, Djem fled into exile in Mamluk Syria in the summer of 1481. In Cairo, he regrouped, and, in 1482, renewed his attack on Bayazid II, this time with Mamluk aid. Djem failed, however, to recruit support in Karaman, where the Turkoman nomads he had hoped to rally were instead attracted to Bayazid's heterodoxy. Consequently, Djem was again defeated by his brother. This time, he fled to Rhodes, where the Knights Hospitalers kept him a captive—apparently at the request of Bayazid II, who paid them an annual fee for the service. However, another condition of Djem's captivity—either explicit or understood—was that the Ottomans refrain from attacking Europe. For 13 years, Bayazid II left Europe unmolested, fearing that the Knights Hospitalers would release Djem. Upon Djem's death (by poisoning, probably on Bayazid's orders), Bayazid launched the VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1499–1503).

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Picador, 2003); Colin Imber, *Ottoman Empire: 1300–1650* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Halil Inalcik, *The Ottoman Empire: The Classical Age, 1300–1600* (London: Phoenix Press, 2001).

Ottoman Civil War (1509–1513)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bayazid II vs. his sons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ottoman Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Ottoman sultanate
OUTCOME: Selim prevailed over his father and brothers and assumed the throne as Selim I.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Casualties included 40,000 Anatolian Shi'ites slain.
TREATIES: None

Although Bayazid II (1447–1513) had inherited a considerable empire from his father, Muhammad, or Mehmet, II (1429–81), he was never able to undertake the new conquests in Europe that the expansion-minded old sultan might have imagined to be the Ottoman legacy. For one thing, Bayazid had to turn much of his attention in the later years of his life to internal rebellion, especially in eastern Anatolia, where Turkoman nomads resisted not just the extension of the Ottoman administrative bureaucracy but also the empire's Sunni orthodoxy. They developed a fanatical attachment to the Sufi and Shi'ite mystic orders, the most successful of which, the Safavids, used a combined religious and military appeal to conquer most of Persia. They then spread a message of religious heresy and political revolt, not only among the tribesmen but also to farmers and some city dwellers, Ottoman citizens who were beginning to imagine in this movement the answers to their own problems.

At the same time, Bayazid was having trouble with the Janissaries who had been so instrumental in his own rise to power (*see* OTTOMAN CIVIL WAR [1481–1482]). Whereas Bayazid wished to name his son Ahmed (d. 1513) as his successor, the Janissaries much preferred his brother, Selim (1467–1520), governor of Trebizond. Bayazid, who had been put on the throne by the Janissaries despite his peace-loving nature, had throughout his reign only carried out military activities with reluctance, and Ahmed seemed to share his father's personality. Selim, on the other hand, like the mercenary Janissaries, longed to return to Muhammad

II's aggressive style of conquest. When Bayazid seemed to be prepared to abdicate in Ahmed's favor, Selim, governor of Trebizond, led an army to Adrianople, demanding that he be given a European province to govern. He wanted to ensure that he had sufficient power to topple Ahmed. Bayazid refused to accede to Selim's demand, and Selim was defeated in battle. He returned to Trebizond in 1509.

Then, in 1511, all the grievances disturbing the empire coalesced into a fundamentally religious uprising against the central government. The Shi'ite Turkoman nomads rebelled and took Bursa, the old Ottoman capital, about 150 miles from Adrianople. Bayazid dispatched his grand vizier Ali Posa (fl. 1512) with a force to put down the Turkoman rebellion, an action that left him vulnerable to Ahmed's pressure for abdication. The Janissaries threatened to revolt if Ahmed ascended the throne, so Bayazid decided not to abdicate. This prompted Ahmed to join with another brother, Kortud (d. 1513), in a rebellion in Anatolia. However, in 1512, Selim, backed by Persian allies, defeated Ahmed, then advanced to Adrianople. With the aid of the Janissaries, he at last compelled Bayazid's abdication. Both Bayazid and Kortud were soon dead—poisoned. Selim pursued Ahmed, who was defeated in battle in 1513. Captured, he was put to death by strangulation. To ensure that he would now rule unopposed, Selim—now Selim I—ordered the deaths of all seven of his nephews, and four of his five sons. He then massacred 40,000 Anatolian Shi'ites to prevent another Turkoman rebellion. With his sultanate secure, Selim could then turn to new conquests.

See also PERSIAN CIVIL WAR (1500–1503); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1514–1516).

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Picador, 2003); Colin Imber, *Ottoman Empire: 1300–1650* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Halil Inalcik, *The Ottoman Empire: The Classical Age, 1300–1600* (London: Phoenix Press, 2001).

Ottoman Civil War (1559)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Son of Süleyman I the Magnificent, Selim vs. his brother, Bayazid
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ottoman Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Ottoman sultanate
OUTCOME: Selim prevailed against Bayazid, who was executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Süleyman I (the Magnificent; 1496–1566), was warned by his favorite wife, Roxelana (d. 1559), that his eldest son, Mustafa (d. 1553), was plotting against him. This was untrue, but the sultan did not pause to investigate; instead, he had Mustafa arrested and beheaded in 1553. This left the sons Süleyman had had by Roxelana in position to inherit the throne; however, upon Roxelana's death, the two young men, Selim (c. 1524–74), and Bayazid (d. 1561), fell to disputing their inheritance. Bayazid raised an army to oppose Selim, Süleyman's favorite. Selim defeated Bayazid at the Battle of Konya in 1559, whereupon Bayazid fled to Persia. Süleyman subsequently authorized Selim to dispatch executioners to Persia and paid Shahtahmasp I (r. 1524–76) to deliver Bayazid into their hands. Bayazid was killed in 1561.

Further reading: Andre Clot: *Suleiman the Magnificent: The Man, His Life, His Epoch* (London: Saqi Books, 1992); Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Picador, 2003); Colin Imber, *Ottoman Empire: 1300–1650* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Halil Inalcik, *The Ottoman Empire: the Classical Age, 1300–1600* (London: Phoenix Press, 2001).

Ottoman Conquest of Bulgaria (1369–1372)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ottoman Turks (principally the Janissary corps) vs. the Bulgarians and Serbs
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bulgaria and Macedonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of eastern Europe
OUTCOME: The Ottomans seized control of Bulgaria and much of Macedonia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Under Murad I (1319–89), the Ottoman Empire pressed a program of invasion and expansion into eastern Europe. The conquest of Bulgaria was accomplished chiefly by the elite corps of troops Murad created. The Janissaries were former Christians who had been captured in childhood and raised as violently fanatic Muslims. Murad harnessed their fanaticism by shaping them into a disciplined body of infantry archers. The Janissary victory at the Battle of Cernomen in 1371 neutralized Serb resistance in the region of the Maritza River and led to the conquest not only of Bulgaria, but Macedonia as well.

Over the next half millennium, the Janissaries would figure as an extremely powerful—and ultimately self-serving—force in Ottoman history.

Further reading: Godfrey Goodwin, *The Janissaries* (London: Saqi Books, 1997); Colin Imber, *Ottoman Empire: 1300–1650* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Halil Inalcik, *The Ottoman Empire: The Classical Age, 1300–1600* (London: Phoenix Press, 2001).

Ottoman-Druse War (1585)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ottoman Turks vs. Lebanese Druse
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lebanon
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottomans sought to suppress rebellion among the Druse.
OUTCOME: The Druse rebellion was suppressed, but, in Lebanon, the Druse remained an important political force.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Islamic sect known as the Druse was small but important during the 16th century. The Ottoman sultan Selim I (1467–1520) sought to placate Druse interests by naming Lebanon's Fakhr ad-Din (d. 1544) emir of the Ottoman Empire's Druse. However, in 1585, the Shi'ite ruler of Tripoli, Yusuf Sayfa (fl. 1580s), led an insurrection against the Ottoman sultan. The rebel forces encompassed a number of religious groups, including Druse led by Korkmaz (1544–85), the son of Fakhr ad-Din. The Ottomans put down the rebellion and executed Korkmaz. He was succeeded first by his uncle and then by Fakhr ad-Din II (1572–1635), grandson of Fakhr ad-Din. Although nominally under Ottoman control, the Druse came to dominate Lebanese politics.

See also MAMLUK-PERSIAN-OTTOMAN WAR (1516–1517).

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Picador, 2003); Colin Imber, *Ottoman Empire: 1300–1650* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003); Halil Inalcik, *The Ottoman Empire: The Classical Age, 1300–1600* (London: Phoenix Press, 2001).

Ottoman-Druse War (1611–1613)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ottoman Empire (through the pasha of Damascus) vs. Fakhr ad-Din II and the Druse of Lebanon
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lebanon
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottoman sultan wanted to punish the Druse for an unauthorized alliance with Tuscany (Holy Roman Empire).
OUTCOME: Fakhr ad-Din was driven into exile.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Druse army, 40,000; pasha's forces were larger
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Fakhr ad-Din II (1572–1635), emir of the Druse in Lebanon, made the Druse dominant in the region. In 1608, when he struck an alliance with Tuscany—effectively an alliance with the Holy Roman Empire—Ottoman sultan Ahmed (1589–1617) ordered the pasha of Damascus to conduct a punitive expedition against the Druse. Fakhr commanded an army of 40,000, a formidable force that readily countered the Ottoman action. The pasha mounted a larger assault in 1613, which defeated the Druse and sent Fakhr fleeing into Tuscan exile. (He returned in 1618 at the invitation of a new sultan, Osman II [1604–22].)

See also AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1591–1606); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1603–1612).

Further reading: M. A. Cook, ed., *A History of the Ottoman Empire to 1730* (Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Picador, 2003); Colin Imber, *Ottoman Empire: 1300–1650* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003).

Ottoman-Druse War (1631–1635)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ottoman Empire vs. the Druse
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lebanon
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Suppression of the Druse
OUTCOME: The Druse were defeated, and their leader, Fakhr ad-Din, executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman forces, 80,000; Druse, 25,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Exiled to Tuscany after the OTTOMAN-DRUSE WAR (1611–1613), Fakhr ad-Din II (1572–1635) returned to Lebanon in 1618, then continued a program of territorial expansion and opposition to the Sublime Porte (the government of the Ottoman Empire). Armed exchanges were taking place by 1631, and, in 1633, Sultan Murad IV (1609–40) sent a major amphibious expedition against the Druse. While Murad's fleet blockaded the coast of Lebanon, an 80,000-man army (made up of Syrians and Egyptians) defeated a Druse army numbering 25,000 men (and consisting of Maronites and mercenary troops in addition to the Druse). Fakhr fled the field and took refuge in the mountains. One of his sons was immediately captured and executed, and Fakhr was captured in 1634 and executed the following year, as were two more of his sons. This brought an end to the war, but not to the Druse presence and influence in the region. As a ruling dynasty (called the Ma'n), the line of Fakhr ad-Din ended in 1697.

See also TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1623–1638).

Further reading: M. A. Cook, ed., *A History of the Ottoman Empire to 1730* (Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Hori-*

zon: A History of the Ottoman Empire (New York: Picador, 2003); Colin Imber, *Ottoman Empire: 1300–1650* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003).

Ottoman-Hapsburg Wars

See AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1537–1547); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1551–1553); AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1566).

Ottoman (Turkish) War with Serbia and Montenegro

See SERBO-TURKISH WAR (1876–1878).

Ottoman-Venetian War over Crete

See CANDIAN WAR (1645–1669).

Otto the Great, Conquests of (942–972)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Otto I vs. various rebels within Germany; Otto vs. the Slavs of middle Europe; Otto vs. the Magyars; Germany vs. France; Germany vs. Italy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Europe and northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Otto I sought to centralize German-speaking Europe and expand his kingdom.
OUTCOME: Otto consolidated the German Reich and gained hegemony over much of Europe.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Lechfeld, Otto led an army of 10,000.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The son of Germany's Henry I (c. 876–936), Otto I (the Great; 912–73) consolidated the German Reich by suppressing rebellious vassals (led by Thanknar, his half brother, and Henry, his younger brother) in the GERMAN CIVIL WARS (938–941) and ultimately by winning a decisive victory against the Hungarians at the battle of Lechfeld in 955 (*see* MAGYAR RAID, GREAT). But Otto's ambition stretched beyond Germany, and even as he was quelling the early rebellions against his reign, he took the time to strengthen and expand his kingdom's frontiers.

In the East, he attacked and defeated the Slavs, consolidating his gains by founding a monastery in Magdeburg in 941 and establishing two bishoprics in 948. In the North, he extended Christendom into Denmark, establishing four bishoprics there by 968. However, an early campaign in Bohemia failed, and it took Otto till 950 to force its prince, Boleslav I (d. 967), to submit and pay tribute.

Otto was then in a position to deny any French claims to Lorraine, which he had taken when be put down the French-backed rebellion of 939 to 941. He also assumed the role of mediator in France's internal struggles. He held a similar sway over Burgundy. In fact, when Burgundian princess Adelaide, the widowed queen of Italy, appealed to him after being taken prisoner by the Lombard prince Berengar (c. 900–966), Otto marched into Italy in 951, declared himself king of the Lombards, and married Adelaide (his first wife having died). Berengar became his vassal for the kingdom of Italy.

Otto was forced to cut his first Italian campaign short when a revolt broke out in Germany in 953. Led by his son Liudolf (930–957), and backed by Conrad (d. 955), duke of Lorraine, and Frederick, bishop of Mainz, the rebellion at first succeeded, forcing Otto to withdraw to Saxony. But the rebellion began to fail when the Magyar invasion allowed Otto to paint the rebels as traitors and enemies of the Reich in league with the invaders. In 955, not only did Otto defeat the Magyars so decisively at Lechfeld that they never invaded again, he also captured the rebel stronghold at Regensburg, ending the rebellion. That year, too, Otto also won another major victory over the Slavs, which he followed with a series of campaigns that, by 960, had forced the utter subjugation of all the Slavs between the middle Elbe and the middle Oder rivers. By 968, even Mieszko (Mieczyslaw I) (c. 930–992), prince of Poland, was paying tribute to the German king.

Meanwhile, Otto's old enemy and former vassal Berengar, free of German interference, was now threatening Rome. Pope John XII (d. 964) appealed to the German king for help. Otto's price was the Holy Roman Empire. When Otto arrived in Rome on February 2, 962, he was crowned emperor, and 11 days later, he and the pope reached an agreement called the *Privilegium Ottoianum,* which regulated relations between emperor and pope and gave the emperor the right to ratify papal elections. Some say this provision was added later by Otto after he deposed John XII in December for treating with Berengar. In any case, Otto replaced John with Leo VIII (d. 965) as pope, then captured Berengar and dragged him back to Germany. In 966, Otto was back in Italy for a third campaign, this time to suppress a revolt by the Romans against his puppet pontiff, Leo VIII. Since Leo had been deposed by Benedict V (d. 966), and had since died, in 972 Otto appointed a new pope, John XIII (d. 972).

Otto consolidated the German Reich and gave it peace and security from foreign attack. Enjoying something approaching hegemony over Europe, Germany under his rule experienced a cultural flowering that some scholars call the "Ottonian renaissance."

See also MAGYAR RAIDS IN FRANCE; MAGYAR RAIDS IN THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE; MAGYAR RAID INTO EUROPE, FIRST.

Further reading: G. Barraclough, *The Origins of Modern Germany* (Oxford: B. Blackwell, 1947); K. J. Leyser, *Rule and Conflict in Early Medieval Society: Ottonian Saxony* (Göttingen: Vandenhoeck and Ruprecht, 1984).

Empire of Otto the Great at the time of his death

P

Pacific War of the (1879–1884)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chile vs. Bolivia and Peru
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Atacama Desert region and adjacent sea
DECLARATION: Chile against Bolivia and Peru, April 5, 1879
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of this nitrate-rich region
OUTCOME: Chile triumphed, winning important portions of the Atacama region from the Peruvian-Bolivian alliance.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Chile fielded as many as 25,000 troops and had a reserve of 50,000; Peru, 9,680 plus 30,000 reserves; Bolivia, 7,959
CASUALTIES: Chile, 3,276 killed, 5,610 wounded; Peru, 9,672 killed, 14,431 wounded; Bolivia, 920 killed, 1,210 wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Ancón (Chile and Peru), October 20, 1883; Treaty of Valparaiso (Chile and Bolivia), April 4, 1884

The War of the Pacific ranks with the PARAGUAYAN WAR as one of the two greatest international conflicts in 19th-century South American history. Here Chile waged war against Peru and Bolivia for control of the guano and nitrate deposits (vital in the manufacture of fertilizer, explosives, and economically important chemicals) found in the Atacama Desert. Although Chile claimed Tacna, Arica, and Tarapacá, and Bolivia Antofagasta, the boundary between the two was uncertain, despite the fact that they had settled on the 24th parallel as the dividing line in 1866. Chilean-financed mining concerns took advantage of the instability. They swarmed into the region, threatening both Peruvian and Bolivian holdings. In response, these two nations signed a secret accord in 1873, pledging to assist one another in defense of their Atacama territory. In 1875, Peru seized the property of Chilean mining companies. Three years later, Bolivia made seizures of its own in 1878. Chile responded in turn. Its president, Aníbal Pinto (1825–84), dispatched 200 troops to take and occupy the port of Antofagasta in February 1879, and on April 5, 1879, Chile declared war on Bolivia and Peru.

The war began at sea, when Chilean warships blockaded Peruvian and Bolivian ports. Peru dispatched its ironclad *Huáscar* to attack the blockading vessels, which it did with considerable success until it was sunk in the Battle of Antofagasta on October 8, 1879. Not only did Peru lose one of its two ironclads, but one of its important naval officers, Admiral Miguel Grau (1838–79), perished along with most of his crew.

After the sinking of the *Huáscar,* the action shifted to land. The Peruvian and Bolivian armies were ill-trained and poorly armed, possessing none of the modern weapons to match those boasted by Chile's well-drilled infantry armed with Gras rifles, its veteran Winchester-toting cavalry, or its formidable artillery, equipped with Krupp and Armstrong field guns and a smattering of Gatlings and Nordenfelts. Thus it was a confident Chilean army that staged a counteroffensive against the combined forces of Peru and Bolivia in the Tarapacá region during the closing months of 1879. Chilean forces took and occupied both Antofagasta and Tarapacá, then invaded Arica and Tacna. These towns would fall to Chile by June 1880.

Bolivia reeled in defeat, but Peru stayed in the fight, determined to regain Tarapacá. However, while this fighting continued, peace negotiations were opened. Chilean leaders took advantage of the ongoing negotiations to increase the pressure on Peru by invading that country, at Pisco, with some 25,000 troops. Outnumbered, the Peruvian defenders fell back, and the Chilean army marched north. At the village of Concepción on June 9–10, 1883, a company of 77 Chileans went down bravely fighting some 1,800 Peruvians in a battle that came to represent for Chile what the Alamo represented for Texans or Thermopylae for the Greeks. More determined than ever, the Chilean soldiers redoubled their efforts, the Peruvian resistance collapsed, and the government itself tottered. On December 17, 1879, Peru's capital, Lima, fell. It proved a decapitating blow. A cease-fire was declared, and, on October 20, 1883, Peru and Chile concluded the Treaty of Ancón, by which Peru ceded Tarapacá to Chile. Peru was to retain Tacna and Arica for a period of 10 years, after which possession would be decided by plebiscite. On April 4, 1884, Chile and Bolivia concluded the Treaty of Valparaiso, by which Bolivia ceded to Chile the city and the province of Antofagasta. Diplomatic wrangling delayed formal implementation of these terms for many years, until 1904.

See also CHACO WAR.

Further reading: Robert N. Burr, *By Reason or Force: Chile and the Balancing of Power in South America, 1830–1905* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1965); Bruce W. Farcau, *The Ten Cents War: Chile, Peru, and Bolivia in the War of the Pacific, 1879–1884* (New York: Praeger, 2000).

Padri War (1821–1837)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Padri Muslim reformers vs. various leaders in Minangkabau, Sumatra, and Dutch colonial forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Minangkabau, Sumatra
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Suppression of the Padri
OUTCOME: After a long (15-year) siege, the major Padri stronghold fell, and the Padri surrendered; guerrilla warfare continued sporadically.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Padri were fundamentalist Islamic reformers who essentially forced their beliefs on the Muslims of Minangkabau, Sumatra, during the early 19th century. Local chiefs rebelled against the Padris but failed to suppress them. The local leaders appealed to Dutch trade and colonial interests in Java for aid. Seeing the fanatical Padris as a threat to Dutch interests in the region, the Dutch intervened in the conflict and mounted a 15-year siege against the Padri fortress-city of Bondjol. Although the city finally fell in 1837, bringing the main phase of the war to an end, many Padri dispersed into the mountains, from which they continued to wage sporadic guerrilla warfare against the Dutch as well as non-Padri natives.

The conflict was also known as the Minangkabau War.

See also JAVA WAR, GREAT; NANING WAR.

Further reading: Barbara Watson Andaya, *To Live as Brothers: Southeastern Sumatra in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1993); Edwin M. Loeb, *Sumatra* (New York: University of Oxford Press, 1990).

Pahang Civil War (1857–1863)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rival claimants to the throne of Pahang, each with foreign allies (mainly Britain and Siam)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pahang, Malaya
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Pahang sultanate
OUTCOME: The war ended with the death (from natural causes) of one of the two claimants to the throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Two rival brothers claimed the throne of the Malay state of Pahang after the death of their father, Sultan Bendahara Tun Ali in 1857. The rival claims erupted into war, in which the older brother, Tun Mutahir (d. 1863), found support from Johore, a neighboring sultanate, and from the British, who were attempting to achieve colonial domination of Malaya. The younger claimant, Wan Ahmad (fl. 1860s), was aided by the Trengganu sultanate and by the Siamese, who were opposed to the British. In effect, Britain and Siam used the war as a pretext for fighting one another for dominance in Malaya.

The war consisted mainly of hit-and-run raids, ambushes, and skirmishes, with occasional assaults on fortified positions. British naval vessels destroyed a Siamese fleet in 1862, which drew the war close to a conclusion. When Tun Mutahir died in 1863, the cause of war died with him, and Wan Ahmad was recognized as the new sultan.

Further reading: Barbara Watson Andaya, *A History of Malaysia* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 2001);

William R. Roff, *The Origins of Malay Nationalism* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1967).

Paiute War (Pyramid Lake War) (1860)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Local miners and the United States vs. the Paiute Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Comstock mining region of Nevada
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When local miners raped two Paiute women, the Indians sought revenge by attacking a trading post; the miners sent a force to exact their revenge for the raid but fell victim to an ambush; the U.S. Army was sent in to punish the Paiutes.
OUTCOME: The army skirmished with a small Paiute force, killing 25 Indians and bringing the war to a close, afterward establishing Fort Churchill to protect overland trails through Nevada to California.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 105 miners; 800 U.S. Army regulars and volunteers; Paiutes, unknown
CASUALTIES: 100 soldiers and civilians; 25 Indians
TREATIES: None

The last significant Indian-white conflict before the U.S. Civil War was between Nevada miners and the Southern Paiutes. Williams Station was one of two trading posts in the Carson Valley along the California Trail. The station served the Central Overland Mail and the Pony Express and was a vital link to the outside world for the miners of Carson City, Virginia City, Gold Hill, and Genoa. Early in May 1860, traders at Williams Station abducted and raped two young Indian women. The Southern Paiutes, already resentful of white intrusions into their lands, were moved to revenge. A party of Indian soldiers rode to the station, rescued the two girls, then burned the station and killed five whites.

Word of the "massacre" reached Virginia City's Wells Fargo office on May 8. Anticipating a major Indian attack, a large and rowdy "army" of miners—perhaps as many as 2,000 men—immediately assembled. The miners telegraphed the governor of California asking for arms. As quickly as they banded together, the miners, totally undisciplined and thoroughly disorganized, dispersed. A miner named Henry Meredith organized and armed a new force drawn from the mining towns. At Dayton, Nevada, Meredith's men were joined by Major William M. Ormsby (d. 1860) and a group from Carson City. Ormsby now assumed command of the combined force of 105 men, which made its way to Pyramid Lake in Paiute country—not merely to defend the mining towns but also to exact revenge.

The Paiute chief Numaga (d. 1871) had hoped to avoid further violence, but he realized that the miners would be satisfied with nothing less than blood. He set up an ambush at the Big Bend of the Truckee River valley. In the narrow pass, about four in the afternoon of May 12, the trap was sprung. It was deadly and effective. The Paiutes' poison-tipped arrows accounted for 46 fatalities—almost half the force that had been organized against them.

The Comstock country was thrown into a panic, but the governor of California responded with troops under the command of Colonel Jack Hayes (d. 1883), a former Texas Ranger. A small body of U.S. infantry regulars out of the Presidio in San Francisco, together with some local volunteer groups, brought the force to about 800 men, who headed toward the Truckee at the end of May. The force encountered a few Paiutes near the site of the original ambush and, after a skirmish, pursued the Indians to Pinnacle Mountain, killing about 25 Paiute soldiers. The short-lived Paiute War was over, but to ensure the peace and keep the California Trail open, the U.S. Army established Fort Churchill near Buckland Station.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Ferol Egan and Richard Dillon, *Sand in a Whirlwind: The Paiute Indian War of 1860* (Reno: University of Nevada Press, 2002); Sessions S. Wheeler, *Paiute* (Reno: University of Nevada Press, 1996).

Pakistani Civil War (1971)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: West Pakistan vs. East Pakistan (Bangladesh), with aid from India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): East Pakistan (Bangladesh)
DECLARATION: Bangladesh declared independence on March 26, 1971.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: East Pakistan wanted independence as Bangladesh.
OUTCOME: Bangladesh achieved independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Pakistan, 60,000; Bangladesh and India, the numbers are unknown, but they are much larger.
CASUALTIES: Pakistan, heavy casualties and many prisoners; Bangladesh, hundreds of thousands of civilians killed, 10 million refugees created
TREATIES: Treaty of Friendship and Peace between India and Bangladesh, March 19, 1972; no formal peace treaty between Pakistan and Bangladesh

By the mid-1960s, a strong independence movement gathered momentum in East Pakistan. Although this region accounted for some 75 percent of Pakistan's foreign trade, West Pakistan remained politically dominant, and the East received disproportionately less representation in government and far fewer economic benefits. Riots broke out in

East Pakistan during 1968 and 1969, prompting the new Pakistani president, General Agha Muhammad Yahya Khan (1907–74), to call for a vote for a national assembly. Held in December 1970, these were Pakistan's first general elections held by Pakistan since independence in 1947. The Awami League—an organization calling for the independence of eastern Pakistan and headed by the popular Bengali leader Sheikh Mujib Rahman (1920–75)—won a majority in the new assembly. Yahya Khan promptly refused to honor the outcome, first by postponing the assembly, then by cancelling the result of the elections.

This, predictably, triggered civil war, beginning with a general strike throughout East Pakistan and the withholding of all taxes. The Pakistani president then declared martial law and sent 60,000 troops into East Pakistan. Negotiations between the East and West quickly broke down at the end of March 1971, after Mujib demanded virtual independence for East Pakistan. Instead, Yahya Khan ordered a military massacre in Dacca. When Yahya Khan had Mujib arrested and flown to prison in West Pakistan, the Bengali firebrand called upon his followers in the East to rise up and proclaim their independence as "Bangladesh," which translates into English as "Land of the Bengalis." Demonstrations and riots followed, and Pakistani troops, on March 25, 1971, fired on civilians —students in dormitories and people in crowded marketplaces—prompting Bangladesh to declare its independence on March 26.

The declaration unleashed the full force of the Pakistani army in the region. Troops rounded up and killed hundreds of thousands of Bangladeshi "rebels" and sent some 10 million terrified refugees fleeing Bangladesh for the neighboring Indian state of West Bengal. This refugee crisis, in turn, became the basis for the INDO-PAKISTANI WAR (1971), as Pakistan attacked the Indian-held portion of Kashmir on December 3.

The attack on India was ill-advised. When the monsoon season had passed, India's army moved quickly up to the Bangladesh border. By early December the Indians had advanced virtually unopposed to Dacca. Pakistan surrendered the city in mid-December 1971. Yahya Khan resigned in disgrace and was replaced by Zulfikar Ali Bhutto (b. 1921), who ordered the release of Sheik Mujib, who flew home to a hero's welcome. In January 1972, he became the first prime minister of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, but it was not until 1973 that a prisoner of war exchange was concluded between Pakistan and Bangladesh. A year later, Pakistan formally recognized the independence of the nation.

Meanwhile, India's stunning victory over Pakistan in the Bangladesh war was achieved in part due to Soviet support, and—with the birth of Bangladesh—India came to dominate South Asia and its foreign policy. Officially nonaligned, it tilted toward the Soviet Union, which led the United States to veer toward supporting Pakistan. Belatedly the United States sent a nuclear-armed carrier from its Pacific Fleet to the Bay of Bengal, ostensibly to evacuate civilians from Dacca. Instead it only stirred up the dangerous cold war stew by provoking a nuclear arms race between India and Pakistan.

Further reading: Craig Baxter, *Bangladesh: From a Nation to a State* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1997); D. K. Palit, *The Lightning Campaign: The Indo-Pakistan War of 1971* (New Delhi: Thomson Press [India], 1972); Richard Sisson, *War and Secession: Pakistan, India, and the Creation of Bangladesh* (reprint, Berkeley: University of California Press, 1991).

Palan Wars (800–1025)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pala dynasty vs. various Indian states (especially the Rashtrakutas, the Rajput alliance, and the Cholas)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pala expansion
OUTCOME: The Pala were unable to establish permanent expansion of their empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

The Palan Wars encompass a long period of violent chaos in northern India following the failure of Harsha Vardhana (c. 590–c. 647) to revive the Gupta Empire, which disintegrated during the CHALUKYAN WAR AGAINST HARSHA in 620. Over the years, many of the small Indian states that broke away from the Gupta Empire expanded, leading to many conflicts.

One of the most aggressive of the breakaway kingdoms was Bengal under the Pala dynasty. Between 800 and 1025, the Palas made three major attempts to expand west, meeting with ultimate defeat each time. Under Dharmapala (fl. 770–810), the Palas reached Harsha's former capital, Kannauj, but were met there by the Rashtrakutas, who checked the advance. In the ninth century, Devapala (fl. 810–850), who succeeded Dharmapala, attempted to assert rights to the Deccan and mounted a campaign along the Narmada River. Once again, the Rashtrakutas checked the Pala advance.

In the Rajput, a number of states leagued against the Palas to counter their activity along the Ganges. The army of this alliance marched into Bengal in 916, which neutralized Palan expansionism until the early 11th-century reign of Mahipala (fl. 988–1038). Under his leadership, the Pala dynasty pushed its influence as far west as Benares and south along the east coast of the subcontinent. The latter advance brought the Palas into conflict with the Cholas, who, beginning in 1021, mounted a

strong military campaign against the invaders. By 1025, the Cholas had entered Bengal, dealt Mahipala a strong defeat, and sent the Pala dynasty into a sharp decline.

See also MUHAMMAD OF GHUR, CONQUESTS OF.

Further reading: Jhunu Bagchi, *The History and Culture of the Palas of Bengal and Bihar* (c. 750 A.D.–c. 1200 A.D.) (New Delhi: Abhinav Publications, 1993); R. C. Majumdar, *The History of Bengal* (Ramna, Dacca: University of Dacca, 1963).

Palestinian Guerrilla War (c. 1960s–ongoing)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Palestinian guerrillas (especially Palestine Liberation Organization, or PLO) vs. Israel
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Israeli territory, West Bank, Gaza, and various international locations of terrorist attacks
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Palestinian self-rule; Palestinian possession of territory; Palestinian challenge to the right of Israel to exist
OUTCOME: Violence continues as of January 2004 despite two important peace accords.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: In the tens of thousands, mostly among Palestinians
TREATIES: PLO-Israel Accord, September 13, 1993; Wye River Memorandum, October 28, 1998

Until 1988, Palestine did not exist as an independent state, but was a loosely constituted political entity consisting of Muslims who had been, in effect, internally displaced by the creation of the State of Israel. Beginning in the 1960s, various Palestinian organizations, primarily the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine (PFLP, a Marxist organization) and, even more centrally, Al Fatah, led by Yasser Arafat (b. 1929), launched a low-level but persistent guerrilla war and program of terrorism against Israel. In military terms, the actions of the Palestinians might best be characterized as guerrilla raids.

In 1964, Arafat emerged as the most highly visible of the Palestinian leaders—although he by no means had full control of the people—and formed the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO). Five years later, Arafat became chairman of the organization.

The PLO seemed to gear its program of attacks to the lulls between the more formal wars between Arabs and Israelis during the 1960s and early 1970s. PLO terror tactics included rocket attacks on markets and other civilian public places, assassinations, raids on Israeli schools, and attacks on transport buses. The PLO guerrillas based their operations variously in Syria, then Jordan, and, for much of the 1970s and early 1980s, war-torn Lebanon.

PLO and PLO-backed actions were not directed solely against the territory of Israel. The organization engaged in international terrorism, as when the so-called Black September group hijacked commercial airliners during September 6–9, 1970, taking 435 hostages to Amman. Most infamous were the PLO attacks at the 1972 Olympics in Munich, in which 11 Israeli athletes were taken captive and killed.

As a result of the LEBANESE CIVIL WAR (1975–92), the PLO was forced out of Lebanon in 1983, and the group became less effective and less capable of applying a steady program of raids. After a period of relative quiescence, however, Palestinians living in Israeli-controlled Gaza staged massive riots against Israeli troops and paramilitary police in 1987. The violence spread to other Israeli-occupied territories, and, emboldened, the PLO proclaimed an independent state of Palestine in 1988. At this point, Israel granted Palestine a nominal—and quite limited—diplomatic recognition, and the United States followed suit.

This did not bring an end to the violence, which shifted to the West Bank and Gaza. In a campaign of popular Palestinian uprisings known as the Intifada, the PLO orchestrated battles with Israeli troops during 1989 and 1990. These were one-sided affairs, which resulted in the wounding and death of many Palestinians—all of whom were regarded as martyrs to the cause. Moreover, against this backdrop of continual violence, both the Israeli government and the Palestinian leadership showed an unprecedented willingness to come to a modus vivendi. In 1993 agreements brokered by the U.S. government and, personally, by President Bill Clinton (b. 1946), Israel and Palestine concluded peace accords. Whereas Israel agreed to accept the PLO as the representative government of Palestine, the PLO retracted its adamantly held objective of destroying Israel and now conceded the right of Israel to exist. In 1994 and 1995, the Palestinians were given a significant measure of self-rule on the West Bank and in Gaza.

There was an aura of hope during this period, but among many Palestinians as well as Israelis, there was also a backlash and resistance to the peace process. In 1996, Israelis elected right-wing candidate Benjamin Netanyahu (b. 1949) as prime minister. His hard line provoked new clashes between Israeli troops and Palestinians in the fall of 1996. In 1998, President Clinton brought the Israelis and Palestinians to Wye River, Maryland, to negotiate further peace terms. Israel agreed to cede additional territory in return for various U.S.-backed security guarantees. Feeling some political heat from home and abroad, Netanyahu signed the Wye River Memorandum, but when the peace process nevertheless faltered, he lost the next election on May 19, 1999, to Labor Party leader Ehud Barak (b. 1942). Barak had campaigned on a platform of bringing an end to Israel's conflicts with all its neighbors—Syria and Lebanon, for example—in addition to the Palestinians. On September 5, 1999, Israel and the

Palestinian Authority agreed to a new, revised deal on the stalled Wye River accord, hoping to revive the Middle East peace process. On November 8, 1999, they resumed "final status" talks.

In February 2000, a summit between Barak and Arafat fell apart over the promised Israeli withdrawal from the West Bank under the revised Wye accord, new deadlines were missed, and the "final status" negotiations deadlocked. Regardless of disagreements on the final stages of peace, however, in March Israel did indeed hand over part of the West Bank to Palestinians as part of a land transfer agreed to at Wye River back in 1998. Then, in May 2000, Israel unilaterally withdrew from the area of Lebanon it had been occupying since 1982. The seesaw swung the other way in July, when a peace summit at Camp David foundered on competing claims to Jerusalem and the issue of Palestinian refugees. By October, President Clinton had helped patch up matters some, presiding over yet another summit at the Egyptian resort of Sharm el-Sheikh, where the attendees announced a cease-fire and plans to bring an end to the Palestinian-Israeli violence. No sooner was the cease-fire created than it came undone, and Barak—feeling the need to seek a mandate to see the process through—stepped down and called for new elections on December 10.

Instead of a mandate, he lost the election to Likud Party candidate Ariel Sharon (b. 1928) by 20 percentage points. Sharon campaigned on a platform calling for "Peace with Security," and promised that he would take a different approach to the Palestinian conflict, which most read as a conservative attempt to turn back the clock. The Palestinians, who disliked Sharon for his harsh policies in Israel's 1982 invasion of Lebanon and distrusted him because of his outspoken support of Israel's settlement activity, soon raised the stakes with a wave of "suicide" attacks.

Then on February 14, 2001, following the deaths of eight soldiers and civilians killed when a Palestinian bus driver ploughed his vehicle into a waiting line of passengers, Israel reimposed a total blockade on the occupied territories. By the time Ariel Sharon formally took office on March 7, his fragile seven-party coalition included veteran Labor leader Shimon Peres (b. 1923) as foreign minister. Peres had persuaded his party to join Sharon's right-wing government in the name of national unity. A month later, a more united Israel was ready to respond to the newest wave of Palestinian "terrorism." In April, Israeli troops seized territory controlled by the Palestinians for the first time since the start of the Oslo peace process, taking the Gaza Strip and dividing its territory into three parts. The United States responded by setting up a commission under former U.S. senator George Mitchell (b. 1933) to explore the new deadlock and look for ways around it. In May, the Mitchell Commission called for an immediate cease-fire, to be followed by confidence-building measures and ultimately by renewed peace negotiations.

Tellingly, Mitchell also called for a freeze on expansion of Jewish settlements in the occupied territories about the same time that the European Union accused Israel of employing "disproportionate" force in the occupied territories and called for the dismantling of Jewish settlements in the West Bank and Gaza Strip. But the world pressure on Israel was immediately undermined when a suicide bomber killed 19 young Israelis at a nightclub in Tel Aviv. With the pressure now reversed, Arafat ordered his forces in the occupied territories to enforce a cease-fire.

But Israel was having none of it. On July 4, 2001, the Israeli security cabinet voted to give the Israeli Defense Forces (IDF) a broader license to target Palestinian terrorists, permitting their assassination anywhere and anytime they could be found, rather than, as formerly, only when they were on the verge of committing an attack. "Targeted assassination" was the Israeli policy response to suicide bombing, although it was attacked by the Palestinians as extrajudicial execution, a war crime under Geneva conventions.

On August 10, in retaliation for a Hamas-sponsored suicide bombing in Jerusalem the day before, Israeli war planes destroyed the headquarters of the Palestinian police in the West Bank city of Ramallah. Israeli Special Forces also seized the offices of the Palestine Liberation Organization at Orient House in East Jerusalem. Several days later, Israeli tanks moved into the West Bank city of Jenin and opened fire on the Palestinian police station, utterly destroying it. This, the biggest incursion into Palestinian-controlled territory since 1994, was roundly criticized by Washington, which was increasingly coming under international pressure to step up its intermediary role in the region.

Regardless of U.S. desires, on August 28, 2001, Israeli troops moved into the West Bank town of Beit Jala, near the southern outskirts of Jerusalem, and both the United States and Britain strongly condemned the Israeli action. Throughout the late summer and fall, Israel occupied major Palestinian cities for various lengths of time, including Jericho, Ramallah and Tulkarm.

Then came the terrorist attacks on New York and Washington, D.C., on September 11, and the Bush administration began to manifest a much greater interest in bringing Israel and the Palestinians to negotiations, partly in response to requests from Arab and Muslim governments that were, many quite reluctantly, supporting the UNITED STATES WAR ON TERRORISM. Also, it was clear that that war could be more effectively fought if the Palestinian cause were removed as a justification for terror by Muslim extremists. On October 2, George W. Bush (b. 1946) announced a dramatic break with his administration's previous Middle East policy by stating that he was prepared to back the creation of a Palestinian state, and U.S. secretary of state Colin Powell (b. 1937) spearheaded a new American initiative, which—as it turned out—involved

the removal of Yasser Arafat as the only spokesman for the Palestinian cause. Thus, even though the Israeli-Palestinian conflict escalated once more after the October 17, 2001, assassination of the Israeli hard-line minister of tourism Rehavam Zeevi (1926–2001) by Palestinian militants, there was ample evidence of a renewed Israeli interest in peace talks in the two years following.

As of 2004, the seesaw violence between terrorist attack and brutal reprisal continued, as did the peace initiatives. However much the United States may have been determined to solve the long intractable problems of the Arab-Israeli conflict in the wake of 9/11, it had yet to find the key.

See also ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1948–1949); ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1956); ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1967); ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1973).

Further reading: Reuters, *The Israeli-Palestinian Conflict: Crisis in the Middle East* (New York: Reuters Prentice Hall, 2002); Charles D. Smith, *Palestine and the Arab-Israeli Conflict,* 3rd ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1996); Mark A. Tessler, *A History of the Israel: Palestinian Conflict* (South Bend: Indiana University Press, 1994).

Panama Invasion

See UNITED STATES INVASION OF PANAMA ("OPERATION JUST CAUSE") (1989).

Panamanian Revolution (1903)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Panama (with U.S. backing) vs. Colombia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Panama
DECLARATION: Panamanian Declaration of Independence, November 3, 1903
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: U.S.-backed parties with an interest in building a canal across the Isthmus of Panama fomented a revolt in Colombia that led to the declaration of an independent Republic of Panama, ready to comply with American plans for the canal.
OUTCOME: Panama achieved independence and U.S. recognition; the United States gained the rights to build and administer the Panama Canal.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty (also called the Panama Canal Treaty) of November 18, 1903

For centuries Europeans had dreamed of joining the Atlantic and Pacific oceans by cutting a canal through the Isthmus of Panama, which separates the Caribbean Sea from the Pacific. The United States did not begin to take the idea seriously until after the UNITED STATES–MEXICAN WAR. In 1848, the United States negotiated an agreement with New Granada (a nation consisting of present-day Panama and Colombia) for rights of transit in exchange for a guarantee of New Granada's sovereignty over the isthmus province. The 1849 California gold rush, which sent tens of thousands of easterners west, prompted the United States to fund the Panama Railroad across the isthmus, but the ultimate dream remained a canal.

Meanwhile, U.S. diplomats—influenced by speculators such as railroad magnate Cornelius Vanderbilt (1794–1877) and adventurers such as famed filibuster William Walker (1824–60)—had become mired in the affairs of the tiny and politically volatile Republic of Nicaragua, which a number of them saw as being every bit as promising a site as Panama for an interocean canal. Here, however, the Americans were in competition with Britain, whose world trade, transoceanic navy, and numerous colonies ensured that she also was keenly interested in such a canal. London had kept close watch on U.S. ambitions in Central America, and attempted to establish a political beachhead at the mouth of the San Juan River, the most likely terminus for a Nicaraguan canal, by claiming a protectorate of the Miskito Indians on Nicaragua's east coast. This set off alarms within the U.S. foreign policy community, and the two countries exchanged diplomatic notes warning they would not permit the other exclusive control over a canal through the isthmus. In 1850 the British minister to the United States, Sir Henry Lytton Bulwer (1801–72), and Zachary Taylor's (1784–1850) secretary of state, John Clayton (1796–1856), got together and agreed to terms in a treaty settling the dispute. The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty provided that any canal built through either Panama or Nicaragua would be unfortified, neutral during war, and open to shipping from any country on equal terms, and that neither the United States nor Great Britain was to colonize or try to establish dominion over any part of Central America.

The treaty was ratified by the U.S. Senate and remained in force for half a century, but it was never very popular. Britain only made matters worse when it maintained that the treaty was not retroactive—meaning it still got to keep its protectorate over the Mosquito Coast. The Americans responded in typical fashion—Tennessee filibuster William Walker led an expedition to Nicaragua in 1855 and took over the country (*see* WALKER'S INVASION OF NICARAGUA). He was soon driven out, but not by the British. Cornelius Vanderbilt had at first given Walker clandestine support to take control of the isthmus across which he planned to build his own railroad. When Walker instead assumed power, Vanderbilt became the driving force behind his removal. Despite the brouhaha, what the treaty said was ultimately not of much importance. Until someone actually tried to build a canal—and negotiated the rights to do so—the impact of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty was academic.

Decades later, a French firm under the direction of the brilliant Ferdinand de Lesseps (1805–94) did indeed

negotiate the necessary rights with New Granada to build a canal across the Isthmus of Panama. The firm began construction in 1881 but went bankrupt in short order. The project was taken over by the reorganized New Panama Canal Company (officially, the Compagnie Universelle du Canal Interocéanique) which hired another French engineer, Philippe Bunau-Varilla (1860–1940) in 1884 to oversee completion. Bunau-Varilla fared no better than his predecessor, and by 1880 the French Panama canal project had clearly failed. Bunau-Varilla approached the United States with an offer to sell the rights to build the canal, but got no takers. Then, in the flush of victory after the 1898 SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR (and encouraged, after 1901, by the expansionist president Theodore Roosevelt [1858–1919]), who had played a prominent role in that war), the United States persuaded Great Britain to relinquish its claims to share control of a Central American canal. The treaty, which had been negotiated in 1899 and 1901 by the U.S. secretary of state John Hay (1838–1905) and Baron Julian Pauncefote (1828–1902) of Preston, British ambassador to the United States, had been amended by the Senate in 1900, and was rejected by the British. The second version of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, which the British government accepted and which the Senate ratified in December 1901, superseded the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and gave the United States the right to construct and fully control an isthmian canal in Central America. It retained, at least nominally, the principle of neutrality under the sole guarantee of the United States and provided that the canal would be open to ships of all nations on equal terms, but it omitted a clause contained in the first draft that, following Clayton-Bulwer, had forbidden fortifications.

Before the treaty was passed, however, an American commission of experts authorized by Congress in 1901 and advised by Bunau-Varilla had come to prefer a lock canal through Panama. This, argued the commission, would provide the cheapest and shortest route between the two U.S. coasts, over the original plan to build the canal in Nicaragua, whose Mosquito Coast—and British protection of that coast—had been behind the controversy that led to Clayton-Bulwer in the first place. Accordingly, in June 1902, Congress directed the president to negotiate with Colombia the acquisition of a strip of land in Panama after the New Panama Canal Company, successors to de Lesseps's defunct firm, agreed to a reasonable timetable and reasonable terms for selling the United States its titles and equities in the area. Rather than the original asking price of $109 million for this right-of-way, the French company took the $40 million at which the American commission had valued their holdings.

Roosevelt then pressed Colombia, which had jurisdiction over New Granada, to surrender control over the 10-mile-strip of land in return for a $10 million cash payment and annual rent of $250,000. These were the terms negotiated by the U.S. secretary of state John Hay and Colombian foreign minister Tomas Herrán (1843–1904) and presented to both the U.S. and the Colombian senates. Early in 1902, the Congress authorized construction and the next year ratified the Hay-Herrán Treaty. The Colombian Senate, however, delayed ratification in the hope of increasing the price offered by the United States and, in the end, on August 12, 1903, refused to ratify the treaty—not only because of dissatisfaction with the financial terms but also in response to a popular movement to resist "Yankee imperialism" and popular objections to relinquishing a significant measure of national sovereignty. Faced with Colombian intransigence, an outraged Roosevelt called the new financial demands—reasonable enough from the Colombians' point of view—"blackmail" and let it be known privately to those interests backing the canal that he would smile upon an insurrection in Panama.

To the surprise of few, an insurrection did indeed occur in 1903; and if one had not, President Roosevelt would have been fully prepared to ask Congress for the authority to seize the zone from Colombia. The ubiquitous Bunau-Varilla helped organize the revolt. He cooperated with a group of railway workers, firemen, and soldiers at Colón, Panama, in an uprising during November 3–4. The rebels proclaimed Panamanian independence, and, just offshore, the U.S. Navy cruiser *Nashville* prevented an attempt by Colombian general Rafael Reyes (c. 1850–1918) to land troops intended to quell the rebellion. Immediately after this action, on November 6, President Roosevelt recognized the newly independent Republic of Panama and then received Bunau-Varilla as its first foreign minister. He and Secretary of State Hay concluded the Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty on November 18, which provided for the acquisition of a canal zone and the right to build and control a canal in exchange for the same monetary terms that had been offered Colombia. Called officially the "Convention for the Construction of a Ship Canal," the treaty was ratified in 1904.

Afterward Teddy Roosevelt often boasted that he "took Panama," and most Americans, certainly the American elite, at the time not only condoned but applauded his behavior. Nevertheless—in the eyes of much of Europe, some Americans, all Colombians, many in Latin America, and any number of historians since—the episode was a national disgrace. Some hinted at scandal, and the agents of the French Panama Canal Company, anxious to dump their worthless stock, had surely influenced the State Department and a number of members of Congress to adopt their favorable view of the Panama route. When the time came, those agents just as surely had helped stir up the Panamanian revolution.

Roosevelt personally had no stake in their game, and he probably could not have cared less about the ethics of their actions in pursuit of profit, but he was no less ruthless than they in pushing what he perceived as America's national interest, and he was certainly much better than

they at persuading primarily himself but also many others of the righteousness of his cause in stamping out lawlessness in Colombia and disorder in Panama. Thus did "stability" become a watchword for American imperialism in Latin America.

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Pan Chao's Central Asia Campaigns (73–102)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chinese forces of Pan Chao (Pinyin: Ban Zhao) vs. the tribes of Turkistan and the Kushan kingdom
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Turkistan and the region of the Hindu Kush
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Pan Chao's brilliant campaign extended Chinese control into Turkistan and the region between the Hindu Kush and the Aral Sea; it is possible that control was pushed as far as the eastern shore of the Caspian.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown, but the proportions of Pan Chao's army were certainly modest.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Tribute pledge from the Kushans, about 90 C.E.

One of the most celebrated generals in Chinese military history, Pan Chao (32–102) first proved himself as a subordinate in campaigns against the Xiongnu (Hsiung-nu). After this, he was given command of a modest army and sent into the southwest, where he conquered the Tarim Basin, encompassing eastern Turkistan. This accomplished, he marched over the Tian (Tien) Shan Mountains into the western reaches of Turkistan. Here he fought and suppressed a host of nomadic tribes, sweeping through the vast region lying between the Hindu Kush and the Aral Sea. The nomads yielded to Chinese suzerainty.

Having built a power base among the nomadic tribes of Turkistan, Pan Chao carried battle to the formidable Kushans, who, around 90 C.E., agreed to send annual tribute to China.

It is a certainty that advance elements of Pan Chao's army reached as far as the eastern shore of the Caspian; whether the general actually imposed Chinese control this far is not known.

Further reading: Myra Immell, *The Han Dynasty* (San Diego: Lucent Books, 2003).

Pannonian Revolts (6–9 C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Roman legions vs. Pannonian rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pannonia (Hungary)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Romans sought to put down a Pannonian uprising and assert firm control of Pannonia as a frontier province of the Roman Empire.
OUTCOME: By means of a patient, systematic campaign of attrition, the Romans established suzerainty over the Pannonian rebels.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The era of the great Pax Romana was not altogether peaceful. Rome faced revolts among the conquered people of northern and eastern Europe, notably in Pannonia (Hungary). Here, for three years, violent uprisings prompted Tiberius (42 B.C.E.–37 C.E.) to break off his campaigning in Germania (Germany)—he left some legions there under the command of his legate, P. Quintilius Varus (d. 9 C.E.)—and rush to the Danube.

Tiberius understood that his legions possessed a weapon superior to any that the Pannonian tribes, no matter how fierce, commanded. His army was highly disciplined, patient, and as willing to expend time and effort as blood. Accordingly, he led his legions in gradual, methodical operations against the Pannonian rebels. By 9 C.E., the Romans had worn down the rebellion. There were no spectacular battles, no great victories, just journeyman military work leading to the attrition of the enemy. Both upper Pannonia and Moesia became firm provinces on the vast Roman frontier.

See also ROMAN NORTHERN FRONTIER WARS.

Further reading: András Mócsy, *Pannonia and Upper Moesia: A History of the Middle Danube Provinces of the Roman Empire* (London, Boston: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1974); Pavel Oliva, *Pannonia and the Onset of Crisis in the Roman Empire* (Prague: Ceskoslovenské akademie ved, 1962).

Papacy–Holy Roman Empire Wars

See HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE–PAPACY WAR (1081–1084); HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE–PAPACY WAR (1228–1241); HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE–PAPACY WAR (1243–1250).

Papineau's Rebellion (1837)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French-Canadian rebels vs. Canada
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Montreal vicinity
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The French-Canadians sought an end to British domination of Quebec.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quickly extinguished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Numbers not known, but casualties were light.
TREATIES: None

After the WAR OF 1812, political unrest spread through Canada, some of it as a result of Canada's 1791 constitution, but much of it a result of resentment toward the country's ruling elites—the so-called Family Compact in Upper Canada (southern Ontario) and the Château Clique in Lower Canada (southern and eastern Quebec). The wealthy members of the Family Compact modeled themselves on England's landed gentry, while the Château Clique consisted in the main of merchants, bankers, and shipping magnates. Colonial oligarchies formed the inner circle of government, shared religious and cultural ties, and married among themselves as a matter of course. Coming from the same circles, they not surprisingly chased similar social, economic, and political aims, and so they quite naturally supported each other politically. In Upper Canada the Family Compact used its political power to attempt to create a class-ordered society on the British model, and the tensions caused by its land hunger led to MACKENZIE'S REBELLION. In Lower Canada, the situation was more nuanced.

The Château Clique sought to spend liberally the tax monies raised by the French-Canadian–dominated legislature to improve the colony's infrastructure, thereby improving commerce and further enriching members of the Clique, which threatened the standing of the more traditional French-speaking and Roman Catholic majority. Indeed, these French *habitants* soon became convinced that the English-speaking, Protestant Château Clique aimed to destroy their way of life. In many ways, they were right: since the turn of the century, the French Canadian standard of living, especially in rural areas, had fallen dramatically as grain prices steadily dropped with, it seemed, no hope of recovery. At the same time, the British colonial regime had heavily increased the habitants' seigniorial dues. Their strong resentment of the ever-growing number of non-French immigrants exploded into riots when Montreal was hit by cholera and typhoid epidemics, and soon the resentment spread to open rebellion.

The habitants were represented in the colonial assembly by the Parti Canadien (later called the Parti Patriote), and this was headed by Louis-Joseph Papineau (1786–1871). Farmers made up the majority of the rebels, farmers from the parishes to the west and south of Montreal, and they first took up arms when the government moved to arrest leading members of the Parti Patriote, including Papineau. When Papineau and others fled to the countryside, the governor sent troops to arrest them. The first battle was fought in November at St. Denis, near Montreal; the government forces were repelled. But the rebels were defeated in subsequent battles at St. Charles and St. Eustache, and Papineau was forced to flee to the United States to escape arrest and a charge of treason. The rebels tried unsuccessfully to renew the fighting in the months that followed, but in 1839 Papineau took flight aboard a ship for France. Papineau eventually returned to Canada after he was pardoned in 1845, but a number of his followers were jailed, executed, or deported to Australia.

Further reading: J. M. S. Careless, ed., *Colonists & Canadiens, 1760–1867* (Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1971).

Paraguayan Civil War (1947)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Liberal Febrerista party vs. government of Higinio Morínigo
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paraguay
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The liberals sought to overthrow the nation's military dictatorship.
OUTCOME: The civil war was quickly over and the Febreristas crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

General José Felix Estigarribia, architect of Paraguay's military strategy in the CHACO WAR with Bolivia, was elected president in 1939 on the heels of the failed military coup conducted by radical officers called Febreristas (for the February Revolutionary Party or Partido Revolucionario Febrerista, PRF), but before he could implement the new constitution, which gave him immense authoritarian powers, he died in a plane crash. Replacing him in 1940 was General Higinio Morínigo (1897–1983), a harsh opportunist who moved immediately to shore up the fascistic Colorados, and to persecute the Liberales. He suspended the nation's constitution and ruled as a military dictator. Because he maintained the military in so privileged a position, the army remained intensely loyal to Morínigo,

despite frequent civil unrest. Nevertheless, in July 1946, yielding to unremitting popular pressure, Morínigo allowed political activity to resume legally, and he formed a coalition two-party cabinet. The coalition did not long endure. Morínigo's opposition, the Febreristas, all resigned from the cabinet, and their leader, Rafael Franco (1896–1973), attempted a liberal coup. The result was a brief civil war from March to August 1947, which was crushed by the military. The revolt, which devastated the countryside and left thousands dead, greatly destabilized the Morínigo government, which was toppled the following year, on June 6, 1948, not by liberals, but by a military unhappy with Morínigo's handling of the crisis.

In the next six years, Paraguay had six weak presidents before General Alfredo Stroessner (b. 1912), backed by both the Colorados and the military, seized power in 1954.

See also PARAGUAYAN REVOLT (1954).

Further reading: Carlos R. Miranda, *The Stroessner Era: Authoritarian Rule in Paraguay* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1990); Charles Washburn, *History of Paraguay,* 2 vols. (New York: AMS Press, 1975).

Paraguayan Revolt (1954)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of General Alfredo Stroessner vs. President Federico Chavéz
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paraguay
DECLARATION: Coup proclaimed on May 5, 1954
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Stroessner wanted to seize power from the current government.
OUTCOME: The military coup quickly succeeded, putting Stroessner in position to run for president without opposition.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the toppling of General Higinio Morínigo (1897–1983) in 1948, Paraguay became severely destabilized, and Federico Chavéz (d. 1978) was the sixth president in as many years when General Alfredo Stroessner (b. 1912), commander in chief of the Paraguayan armed forces, led a revolt against Chavéz's weak government on May 5, 1954. With Chavéz deposed, Stroessner put himself up for election, unopposed, to the office of president. He quickly purged the government of all current and potential adversaries, maintaining power through the military suppression of attempted coups and revolts. He placated capitalists by stabilizing the Paraguayan economy, while pleasing the people at large with a program of major public works.

So successful was Stroessner, with much help from the United States, at breaking down Paraguay's traditional isolation, both internal and external, that, after about 1960, he began to relax some of the harshness of his rule and permitted elections at all levels of government. However, the ultra-right-wing Colorado Party never lost such elections, and Stroessner was returned to office like clockwork every five years. For its part, the Catholic Church continued to decry Stroessner's brutal treatment of his country's Indian minority and to protest the government's strict censorship. During the 1970s, when the U.S. administration under Jimmy Carter stressed human rights in its foreign relations policy, Paraguay's relationship with the United States began to deteriorate and Carter much reduced U.S. aid. As a result, Paraguay drew ever closer to the right-wing regime in Brazil, which helped replace some of the lost U.S. funding for Stroessner's public works programs. Not until the 1980s, when Paraguay's economy took a serious nosedive, did the regime find itself threatened by rebellion (*see* the PARAGUAYAN REVOLT [1989]).

See also PARAGUAYAN CIVIL WAR (1947).

Further reading: Carlos R. Miranda, *The Stroessner Era: Authoritarian Rule in Paraguay* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1990); Charles Washburn, *History of Paraguay,* 2 vols. (New York: AMS Press, 1975).

Paraguayan Revolt (1989)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Military forces under General Andrés Rodríguez vs. government of General Alfredo Stroessner
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paraguay
DECLARATION: February 3, 1989, coup d'état
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Seizure of power from the prevailing dictator
OUTCOME: The government of Alfredo Stroessner was toppled.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Approximately 300
TREATIES: None

General Alfredo Stroessner (b. 1912) came to power in the PARAGUAYAN REVOLT (1954) and maintained his dictatorship for far longer than any previous Paraguayan ruler. Although this brought an unprecedented degree of stability to Paraguay, the people paid a high price in human rights and liberty. When he assumed his seventh five-year terms in office in 1988, Stroessner was not only aging, he was seen to be aging. Now, worry began to grow within his own Colorado Party, where the traditionalists and the militant factions were squaring off for a fight over the succession to the presidency. In the end, they could not simply

wait for the old man to pass away. On February 3, 1989, General Andrés Rodríguez (1923–98), Stroessner's chief lieutenant, staged a short, violent coup against the government in its Asunción capital. Three hundred people were killed, including troops and civilians in the government, and Stroessner was placed under close house arrest. He was subsequently permitted to seek refuge abroad.

Although Rodríguez carried out the revolt in the name of restoring democracy to Paraguay, his enemies alleged he was a criminal and known cocaine trafficker. In 1993, he did allow an election, which replaced him with Juan Carlos Wasmosy (b. 1939), a civilian and a democrat. He presided uneasily over a government that was still strongly influenced by the military, which remained the most powerful force in the government of Paraguay.

Further reading: Carlos R. Miranda, *The Stroessner Era: Authoritarian Rule in Paraguay* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1990); Charles Washburn, *History of Paraguay,* 2 vols. (New York: AMS Press, 1975).

Paraguayan Uprisings (1959–1960)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Paraguayan rebels vs. government of Alfredo Stroessner
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paraguay-Argentine border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebels wanted to topple the Stroessner government.
OUTCOME: The rebels (operating from Argentina) and the guerrillas (operating from within Paraguay) were largely suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Initial incursion, 1,000 rebels
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

General Alfredo Stroessner (b. 1912) brought unprecedented stability to Paraguayan government—at the cost of human rights and liberty. During the years that followed the establishment of the Stroessner regime (after the PARAGUAYAN REVOLT [1954]), thousands of Paraguayans fled across the border into Argentina, where they established a guerrilla base from which they mounted attacks against their homeland, seeking to overthrown Stroessner. To combat these incursions, Stroessner ordered the southern border of Paraguay closed in September 1959. On December 12, 1959, a force of about 1,000 rebels crossed the border and advanced several miles into Paraguay until government forces checked their advance. After this incident, Stroessner declared a state of siege, and Paraguay and Argentina teetered on the brink of war.

The uprisings consisted of periodic rebel incursions from Argentina, culminating in six major attempts in 1960. When the rebels failed to penetrate far into Paraguayan territory, they fomented rebellion by guerrillas living in Paraguay. Stroessner's forces cracked down, and by the end of 1960, most of the rebel and guerrilla activity had been suppressed.

Further reading: Carlos R. Miranda, *The Stroessner Era: Authoritarian Rule in Paraguay* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1990); Charles Washburn, *A History of Paraguay,* 2 vols. (New York, AMS Press, 1975).

Paraguayan War (1864–1870)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Paraguay vs. the Triple Alliance (Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Brazil and Paraguay
DECLARATION: Paraguay against Brazil, 1864; against Argentina, 1865
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Seeking expansion, Paraguay waged war against its larger neighbors.
OUTCOME: Paraguay was devastated by the costliest war ever fought on the South American continent.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 220,000 Paraguayans killed; Alliance casualties, 190,000
TREATIES: Concluded on June 20, 1870

The Paraguayan War, also called the López War and the War of the Triple Alliance, was the bloodiest conflict in Latin American history. It began when Francisco Solano López (1827–70)—the callow pampered son of an iron-willed dictator—conceived a longing to establish Paraguay as the center of a vast South American state. Overestimating Paraguay's military strength, he imagined a showdown with Brazil as a first step toward realizing his dream. That showdown came in August 1864 when Brazil ignored López's increasingly strident warnings and intervened in Uruguay's civil war in support of the pro-Brazilian right-wing Colorados faction, who were opposed to the López-backed liberal Blancos. When the Brazilians ignored López's demands that they immediately withdraw, he declared war on Brazil. In November, he ordered the capture of a Brazilian war steamer and dispatched both his army and navy north to invade the Mato Grosso.

When Argentina foiled López's plan to send troops into southern Brazil by refusing him permission to march through Argentine territory, Paraguay declared war on Argentina as well in March 1865.

In response to tiny Paraguay's belligerence, Brazil, Argentina, and Uruguay formed the Triple Alliance on May 1, 1865, and mounted major counterattacks against Paraguayan forces. Argentine general Bartolomé Mitre (1821–1906) led the ground forces of the Alliance, and the Brazilian navy conducted a successful campaign on

the Paraná River south of Corrientes in mid-1865. The Paraguayan invaders shortly retreated to their own territory and were obliged to fight a desperate defensive war.

López suffered defeat after defeat, although he scored a significant victory at the Battle of Curupayti on September 22, 1866. Despite this, the Alliance steadily advanced up the Paraguay River, pushing the Paraguayan defenders before them. In May 1866 López lost the cream of his army—almost 20,000 of his best men—in a series of suicidal attacks against allied forces at Tuyutí. In addition to heavy battlefield losses, after 1866 widespread epidemics of Asiatic cholera depleted the population at large.

In 1867, the key Paraguayan river fortress of Humaitá fell to the Alliance, forcing López to withdraw north to Angostura and Ypacaraí. These two towns were lost to the Alliance by the end of 1867, leaving Asunción, capital of Paraguay, vulnerable. A Brazilian army, led now by Luís Alves de Lima e Silva (1803–80), duke of Caxias, who had assumed command from Mitre, sacked the capital.

López was now reduced to fighting a guerrilla war in the remote regions of northern and eastern Paraguay. In 1869 and 1870 López fled before the huge allied forces, dragging his shattered army and thousands of civilian refugees behind him into the interior, trailing famine, disease, and death in his wake. Some historians think that by now he had become unhinged, and he certainly grew Learlike, grimly ordering the executions of hundreds, including his own two brothers, two brothers-in-law, and many of his officers.

Ultimately, he was killed on March 1, 1870, in a battle in the province of Concepción. This cleared the way for the provisional Paraguayan government that replaced López to sue for peace. The treaty concluded on June 20, 1870, ceded to Argentina and Brazil 55,000 square miles of Paraguayan country. But the loss in land was as nothing compared to the human toll: of a population of 525,000, 220,000 Paraguayans were killed. Only 29,000 adult males survived the war. Not only did López's country by then lay in ruins, it was under the control of a Brazilian army of occupation, which continued to further drain the country until 1876.

Further reading: Charles J. Kolinski, *Independence Death: The Story of the Paraguayan War* (Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1965); Harris Gaylord Warren, *Paraguay and the Triple Alliance: The Postwar Decade, 1869–1878* (Austin: Institute of Latin American Studies, University of Texas at Austin, 1978).

Paraguayan War of Independence (1810–1811)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Paraguay vs. the United Provinces of the Río de la Plata and, separately, Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paraguay; mainly Asunción
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Paraguay wanted independence from both Spain and the United Provinces
OUTCOME: Independence was achieved, although governing power was soon vested in an absolute dictator.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1776, the Spanish combined the present countries of Paraguay, Argentina Bolivia, and Uruguay (then called Banda Oriental) into the Río de la Plata, under the rule of a viceroy. But when Napoleon (1769–1821) deposed Spain's Ferdinand VII (1784–1833), Argentines in Buenos Aires formed a junta to govern what they called the United Provinces of the Río de la Plata. In 1810, Paraguay, asserting its autonomy, refused to join. A year later, a United Provinces army under Manuel Belgrano (1770–1820) marched out of Buenos Aires to attack the Paraguayan capital, Asunción, to compel Paraguayan compliance. Belgrano met stiff resistance and was forced to withdraw from the capital. Having defeated the United Provinces, the Paraguayans turned on the Spanish royal governor, whom they ousted. After declaring independence from Spain, a junta established a government at Asunción, and, in 1814, José Gaspar Rodríguez de Francia (1766–1840) was named first consul. In 1816, he was vested with dictatorial powers for life.

See also ARGENTINE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; NAPOLEONIC WARS.

Further reading: John Hoyt Williams, *The Rise and Fall of the Paraguayan Republic, 1800–1870* (Austin: Institute of Latin American Studies, University of Texas at Austin, 1979).

Paraguay's Jesuit-Indian War against Portuguese Slave Traders (1609–1642)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Paraguayan missionaries and Indians vs. Portuguese invaders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Paraguay
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Jesuits sought to resist an invasion by Paraguayan slave traders.
OUTCOME: By rallying and organizing the Indians, the Jesuits fashioned an effective defensive force, which ultimately succeeded in ejecting all Portuguese slave traders from Paraguay.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Little is known about this long conflict, which included no recorded set battles. Spain and Portugal competed for territory and trade in South America. Paraguay became subject to dispute. Spain had dispatched Jesuit missionaries to convert the Indians. For many years, these Jesuit priests were the only representatives of Spanish authority in the region. During the early 17th century, Portuguese slave traders invaded Paraguay. They were repeatedly repulsed by small forces of Indians organized by the Jesuit fathers. This makeshift "army" succeeded in driving all of the Portuguese out of the region by 1642.

Further reading: Sélim Abou, *The Jesuit "Republic" of Guaranis (1609–1768) and Its Heritage* (New York: Crossroad Publishing Company, 1997); Charles Washburn, *History of Paraguay,* 2 vols. (New York: AMS Press, 1975).

Parthian Conquest of Media (150 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Parthia vs. Seleucid Syria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Media
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: By exploiting chaos within the Seleucid dynasty, Parthia's King Mithradates I made a lightning conquest in Media.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

From 162 to 143 B.C.E., the Seleucid dynasty in Syria was torn by internecine strife and internal rebellion. Mithradates I (fl. 171–138 B.C.E.), king of Parthia, exploited the Seleucid disarray by advancing against Media and, in a single, sweeping campaign, conquering the region. The Seleucids were powerless to respond until 141 B.C.E., when, following Mithradates I's invasion of Babylonia, a full-scale war was waged between the Seleucids and Parthia.

Parthian-Roman Wars

See ROMAN-PARTHIAN WAR (55–38 B.C.E.); ROMAN-PARTHIAN WAR (56–63 B.C.E.); ROMAN-PARTHIAN WAR (195–202).

Parthian-Syrian War

See SYRIAN-PARTHIAN WAR (141–139 B.C.E.); SYRIAN-PARTHIAN WAR (130–127 B.C.E.).

Pastry War (1838)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France vs. Mexico
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Veracruz, Mexico
DECLARATION: Mexico declared war on France in 1838.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The pretext was reparations for foreign losses during Mexican civil unrest, but there was something of a bully's need to push around a weaker power in the newly installed French king's provocative dispatch of the French fleet to collect a debt owed to a French pastry chef for abuses he suffered at the hands of rowdy Mexican army officers.
OUTCOME: Mexico agreed to pay France's demands for reparations, and France withdrew, but not before making just enough of a martyr of the retired general Santa Anna to launch him once again on the road to becoming Mexico's president.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 4,000; Mexico, 1,600
CASUALTIES: France, 12 killed, 99 wounded; Mexico, 65 known dead, about 347 either killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

In 1836, Texan general Sam Houston (1793–1863) defeated the Mexican army under Mexico's president, General Antonio López de Santa Anna (1794–1876), the self-styled Napoleon of the West, at the Battle of San Jacinto (*see* TEXAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE). Afterward Houston had treated the ingloriously captured Santa Anna decently enough as the defeated former head of an enemy country, but Houston's Texas troops threw the generalissimo in jail the minute Houston left on a politically motivated trip to the United States. Santa Anna remained in chains for two months while Houston was out of the country. Finally the Texans, not knowing exactly what to do with him, sent His Excellency to Washington. There Andrew Jackson (1767–1845), too, treated Santa Anna courteously, receiving him as a head of state on January 19, 1837. As Jackson's guest, Santa Anna discussed with the president the state of affairs in Texas, the two men agreeing to disagree on Mexican recognition of Texas as an independent republic, before Jackson sent him on his way to Veracruz under naval escort.

The United States, Texas, and most of Mexico fully expected the deposed Santa Anna to live out his retirement there. But Santa Anna remained in Veracruz for only a year or so before he heard himself recalled to the defense of his country by public acclaim. His mission was to expel the French who had occupied his hometown on a silly pretext. In the early years of the Mexican republic, foreigners sometimes found their property destroyed during Mexico's frequent civil disorders, and unable to get satisfactory compensation from Mexico, they had taken to petitioning their own governments for help.

Just before leaving with Santa Anna for Texas and the Alamo three years before, some of Santa Anna's officers had visited a French restaurant in Veracruz. They had

wrecked the place and carried off all the French pastry they could find. The proprietor, knowing that a suit against the Mexican government was an exercise in futility, sought out the French minister, who had been collecting similar claims, all totaling about $600,000. By 1838, Mexico did not have $600,000. In fact, it had a 17-million-peso national debt. So when the French minister pressed Mexico for payment, the government ignored him. France, once again a monarchy, decided to use the incident as a pretext for chastising the arrogant little republic: thus the so-called Pastry War.

The French king, Louis Philippe (1773–1850) sent a fleet to collect the pastry chef's debt, along with all the others, and the French navy sailed into the port at Veracruz and began bombarding the nearby fortress of San Juan de Ulúa, which the French then seized, briefly occupying Veracruz itself. Mexico declared war in 1838, and Santa Anna immediately put himself at the head of a Mexican force and marched against the French at Veracruz. He acted without authority; no one in the current administration, and certainly not President Anastasio Bustamante (1780–1853) (an old rival), wanted to see Santa Anna come out of retirement, but Santa Anna had never been one for legal niceties. He chased the French out of Veracruz with little problem, especially because the Mexican government, upon hearing he was involved, quickly promised to pay the $600,000, and the French just as quickly agreed to withdraw. Santa Anna, who lost a leg from a stray volley from the departing French ship, parlayed his wound and his success in the Pastry War into an 1841 coup that made him, once again, president of Mexico.

Further reading: John S. D. Eisenhower, *So Far from God: The U.S. War with Mexico, 1846–1848* (New York: Anchor, 1990); Oakah L. Jones, Jr., *Santa Anna* (New York: Twayne Publishers, 1968).

Paulician War (867–872)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. the Paulician sect
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tephrike, Byzantine Empire (Divrigu, Turkey)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Byzantine objective was to wipe out a "heretical" sect.
OUTCOME: The Paulicians were totally defeated, many were killed, and others were forced to flee the empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but a high percentage of the Paulicians were killed.
TREATIES: None

The Paulicians, a Christian sect, created a Paulician state in the Byzantine city of Tephrike (Divrigu, Turkey). Although they were mercilessly persecuted by Byzantine religious authorities as heretics, the Paulicians continued to spread their teachings and, to counter their Byzantine persecutors, they allied themselves with the Muslims in the BYZANTINE-MUSLIM WAR (851–863). At last, in 867, Basil I (c. 813–886), Byzantine emperor, mounted a concerted military campaign against the Paulicians, seeking to wipe out the sect once and for all. The campaign was more protracted than anticipated, but by 872, Byzantine troops had invaded and occupied Tephrike and killed the sect's spiritual and political leader, Chrysocheir (d. 872), as well as many other Paulicians. The survivors fled their fallen capital and sought refuge in Armenia and Syria.

Further reading: Romilly James Heald Jenkins, *Byzantium; the Imperial Centuries, A.D. 610–1071* (New York: Random House, 1967).

Paxton Riots (1763)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: A mob of Scotch-Irish Presbyterians from the Pennsylvania frontier vs. Conestoga and Delaware Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vicinity of Philadelphia and the Pennsylvania frontier
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Settlers indiscriminately sought vengeance against Indians.
OUTCOME: Nothing conclusive
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: British colonies, 57 from Paxton and Donegal settlements, others from the Delaware Valley Irish settlement; Indians, unknown
CASUALTIES: 20 Conestoga Indians, 56 Delaware Indians died in protective custody; colonial casualties not recorded
TREATIES: None

During the period of the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, settlers made little or no effort to distinguish between combatant and noncombatant Indians. On December 14, 1763, a mob of 57 Scotch-Irish Presbyterians from Paxton and Donegal, Pennsylvania frontier settlements subject to violent Indian raids, slaughtered six innocent Conestoga Indians in Lancaster County. Provincial lieutenant governor John Penn (1729–95) issued an arrest warrant for the mob, but no official dared execute it. Most frontier Pennsylvanians heartily approved of the actions of the mob they called the "Paxton Boys."

In order to protect the Conestogas who had survived the attack from further harm, the magistrates of Lancaster County placed them in protective custody in a public

workhouse. But the Paxton Boys struck again on December 27, killing 14 Conestogas while they knelt in prayer.

In the meantime, the residents of the so-called Irish Settlement in the Delaware Valley were harassing and even killing their Delaware Indian neighbors, who had been converted to Christianity by Moravian missionaries. Colonial authorities removed these Indians to Province Island, Philadelphia, whereupon the Paxton Boys descended on the City of Brotherly Love and were confronted by a band of young citizens who had rallied to the Indians' defense. The timely intervention of no less a figure than Benjamin Franklin (1706–90) averted violence; he persuaded the Paxton Boys to go home.

Tragically, 56 of the Indians given refuge on the island sickened and died in the harsh winter. When the survivors returned to the Delaware Valley, they found their villages had been destroyed. Some moved farther west. Others were killed by frontiersmen.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Francis Jennings, *Empire of Fortune: Crowns, Colonies and Tribes in the Seven Year War in America* (reprint, New York: Norton, 1990).

Peach War (1655–1657)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Delaware (and allied Indian tribes) vs. Dutch settlers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern New Netherland (New York)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Indian retaliation for a Dutch farmer's murder of an Indian woman who picked peaches in the farmer's orchard
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; no definitive ending to the conflict
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: In early raids, 28 Dutch farms were burned, 50 colonists killed, at least 100 taken captive; number of Indian casualties unknown
TREATIES: None

The Peach War began when a Dutch farmer (in present-day New York City) killed a Delaware Indian woman for picking peaches in his orchard. Her family retaliated by waylaying and killing the farmer. Word of the incident spread rapidly, inciting other Delaware bands to strike out against Dutch settlers. Several settlers were killed at New Amsterdam, and 150 were taken captive there. Governor Peter Stuyvesant (c. 1592–1672) called out the militia, which liberated most of the captives, then destroyed a number of Indian villages. Following this exchange, Dutch-Indian violence continued sporadically, to the detriment of the Indians as well as the settlers.

Many wars between settlers and Indians began, like this one, with an isolated incident; however, the killing in the orchard was hardly the sole motive for Indian action. While Stuyvesant and his troops were campaigning against the Swedes for dominance in the Delaware Valley, a band of several hundred Delawares entered New Amsterdam one September morning in 1655. Although they did not attack anyone, they did break into a house, claiming that they were in search of "Northern Indians," their enemies. Then the invaders refused to vacate Manhattan until they received news that the farmer who had killed the Delaware woman in his orchard had been slain. This confirmed, the Indians prepared to leave, only to be attacked by the local militia. A battle ensued, which drove the Indians to retreat across the Hudson River to Staten Island and Pavonia (Jersey City, New Jersey).

The Dutch attack in Manhattan was doubtless intended to intimidate the Delawares; it failed. Instead, it moved the tribe to exact vengeance on local Dutch settlements near Manhattan in a series of raids conducted over a three-day period. Twenty-eight Dutch farms were burned, 50 colonists were killed, and at least 100 colonists taken captive.

Returning from the Delaware Valley campaign against the Swedes, Stuyvesant turned his attention to the Indians, negotiating the release of at least 70 prisoners in exchange for a ransom of trade goods, including gunpowder and lead. The Delaware band known as the Hackensacks quickly concluded negotiations, but other bands stubbornly held onto their captives. After much debate, Stuyvesant prepared to attack at least one of the recalcitrant bands, with the object not only of recovering the captives but also to discourage Indians from taking hostages as a tool of extortion. But Stuyvesant was unable to mount the new offensive. History does not record the reason for this failure, but it is likely that at least some of the remaining captives were retained by the Indians precisely to discourage a Dutch assault. Stuyvesant could not risk an attack that would result in the immediate murder of the prisoners. With this anticlimax, the Peach War faded by early 1656, concluded without any treaty or other formal ending.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Michael Kammen, *Colonial New York: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996).

Peasants' War (1524–1525)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: German peasants vs. German nobles

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany and Austria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Inspired by Protestant paeans to individual freedoms, German peasants revolted against the country's upper classes.
OUTCOME: The rebels were crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Peasants, 30,000 at any given time; nobles, 10,000 at any given time.
CASUALTIES: 130,000 peasants killed; casualties among nobles, unknown.
TREATIES: None

Beginning on August 24, 1524, German peasants, inspired by the Protestant fervor of Martin Luther (1483–1546), Huldrych Zwingli (1484–1531), and John Calvin (1509–64), rose up against the papacy and the Holy Roman Empire in Swabia and Franconia and pillaged churches and nobles' lands across much of southern Germany. Some landholders sympathized with the rebels and their desires for new rights and freedoms, and they even won the support of several towns as the rebellion escalated into Hesse, Thuringia, Saxony, and the Tyrol. The German nobility, now awakened to the danger, organized quickly to quell this uprising of the poor.

In April 1525, Jaecklein Rohrbach (d. 1525?) led rebels against the town of Weinsberg, overcame the men-at-arms defending the town, and forced Count Ludwig von Helfenstein (d. 1525) and 16 of his knights to walk to their deaths along a gauntlet of men carrying pikes and daggers.

The response was swift. Martin Luther himself denounced the uprising, and the Catholic Swabian League engaged mercenary troops under Georg von Truchsess (fl. 1525) to recapture the towns that had fallen to the peasants and to put down the uprising with utmost brutality. Truchsess did both. With about 10,000 men, he swept through Alsace and slaughtered perhaps 20,000 rebels.

While Truchsess operated in the west, armies were formed in Hesse and Saxony and attacked the headquarters of rebel leader Thomas Munzer (d. 1525) at Mühlhausen (Mulhouse). Munzer mustered some 8,000 troops, but was defeated at the Battle of Frankenhausen on May 15, 1525. Five thousand of his men were slaughtered, and he was led off to torture and execution. About 1,200 rebel diehards continued to defend Mühlhausen, but were soon overwhelmed.

Although sporadic rebellion continued in Austria until 1526, the German Peasants' War had been effectively crushed by the spring of 1525. The death toll among the peasants reached 130,000.

Further reading: Douglas Miller, *German Peasants' War* (London: Osprey, 2003).

Pecheneg Invasion of Russia (967–968)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pechenegs vs. Russians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of Russian territory in a general Pecheneg expansion
OUTCOME: The Pechenegs were driven out of Russia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Pechenegs were a nomadic Turkic people who lived in the steppes north of the Black Sea from the sixth through the 12th centuries. By the 10th century, having driven out the Hungarians, they reached the height of their power and extent, controlling the territory between the Don and lower Danube rivers. From here, they menaced Byzantium and Russia.

In 967, the Pechenegs were poised to take Kiev, which prompted Sviatoslav (d. 972), the son of the Russian prince Igor (877–945), to return from campaigning in Bulgaria. Sviatoslav engaged the Pechenegs and drove them out of Russia by 968. Encouraged by this triumph, he returned to Bulgaria, scoring success against the enemy there. Sviatoslav was defeated by the Byzantines shortly after his victories against the Pechenegs and the Bulgarians. On his return to Russia from a renewed campaign against Bulgaria in 972, he was intercepted by a Pecheneg army, which defeated his forces and killed him.

See also BYZANTINE-RUSSIAN WAR; RUSSIAN-BULGARIAN WAR.

Further reading: George Vernadsky, *A History of Russia* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1961).

Peddlars' War *See* MASCATES, WAR OF THE.

Peloponnese War, First (460–445 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Athens vs. Sparta (and her allies, especially Corinth)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Peloponnese, Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ultimately, resentment against Athens's growing influence in Greece, mainly from Sparta and Corinth
OUTCOME: After initial triumphs, Athens fell victim to multiple revolts, and the war ended with the situation essentially restored to its prewar status.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce in 451; "30 years' peace" in 445

By 462 B.C.E., Sparta and Corinth, trade and political rivals to Athens and the Athens-dominated Delian League, had developed an intense enmity toward Athens. That year Sparta insulted Athens by spurning Athenian aid in putting down a revolt of Spartan helots, which sent Athens into a series of alliances with the enemies of Sparta.

But it was the Corinthians, even more than the Spartans, who grew to hate the Athenians. Corinth saw the series of alliances—first with Argos and Thessaly, and more recently with Megara (which had turned to Athens after Corinth put pressure on its borders) as a direct challenge. The First Peloponnese war is best viewed, then, as a conflict between Athens and Corinth, in which Sparta—as Athens's principal rival—sometimes intervened.

Athens took the initiative in 460, attacking the Corinthian fleet at Hailes, in the Gulf of Argolis, a Corinthian victory. The next battle, however, went the other way, when in 459 Athens defeated a Corinthian force that attacked Megara. Two years later, Athens launched a successful invasion of Aegina, Corinth's ally. At this point, Sparta sent an expedition into Boeotia in support of its ally Thebes, which had the effect of taking pressure off Aegina. Near Thebes, it was the Spartans who triumphed over the Athenians at the Battle of Tanagra in 457. But, Sparta unwisely relinquished the initiative by recalling its forces, leaving an opening for an Athenian counteroffensive at Oenophyta, which fell in 457. The defeat left Boeotia exposed, and Athens took control of it.

The great Athenian dictator Pericles (c. 495–429 B.C.E.) led his country's forces to a series of victories along the coast of Achaea in 455, thereby securing the Spartan helots as vassals of Athens. They were dispatched to colonize the Gulf of Corinth. Athens under Pericles had rapidly established a Greek empire, and the city's ambition did not end with the Peloponnese. It would continue to try to expand throughout the Aegean.

Following this whirlwind of Athenian triumphs, a five-year truce was concluded in 451. But Boeotia rose up in revolt against Athens, and, with this, Sparta and its allies resumed the war. With Megara, Phocis, and Euboea all in rebellion against Athens, Pericles barely managed to block a Spartan advance against Athens. He also recovered Euboea, but, in 445, when a peace was concluded, most of the quickly won Athenian empire had vanished.

The belligerents pledged 30 years of peace. The Second (Great) PELOPONNESE WAR would break out within half that time.

Further reading: Donald Kagan, *The Peloponnesian War* (New York: Viking Press, 2003); David M. Lewis, "The Origins of the First Peloponnesian War," in Gordon Spencer Shrimpton and David Joseph McCargar, eds., *Classical Contributions* (Locust Valley, N.Y.: J.J. Augustin, 1981), pp. 71–78.

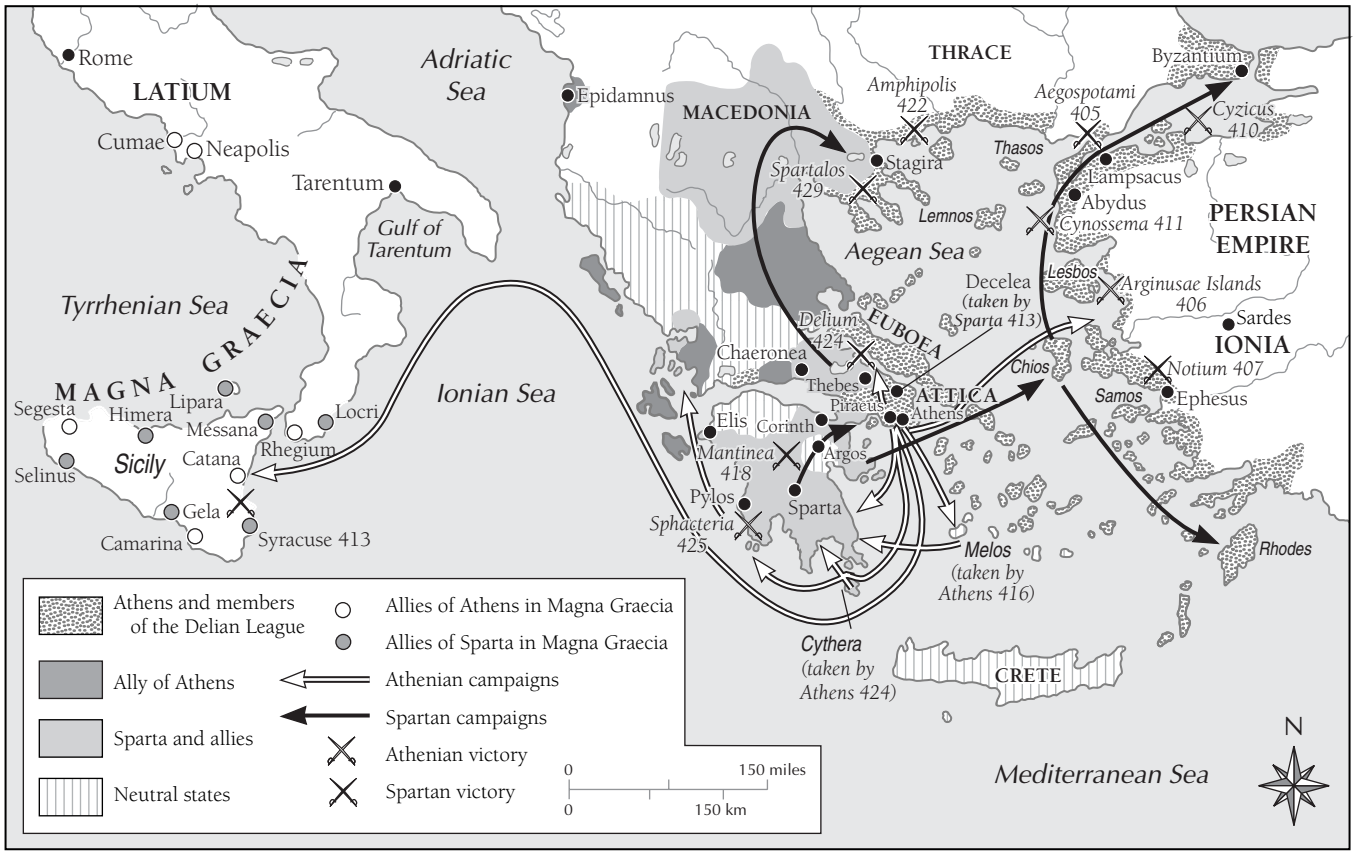
Peloponnese War, Second (Great)
(431–404 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Athens (and allies) vs. Sparta (and allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Peloponnese, Greece; Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sparta and Athens vied for dominance in the Mediterranean world.
OUTCOME: Although Athens frequently held the upper hand, Sparta prevailed, ultimately reducing Athens to complete subordination.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS:
CASUALTIES: At the siege of Syracuse, Athens lost 40,000 men killed; survivors were enslaved.
TREATIES: Truce of 424; Peace of 421; Peace of 404

In the spring of 431, just about halfway through the promised 30-year peace that ended the First PELOPONNESE WAR, Thebes—Sparta's ally—attacked Plataea, which was allied with Athens. Eighty days later, Sparta itself struck at Athens, launching the Great Peloponnese War.

According to the Greek historian Thucydides (c. 460–390), the cause of the war was Sparta's fear of Athens and its imperial ambitions, though it was more immediately Sparta's allies who precipitated the war. Corinth had recently and unofficially sent a force to its former colony at Potidaea to help those now in rebellion there against Athens. Corinth convened a congress of Spartan allies to discuss their many grievances against Athens, and—with Thebes's enthusiastic support—pushed through a decision to go to war with Athens. Even Sparta later admitted that the Theban attack on peaceful Plataea, which followed the congress, was unprovoked and a just cause for Athenian anger. Sparta nevertheless ignored Athens's call for arbitration and invaded Attica just as the Spartans' provocative allies had hoped.

During the early phases of the war, Pericles (c. 495–429 B.C.E.) followed a canny strategy of avoiding out-and-out battle, and he did manage to drive off a Spartan siege of Athens. However, a plague epidemic killed not only Pericles but also approximately a quarter of the population of Athens. When Cleon (d. 422 B.C.E.) replaced Pericles as the new Athenian leader, he discarded the policy of battle avoidance. Whereas Pericles had exhausted the Spartans with hit-and-run raids and a blockade, which closed the Gulf of Corinth in 429, Cleon impatiently took the offensive. In 428, he put down a revolt in Lesbos, then



Second (Great) Peloponnese War, 431–404 B.C.E.

advanced into Boeotia the following year. He failed to take Boeotia, but he did manage to capture every military base along the Gulf of Corinth save one.

Under Cleon, in 425, the Athenians boldly established a military base at Sphacteria, in the heart of Spartan territory. This enabled victories at Megara and the port city of Nisaea the following year.

Despite Cleon's aggressive triumphs, his failure to take Boeotia and the collapse of the Boeotian campaign at the Battle of Delium disheartened Athens. A peace faction rose up. Its leader, Nicias (d. 413 B.C.E.), opposed Cleon, and the momentum of his monolithically aggressive strategy was frittered away. As a result, the Spartan commander Brasidas (d. 422 B.C.E.) crushed the Athenians at the Battle of Amphipolis in 424, precipitating a yearlong truce. After regrouping, Athens made a new attempt against Amphipolis, but failed.

The deaths of both Brasidas and Cleon in 422 left Nicias the undisputed leader of Athens, and his peace policy was unopposed. He hastily concluded a peace in 421, whereby Athens retained the important Messenian harbor of Pylos, and Sparta retained its great port, Amphipolis. At this time, however, the charismatic military leader Alcibiades (c. 450–404 B.C.E.) stirred Athens to break the peace. Under Alcibiades' direction, Athens stole Argos, Mantinea, and Tegea from the camp of Spartan allies. Alcibiades promoted a grandiose plan to conquer Syracuse, Sicily, and an Athenian fleet was launched in 415. Incredibly, however, even though he was the leader of the invasion, Alcibiades, was recalled to Athens to face charges of religious sacrilege involving the defilement of sacred objects. This prompted the mercurial Alcibiades to defect to the Spartan cause. He successfully prevailed upon Sparta to send troops to the defense of Syracuse, where they could trap the Athenian invasion force.

As a result of Alicibiades' defection, the Athenian siege of Syracuse was a disaster. In 414, the Athenian land forces were themselves laid under siege, and in 413, the Athenian fleet was destroyed. Approximately 40,000 Athenian troops died, and 240 ships were lost. Athenian survivors were enslaved. Nicias and Demosthenes (d. 413 B.C.E.), leaders of the Athenian forces, were taken prisoner and put to death.

Following the defeat of Athens, Alcibiades established a Spartan garrison at Declea, on Attic territory, directly threatening Athens itself. Worse, Declea straddled Athenian access to its silver mines at Laurium, thereby cutting off the Athenian treasury from replenishment. In the meantime, Sparta reached out to Sardis, a Persian province, concluded an alliance with it, and together they

incited Athenian colonies to revolt—Sparta having agreed to allow Persia to hold sway over any colonies acquired in exchange for financial support of a naval expedition against Athens.

By 412, despite all hardships, Athens rebuilt its fleet and reorganized its army. The ever-treacherous Alcibiades entered into secret negotiations with Athens and was given command of the new Athenian fleet in 411. This he led the following year to victory at the Battle of Cynossema and the Battle of Abydos, defeating the Spartan fleet in both battles. In 410, at Cyzicus, a combined Spartan-Persian fleet was defeated, as were the alliance's land forces.

Reeling from the unexpected disasters of 411 and 410, Sparta sued for peace to restore the status quo antebellum. The plea fell upon the deaf ears of the dictatorial Cleophon (d. 405 B.C.E.), new leader of Athens. He pressed on with the war.

At first, this seemed a good idea. Thanks to the generalship of Alcibiades, Byzantium fell under the Athenian yoke in 408. The general had little enough time to relish his victory, however. In 406, while he was back in Athens, his sea forces were defeated by a combined Spartan-Persian fleet under Lysander (d. 395 B.C.E.) at the Battle of Notium. This led to the complete blockade of the Athenian fleet at Mytelene.

With nearly miraculous resilience, the Athenians built a *third* new fleet—despite the paucity of silver in the treasury—and advanced against the Spartan fleet at the Battle of Arginusae in 406. Dealt a defeat here, the Spartans once again sued for peace, and, once again, Cleophon spurned the plea.

Thus circumstances stood in 405 when Lysander led a Spartan fleet in a surprise attack against the 200-ship Athenian fleet riding at anchor off the Hellespont at Aegospotami. The Athenian fleet was destroyed, and all hands were either killed or captured. Capitalizing on his victory, Lysander sailed to Piraeus and Athens, laying siege to both. After six months, the starving Athenians surrendered, and Cleophon was executed. Sparta forced extremely punitive peace conditions on Athens. All of its military fortifications were razed, and its mighty fleet was limited to no more than a dozen vessels. The government of Athens was decreed as an oligarchy (the so-called Thirty Tyrants), a virtual puppet of Sparta, to which it was subject as an involuntary ally. The conclusion of the Great Peloponnese War brought the end of Athenian hegemony in ancient Greece.

Further reading: Donald Kagan, *The Peloponnesian War* (New York: Viking Press, 2003) and *The Fall of the Athenian Empire* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1987); G.E.M. de Ste. Croix, *The Origins of the Peloponnesian War* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1972); Thucydides, *History of the Peloponnesian War*, trans. Rex Warner (New York: Viking Press, 2003).

Peninsular War (1808–1814)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France and Napoleonic Spain vs. Spanish rebels, Portugal, and Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain and Portugal
DECLARATION: July 14, 1807, summons to war
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Portugal's British-backed resistance to French trade policies and Spanish patriots' hatred of Napoleon and his puppet rulers led to a long and bloody rebellion against French rule.
OUTCOME: Ultimately Napoleon was defeated and driven first from the Iberian Peninsula, then from power.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 230,000 in 1812; Spain, Portugal, and Great Britain, 172,000 in 1813
CASUALTIES: France and allies, 91,000 killed in battle, 237,000 wounded; Spain, 25,000 guerrillas killed plus tens of thousands of regular Spanish and Portuguese troops; Great Britain, 35,630 killed; 32,429 wounded. Including noncombatants, total deaths from all causes may have exceeded 1 million.
TREATIES: First Peace of Paris, May 30, 1814

After the humiliating concessions made by Prussia and the less humiliating accord with Russia that followed the WAR OF THE THIRD COALITION, Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) moved in November and December 1807 against Portugal when that country refused to answer his July 19, 1807, summons to declare war on Great Britain. His Continental System—aimed at killing the world's trade with archenemy Britain—was failing, and he realized for the blockade to work, he needed to enforce it throughout Europe; that meant seizing Portugal, a country that, from the beginning, had made clear its opposition to Napoleon's trade restrictions. Spain's Charles IV (1748–1819) allowed French troops passage across the Iberian Peninsula, and they soon occupied Lisbon. The presence of Napoleon's legions in northern Spain, however, did not sit well with Charles's subjects, and they rebelled, forcing him to abdicate in favor of his son, Ferdinand VII (1784–1833). Napoleon saw in the abdication a chance to rid Europe and himself of the last Bourbon rulers, and he peremptorily summoned the Spanish royal family to Bayonne in April 1808. There, he removed both Charles and Ferdinand from the throne and interned them in the chateau of French foreign minister Charles Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord (1754–1838). In their stead Napoleon named his brother, Joseph Bonaparte (1768–1844), king of Naples, as the new ruler of Spain.

Spaniards were no happier with a Bonaparte on the throne than they were with a Bonaparte army roaming the countryside. When Napoleon brutally suppressed an uprising in Madrid, the insurrection spread across the

whole of the peninsula. Encouraged at the sight of Iberia up in arms, the British decided to use the area as a bridgehead on the Continent and sent a small force under the energetic Arthur Wellesley (1769–1852) (subsequently the duke of Wellington) to support the rebellion. The French, after setbacks at Bailén and Vimeiro, surrendered Lisbon. Napoleon met with his reluctant ally, Czar Alexander I (1777–1825) of Russia, at the Congress of Erfurt in September and October of 1808, to extract promises of help in a situation that might well become desperate. Despite the august company of princes assembled by Napoleon, the czar made no clear commitments. So damaged was Napoleon's prestige by the sensational blows he had received during what could only be considered a national uprising in Spain and Portugal that even Talleyrand—always a harbinger of informed French opinion—had grown dismayed by his emperor's policies and was already negotiating with Alexander behind Napoleon's back.

With little choice, Napoleon personally led an expedition onto the peninsula during November 1808 through January 1809. Taking most of his Grand Army with him, he nearly defeated the British, who narrowly escaped at Coruña in early 1809. Thus, Napoleon was on the brink of putting down the entire revolt when Austria—seeing him preoccupied in Spain—attempted to regain her autonomy (*see* NAPOLEON'S WAR WITH AUSTRIA).

From 1809 onward, Spanish guerrillas, sometimes backed by British ships and British troops, harassed the French while Napoleon was preoccupied in Austria. In fact, the British under Wellington returned to drive the French from Portugal and invade Spain, winning an important victory at Talavera on July 28, 1809. But Napoleon sent reinforcements to lance what he described as his "Spanish ulcer" and enforce the Continental System in the only way he could after losing his fleet at Trafalgar. Freshly spilled blood did for the moment restore French ascendancy, but in 1811 Wellington's forces began their inexorable recovery of Portugal's frontier fortress. Although the Spanish field armies had been smashed and scattered by Napoleon's marshals the year before, guerrillas continued the struggle and, with British aid, proved effective. Without the British, the guerrillas would hardly have survived; without the guerrillas, the outnumbered British would have been swept away by the more experienced French; together—supplied by the Royal Navy—Wellington's regulars and the Spanish irregulars were devastating, although at an appalling cost to Spain's civil population.

In 1812, the national Cortes, convened at Cadiz by the rebels, promulgated a constitution inspired by both the FRENCH REVOLUTION and by British institutions, which in turn would spark revolutions throughout the old Spanish Empire's holdings in the New World. For now, it cheered the allies on to Salamanca and Madrid, where they evicted the French from southern Spain by 1812. Wellington failed to take Burgos in 1812, but he did better in 1813, routing the French at Vitoria and chasing them back into France. There, he joined the general effort of the European allies to bring down Napoleon (*see* NAPOLEONIC WARS; NAPOLEON'S INVASION OF RUSSIA) by besieging Bayonne and Bordeaux.

See also COALITION, WAR OF THE FIRST; COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND; FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS; HUNDRED DAYS' WAR; NAPOLEONIC WARS.

Further reading: David Chandler, *The Campaigns of Napoleon* (New York: Scribner, 1973); Charles J. Esdaile, *The Wars of Napoleon* (London: Pearson Education UK, 1996); David Gates, *The Napoleonic Wars* (London: Edward Arnold, 1997).

Penruddock's Revolt (1655)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Penruddock's "army" vs. Cromwellian Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Salisbury and vicinity
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Penruddock sought the restoration of the British Crown.
OUTCOME: Penruddock was captured, tried for treason, and executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Penruddock had about 200 followers.
CASUALTIES: None, except for Penruddock himself
TREATIES: None

After the Lord Protector, Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658), dissolved Parliament in 1655, a number of royalists responded to this dictatorial and tyrannical measure by raising revolts with the objective of bringing about the return of the monarchy. In Wiltshire, John Penruddock (1619–55), a royalist who had been persecuted by Cromwell's regime, raised an "army" of 200 followers and occupied Salisbury. There he abducted judges who were in the process of trying a number of royalists for treason. His point made by the abductions, Penruddock declined to harm the judges and marched into Devon. There he was taken prisoner by a regiment of Cromwell's troops. Remanded to the judges he had abducted and released, he was tried for treason, found guilty, and beheaded. Acknowledging that Penruddock had not harmed the judges, however, Oliver Cromwell personally saw to it that a portion of Penruddock's estate, subject to forfeiture because of his treason, was given to his children.

See also ENGLISH CIVIL WAR, FIRST; ENGLISH CIVIL WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: J. P. Kenyan, Stuart England (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1978).

Pepin's Campaigns in Aquitaine (760–768)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pepin III vs. Waifer, duke of Aquitaine
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aquitaine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pepin sought to put down the rebellion of Waifer, who wanted to maintain Aquitaine's independence from France.
OUTCOME: After a protracted war, Waifer was defeated, and Aquitaine became a province of Pepin's Frankish Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Pepin III (c. 714–814, also known as Pepin the Short), son and successor of Charles Martel (c. 688–741), succeeded in driving the Muslims over the Pyrenees and out of France. Pepin held the nominal title of Mayor of the Palace but ruled as the true power behind the Merovingian throne for 10 years until he deposed Childeric III (d. 755) and brought about his own coronation as king of the Franks in 751. This accomplished, he campaigned against the Lombards and in Germany (*see* PEPIN'S CAMPAIGNS IN GERMANY). Then he launched a campaign against the forces of Waifer, the duke of Aquitaine. Waifer sought to keep Aquitaine independent of France. Over the course of a bitter eight-year campaign, Pepin defeated Waifer and brought Aquitaine firmly into the fold of his growing empire.

Further reading: Margaret Deanesly, *A History of Early Medieval Europe, from 476 to 911,* 2nd ed. (London: Methuen, 1969).

Pepin's Campaigns in Germany (757–758)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Franks vs. Saxons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bavaria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tassilo III, duke of Bavaria, sought independence from the Frankish empire.
OUTCOME: Under the leadership of Pepin III, the Franks crushed the rebellion and forced a heavy tribute on the Saxons.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Tribute agreement, 758

After driving the Muslims from France and subduing the Lombards in Italy and before commencing a protracted campaign against Waifer, duke of Aquitaine (*see* PEPIN'S CAMPAIGNS IN AQUITAINE), Pepin III (c. 714–814, also known as Pepin the Short), king of the Franks and effectively king of France, invaded Germany, primarily to put down a rebellion led by Tassilo III (fl. 788), duke of Bavaria. Tassilo sought to break with the Frankish empire and proclaim Bavarian independence. Pepin quickly defeated Tassilo and extracted from the Saxons a heavy tribute.

Further reading: Bernard S. Bachrach, *Merovingian Military Organization* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1972); Rosamond McKitterick, *The Frankish Kingdoms under the Carolingians,* 751–987 (London, New York: Longman, 1983).

Pepin's War with Muslims

See FRANKISH-MOORISH WAR, SECOND.

Pequot War (First Puritan Conquest) (1634–1638)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pequot Indians vs. colonists of New England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Massachusetts and Connecticut
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After years of tension caused by white encroachment upon Pequot-held lands, the murder of a colonial captain ignited hostilities.
OUTCOME: Essentially, the annihilation of the Pequot tribe
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Colonists, at Block Island, 90; at Pequot Harbor, 90 whites and 60 Mohegan and some 500 Narragansett and Niantic allies. Pequots, unknown.
CASUALTIES: Colonists, unknown; Pequots, 600–700 at Mystic fort, others
TREATIES: Treaty of Hartford, September 21, 1638

By the 1630s, growing numbers of settlers in the Connecticut River valley were encroaching upon the territory of the Pequots, an Algonquian tribe related to the Mohegans and, like them, originally settled along the Hudson. In 1634, Captain John Stone fell victim to an Indian raid. The only thing certain about the incident is that the raiders were not Pequots, but western Niantics, a tribe dominated by the Pequots; however, on November 7, Pequot representatives agreed to hand over those guilty of Captain Stone's murder, to pay an exorbitant indemnity, to relinquish rights to Connecticut land the English might wish to settle, and to trade with the English "as friends."

When the Pequot council failed to ratify what the tribe's ambassadors had agreed to, the English grumbled for two years over a breach of treaty but took no action.

On June 16, 1636, however, colonial officials received a message from Uncas (fl. 17th century), chief of the friendly Mohegan tribe, warning that the Pequots were about to strike. A conference was called, and the colonists reasserted the demands of the 1634 treaty, again calling for the killers of Captain Stone and full payment of the tribute. It is not clear what the Pequot response was to these demands, but a few days following it, another trading captain, John Oldham (c. 1600–36), and his crew were killed on Block Island by Narragansetts or members of a tribe subject to them.

Although the Narragansett sachems Canonchet (c. 1630–76) (whom the English called Canonicus) and Miantonomo (c. 1600–43) condemned the murder and offered reparations and a pledge of loyalty, colonial authorities dispatched Captain John Endecott (c. 1588–1665), with Captain John Underhill (c. 1597–1672) and Captain William Turner (1623–76) and a force of 90 men to Block Island on August 25. By the time Endecott reached Block Island, however, most of the Indians had fled, so he and his troops sailed to the English fort at Saybrook, Connecticut, on the Connecticut River to punish the Pequots—even though they had had nothing to do with the death of John Oldham.

Endecott proceeded to Pequot Harbor at the mouth of the Pequot (Thames) River. The Pequots there greeted him, Endecott proclaimed his mission of revenge, and the Pequots asked for a parley. Endecott refused and called the Indians to battle. The Indians refused to fight, whereupon Endecott set about burning dwellings and crops, thereby provoking a full-scale war.

A band of Pequots besieged the Saybrook fort for months, and other groups raided nearby settlements. In the meantime, the English and the Pequots vied for an alliance with the powerful Narragansett tribe. Largely due to the skillful negotiations of religious dissident Roger Williams (c. 1603–83), the sachem Miantonomo pledged the Narragansetts to an alliance with the English.

Despite the alliance, the war became increasingly brutal. By the spring of 1637, Wethersfield, Connecticut, had been ravaged, and other settlements fell under attack. On May 1, the Plymouth, Massachusetts, and Connecticut colonies resolved to unite in fighting the Pequots. Yet political and religious wrangling delayed organization of an effective fighting force.

While Massachusetts and Plymouth floundered, Captain John Mason (c. 1600–74) set out from Hartford, Connecticut, on May 10 with 90 colonists and 60 Mohegans under Chief Uncas to attack the principal Pequot stronghold, the fort of Sassacus (d. 1637), on Pequot Harbor. As he neared his objective, Mason decided to recruit more Indian allies before attacking.

On May 25, Mason, with 500 Narragansett and Niantic allies, drew near Sassacus's Pequot Harbor fort. Instead of attacking it, however, Mason turned to Mystic to attack another fort, which harbored not warriors but mostly women, children, and old men. The May 26 assault on the fort at Mystic was less a battle than a slaughter of innocents. Within an hour 600–700 Pequots were slain.

In late May or early June, Mason joined his troops to a Massachusetts unit and attacked a large number of Pequots near the Connecticut River, causing a general rout, with many of the surviving Indians fleeing south to Manhattan. A pursuit detachment of about 160 troops was organized in July, and on the 13th they ran the Mystic survivors to ground in a swamp near New Haven. After surrounding the Indians, the English announced that they would guarantee old men, women, and children safe conduct out of the swamp. Almost 200 emerged, whereupon they were made prisoners, the male children to be sold into West Indian slavery, and the females to be distributed as slaves to various colonial towns as well as to the Indian allies of the English.

The 80 Pequot warriors who remained holed up in the swamp fought valiantly as the colonial troops cut through the swamp with their swords, all the while shooting at them.

Despite the unrelenting assault, a sizable number of Pequots, perhaps including the sachem Sassacus, slipped through the English lines on July 14. The remainder were (as one eyewitness put it) "killed in the Swamp like sullen Dogs."

Sassacus and other Pequot fugitives sought sanctuary among neighboring tribes, but the terror tactics of the English had so intimidated the Indians of the region that no tribe took Sassacus in. Finally, the Mohawks sent colonial officials the severed head of Sassacus, who had—unsuccessfully—sought refuge among them.

The Treaty of Hartford, concluded on September 21, 1638, divided the survivors of the swamp siege as slaves among the Indian allies. The treaty also directed that no Pequot might inhabit his former country and ordered that the very name *Pequot* be expunged; those enslaved had to take the name of their "host" tribe. Those Pequots who escaped death or enslavement fell easy prey to surrounding tribes, who had long endured their raids and depredations.

Shortly after the treaty was signed, a number of Pequots settled at Pawcatuck, in former Pequot country and, therefore, in violation of the treaty. Mason was dispatched with 40 colonists and 120 Mohegans, led by Uncas, to clear them out, which he did, allowing his men and the Indian allies to plunder freely, and, with this, the Pequot War ended.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Francis Jenning, *The Invasion of America: Indians, Colonialism, and the Cant of Conquest* (New York: Norton, 1975).

Perak War (1874–1876)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Perak vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Perak, Malaysia

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A rebellion against British occupation by a group of dissident Malay chiefs led to the assassination of the first British resident at Perak, then to reprisals that crushed the resistance.
OUTCOME: The dissident native leaders were arrested and removed from power, failing to curb British economic and political influence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Violation of the Pangkor Treaty of 1874 triggered the war.

The Pangkor Treaty of 1874 between the British government and the local Malay chiefs permitted Britain to install a resident in Perak, a country in northwestern Malaysia, to administer trade and other commercial and governmental functions. When the first resident, James W. W. Birch (d.1875), arrived in Perak in November 1874 to take up his post as official British adviser to the sultan, he embarked on a program of reform that ended both corrupt revenue collection policies and slavery in Perak. Birch hoped through his influence not only to modernize the traditional administrative system, under which government had been based on personal relationships between the sultan and the chiefs, but also to have Raja Abdullah accepted as sultan in Upper Perak, in other words, as its supreme ruler, the one man who dealt directly with the British. But Birch's rapid and revolutionary changes quickly alienated both Abdullah and most local chiefs. At a meeting in July 1875, the sultan organized a movement to end foreign influence in Perak by assassinating Birch.

Later that month, when Birch was in Upper Perak posting his new tax proclamations, one of the chiefs, Maharaja Lela, and his men assassinated the resident. The conspirators failed, however, to follow up with the planned attack on the residency itself. His murder prompted immediate reprisal from the British government, which dispatched troops to put down all resistance to British administration in the region.

By the middle of 1876, the rebellious chiefs and leaders had been rounded up. They were later tried and punished. The sultan Abdullah was deposed, and the British assumed an increasing degree of influence over Malay affairs. However, the lesson of the Birch affair was not lost on subsequent British residents. Instead of acting unilaterally to impose changes and reforms, they worked cooperatively with indigenous rulers, and made few drastic changes in traditional institutions.

Further reading: William R. Roff, *The Origins of Malay Nationalism* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1967).

Percy's Rebellion (1403)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Henry "Hotspur" Percy vs. Henry IV
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Shrewsbury, England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Hotspur wanted to topple Henry from the throne and replace him with Edmund Mortimer.
OUTCOME: Hotspur's forces were defeated—and Hotspur killed—at the Battle of Shrewsbury, bringing about the collapse of the rebellion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Prominent among those who helped Henry Bolingbroke depose Richard II (1367–1400) to become England's king Henry IV (1367–1413) were Henry Percy (1342–1408), first earl of Northumberland, and his son Sir Henry Percy (1366–1403), nicknamed "Hotspur" by his Scottish enemies for the alacrity with which he patrolled their borders. A grateful Henry IV rewarded the Percys liberally with lands and offices in northern England and Wales, making them the largest landowners in Northumberland. But their ambitions were deeper than Henry's purse could ever accommodate—ultimately they sought to control the throne itself. As it happened, they parted ways with the new king over a trifle—falling into a dispute over the ransom of a Scottish rebel. When Hotspur captured the earl of Douglas at the battle of Homildon Hill, Henry demanded the prisoner and claimed the ransom for himself. The break had been building, and now it came—the Percys withdrew their support from Henry and backed Edmund Mortimer.

Mortimer (1376–1413) was the uncle of Richard II's legitimate heir, the earl of March (d. 1428). He had been captured by the French-backed Welsh rebel Owen Glendower (c. 1359–1416) and persuaded to make common cause against Henry. The Percys dispatched an army to join Glendower, but it was intercepted en route by royalist forces under Henry IV and his son, Prince Hal (1387–1422, later Henry V). On July 21, 1403, the armies clashed in the Battle of Shrewsbury. The Percys were defeated before Glendower could reinforce them. Hotspur fell in battle, and his leaderless troops surrendered.

See also GLENDOWER'S REVOLT; NORTHUMBERLAND'S REBELLION.

Further reading: Bryan Bevan, *Henry IV* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1994).

Pergamum, Conquest of (133–129 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome (with Cappadocian aid) vs. Aristonicus of Pergamum

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pergamum, Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Aristonicus resisted Roman annexation of Pergamum.
OUTCOME: Aristonicus was ultimately defeated, and Pergamum became the Roman province known as Asia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None, save underlying bequest of Attalus III, king of Pergamum

On his death, Attalus III (c. 170–133 B.C.E.), ruler of the Italian kingdom of Pergamum, bequeathed his realm to Rome. However, a pretender to the throne, Aristonicus, intervened and blocked Roman efforts to assume control of Pergamum. It took forces under the command of proconsul P. Licinius Crassus (c. 180–130 B.C.E.), in alliance with a Cappadocian army, to defeat Aristonicus. With the pretender driven from the throne, Pergamum became the Roman province of Asia.

Peronist Revolts (1956–1957)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Peronists vs. Argentine government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Argentina
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Peronists wanted to restore Juan Perón as dictator of Argentina.
OUTCOME: The Peronists were partially suppressed, but a low-level civil war ensued, to the great detriment of the Argentine economy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Casualty numbers unknown; 2,000 Peronistas were arrested; 38 executed.
TREATIES: None

Juan Perón (1895–1974), dictator of Argentina, was deposed in the ARGENTINE REVOLT (1955), but his supporters were still very much present in Argentine politics. In the power vacuum left by Perón's ouster, General Eduardo Lonardi (1896–1956) assumed control of a provisional government. On November 13, 1955, Lonardi was deposed by General Pedro Pablo Eugenio Aramburu (1903–70) in a bloodless coup. A hard-line anti-Peronist, Aramburu took steps to ensure that the Peronist party would never again assume power. The party was outlawed—a step that served only to intensify the Peronists' subversive activities.

Juan Perón, living in exile in Paraguay, directed the Peronists in a campaign of antigovernment activity, ranging from harassment to terrorism, including sabotage and rioting. On June 14, 1956, Peronist rebels staged major uprisings in Santa Fe, La Pampa, and Buenos Aires. The government responded by declaring martial law, and Peronists and government troops clashed in bloody battles. The first wave of revolts was put down, with the arrest of some 2,000 Peronists, of whom 38 were subsequently executed.

In the meantime, although the Peronist party had been declared illegal, a neo-Peronist "Popular Union Party" was established. It urged voters to signal protest in the upcoming general elections by casting blank ballots. In an atmosphere of increasing hostility, more violence erupted between Peronists and the government as the elections of 1957 approached. The Peronists exercised their considerable influence and swung their support behind Arturo Frondizi (1908–95), a radical leader who promised to reopen political life in Argentina for them. Frondizi won majorities in both houses of Congress, but when his reformist majority proved more interested in foreign investment than in the adverse effect his currency devaluation was having on the middle and lower classes, he had to use the military to shore up his unpopular policies against these traditional strongholds of Peronists. An ongoing, low-level civil war resulted, which greatly disrupted the already beleaguered Argentine economy.

Further reading: Frederick C. Turner and José Enrique Miguens, eds., *Juan Perón and the Reshaping of Argentina* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1983).

Pershing's Punitive Expedition

See VILLA'S RAIDS.

Persian-Afghan War (1726–1738)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Safavid Persians (with Abdali Afghan allies) vs. Ghilzai Afghans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia (Iran)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Nadir Khan (later Nadir Shah) sought to reconquer Persia from the Ghilzai Afghans.
OUTCOME: The Ghilzai were largely driven out of Persia, which was restored to Safavid rule—under Nadir Shah.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Hundreds of thousands (100,000 Abdalis at Meshed; 80,000 troops to lay siege against Kandahar)
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Over the course of the first three decades of the 18th century, Afghan tribes seized control of nearly half of Persia

(Iran). In 1722, Ghilzai Afghan rebels had driven the Safavid shah, Hussein (c. 1675–1726), from his throne (*see* AFGHAN REBELLIONS [1709–1727]). Meanwhile the Safavid dynasty's weakness had attracted other invaders—first the Russians from the East (*see* RUSSO-PERSIAN WAR of 1722–1723), then the Ottoman Turks from the West. As Persia collapsed, not so surprisingly, into civil war (*see* PERSIAN CIVIL WAR [1725–1730]), the Afghans continued to make the most of the chaos, taking Tehran in 1725 and soundly defeating both the Russians and the Ottomans. Only the rise of Nadir Kahn (1688–1747, later, Nadir Shah) put a stumbling block between the rebels and their dream of Afghan liberation.

From an obscure beginning in the Afshar tribe of Turks loyal to the Safavids—where he served under a local chieftain—Nadir Kahn first evidenced his remarkable leadership qualities when he formed and led a band of robbers. By 1726, as head of the gang, he persuaded 5,000 of his followers to support the putative Safavid shah Tahmasp II (d. 1739), now seeking to regain the throne his father had lost four years earlier to the Afghan usurpers. Under Tahmasp's banner Nadir reformed Persia's military forces, slowly assembling and carefully training the army he would need to retake the lost reaches of the empire.

Nadir initially fought a limited, stealthy war, retaking areas near Afghan-held Herat but always avoiding large-scale engagements while he continued to build up and prepare his forces.

By 1728, Nadir had captured Mazandrin, which controlled the routes to Tehran. With these routes closed, Nadir advanced on Herat itself in 1729, defeating the Abdali Afghans. Having defeated them, he engaged them as allies to fight their rivals, the Ghilzai Afghans. In 1729, Nadir and his Abdali allies defeated the forces of Ashraf (d. 1730), the Ghilza Afghan to whom Hussein had abdicated, at the Battle of Mihmandust. The allies collaborated again on a victory at Murchalkur later in the year. After this series of brilliant victories, by which Nadir utterly defeated the Ghilzai, he restored Isfahan (near Murchalkur) Tahmasp II to the Persian throne.

Nadir then attacked and routed the Ottoman Turks, who had occupied adjacent areas of Azerbaijan and Iraq. Despite these early successes in the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1730–1736), Nadir was soon frustrated by the inept aggression of the new shah. Even as Nadir fought the Turks, the Afghans continued to rebel at Herat. Then, while Nadir was absent quelling the revolt, Tahmasp rashly attacked the Turks only to be heavily defeated. The Turks forced an ignominious peace on the shah, all of which enraged Nadir when he heard about it. He rushed back, deposed Tahmasp, placed the shah's infant son, Abbas III, on the throne, and declared himself regent. When he suffered a defeat at the hands of the Turks in Iraq, Nadir redoubled his effort and relentlessly drove them completely out of Persia. Fresh from that victory, he turned to Russia, threatening war. To avoid fighting Nadir, an uneasy Russia gave up its Caspian provinces in favor to Persia. Then, in 1736, Nadir deposed the child king Abbas III and took the Persian throne himself, assuming now the title of Nadir Shah.

And still, the war with the Afghans went on. In 1736, Nadir transferred 100,000 of his Abdali allies to Meshed, where they were to safeguard Khorasan. This generally stabilized Persia, enabling Nadir to conclude the war with the Turks. Once the Ottoman Turks were defeated, Nadir turned in 1737 to the task of taking the great fortified Ghizali city of Kandahar, considered impregnable. With 80,000 troops, most of them Abdalis, Nadir laid siege to the fortress city, which fell in 1738. Nadir attempted to raze Kandahar, but its 30-foot-thick walls were so stout that he was unable to destroy it. He evacuated it of Ghizalis, redeeming prisoners of war for captured Abdalis. With Persia largely won back from Afghan control, Nadir's ambitions expanded as he prepared to invade Mogul India (*see* PERSIAN INVASION OF MOGUL INDIAN).

Further reading: Willem M. Floor, *The Afghan Occupation of Safavid Persia, 1721–1729* (Paris: Association pour l'avancement des études iraniennes); Laurence Lockhart, *Nadir Shah* (New York: AMS Press, 1973).

Persian-Afghan War (1798)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muhammad Barakzai (with Persian allies) vs. his brother, Zaman Barakzai
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Muhammad Barakzai wanted to depose his brother and assume leadership of the Afghans.
OUTCOME: With Persian help, Muhammad Barakzai prevailed; his brother was deposed, blinded, and imprisoned.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Zaman Shah (r. 1793–1800) seized the Afghan throne with the intention of following in the footsteps of his grandfather, Ahmad Shah (d. 1772)—the founder of the Durrani dynasty, who had extended Afghan control from Meshed to Kashmir and Delhi—British imperialists grew nervous. Seeking above all to defend their growing hold on India, they persuaded the shah of Persia, Fath Ali (1766–1834), to pressure Zaman to call off his planned attack on India. Zaman, refusing to comply with the shah's wishes, invaded India, whereupon Fath Ali goaded Zaman's older brother, Muhammad (fl. 1798–1816), to

take advantage of Zaman's absence by usurping the Afghan throne. With Persian assistance, Muhammad took the fortress city of Kandahar and then the Afghan capital of Kabul. When Zaman returned from India, he found that he had been deposed. Falling captive to his brother, he was blinded and imprisoned.

Further reading: Sir Percy Sykes, *History of Afghanistan,* 2 vols. (New York: AMS Press, 1975); Stephen Tanner, *Afghanistan: A Military History from Alexander the Great to the Fall of the Taliban* (New York: Da Capo Press, 2002).

Persian-Afghan War (1816)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. Afghanistan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persian-Afghan frontier
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Fath Ali, shah of Persia, wanted to seize Herat, a city held by the Afghans.
OUTCOME: Muhammad, the Afghan king, was able to appease the Persian shah, who broke off his advance on Herat.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Fath Ali (1766–1834), shah of Persia, mounted an invasion of Afghanistan in 1816, marching a large army to Ghorian, a Persian fortress on the frontier. His objective was the capture of Herat, an Afghan city claimed by the Persians. However, the Afghan governor of Herat proposed to pay the Persian army to abort the invasion. The Afghan vizier disapproved of this bribery scheme and ordered the Herat governor to be deported. This done, Fath Ali's troops continued their advance on Herat. To appease Fath Ali, Muhammad (fl. 1798–1816), king of the Afghans, ordered that the vizier be blinded. Although Fath Ali did break off his campaign against Herat, the blinding of the vizier induced his relatives to seize the Afghan throne from Muhammad by way of vengeance.

Further reading: Sir Percy Sykes, *History of Afghanistan,* 2 vols. (New York: AMS Press, 1975): Stephan Tanner, *Afghanistan: A Military History from Alexander the Great to the Fall of the Taliban* (New York: Da Capo Press, 2002).

Persian-Afghan War (1836–1838)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. Afghanistan (allied with Great Britain)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Herat, Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Persians wanted to take Herat.
OUTCOME: With British aid, the Afghans resisted a 10-month Persian siege, forcing the Persians to withdraw.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Russian czar Nicholas I (1796–1855) induced Muhammad Shah (1810–1848), ruler of Persia, to invade Afghanistan. Muhammad assembled his invasion force at Khorasan, preparatory to an assault on the often-disputed city of Herat. The siege was begun on November 23, 1837. Meanwhile, the British, grown fearful that Persia was falling completely under Russia's spell, decided to aid the Afghans in defending Herat, which the British tended to see as the key to India. Entering into an alliance with the rulers not only of Herat but also of Kabul and Kandahar, they sent a formal mission to meet with Dost Muhammad (1793–1863), founder of the Afghan ruling dynasty—the Barakzai (or Mohammadzai). When Captain (later Sir) Alexander Burnes (1805–41) arrived in Kabul in 1837, he was thinking of protecting India from Russia, while Dost Muhammad was thinking of his failure the year before to take Peshawar, India, from the Sikhs.

The British helped the Afghans resist the Persian siege of Herat for 10 months, but after the Persians withdrew on September 28, 1838, Burnes refused to give Dost Muhammad the assurances of support he felt he needed and deserved to invade Peshawar again. If the British would not be enticed, however, the Russians might, and the Afghan ruler turned to the czar's government. A Russian agent appeared in Kabul ready to intrigue with the Afghans against the interests of their erstwhile allies, and the British promptly withdrew back to India, where they began their own plottings. Indeed, the failure of Burnes's mission made the First Afghan War (1839–42) almost inevitable.

Further reading: Sir Percy Sykes, *History of Afghanistan,* 2 vols. (New York: AMS Press, 1975); Stephan Tanner, *Afghanistan: A Military History from Alexander the Great to the Fall of the Taliban* (New York: Da Capo Press, 2002).

Persian-Afghan War (1855–1857)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. Afghanistan (allied with Great Britain)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Herat, Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia wanted to seize Herat.
OUTCOME: Under combined Afghan and British pressure, the Persians withdrew.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Afghan-British alliance was created by the Treaty of Peshawar of 1855.

Although the Afghan ruler Dost Muhammad (1793–1863) and most of his family had been deported to India after he surrendered to the British in Kabul at the close of the First AFGHAN WAR (1839–42), the British were never able to control postwar Afghanistan. When they tried to discuss terms for their withdrawal with Akbar Kahn, Dost Muhammad's son, they only managed to get their agent, Sir William Hay Macnaghten (1793–1841), assassinated during the parley. By the summer of 1842, the new governor general, Edward Law, Lord Ellenborough (1790–1871), decided to withdraw his country entirely from Afghanistan. The following year Dost Muhammad returned to Kabul ready to begin some 20 years of consolidating his rule.

By 1855, he had occupied Kandahar. That same year Britain and Afghanistan concluded the Treaty of Peshawar, which established, for the moment, friendship between the two nations. The treaty was timely; for also in 1855, a Persian army invaded Afghanistan, with the object of taking Herat, and the British answered the Afghans' call for aid. Under British pressure, the Persians withdrew. This freed Dost Muhammad to further consolidate his kingdom, uniting what had previously been many independent local rulers under his dynasty. In 1859 he occupied Balkh and then Herat in 1863 less than a month before his death in June.

See also ANGLO-PERSIAN WAR; PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1836–1838).

Further reading: Sir Percy Sykes, *History of Afghanistan,* 2 vols. (New York: AMS Press, 1975); Stephan Tanner, *Afghanistan: A Military History from Alexander the Great to the Fall of the Taliban* (New York: Da Capo Press, 2002).

Persian Civil War (522–521 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Gautama (the "false Smerdis") vs. Darius I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: An internecine struggle within the Achaemenid dynasty for control of the Persian Empire
OUTCOME: Darius I ascended the Persian throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Like that of many of the Achaemenid kings of Persia, the reign of Cambyses II from 529 to 522 B.C.E. was marred by a struggle for power within the dynasty. Cambyses was the eldest son of King Cyrus II (the Great; c. 600–529 B.C.E.), and his mother, Cassandane, was the daughter of a fellow Achaemenid. Cyrus put Cambyses in charge of Babylonian affairs in 538, and in 530, before Cyrus set out on his last campaign, he appointed Cambyses regent in Babylon, but it was the Persian conquest of Egypt, planned by Cyrus, that proved the major achievement of Cambyses reign.

Aided by Polycrates (c. 535–522 B.C.E.), tyrant of Samos, well-informed by Phanes, a Greek general in the Egyptian army, and supplied by Arabs with the water essential for crossing the Sinai, Cambyses defeated the army of Psamtik III (d. c. 523) at the battle of Pelusium in 525 in the Nile Delta. When he subsequently captured Heliopolis and Memphis, Egyptian resistance collapsed. According to the Greek historian Herodotus (c. 484–between 430–420 B.C.E.), Cambyses was a madman and guilty of many atrocities in Egypt, though later historians have questioned his judgments based on contemporary Egyptian sources, which suggest—at least in the beginning—Cambyses pursued a conciliatory policy toward Egypt while he planned new expeditions against Ethiopia and Carthage.

Herodotus based his judgments on the propaganda spread by Cambyses' distant cousin and successor Darius I (the Great; c. 558–486 B.C.E.). According to Darius, Cambyses, before going to Egypt, had secretly killed his brother, Bardiya (whom Herodotus called Smerdis [d. c. 525 B.C.E.), so he could claim sole rule over Persia. The murdered prince was, however, impersonated by Gaumata (d. 521 B.C.E.), the Magian, a Median priest who seized the Achaemenid throne in March 522. Cambyses abruptly broke off his plans for other expeditions and headed back to Persia from Egypt, dying along the way in the summer of 522, either by accident or, possibly, suicide.

Gautama-Smerdis continued to rule for seven months but was overthrown and killed by Darius (c. 558–486 B.C.E.). Darius now ascended the throne as Darius I and, after hard-fought campaigns to thwart rebellions all across Persia, would reign as Darius the Great.

See also PERSIAN REVOLTS.

Further reading: Herodotus, *Wars of Greece and Persia,* W. D. Lowe, ed. (Wauconda, Ill.: Bolchazy Carducci, 1990); Sir Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia* (New York: RoutledgeCurzon, 2003).

Persian Civil War (1500–1503)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Koyunlu sect vs. the Shi'ite sect
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persian Empire (Iran and Iraq)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ismail, Shi'ite leader, sought to unify the Persian Empire under Shi'ism.
OUTCOME: To a great extent, Ismail succeeded in suppressing the Sunnis and establishing the dominance of Shi'ism in the Persian Empire and beyond.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Religion was at the root of this conflict between the Turkoman Al Koyunlu dynasty and the Shi'ites (and other sects) of Persia. The Koyunlus reformed Timurid and Mongol laws to comply with Sunni religious canons, seeking to reapply rigorous orthodox rules for collecting taxes. This enraged the Sufi Shi'ite sheikh Heydar (d. 1488) of Ardebil, who was killed by Sunnis in 1488. Meanwhile, the reforms had damaged the popularity of the regime and discredited Sunni fanaticism, leaving the path clear for Heydar's son, Ismail (1486–1524), who swore revenge and used his father's Kizilbash warrior society to fight the Koyunlus and ultimately establish the Safavid dynasty. Through a combination of his own military skill and charisma and by exploiting the fractious nature of the Koyunlu dynasty, Ismail established himself as shah in Tabriz in 1501. At the Battle of Shurur later in the year, he defeated the last of the Koyunlu rulers, then went on to conquer the territory encompassing most of modern Iran and Iraq. When he captured Hamadan in 1503, Ismail had such power and influence that he was able to convert most of the region's Sunnis into Shi'ites, and he firmly established Shi'ism as the state religion of the Persian Empire. Ismail's spiritual influence extended even further than his political power, encompassing Turkoman sects in Anatolia (Turkey) and into eastern Europe (southern Romania). Ismail's family, riding the swelling Shi'ite tide, would occupy the throne until 1722.

Further reading: David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London, New York: Longman, 1988); Sir Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia* (New York: RoutledgeCurzon, 2003).

Persian Civil War (1725–1730)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Tahmasp II (under Nadir Khan) vs. various Persian factions and the Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Establishment of Tahmasp II as shah of Persia
OUTCOME: Thanks to the military skill of Nadir Khan, Tahmasp was established on the Persian throne, and the occupying Ottoman Turks were pushed out of Persia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Amid the early disintegration of the Safavid dynasty in Persia, Shah Hussein (c. 1675–1726) was murdered by an Afghan in 1726, thereby precipitating Persia into full-scale civil war. The Ottoman Turks exploited Persia's chaos by invading and occupying vast territories, from Georgia to Hamadan. In the meantime, Nadir Khan (1688–1747) served Tahmasp II (d. 1739), the uncrowned shah of Persia, as his leading general. He patiently assembled, enlarged, and continually trained a formidable army, which made Tahmasp dominant in Persia. By 1730, Nadir Khan had forced the Ottomans out of Hamadan, Kirmanshah, and Tabriz. With that, the Persian Civil War of 1725–30 came to a close.

See also AFGHAN REBELLIONS; PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1726–1738); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1730–1736).

Further reading: Willem M. Floor, *The Afghan Occupation of Safavid Persia, 1721–1729* (Amsterdam: Cleeters, 1998); David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London, New York: Longman, 1988).

Persian Civil War (1747–1760)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The late Nadir Shah's military commanders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The military commanders fought one another for control of the Persian Empire.
OUTCOME: Karim Khan founded the Zand dynasty and emerged as the dominant ruler of Persia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1736, Nadir Khan (1688–1747) established the Afshar dynasty in Persia, reigned as Nadir Shah, and reestablished the greatness of the Persian Empire. However, Nadir Shah was assassinated in 1747, and the Persian Empire fell prey to the ambition of Nadir Shah's various

military commanders, who—bent on establishing their own states—scrambled for territorial spoils. Ahmid Shah Durran (1725–75) founded a kingdom in Afghanistan, based at Kandahar; Shah Rokh, Nadir's blind grandson, remained at the helm of the Afsharid ship of state in Khorasan; the Qajar chief, Muhammad Hasan, took the region of Mazanderan south of the Caspian Sea, then expelled Azad Kahn from Azerbaijan. From 1747 to 1760, a half dozen men struggled to dominate the Persian Empire.

In 1760, central and southern Persia had been consolidated under the nominal rule of an infant, Shah Ismail III (fl. c. 1755–80), who was controlled by his regent, Karim Khan (c. 1705–79), founder of the Zand dynasty. Karim Khan was content never to assume the title of shah for himself, but he worked behind the scenes in an effort to return Persia to the greatness it had enjoyed under Nadir Shah. He succeeded to some extent, rebuilding the country, reforming taxation, and expanding trade; however, on his death in 1779, the empire was once again torn by civil war (*see* PERSIAN CIVIL WAR [1779–1794]).

Further reading: Laurence Lockhart, *Nadir Shah* (New York: AMS Press, 1973); David Morgan, *Medieval Persian, 1040–1797* (London, New York: Longman, 1988).

Persian Civil War (1779–1794)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kajars vs. Zands and, subsequently, various rebel factions
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rule over Persia
OUTCOME: By 1794, Agha Muhammad Khan had founded and firmly established the Kajars as the ruling dynasty of Persia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The assassination of Karim Khan (c. 1705–79), founder of the Zand dynasty, touched off a struggle for power among members of the dynasty. Lotf Ali Khan Zand (1769–94) rose to dominance after a struggle that lasted until 1789. However, once placed on the Persian throne, Lotf Ali became the target of Agha Muhammad Khan (1742–97), head of the rival Kajar (or Qajar) family. He met Lotf Ali in battle at Kerman in 1794, defeated him, captured him, and had him killed. This having been done, Agha turned his wrath on the people of Kerman, whom he massacred. Those who escaped death were mutilated or blinded—all in retribution for their having supported Lotf Ali.

Within two years after killing Lotf Ali, Agha had subdued all of Persia, save the always rebellious Khorasan. Crowning himself "king of kings," Agha led an attack on Khorasan in 1796, taking its ruler Shah Rokh (d. 1796) captive and torturing him to death to make him reveal the location of all the Afsharid treasure. Although Agha's rapacity and sheer cruelty dismantled the Persian economy, he ruled with such a degree of terror that all rebellions—and there were many—quickly withered. His Kajar dynasty held Persia in thrall until the ascension of the Pahlavi dynasty with the PERSIAN REVOLUTION (1921). Agha himself was assassinated in 1797.

See also PERSIAN CIVIL WAR (1747–1760).

Further reading: David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London, New York: Longman, 1988); Sir Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia* (New York: RoutledgeCurzon, 2003).

Persian Conquests (559–509 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. Scythia, the Getae, Thrace, the Greek cities of Asia Minor, and Macedonia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scythia, the Getae, Thrace, the Greek cities of Asia Minor, and Macedonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Territorial conquest
OUTCOME: Persia greatly expanded under Darius I the Great.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

After securing his authority over Persia, Darius I (the Great; c. 558–486 B.C.E.) embarked on an ambitious campaign of imperial expansion, beginning by fighting against the Scythians on Persia's borders, pushing them east of the Caspian Sea and thereby expanding the Persian domain as far east as the valley of the Indus. This accomplished, in 513 B.C.E. he attacked the Scythians of eastern Thrace and the eastern territories of the Getae. This campaign took the forces of Darius into Europe, as the emperor pushed the Scythians and Getae into the territory now encompassed by Romania.

Unfortunately, Darius had ventured so far that supply became a major problem, especially as the conquered people began destroying crops and other resources to foil foraging. Darius withdrew his troops and left the rest of the task of conquering Thrace and Asia Minor to a network of satraps (royal governors). As for Macedonia, Darius never conquered it, but he did compel its submission to Persian authority. In 509, the first great phase of Persian conquest was completed with the acquisition of the Aegean islands of Lemnos and Imbros.

See also GRECO-PERSIAN WARS.

Further reading: J. M. Cook, *The Persian Empire* (New York: Schocken Books, 1983); Herodotus, *Wars of Greece and Persia,* W. D. Lowe, ed. (Wauconda, Ill.: Bolchazy Carducci, 1990); A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959); Sir Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia* (New York: Routledge-Curzon, 2003).

Persian-Greek Wars *See* GRECO-PERSIAN WARS.

Persian Gulf War (1990–1991)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Iraq vs. Kuwait and a U.S.-led coalition of 48 nations
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Saudi Arabia, Iraq, and Kuwait
DECLARATION: UN-set deadline for Iraqi withdrawal from Kuwait, January 15, 1991
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A UN-sanctioned, U.S.-led coalition—with the objective of protecting key oil supplies in the Middle East—sought to liberate Kuwait from occupation by Iraq.
OUTCOME: Kuwait was liberated, but Iraq's dictator, Saddam Hussein, remained in power.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Coalition, 450,000, in addition to vast air and naval assets; Iraq, 530,000
CASUALTIES: Coalition casualties: 95 killed, 368 wounded, 20 missing in action; Iraqi casualties: 50,000 killed, 50,000 wounded, 60,000 taken prisoner
TREATIES: Iraqi capitulation, February 28, 1991

After prevailing in an eight-year war against Iran so costly that it nearly led to a military coup in Iraq (*see* IRAN-IRAQ WAR), dictator Saddam Hussein (b. 1935) on August 2, 1990, invaded and attempted to annex the small, oil-rich neighboring nation of Kuwait. The invasion was swift; in less than a week, the Iraqi army, fourth-largest ground force in the world, was in complete control of Kuwait. The United States, its allies, and much of the world now feared that Iraq would go on to mount an attack southward into Saudi Arabia. This could give Hussein a stranglehold on much of the world's oil supply; even if he chose to press the attack no farther, his seizure of Kuwait put him in a position to threaten Saudi Arabia and thus control the flow of oil.

The United States responded to the invasion by freezing Iraqi assets in the United States and by cutting off trade with the country. The administration of President George H. W. Bush (b. 1924) then worked to secure UN resolutions condemning the invasion and supporting military action against it. Bush and Secretary of State James Baker (b. 1930) worked quickly to forge an unprecedented coalition among 48 nations. Of these, 30 provided military forces, with the United States making the largest contribution; 18 other nations provided economic, humanitarian, and other noncombat assistance. Saudi Arabia and other Arab states near Iraq provided port facilities, airfields, and staging areas for the buildup of ground forces. Because the participation of Israel would drive a wedge between the Arab members of the coalition and the United States and other Western members, Israel agreed not to take part in any military action, except in direct self-defense.

The U.S. buildup in the Middle East began on August 7, 1990, in response to a Saudi request for U.S. military aid to defend against possible Iraqi invasion. Operation Desert Shield was initiated to deploy sufficient forces to deter further Iraqi aggression and to defend Saudi Arabia. The first step was a naval blockade of Iraq. On August 8, U.S. Air Force fighters began to arrive at Saudi air bases. Lead elements of the army arrived on August 9. By September, the coalition had sufficient resources deployed to deter any further invasion. U.S. forces in the region included, by the fall, four aircraft carrier battle groups, each of which consisted of 74 aircraft, one guided missile cruiser, three to five destroyers or frigates, and one or two support vessels in addition to one aircraft carrier. Six to eight nuclear submarines were also in the Persian Gulf area. The U.S. Air Force had 400 combat aircraft in the theater of operations by September 2. By the end of October, 210,000 U.S. Army and Marine troops had been deployed, in addition to 65,000 troops from other coalition nations. These forces put the United States and the coalition countries in a position to attempt the diplomatic negotiation of an Iraqi withdrawal from Kuwait. But Saddam Hussein proved unresponsive, despite a series of UN resolutions condemning him. President Bush prepared the American people to accept the necessity of military action against Hussein. Bush and the State Department also successfully lobbied for a UN resolution authorizing military force to expel Iraq from Kuwait. This was secured on November 29. The resolution set a withdrawal deadline of January 15, 1991.

Mid-January was also when the United States anticipated completing a second phase of the military buildup in the Middle East. As the deadline approached, 450,000 coalition troops were on the ground, to oppose a larger Iraqi force, some 530,000, in Kuwait. Except in troop numbers, the coalition enjoyed an overwhelming advantage: more than 170 ships were now in the area, including six aircraft carriers and two battleships. Air power consisted of 2,200 combat craft.

When the deadline passed, Operation Desert Shield became Operation Desert Storm, and on the morning of January 16 a massive air campaign was unleashed against Iraq and Iraqi positions in Kuwait. This air war continued for five weeks, during which coalition forces flew more

than 88,000 missions with losses of only 22 U.S. aircraft and nine craft from other coalition countries. The Iraqi air force offered almost no resistance, and antiaircraft fire and surface-to-air missiles had little effect against the coalition sorties. The Iraqis attempted to hide some of their planes in hardened revetments; others were flown into Iran.

The Iraqis did make use of Scud surface-to-surface missiles, which were directed against Israel and Saudi Arabia. Israel was targeted specifically in the hope that the attacks would goad it into entering the war, thereby alienating the Arab members of the coalition. Through deft diplomacy, the United States kept Israel out of the war. The United States deployed mobile Patriot missile launchers to intercept Scud attacks. Although most of the incoming Scuds were successfully deflected, the coalition was far less successful in destroying Scud launchers on the ground. Iraqi missile crews were skilled at camouflaging the mobile Scud launchers, then quickly moving the launchers to a new site.

Impressively destructive as the coalition air campaign was, its main purpose was to prepare the way for the ground campaign, which was led primarily by U.S. general H. Norman Schwarzkopf (b. 1934). The overwhelming air supremacy of the coalition kept Iraqi reconnaissance aircraft from discovering anything about the deployment of coalition ground troops; however, it was the Iraqis who made the first move on the ground, launching an attack on the Saudi town of Khafji on January 29, with three tank brigades. Although the Iraqis occupied the lightly defended town, they were pushed out the next day by a Saudi counterattack. The Battle of Khafji suggested to coalition military planners that the Iraqis were no match for U.S.-style mobile warfare.

The coalition ground offensive stepped off at 4 A.M., February 24, 1991. The plan was for the army's 18th Airborne Corps to be positioned on the coalition's left flank. This unit would move into Iraq on the far west and, striking deep within the country, cut off the Iraqi army in Kuwait, isolating it from any support or reinforcement from the north. The French Sixth Light Armored Division covered the 18th Airborne Corps's own left flank. The center of the ground force consisted of the U.S. Seventh Corps, the U.S. Second Armored Cavalry, and the British First Armored Division—celebrated as the "Desert Rats" who defeated Erwin Rommel's Afrika Korps in WORLD WAR II. The center units would move north into Iraq after the left and right flanks had been secured, then make a sharp right turn to advance into Kuwait from the west to attack Iraqi units there, including the elite Republican Guard. The right flank was also charged with breaching Iraqi lines in Kuwait. The units composing this flank were mainly U.S. Marines.

The attacks on the first day were intended, in part, to screen the main attack and to deceive the Iraqis into thinking that the principal assault would come on the coast of Kuwait. Although Iraqi defenses were well developed, relatively light resistance was offered, and many Iraqi prisoners were taken. By the second day of the ground war, French troops had secured the left flank of the coalition advance, and the U.S. forces had cut off all avenues of Iraqi retreat and reinforcement. The U.S. 24th Division ended its advance in Basra, Iraq, which sealed the remaining avenue of escape from Kuwait.

With the Iraqis in Kuwait occupied on the right, the Eighth Airborne Corps made a surprise attack on the left, in the west. By nightfall of February 25, well ahead of schedule, the Eighth Airborne Corps was already turning east into Kuwait. When the corps encountered units of the Republican Guard, the vaunted Iraqi elite fled before their advance. By February 27, however, with the 24th Infantry having taken Basra, the Republican Guard was bottled up. The Hammurabi Division, the elite of the elite Republican Guard, attempted to engage the Eighth Airborne Corps in a delaying action to allow the remainder of the Republican Guard to escape. The attempt failed, and the Hammurabi Division was wiped out.

Among the American public, haunted by memories of Vietnam, the war against Iraq had been fraught with much trepidation. In fact, the air and ground campaigns were probably the most successful military operations in modern history. This was due in large measure to overwhelming force and technology, as well as planning that was both careful and bold; but it was also due to the universal ineptitude of the Iraqi response to the coalition and to the poor generalship of Saddam Hussein, who took personal command of much of the war. In the end, the Scud missiles were the only significant element of Iraqi resistance to the coalition attack. The Iraqi air force was essentially a no-show in the war, as were the 43 ships of the Iraqi navy.

A cease-fire was declared at 8 A.M. on February 28, shortly after Iraq capitulated on U.S. terms. The ground war had lasted 100 hours. Operation Desert Storm had achieved its mission of liberating Kuwait, and it had done so with minimal coalition casualties: 95 killed, 368 wounded, 20 missing in action. Iraqi casualties were perhaps as many as 50,000 killed and another 50,000 wounded; 60,000 Iraqi troops were taken prisoner. Iraqi military hardware was destroyed, as were communication equipment and military bases, barracks, and other facilities.

During the war, Iraqi forces in Kuwait terrorized citizens and laid waste 300 oil fields, setting numerous blazes. The oil-field fires were one of the worst legacies of the war, burning for years to come. In addition, Saddam committed unprecedented acts of ecological terrorism by creating massive and deliberate oil spills into the Persian Gulf, hoping to foul Saudi desalinization plants, which produce drinking water for the nation. In Iraq itself varying degrees of civil unrest followed in the wake of the ruinous war, especially in outlying provinces and particularly in the chronically rebellious Kurdish provinces. But

Saddam managed to hold on to power and continuously to indulge in bouts of defiance against sanctions leveled and conditions imposed by the United Nations.

In its immediate aftermath, the Persian Gulf War appeared to many Americans to be the first "good" war the United States had fought since World War II. In an era marked by ambiguity of motives and murky options that often amounted to attempting to determine the least of any number of manifest evils, here was a conflict that seemed a simple matter of choosing to defend the hapless against the hateful. There had been a number of voices raised in the United States—both among the public and in Congress—at the outset protesting the exchange of "blood for oil." But to most, Hussein soon appeared the devil incarnate and a stark contrast to the head of the coalition forces, General Schwarzkopf, who was frank and professional in his many wartime press conferences, and to the head of the American joint chiefs, the clear-thinking, politically astute African-American general, Colin Powell (b. 1937). The pleasure most Americans took in the victory over Saddam Hussein was evident in the public adulation accorded Schwarzkopf and Powell and in the unprecedented 90-percent-plus popular approval rating President Bush garnered during and immediately following the war.

To be sure, Saddam Hussein was a tyrant. But the century had seen many tyrants, and many far worse—in terms of body count—than he: Stalin, Hitler, Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-t'ung), Pol Pot, and others. The difference was—and it was a difference that made the Gulf War unique at the time—never had so many people seen the work of a tyrant so close and immediate. CNN, the cable television 24-hour news network, covered the war in such thorough and intimate detail that Powell, Schwarzkopf, and others admitted to using the broadcasts as valuable supplements to official intelligence. Vietnam had, of course, been reported on television—and the effect was powerful—but here television audiences nationwide not only got reports on the Persian Gulf War, they also saw it unfold at the same time as the commanders did.

It was a late 20th-century war, creating around it an electronic community and, in the process, translating complex moral and political issues into real-time television melodrama. Certainly George Bush treated the war as a miniseries depicting the triumph of good guys over bad as he began to talk boldly about a "new world order" based on this first post–cold war conflict, which would see a confluence of world powers policing "outlaw" nations and protecting the globe from the threat they represented. But even as the smoke continued to billow into the atmosphere from sabotaged Kuwaiti oil wells, ethnic conflicts in Africa and the Balkans raised issues that appeared to befuddle the same world that had united against Hussein. When the United States and the United Nations seemed to ignore the genocide of "ethnic cleansing" in these new trouble spots, their irresolution called into question just how much the Gulf War had to do with humanitarian rescue and how much with fossil fuels.

However hard President Bush tried to make Desert Storm into the antidote for America's so-called Vietnam syndrome, he could not maintain his popularity when the war degenerated into something of a personal squabble with Saddam after the fighting was over. Bush found himself attacked for sending Saddam the confused diplomatic signals that encouraged the Iraqi dictator to invade Kuwait in the first place, for saving that country only to return it to a few incredibly wealthy and arrogant oil autocrats, for failing to finish the job he had started by deposing Saddam, and for floundering in his responses to Saddam's flouting of UN-imposed sanctions and peace conditions.

Bush's telegenic military commanders, however, fared much better. Schwarzkopf had become a media darling by the time he retired, conducting a well-received and enriching speaking tour and producing a best-selling autobiography centered on his Gulf War experiences. Colin Powell, his authority swelled by the success of the war, proved a thorn in the side of the new U.S. president, Bill Clinton (b. 1946), blocking Clinton's attempts to integrate openly gay men into the military and frustrating Clinton's efforts to make drastic cuts in the defense budget shortly after he assumed office.

As an African American who enjoyed tremendous prestige and great popularity, Powell seemed poised to run for political office himself as he resigned early in the Clinton administration. Instead, he wrote his own best-selling autobiography and conducted an extended publicity tour to sell it. In the book, Powell admitted that it was he—and not George Bush—who refused to continue the war in order to bring down Saddam Hussein and, in fact, that he had been opposed to going to war with Iraq from the start. Ironically enough, President George W. Bush (b. 1946)—George H. W. Bush's son—would make Powell his secretary of state primarily because of the reputation he gained from a war he did not want to fight and, most felt, had called off too early.

See also UNITED STATES–IRAQ WAR.

Further reading: Deborah Amos, *Lines in the Sand: Desert Storm and the Remaking of the Arab World* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1992); Rick Atkinson, *Crusade: The Untold Story of the Persian Gulf War* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1993); Lawrence Freedman and Efrain Karsh, *The Gulf Conflict, 1990–1991: Diplomacy and War in the New World Order* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1993); A. Sue Goodman, *Persian Gulf War, 1990–1991: Desert Shield/Desert Storm* (Maxwell Air Force Base, Ala.: Air University Library, 1991); Michael R. Gordon and General Bernard E. Trainor, *The Generals' War: The Inside Story of the Conflict in the Gulf* (Boston: Little Brown and Co., 1996); Richard P. Hallion, *Storm over Iraq: Air Power and the Gulf War* (Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution Press, 1992).

Persian Invasion of Greece (480–479 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia and Greece
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Aegean coast of southern Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia sought to invade, conquer, and subjugate the Greek city-states; Greece sought to stave off the invasion.
OUTCOME: At Thermopylae, Xerxes defeated the Spartans only to see the invasion ultimately fail because of Athenian prowess at sea.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the Persian defeat during the MARATHON CAMPAIGN in 490 B.C.E., Darius I (the Great; c. 558–486 B.C.E.) made plans to invade and conquer Greece but died before he could execute them. In 480, his son Xerxes (c. 519–465 B.C.E.) fell heir to the throne and to his father's ambitions and led the invasion, attacking from Macedonia and moving south through Thessaly. Led by Sparta's king, Leonidas (d. 480 B.C.E.), the small Greek army met the vastly superior Persian force at Thermopylae. For two days Leonidas withstood the Persian onslaught and held in check Xerxes' advance. At length, the Persians, attacking from the rear, trapped the Greeks in a narrow pass. By then the Spartan king had ordered most of his troops to retreat, while he and his 300-member royal guard remained behind to fight the invaders down to the last man. The episode clearly made a deep impression on the Greek imagination, and—thanks in no small measure to Herodotus—Thermopylae gave rise to the legend that Spartans never surrendered.

Meanwhile, the Greek navy, mostly Athenian, fought the Persians in the Aegean. Indeed the Greek navy saved the day, destroying Xerxes' fleet, causing the Persians to flee back to Asia Minor, and greatly enhancing the power and prestige of Athens. Left in charge of the Persian force in Greece, Mardonius (d. 479 B.C.E.) attacked Boeotia in 479 but was thwarted by Pausanius (d. 471 B.C.E.), who led the bedraggled Greeks through some ingenious manueverings into the heart of the Persian camp, which they sacked, killing Mardonius in the process. The Greek fleet finished the Persian navy at Cape Mycale near Samos, cutting off all possibility of a Persian attack through Europe.

See also GRECO-PERSIAN WARS.

Further reading: A. R. Burn, *Persia and the Greeks: The Defence of the West, c. 546–478 B.C.E.* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1984); Herodotus, *Wars of Greece and Persia,* W. D. Lowe, ed. (Wauconda, Ill.: Bolchazy Carducci, 1990); Sir Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia* (New York: RoutledgeCurzon, 2003).

Persian Invasion of Mogul India (1738–1739)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mogul Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India
DECLARATION: Nadir Shah invaded India on May 10, 1738.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: To punish the Indians for coming to the aid of the Afghans under Persian attack, Nadir Shah invaded India.
OUTCOME: The Persians defeated and sacked the Mogul Empire, but left the current emperor in power.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Persians, 50,000; Moguls, 300,000
CASUALTIES: Persians, 3,400 killed; 5,000 wounded; Moguls, 17,000 killed; 20,000 citizens of Delhi massacred by Nadir Shah
TREATIES: None

When Muhammad Shah (1702–48), the Mogul emperor, allied himself with the Afghans and against the Persians during the PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1726–1738), he unfortunately brought India to the attention of the Persian ruler, Nadir Shah (1688–1747). After forcing Kabul to surrender in September of 1738, Nadir drove on into the Mogul Empire looking for loot to shore up his war-depleted resources. Brushing the Mogul force aside at the Khyber Pass, Nadir and his 50,000 men marched toward the Punjab, seizing Peshawar and Lahore as they went. At Karnal the Moguls mustered some 300,000 Indians and 2,000 elephants to halt the Persian advance, but the clever Nadir sneaked past their encampment to set up an ambush at a nearby village. Nadir lured part of the Indian force from its camp and routed it after a four-hour battle, which led to an abject Indian surrender. After the triumphant Nadir entered Delhi, rumors of his murder led his soldiers to riot, which almost cost him his life at the hand of Indians resisting the rioting troops. A vengeful shah ordered the massacre of some 20,000 Indians as the Persians sacked and burned Delhi. Though he left Muhammad Shah in power, Nadir took the Peacock Throne on which the Indian ruler sat back with him to Persia, along with the crown jewels, the Koh-i-noor diamond, and a huge indemnity of 700 million rupees collected from the Indian citizens. So great was the Indian booty, Nadir was able to exempt the whole of Persia from taxes for three years, at least temporarily solving the vexing problem of how to make his empire financially sound.

Further reading: Laurence Lockhart, *Nadir Shah* (New York: AMS Press, 1973); David Morgan, *Medieval*

Persia, 1040–1797 (London, New York: Longman, 1988); Sir Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia* (New York: Routledge-Curzon, 2003).

Persian-Kushan War (c. 250)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. the Kushans
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bactria or Gandhara
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Presumably, Shapur I of Persia wanted to make conquests in central and western Asia.
OUTCOME: Shapur I defeated the Kushans under Vasuveda but failed to follow up on his triumph; thus, while the Kushans were driven out of central and western Asia, the Persians did not step in to fill the vacuum.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Shapur I (d. 272), the Sassanid emperor of Persia, mounted an expedition against the Kushans, who were led by Vasuveda. The exact date of the expedition is unknown, as is the precise location of the brief war, which, however, is believed to have taken place in Bactria or Gandhara.

Unfortunately for Persia, internal strife and Shapur's own preoccupation with the ongoing struggle against Rome prevented exploitation of the triumph over the Kushans, who were, in fact, driven from central as well as western Asia.

Further reading: Richard Frye, *Golden Age of Persia* (London: Phoenix Press, 2000); Sir Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia* (New York: RoutledgeCurzon, 2003).

Persian-Lydian War (547–546 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. Lydia (with Chaldea, Egypt, and Sparta)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lydia and Ionia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Lydia's King Croesus sought either conquest or to forestall Persian invasion; Persia's Emperor Cyrus sought conquest.
OUTCOME: Lydia fell to Persia, as did the former Lydian satellite cities along the Ionian coast.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Persians, 50,000; Lydian forces were larger
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but certainly heavy among the Lydians
TREATIES: None

By about 550 B.C.E., Croesus (d. 547 B.C.E.), king of Lydia, had successfully annexed a number of the Greek cities along the coast of Asia Minor. From these conquests, Croesus moved on, in 547, to invade Cappadocia, a province of Persia-Media. Just why Croesus crossed the Halys into this territory is unclear. He may have wanted to restore his brother-in-law Astyages (fl. 584–549 B.C.E.) to the Median throne, or he may have been moving preemptively against what he believed would be a Persian invasion of Lydia. Allied with Croesus were the forces of Chaldea, Egypt, and Sparta.

The Persian army was led by Cyrus II (c. 600–529 B.C.E.), who engaged Croesus's forces at the Battle of Pteria in 547 or 546. The battle, under harsh winter conditions, was fierce, but ultimately indecisive—although it did result in the retreat of Croesus back across the Halys.

Returned to Sardis, Croesus communicated with his allies in an attempt to organize a new invasion during a more favorable season; however, Cyrus stole a march on him by invading Lydia with at least 50,000 men. As Cyrus closed in on Sardis, Croesus hastily assembled a superior force to meet him. The greatly outnumbered Cyrus deployed his forces with consummate and innovative skill, using a great square formation rather than the conventional parallel order of battle. This formation tempted the superior Lydian army to attempt an easy envelopment. Anticipating this movement, however, Cyrus was able to exploit the gaps that were created by it. His forces drove the Lydians to great disorder and ultimately routed the army of Croesus. Cyrus took Sardis but treated the conquered people with great magnanimity.

A short time later, during 546, the Persian general Harpagus (fl. sixth century B.C.E.) conquered the Ionian cities, which had been under the control of Croesus. After that king's defeat, these cities made bold to assert their independence. Harpagus quickly crushed the incipient rebellions and seized control of the cities for Persia.

Further reading: A. R. Burn, *Persia and the Greeks: The Defence of the West, c. 546–478 B.C.E.* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1984); Herodotus, *Wars of Greece and Persia,* W. D. Lowe, ed. (Wauconda, Ill.: Bolchazy Carducci, 1990); Sir Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia* (New York: RoutledgeCurzon, 2003).

Persian-Mesopotamian Wars

See ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (337–363).

Persian-Mogul Wars

See MOGUL-PERSIAN WAR (1622–1623); MOGUL-PERSIAN WAR (1638); MOGUL-PERSIAN WAR (1648–1653); PERSIAN INVASION OF MOGUL INDIA.

Persian Revolts (521–519 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Darius I vs. various pretenders and rebel forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia, Media, Susiana, Babylonia, Sagartia, Margiana, and Armenia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Consolidation of control over the Persian Empire
OUTCOME: Darius I firmly established himself as ruler of the empire and put himself in position for further conquests.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After he became ruler of Persia in the course of the PERSIAN CIVIL WAR of 522–521 B.C.E., Darius I (the Great; c. 588–486 B.C.E.) embarked on a ruthless campaign to enforce and secure his rule. He led an expedition to Media to assassinate the putative son of Cyrus II (the Great; c. 600–529 B.C.E.)—Gaumata (d. 521 B.C.E.), a Magian, who claimed to be Bardiya (d. c. 521 B.C.E.) (called by Herodotus "Smerdis"). Darius claimed the real heir had been secretly murdered by his brother, Cambyses II (d. 522 B.C.E.), who had recently died, perhaps a suicide, while in Egypt. The priest Gaumata, then, was a fraud, who had usurped the Median throne in 522.

The assassination of Gaumata accomplished, Darius led or dispatched forces to Susiana, Babylonia, Sagartia, and Margiana to crush uprisings in these places. Each had taken advantage of the internal chaos of Persia during the civil war and had established independent governments. Darius brought these to an end.

In the meantime, back at home in Persia and in Babylonia, impostors claiming descent from Cyrus or Cyaxares (d. 585 B.C.E.) attempted to usurp the throne. Darius crushed their forces quickly.

In 519 B.C.E., Armenia and Parthia rose against his rule. Troops nipped budding revolts there, then had to return to Susiana, where a third revolt was under way. Archaeological evidence exists that, in Susiana, Darius fought 19 battles in which he crushed nine rebel leaders.

After 519 B.C.E., Darius had so thoroughly secured his empire that he launched invasion offensives to acquire more (*see* PERSIAN CONQUESTS).

Further reading: Herodotus, *Wars of Greece and Persia,* W. D. Lowe, ed. (Wauconda, Ill.: Bolchazy Carducci, 1990); Sir Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia* (New York: RoutledgeCurzon, 2003).

Persian Revolution (1906–1909)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kajar Shah of Persia (with Russian aid) vs. liberal revolutionaries
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia (Iran)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The shah sought to preserve an absolute monarchy; liberals sought to introduce constitutional government.
OUTCOME: Despite Russian aid, the shah was ultimately forced to abdicate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Persia entered the 20th century as a faltering absolute monarchy, its shah, Mozaffar od-Din Shah (1852–1907), weak, and its economy weaker. In 1906, the shah bowed to popular pressure for a constitution and signed the Fundamental Law, by which Persia became a constitutional monarchy. Shortly after signing the document, the shah died, leaving the nation to his son, Muhammad Ali (1872–1925). Immediately, the new shah sought to abrogate the constitution by overthrowing the Majles, the new parliament. He was aided by the Russian czar Nicholas II (1868–1918), who had recently put down the RUSSIAN REVOLUTION (1905). Muhammad Ali formed a brigade of Persian Cossacks, which terrorized the parliament into suspending itself. This did not prevent revolutionaries from assassinating the shah's reactionary prime minister, Mirza Mahmoud Khan (d. 1906). The newly formed parliament yielded to the shah in enacting an absolutist constitution, yet it simultaneously declined to abrogate the original liberal document. The new prime minister, Aynu'd-Dawlih a liberal, united with others in the parliament in supporting the original constitution and was arrested for this in December 1907. A few months later, in June 1908, the shah used his Persian Cossacks to break up the second parliament. A third was formed and, in obedience to the shah's will, repudiated the original 1906 constitution, claiming that it ran contrary to Muslim law.

Yet the seeds of revolution had been sown. In 1908, Tabriz rebelled against Muhammad Ali, and Rasht and Isfahan followed the next year. In March 1909, Persian and Russian forces combined to crush the rebels, but Bakhtiaro tribespeople overran the capital, Tehran, in July 1909, forcing Muhammad Ali to abdicate in favor of his 12-year-old son, Ahmed Mirza (1898–1930). He was subject to a regent who initially accepted some reform, but when Ahmed Mirza came into his majority, he proved a corrupt, inept, and ineffective leader. A new revolution erupted in 1921 (*see* PERSIAN REVOLUTION [1921]).

Further reading: Peter Avery, *Modern Iran* (New York: Praeger, 1965); Edward G. Browne, *The Persian Revolution of 1905–1909* (Washington, D.C.: Mage Publishers, 1995); Sir Percy Sykes, *A History of Persia* (RoutledgeCurzon, 2003).

Persian Revolution (1921)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces loyal to Reza Khan Pahlavi vs. the government of Ahmed Shah
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia (Iran)
DECLARATION: Coup of February 21, 1921
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Overthrow of the Kajar dynasty
OUTCOME: Pahlavi overthrew Ahmed Shah and established the Pahlavi dynasty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The coup was accomplished with 3,000 troops.
CASUALTIES: Few
TREATIES: None

Ahmed Shah (1898–1930), who came to power as a result of the PERSIAN REVOLUTION (1906–1909), proved a corrupt and incompetent ruler, who brought Persia to the edge of total political and economic collapse, subject to the whim of Great Britain and Russia, which, between them, had commercial control of the country. Then, during WORLD WAR I, Iran was the scene of much intrigue from the pro-British and pro-German groups among the Persian nobility, which had pretty much gained control of the Iranian parliament (called in Iran the Majles). When the war-spawned economic and political disruptions were greatly exacerbated by growing famine and the looming national bankruptcy, Great Britain offered both financial and military assistance. But the Nazi faction won out in the Majles, Iran refused the British offer (with all the strings it implied) and Great Britain withdrew its financial and military experts from Persia.

It was into this chaos that an Iranian officer, Reza Khan (1877–1944), of the Persian Cossack Brigade, stepped in to take charge. In collaboration with a political writer, Sayyid Zia od-Din Tabataba'i, he staged a coup d'état on February 21, 1921. Immediately seizing control of all the military forces, Pahlavi named himself minister of war in the new provisional government and quickly seized dictatorial control. He cleared Russian troops out of the country, then, in 1923, as prime minister, negotiated the withdrawal of British forces as well. In 1925, he pushed the Majles (parliament) to make Ahmed Shah's removal official and he himself was named shah. Thus fell the last of the Kajar shahs, and thus was the Pahlavi dynasty established under the man now known as Reza shah.

Further reading: Edward Abrahamian, *Iran between the Two Revolutions* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1982); Peter Avery, *Modern Iran* (New York: Praeger, 1965); George Lenczowski (ed.), *Iran under the Pahlavis* (Washington, D.C.: Hoover Institution Press, 1978).

Persian-Roman Wars

See ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (230–233); ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (241–244); ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (257–261); ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (282–283); ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (295–297); ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (337–364); ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (421–422); ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (441); ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (502–506); ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (572–591).

Persian-Russian Wars

See RUSSO-PERSIAN WAR (1722–1723); RUSSO-PERSIAN WAR (1804–1813); RUSSO-PERSIAN WAR (1825–1828); RUSSO-PERSIAN WAR (1911).

Persian-Turkish Wars

See TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1514–1516); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1526–1555); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1578–1590); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1603–1612); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1616–1618); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1623–1638); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1730–1736); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1743–1747); TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1821–1823).

Persian Wars

See GRECO-PERSIAN WARS.

Persia's Georgian Expedition (1613–1615)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. Georgia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Georgia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia sought control of Georgia.
OUTCOME: Georgia submitted after invasion, but thereby created a crisis between Persia and Turkey.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Georgia agreed to suzerainty of the Persian shah Abbas (the Great; 1557–c. 1628) after he sent an army to invade the country. This, however, provoked a conflict with Turkey, which also claimed control, if not outright suzerainty, over Georgia.

Further reading: David Morgan, *Medieval Persia* (New York: Praeger, 1965).

Peru, Spanish Civil Wars in (1537–1548)

See SPANISH CIVIL WARS IN PERU (1537–1548).

Peru, Spanish Conquest of (1531–1533)

See SPANISH CONQUEST OF PERU (1531–1533).

Perusian War (Perusine War)

See ROMAN CIVIL WAR (43–31 B.C.E.).

Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation, War of the (1836–1839)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Chile vs. Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chile
DECLARATION: Chile on Peru (and, therefore, Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation), November 11, 1836
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chile (with Argentine support) sought to break up the Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation.
OUTCOME: The confederation was dissolved.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Paucarpata, 1837; rejected

In 1835 Bolivian dictator Andrés Santa Cruz (1792–1865) invaded Peru, ostensibly to help quell an army rebellion against Peruvian president Luís José de Orbegoso. Having conquered the country instead, Santa Cruz created what proved to be a short-lived union of Peru and Bolivia that he called the Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation. Bolivia itself he split into two parts, allowing Orbegoso to remain as president in the north and placing General Ramón Herrera in charge in the south. With both these states then joined to Bolivia, Santa Cruz made General José Miguel de Velasco president of the latter. For himself Santa Cruz created the office of "protector" of the confederation, a lifetime and hereditary office in which the true power lay.

Perhaps because of his reputation as the able leader of Bolivia, not only did many influential Peruvians welcome his rule, but also Great Britain, France, and the United States quickly recognized the confederation. But the sudden appearance of a new and powerful state in South America worried some of Santa Cruz's neighbors, especially Argentina and Chile who feared and opposed the powerful new state. Moreover, Chile was locked in a financial dispute with Peru. Callao (a major port near Lima) was a major economic rival of Chile's port at Valparaíso, and relations had been rapidly deteriorating between Chile and Peru even when Peru was still an independent country. Now, backed by Peruvians opposed to Santa Cruz, Chile declared war on Peru on November 11, 1836. But an invasion early the following year resulted in a standoff. Andrés Santa Cruz, who now presided over the Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation, sued for peace, but Chile rejected the proposed Treaty of Paucarpata. Invasion efforts were renewed, and in 1838 General Manuel Bulnes (1799–1866), leading a Chilean army, captured Lima. Santa Cruz's army recaptured it before the end of the year, but the Peruvian-Bolivian forces were badly defeated in the next major battle—January 20, 1839, at Yungay. Santa Cruz sought refuge in Ecuador, and the Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation was dissolved.

See also PERUVIAN-BOLIVIAN WAR; PERUVIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: David Scott Palmer, *Peru: The Authoritarian Tradition* (New York: Praeger, 1980); Frederick B. Pike, *The Modern History of Peru* (New York: Praeger, 1967).

Peruvian-Bolivian War (1841)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Peru vs. Bolivia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bolivia
DECLARATION: Peru on Bolivia, 1841
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Peru attempted to annex Bolivia.
OUTCOME: The invasion was quickly defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of peace, June 1842

When former Bolivian dictator Andrés Santa Cruz (1792–1865) fled into exile before an advancing Chilean army during the War of the PERUVIAN-BOLIVIAN CONFEDERATION, Agustín Gamarra (1758–1841) assumed the presidency of Peru. Gamarra had been one of those Peruvian generals whose revolt led Santa Cruz to invade Peru and set up the confederation in the first place. He and the few other Peruvians of note who were disgruntled with the new union headed by the effective and charismatic Santa Cruz, had supported Chile in the war, despite the fact that Chile was fighting as much to keep Peru from becoming its economic rival as it was to remove Santa Cruz from power.

As president of Peru, Gamarra longed to turn the tables completely on Bolivia. In 1841 he launched an invasion in an effort this time to annex Bolivia to Peru. Bolivian forces crushed the invaders at the Battle of Ingavi on November 18, 1841. Gamarra, who led Peruvian forces,

was killed on the battlefield. A treaty was concluded the following year. Meanwhile, both Peru and Bolivia entered into a period of great internal conflict and massive disorder.

See also PERUVIAN-BOLIVIAN CONFEDERATION; WAR OF THE; PERUVIAN CIVIL WAR.

Further reading: David Scott Palmer, *Peru: The Authoritarian Tradition* (New York: Praeger, 1980); Frederick B. Pike, *The Modern History of Peru* (New York: Praeger, 1967).

Peruvian Civil War (1842–1845)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Constitutionalist forces vs. dictatorship of Manuel Ignacio Vivanco
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peru
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Constitutionalists wanted to end the Vivanco dictatorship.
OUTCOME: After a single decisive battle, Vivanco's forces were defeated, and he fled the country.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Peru's ignominious defeat in its over-hasty invasion of Bolivia in 1841, the country fell into a period of civic unrest during which there emerged two parties—the liberals and the conservatives—with ill-defined political agendas and programs that only enhanced the instability. Following a year of political chaos and fighting, conservative champion Manuel Ignacio Vivanco (the Regenerator; fl. 1840s) used the army to seize power. Vivanco set up a dictatorship, and he abrogated the 1839 constitution, refused to convene congress, and shot anyone who crossed him. In southern Peru, Constitutionalist opponents of Vivanco formed under the leadership of liberal Ramón Castilla (c. 1797–1867). He led troops into Lima and, in Vivanco's absence, seized the capital. Vivanco fought Castilla's forces at the Battle of Carmen Alto on July 22, 1844, and suffered a decisive defeat. Vivanco fled the country, but civil strife persisted until the following year, when Castilla was elected to the presidency. A degree of order was then restored to Peru, as Castilla—despite his mestizo background—managed to dominate the political scene for the better part of the next two decades.

See also PERUVIAN-BOLIVIAN WAR (1841).

Further reading: David Scott Palmer, *Peru: The Authoritarian Tradition* (New York: Praeger, 1980); Frederick B. Pike, *The Modern History of Peru* (New York: Praeger, 1967).

Peruvian Guerrilla War (1980–ongoing)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Shining Path vs. MRTA guerrillas and Peruvian government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peru, especially Ayacucho and Lima
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The guerrillas apparently seek to establish a radical Maoist/Incan government.
OUTCOME: As of mid-2002, a low-level guerrilla war continues.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Between 1980 and 2001, more than 25,000 people, mostly civilians, have been killed; in the worst single incident, 66 civilians were massacred in an Ayacucho village.
TREATIES: None

The Sendero Luminoso ("Shining Path") guerrilla group, who combined radical Maoism with ancient Incan tribal traditions, began raiding parts of Peru in 1980. Initially, the attacks centered on Ayacucho but then targeted the capital city of Lima as well.

Raids included an attack on an Ayacucho prison, which liberated about 250 prisoners, sabotage of utilities, bombing of rail lines and public buildings, and a horrific raid on an Ayacucho village, which resulted in the deaths of 66 villagers. Lima and the port city of Callao were repeatedly attacked. In conjunction with military action, the Shining Path incited civil disturbances and strikes. In 1990, they targeted the new president, Alberto Fujimori (b. 1938), joining forces with another terrorist group, Movimiento Revolucionario Tupac Amarú (MRTA). In 1992, the two groups attempted to assassinate Fujimori.

Fujimori responded to the escalation in guerrilla violence by declaring war on "all guerrillas." Government forces enjoyed some success, but, on December 17, 1996, a band of MRTA guerrillas attacked the residence of the Japanese ambassador during a state reception and took 600 hostages. The guerrillas demanded the release of their captured comrades, showing their good faith in the standoff by releasing most of the hostages. On April 22, 1997, Peruvian government forces stormed the ambassador's residence, killed the guerrillas, and successfully freed the remaining 72 hostages.

This did not bring an end to the guerrilla war, which continues fitfully as of mid-2004.

Further reading: Gustavo Gorriti Ellenbojen, *The Shining Path: A History of the Millenarian War in Peru* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1999); David Scott Palmer, ed., *The Shining Path of Peru* (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 1994); Steve J. Stern, ed.,

Shining and Other Paths: War and Society in Peru, 1980–1995 (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1998).

Peruvian Revolt (1780–1782)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Indian rebels under Tupac Amarú vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peru
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tupac Amarú sought to overthrow Spanish rule in Peru.
OUTCOME: Spain regained control of the country.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 75,000 Indian rebels; 60,000 Spanish colonial troops
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Spanish conquistadores never succeeded in entirely suppressing Indian rebellion in Peru, and as late as 1780, José Gabriel Condorcanqui (c. 1742–81), assuming the name of Tupac Amarú II, after his ancestor and the last of the great Inca chieftains, led a rebellion. A hereditary chief—the Indians called them *caciques*—in the Tinta region of southern Peru, Tupac Amarú II had been schooled by the Jesuits but lived the traditional life among the Indians. He sparked the revolt in 1780, when he arrested and executed the provincial administrator—or *corregidor,* Antonio Arriaga, on charges of cruelty.

It was to be the last general Indian rebellion against Spain, and at first it enjoyed the support of some among the Creoles (Spaniards born in the Americas), who disliked Spanish cruelty toward the Indians and were in theory opposed to their enforced labor. His army consisted of Incas of the highlands, who, although poorly equipped, were large in number. Late in 1780, some 75,000 rebels, aided by the Creoles, stormed across southern Peru and into present-day Bolivia and part of Argentina. Resistance crumbled before the onslaught, and Tupac Amarú declared himself Peru's liberator.

But, as the revolt spread, it had become a violent battle between Indians and Europeans, and Tupac Amarú II lost the support of the Creoles, turning the tide against him. When he led two assaults against the Spanish colonial stronghold of Cuzco, he and his family were taken prisoner during the second assault. In March 1781, they were taken to Cuzco and, after Tupac was forced to witness the execution of his wife and sons, he was mutilated, drawn and quartered, and beheaded. This, however, did not put an end to the revolt, which was continued by Tupac Amarú's half brother, Tupac Amarú III (d. 1787). The rebels laid siege against La Paz twice. By this time, however, the Spanish had amassed a well-armed force of 60,000, which crushed the rebellion. In an effort to appease the rebels, Spanish officials granted a general amnesty.

See also PERUVIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Timothy E. Anna, *The Fall of the Royal Government in Peru* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1979).

Peruvian Revolt (1948)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conservative forces led by Manuel Odría vs. leftist forces of the Alianza Popular Revolucionaria Americana (APRA)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peru
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Struggle between left-wing and right-wing forces; the right wing sought to topple a government sympathetic to and rife with APRA members.
OUTCOME: The forces of Odría prevailed, propelling Odría to the Peruvian presidency.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Peru's American Popular Revolutionary Alliance (Alianza Popular Revolucionaria Americana [APTA]), known as the "Aprista movement," had been formed in 1924 by a Peruvian intellectual named Victor Raul Haya de la Torre (1895–1979) then living in exile in Mexico City. Calling for the unity of the American Indians and an end to American imperialism, and supporting a planned economy and the nationalization of foreign-owned business inside Peru, the Partido Aprista suffered its up and downs, falling permanently afoul of the powerful Peruvian military when some party members assassinated the head of a ruling military junta in 1933. Declared illegal after the assassination, the party's fortunes rebounded when it backed the winner of the 1939 presidential elections, Manuel Prado (1889–1967). WORLD WAR II brought not only economic prosperity to Peru, but something like the promise of real democracy, as crypto-fascist militarism fell out of favor. Pressured by public opinion, the retiring President Prado in 1945 approved the candidacy of José Luis Bustamante y Rivero (1894–1979). And Bustamante, a left-leaning lawyer from Arequipa, won the election with the not inconsiderable help of Victor Raul Haya de la Torre and the Partido Aprista.

The Apristas may have been riding Bustamante's more respectable coattails, but they did nevertheless take numerous seats in both houses of the Peruvian legislature and accepted three posts in the cabinet. In power at last, they were determined to make changes and embarked on

a program of liberal reform. This provoked a conservative reaction, and when a conservative newspaper editor was slain in 1947, the Apristas were blamed. The accusations moved Aprista government officials essentially to boycott the government, which, in turn, ground to a halt.

Under deteriorating political and economic conditions, dissident Apristas stormed and took the port town of Callao in October 1948. This prompted the seizure of warships in port by discontented sailors and civilians. Civil war seemed unavoidable, and as the country tottered on the brink, General Manuel Odría (1897–1974), chief of staff of the Peruvian army, suddenly led military loyalists against the Apristas during October 27–29. The action quickly assumed the form of a full-scale rebellion against the Bustamante government, which collapsed. Odría assumed power and immediately outlawed the APRA and other leftist parties. Military and paramilitary troops were sent to arrest leftists, many of whom were imprisoned or sent into exile. Haya de la Torre fled to the asylum of the Colombian embassy in Lima. As for Odría, he was formally elected president on July 2, 1950.

Further reading: Peter F. Klaren, *Modernization, Dislocation, and Aprismo: Origins of the Peruvian Aprista Party, 1870–1932* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1973); Frederick B. Pike, *The Politics of the Miraculous Peru: Haya de Torre and the Spiritualist Tradition* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1986).

Peruvian War of Independence (1820–1825)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Peruvian and other independence fighters vs. Spanish royalists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peru and Upper Peru (Bolivia)
DECLARATION: Peruvian independence declared, July 1821
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence from Spain
OUTCOME: Independence was achieved, both for Peru and the newly created state of Bolivia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 9,000 independence fighters (Peruvian and others) vs. 9,300 royalists
CASUALTIES: At Juní, the rebels lost 55 killed and 99 wounded; the royalists lost 374 killed and 80 captured. At Ayacucho, the rebels lost 310 killed, 609 wounded; the royalists lost 1,400 killed, 700 wounded, 2,600 captured.
TREATIES: None

Napoleon's invasion of Spain in 1808 sparked revolutions throughout Central and South America. For more than a decade, the Creoles (those of Spanish descent born in the Americas) launched successful wars of independence in all the Spanish colonies but Peru, where an entrenched and conservative aristocracy, including a relatively high number of native Spaniards, led to the concentration of royal military power in Lima and to the grimly effective suppression of the kind of Indian uprisings that often lent support to Creole revolts elsewhere.

As a result, liberating Peru fell to outsiders, among them the great South American revolutionary leader José de San Martín (1778–1850), who saw Peru as the key to the liberation of all South America from the Spanish yoke. Not only did he wish to disable this bastion of Spanish imperial power on the continent, he also wanted for Argentina the silver mines of Upper Peru, now in the hands of the Spanish. Having already lost earlier to the imperial forces in the mountains, San Martín decided in 1818 to surround them by liberating Chile (*see* CHILEAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE) and using that country as a base for a seaborne assault on Peru. San Martín led 4,000 troops from that struggle, along with the new Chilean navy (under the command of the British Lord Thomas Cochrane [1775–1860]) to Pisco, Peru. The troops landed and established a camp at Huacho. San Martín used this as his recruiting headquarters, and, soon, his small Chilean army became the nucleus of a Peruvian army of independence.

With San Martín's forces threatening, the Spanish colonial government evacuated Lima, and took refuge in the interior. The citizens of the capital then invited San Martín to enter the city in July 1821. Upon entering Lima, San Martín proclaimed the independence of Peru and "Upper Peru" (Bolivia).

San Martín well understood that it was one thing to proclaim independence and quite another to make it a fact. To attack the strong, entrenched Spanish forces in the interior, he called upon the "Great Liberator," Simón Bolívar (1783–1830), and the two leaders pooled their forces at Guayaquil in July 1822. This completed, San Martín decided to relinquish control of the army entirely to Bolívar. With Antonio José de Sucre (1785–1830), Bolívar led a 9,000-man army to victory against Spanish royalist forces at the Battle of Junín on August 6, 1824. On December 9, 1824, Sucre led 6,000 men against a significantly superior royalist force (9,300 men) at the Battle of Ayacucho. Sucre was not only victorious, but he captured the entire Spanish force led by José de La Serna (1770–1832). This compelled the Spanish to withdraw from Peru.

Upper Peru remained in royalist hands. The revolution had not been going well there. But the victory in Peru freed Bolívar and Sucre's troops to aid the freedom fighters in Upper Peru, and in 1824 a 4,000-man Spanish royalist force capitulated to the reinforced independence army. Upper Peru gained its independence as Bolivia.

See also ARGENTINE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; COLOMBIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; VENEZUELAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

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Philip of Macedon's Northern Conquests
(345–339 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macedon vs. Epirus, Thessaly, Illyria, and Danubian tribes, as well as Perinthus and Byzantium
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Middle East and middle Europe
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Philip greatly extended the Macedonian empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Philip II of Macedon (382–336 B.C.E.) conducted a campaign of conquest through Epirus, Thessaly, and the southern portion of Illyria during 344–342 B.C.E. With these regions subdued, he moved north into the wild Danube region, where he intimidated the northern tribal peoples. This accomplished, Philip pushed his conquests eastward within Thrace, acquiring territory as far as the Black Sea.

In 339, Philip met united opposition from the peoples of Perinthus and Byzantium, who were backed by Athenian finance. Repulsed in battles for these territories, Philip withdrew and from 339 to 338 B.C.E. turned his attention to the Fourth SACRED WAR.

See also SACRED WAR, FIRST; SACRED WAR, SECOND; SACRED WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: D. G. Hogarth, *Philip and Alexander of Macedon* (Freeport, N.Y.: Books for Libraries Press, 1971).

Philippine Guerrilla Wars (1969–1986)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Philippine government vs. Huk and Moro guerrillas
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Philippines, especially Luzon and Sulu
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: For the rebels, the overthrow of Ferdinand Marcos; for Marcos, the continuation of his personal rule
OUTCOME: Marcos fell from power, and rebel activity markedly dissipated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After the United States liberated its former protectorate, the Philippines, from their Japanese conquerors in WORLD WAR II, the Americans came under international pressure to act as it was urging European powers with former colonies in the Pacific and Southeast Asia to act. In 1946, the United States finally granted the islands the independence it had been more or less promising Filipinos for half a century. But, during the war, intense fighting, especially around Manila, during the Japanese retreat had virtually destroyed the Filipino capital and the country's economy. It also had left the islands subject to special conditions set by the U.S. government through the Bell Act and other heavy-handed postwar policies. Some of these were more onerous than others, but they all fueled Filipino resentment. For example, free trade with the islands was extended for eight years, with gradually increasing tariffs, and the United States leased a number of military bases for 99 years. The latter ensured an extensive military presence over which the Filipinos had no control because U.S. authority on the bases amounted to all but territorial rights. Finally, in return for the release of U.S. payments to cover damages done by the war, the Philippine government was forced under the so-called Parity Amendment to change its constitution to grant U.S. citizens (read American big business) equal rights with Filipinos in exploiting the islands' ample natural resources.

Soon resentment flared into open dissent and then outright rebellion from the Communist-led Huk militants. The U.S.-backed government responded with heavy-handed repression and clearly fraudulent national elections, which placed Elpidio Quirino (1890–1956) in the presidency. By 1954, the HUKBALAHAP REBELLION had been quelled, partly with U.S. military aid but also as a result of the opening of the political process to greater participation by the Filipino masses. Still, under the charismatic Ramon Magsaysay (1907–1957) and his successors, true reform remained elusive—for such reform faced adamantine resistance from a corrupt legislature and an entrenched bureaucracy. Unrest was nevertheless usually handled through the electoral process and legal protest.

In November 1965, Ferdinand E. Marcos (1917–89) was elected president. Grave economic problems were exacerbated by Marcos's own venality and arrogance, though these did not prevent him from being the first elected president of the Philippines to win reelection in 1969. By then the Huks had renewed hostilities in central Luzon, where the sense of social injustice among tenant farmers had always been strong. Now their voices were joined by those of the intensely nationalistic Moro (Muslim) rebels in Mindanao. No longer did Filipinos take pride as a matter of course in being an outpost of Christianity in an Asian world; instead, many began to look to precolonial times for an Asian cultural identity and a language, Pilipino, other than English or Spanish. Respond-

ing to these cultural pressures and fears of Communist influence among the growing number of rebels, the Filipino authorities, pushed by a troubled U.S. administration, held one of the more honest—and certainly more peaceful—elections in Philippine history. The voting produced a widely representative Constitutional Convention intended to undertake a fundamental restructuring of power in the waning years of Marcos's legally limited term in office.

Instead, backed by big business interests, mostly American, Marcos used the 1972 typhoon floods in rebel-infested Luzon as an excuse to declare martial law, intending to set up a parliamentary-style government that would allow him to hold onto power. He immediately began suppressing the ongoing violent student demonstrations and arresting opposition politicians in both the Congress and the Convention. To the rebels he offered amnesty if they surrendered their weapons, and many members of the New People's Army, the military wing of the officially banned Communist Party of the Philippines (PKP), did so. On the other hand, the Moros mostly held out, and—with help from Muslim radicals in Malaysia and Libya—even spread their rebellion to the Sulu Archipelago. As Marcos collected unregistered firearms in the streets and countryside, he introduced a prohibition on strikes by organized labor, launched a land reform program, and granted important new concessions to foreign investors. They helped celebrate in turn the new parliamentary system under which Marcos became both president and prime minister, though he failed to convene the legislature called for by his new constitution.

The Moro resistance continued, reaching a peak in 1974, when the Sulu city of Jolo was all but destroyed in the fighting, causing Marcos to increase security there with 35,000 government troops. Afterward, guerrilla activity became sporadic. But now it was also as endemic as the rioting in Manila since Marcos's assumption of dictatorial power.

In 1978, when elections were finally held for an interim National Assembly, rigged results gave the opposition (led by formerly jailed senator Benigno S. Aquino [1932–83]) no seats, which sparked further unrest. In 1980, Aquino went into exile in the United States. In 1981, Marcos, under renewed pressure from the United States, suspended martial law and recalled the legislature. Though the National Assembly had token power, Marcos won a new six-year term in a virtually uncontested election. When Aquino attempted to return in 1983, he was assassinated by Marcos's military, which resulted in more rioting and another rigged election. Increasing internal and international pressure led to Marcos's resignation and a new election, which brought Aquino's widow, Corazon C. Aquino (b. 1933), to power in 1986. Marcos sought exile in the United States, where he died, in Hawaii, in 1989.

Thereafter, as the United States reduced its presence and its influence in the islands, rebel activity in the hills and the jungles decreased. The Moro groups degenerated into outlaw organizations, terrorizing rich tourists for ransom and justifying their greed as part of the late 20th-century radical Muslim attack on the international hegemony of the United States. The administration of Aquino was threatened by six attempted coups, and in 1992, Aquino decided against running for reelection.

Further reading: John Bresnan, ed., *Crises in the Philippines: The Marcos Era and Beyond* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1986); Gary Hawes, *The Philippine State and the Marcos Regime: The Politics of Export* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1987); Monina Allarey Mercado, ed., *People Power: The Philippine Revolution of 1986* (Manila: James B. Reuter, S.J., Foundation, 1986); Primitivo Mijares, *The Conjugal Dictatorship of Ferdinand and Imelda Marcos* (San Francisco: Union Square Publications, 1976).

Philippine Insurrection (1896–1898)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Filipino rebels vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Philippines, especially Luzon in the north
DECLARATION: A rebel call to arms on August 26, 1896
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence and social justice
OUTCOME: The rebellion was defeated, but Spain's hold on the Philippines was weakened.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 30,000; Spanish 25,000
CASUALTIES: 2,000 combat deaths on both sides
TREATIES: Pact of Biak-na-bato, December 15, 1897

By the late 18th century, Spain's long colonial decline had resulted in the loss of its trade monopoly in the Philippines, which by the 1830s were open virtually without restrictions to foreign merchants. European demand for commercial agricultural products, such as sugar and hemp, gave birth to a class of Chinese-Filipino mestizos who, in time, provided the seeds of a revolutionary independence movement. A passion for nationalism and for reform also blossomed in the late 1800s among the sons of the Filipino elite, who eschewed the parochial schools of the islands for liberal educations in Europe. Among this group of talented overseas students was José Rizal (1861–96), whose political novels and leadership of the so-called Propaganda Movement had a huge impact on the islands.

In 1892, Rizal returned home to form a modestly reformist society called the "Liga Filipino," whose members were careful never to utter the word "independence."

Nevertheless, the always excitable Spanish colonial authorities arrested Rizal in 1892, exiled him to one of the more remote southern islands, and eventually executed him in 1896. Shocked by the arrest, Rizal's followers formed a secret revolutionary society called the "Katipunan," headquartered in Manila and dedicated to expelling the Spaniards from the islands. Under the leadership of a self-educated warehouse worker named Andres Bonifacio (1863–1897), the Katipunan made preparations for armed revolt.

Thus, even before the SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR, many Filipino freedom-fighters—inspired by José Rizal—had already taken up arms in opposition to Spain's corrupt colonial government. When the Katipunan's purpose was unmasked by government agents in the summer of 1898, Bonifacio called for an armed and immediate insurrection on August 26. But rebel attempts to secure independence for the islands failed. Outfought by the Spanish, Filipino revolutionaries were forced to retreat to northern Luzon, but their resistance became entrenched when the Spanish executed Rizal, now considered the father of the independence movement.

Challenging Bonifacio for leadership of the movement in Luzon was a new revolutionary firebrand named Emilio Aguinaldo (1869–1964). Mayor of the Luzon city of Cavite, Aguinaldo had also been arrested for treason by the Spanish, who intentionally crippled the Filipino leader by shooting him in the foot. Under Aguinaldo's leadership, Luzon became the center of the fighting. The province fell again under Spanish control by the end of 1897, when rebel leaders agreed to the Pact of Biak-na-bato. In return for Spanish promises to introduce reforms, Aguinaldo accepted some 400,000 pesos and exile in Hong Kong, where he and other rebel leaders continued to plot a Filipino revolution. With U.S. backing, Aguinaldo returned to the islands on May 19, 1898, after Spain went to war with the United States. When the victorious Americans proved themselves intent on colonizing the Philippines, Aguinaldo launched another rebellion—the PHILIPPINE INSURRECTION (1899–1902).

See also CAVITE MUTINY.

Further reading: Fronio M. Alip, *A Philippine History,* new rev. ed., 2 vols. (Manila: Manlapaz Pub. Co., 1974); Renato Constantino, *The Philippines: From the Spanish Colonization to the Second World War* (New York: Monthly Review Press, 1975).

Philippine Insurrection (1899–1902)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States vs. Filipino independence fighters
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Philippines
DECLARATION: Philippine Republic proclaimed, January 20, 1899; shots first fired on February 4, 1899.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Filipinos, led by Emilio Aguinaldo, proclaimed the Philippine Republic, refused to recognize U.S. annexation of Cuba following the Spanish-American War, and launched an insurrection against American occupation.
OUTCOME: The independence movement was defeated but not permanently suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: U.S., 70,000; Filipino insurgents, 40,000.
CASUALTIES: United States, 1,073 killed in battle; 3,161 died of disease and other causes; 2,911 wounded. Filipino forces, 16,000 killed in battle. About 200,000 civilians died of disease, starvation, and other causes.
TREATIES: Treaty, May 6, 1902; U.S. proclamation ending the war and granting a general amnesty, July 4, 1902.

After the fall of Manila in the SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR, Philippine nationalist insurgents under Emilio Aguinaldo (1869–1964) reached an informal truce with the occupying forces of the United States. In January 1899, following the conclusion of the Peace of Paris with Spain, the United States announced annexation of the Philippines, having purchased the islands from Spain for $20 million. Explaining his decision to annex the Philippines to a group of ministers visiting the White House, President William McKinley (1843–1901) said he had looked at all the options and decided he could not give the islands back to Spain, which would be cowardly and dishonorable; nor could he turn them over to Germany or France, America's rivals in the Orient, because that would be bad business and discreditable; nor could he leave them to themselves, since they were "unfit" for self-government and would soon have anarchy and misrule, worse than Spain's domination. There was nothing left for us to do, McKinley continued, but take "them all" and to educate the Filipinos, to "uplift" and "civilize" and Christianize them, and by God's grace do the very best we could by them, as our fellow men for whom Christ also died. And then, he concluded, he went to bed and went to sleep and slept soundly.

But Aguinaldo's rebels had proclaimed Philippine independence on June 12, 1898, and they now refused to accept annexation. On January 20, 1899, the Philippine Republic was proclaimed under the Malolos Constitution, with Emilio Aguinaldo as president. In February 1899, the Filipinos rose in revolt against U.S. colonial rule. A year earlier U.S. warships had brought Aguinaldo back from exile in China to lead his countrymen against Spain. Now that he and his *insurrectos* were demanding Filipino independence within a U.S. protectorate, what U.S. correspondents described as his "ingratitude" sparked outrage "back home" in the states.

McKinley claimed the fighting began when the insurgents attacked U.S. forces, though U.S. troops later testi-

fied that the occupying army fired the first shot. At any rate, the rebellion was under way, and the same *Harper's Weekly* that in early January had hailed Aguinaldo as a hero excoriated him as a savage in March. This "beast" had ordered his men, according to the magazine, to exterminate without compassion or distinction of age or sex all "the civilized race" in the islands. *Harper's* had merely sounded the clarion call for a propaganda war that would treat the Philippine insurrection as a replay of Theodore Roosevelt's (1858–1919) celebrated history *The Winning of the West*. Ironically, before it was over McKinley would be dead and the chief Rough Rider would be in the saddle of the presidency.

THE PHILIPPINES QUESTION AND AMERICA'S IMPERIAL IMPULSE

When Theodore Roosevelt returned from Cuba as the hero of San Juan Hill, he ran for governor of New York and made the Philippine "question" the centerpiece of his campaign. Not only did Roosevelt win the gubernatorial contest, but in 1900 he was nominated as McKinley's running mate in the president's bid for a second term. As in 1896, Populist sentiment ran strong through the Democratic Party, and its candidate—yet again William Jennings Bryan (1860–1925)—was in a strong position going into the election because of the party's critique of big business. But the key to the election became Bryan's anti-imperialism. With unremitting, even gleeful, demagoguery, vice-presidential candidate Roosevelt lashed out at Bryan by focusing on his unpopular foreign policy positions. Aided by the Republican press, Roosevelt identified Bryan as a backer of Emilio Aguinaldo, leader of the Filipino opposition to annexation, and in cartoon after cartoon, editorial after editorial, speech after speech, Bryan was denounced as a coward and a sissy.

After the election, when anarchist Leon Czolgosz (c. 1873–1901) assassinated McKinley at the Pan-American Exposition in Buffalo "TR" had what he called a "bully pulpit" from which to urge his imperial agenda. Many in Congress shared that agenda and, like the new president, compared the troubles in the Philippines to those recently settled with the American Indians on the western Plains. If Americans had not subjugated and dispossessed the Indian, argued Senator Albert Beveridge (1862–1927), there would be no America. If an American argued for Filipino independence, he was arguing that savages had a right to self-government. In taking the Philippines and crushing the natives, Americans weren't violating their most basic principles, they were instead only doing what their fathers had done, pitching the tents of liberty farther westward and continuing the march of the flag. Dissenters were "infidels" to America's manifest destiny.

The army high command was itself controlled by old Indian fighters who had learned their trade fighting in the Plains and Apache wars, and they adapted what they had learned to defeat Moro tribesmen (*see* MORO WARS). As the U.S. Army in the American West used Indian scouts, now it also hired Filipino scouts. And when it came to setting up refugee camps or "pacifying" districts, they had picked up the tricks of doing so on Indian reservations, or perhaps during the Civil War in the antiguerrilla campaigns of Missouri, where the rules of civilized warfare had been suspended by decree. As with the Indian wars, then, so with the Filipino revolt. Once this foreign adventure became a war against savages, massacre became not only possible, but likely.

THE INSURRECTION

The fighting began on the night of February 4, 1899, when an insurgent patrol challenged a U.S. guard post near Manila. On the eve of ratification of the Peace of Paris, the challenge was most likely calculated to embarrass and intimidate American forces, which had yet to be reinforced. The troops of VIII Corps were not overawed, however. Major General Elwell S. Otis commanding 12,000 U.S. soldiers against 40,000 insurgents (1838–1909), nevertheless responded vigorously with several attacks that drove back the insurgents and inflicted at least 3,000 casualties on the Filipinos. During February 22–24, insurgents under General Antonio Luna (1866–99) retaliated with a concerted attack on Manila, but U.S. forces led by General Arthur MacArthur (1845–1912) forced them into retreat and by March 31 had pushed the insurgents back to their capital and stronghold in Malolos. After this setback, Aguinaldo took flight, disbanded the formally constituted army, and instituted a guerrilla campaign. Reinforced U.S. forces took the offensive, carrying the war into southern Luzon, the Visayan Islands, Mindanao, and Sulu.

In general, U.S. firepower overwhelmed all the Filipinos could throw together. Before it was all over, the United States would send 70,000 troops, four times as many as it sent to Cuba, and they inflicted many more times the casualties. In the opening battle, Admiral George Dewey (1837–1917) steamed up the Pasig River and fired 500-pound shells into Filipino trenches, creating so many dead natives that the Americans used their bodies for breastworks. A British witness mourned: "This is not war; it is simply massacre and murderous butchery." And that was only the beginning. The *insurrectos* held out for three long years, and to do so against such odds, they had to have had the support of the population. General Arthur MacArthur, commander of the war, was reluctant to accept that fact. At first believing that Aguinaldo's troops represented only a faction and refusing to even think that all of Luzon was opposed to the Americans, he later admitted that he was "reluctantly compelled" to understand that Filipino guerrilla tactics depended upon almost the complete unity of action of the entire native population. This meant, of course, that every Filipino was the enemy.

In response, the army targeted Aguinaldo, who was captured by General Frederick Funston's (1865–1917) Filipino scouts on March 23, 1901. Aguinaldo was pressured into swearing allegiance to the United States and into issuing a proclamation calling for peace. By this time, however, the guerrilla war had taken on a life independent from its original leader. For the next year, U.S. forces were subject to sporadic attack until virtually all of the Filipino military leaders had been located, rounded up, and placed under arrest. The last of these leaders concluded a treaty with U.S. authorities on May 6, 1902, and the U.S. military administration of the islands was replaced by a U.S.-controlled civil government. Its first appointed governor was William Howard Taft (1857–1930), who would later become the 27th president of the United States.

THE OPPOSITION AND THE AFTERMATH

Despite what U.S. newspapers and magazines had reported openly during the fighting, federal officials responded to charges of brutality with what became typical dissimulation. Said Secretary of War Elihu Root (1845–1937): "The war in the Philippines has been conducted by the American army with the scrupulous regard for the rules of civilized warfare . . . with self restraint and with humanity never surpassed." Some were sickened by the slaughter and hated the war. In the four black regiments serving in the Philippines, many of the black soldiers established a rapport with the natives, and an unusually large number of them deserted. The Philippines "situation" aroused many prominent blacks and black congregations in the United States to militant opposition to the war. And they weren't the only ones. Invocations to savage war were one thing, actual atrocities another. As Howard Zinn notes, William James (1842–1910) cursed: "God damn the U.S. for its vile conduct in the Philippine Isles!" And Mark Twain (1835–1910) wrote in the *New York Herald:* "I bring you the stately matron named Christendom, returning bedraggled, besmirched, and dishonored from pirate raids in Kiao-Chou, Manchuria, South Africa, and the Philippines, with her soul full of meanness, her pocket full of boodle, and her mouth full of pious hypocrisies."

Eventually, even Secretary Root was forced to admit that there had been "marked severities," severities that became notorious when several officers involved in the activities at Samar were court-martialed. But Roosevelt and his allies were able to turn the Samar massacres from an embarrassment into renewed public support for the war by insisting even more vehemently than they had before on the "savage" nature of the Filipino rebels. Congress held investigations following the unsuccessful trials, and testimony that should have been damaging about freely employed water torture and similar "inhuman conduct" not within "the ordinary rules of civilized warfare" was vitiated by General J. Franklin Bell's (1856–1919) observation that he had never been dressed down for taking the same or similar measures against the Indians and by General MacArthur's contention that he had simply been fulfilling the destiny of America's "Aryan ancestors." They used the myth of the American Indian wars to justify the Philippine slaughter, and in doing so fully resuscitated old frontier metaphysics to rally the imperial impulse of a new domestic policy. Teddy Roosevelt was launched on a campaign to build up the navy into a two-ocean force and make America policeman of the world. By 1904, he could employ the Philippines "question" yet again to defeat William Jennings Bryan in the presidential elections and get on with his plans.

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Phocas's Mutiny (602)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Phocas vs. Emperor Maurice of the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Mutinous troops protested pay cuts and harsh living conditions; Phocas led them in an assault upon the emperor.
OUTCOME: The emperor and his sons were assassinated, and Phocas was acclaimed emperor by the army.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Byzantine centurion Phocas (d. 610) led a mutiny by Byzantine soldiers who were protesting severe winter conditions and a cut in pay they had suffered at the end of the BYZANTINE-AVAR WAR (595–602) against the Mongolian Avars from the Volga River area. The enraged troops overthrew their designated commander, Priscus, and replaced him with Phocas, who then led them in a march on Constantinople, where they overran the royal palace and assassinated Emperor Maurice (c. 539–602) as well as his five sons. Phocas was then elevated to the throne.

Further reading: John F. Haldon, *Byzantium in the Seventh Century: The Transformation of a Culture* (Cambridge, UK; New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

P(h)ra Naret's Revolt

See SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1584–1592); SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1587).

Piedmontese Revolt (1821)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Piedmont constitutionalists vs. the House of Savoy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Piedmont, Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Piedmont liberals wanted independence from Sardinia and the rule of King Victor Emmanuel I.
OUTCOME: Victor Emmanuel I was forced to abdicate, but the even more reactionary new king, Charles Felix, brutally crushed the rebellion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The 1814 Congress of Vienna, ending the Napoleonic Wars, made possible, in theory, the restoration of the old order throughout Europe, although this proved impossible in practice, and in Italy gave rise to decades of struggle by freedom fighters such as those who formed the secret political society known as the Carbonari (or Charcoal Burners). Already founded during the period of French control, this cabal of the bourgeoisie, with its vaguely nationalist and decidedly republican agenda, spread from its lodges in the south throughout Italy to the Marches and the Romagna, to Milan and the Piedmont.

In the Piedmont, a considerable wing of the nobility, liberal and cultivated, was quite hostile to the reactionary policies of the restored king of Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel I (1795–1824), whose hegemony included the Piedmont. The Carbonari rebels, with their constitutional hopes, allied themselves with these nobles. When the king declined to accept a constitutional monarchy, the groups entered into a conspiracy, which had the covert support of the successor-designate to the throne, Charles Albert (1798–1849), of the house of Savoy. Between March 9 and March 13, 1821, the conspiracy spawned a revolt, planned by the military and the bourgeoisie, which spread from Alessandria to Turin and ultimately forced Victor Emmanuel I to abdicate in favor of his brother, Charles Felix (1765–1831). No sooner was Charles Felix enthroned, however, than he turned against the rebels and opposed the constitution. On April 8, 1821, Charles Felix allied Sardinia with Austria, and a combined Austro-Sardinian force invaded Piedmont and easily defeated the rebel forces at the Battle of Novara. Charles Felix turned his wrath on the army, purging it of disloyal officers and executing three liberal ringleaders.

Further reading: George Martin, *The Red Shirt and the Cross of Savoy: The Story of Italy's Risorgimento, 1748–1871* (New York: Dodd, Mead, 1969).

"Pig" War (1906–1909)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Serbia (with Russian aid) vs. Austria-Hungary
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Serbia and Austria-Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Serbia wanted to achieve economic independence from Austria-Hungary.
OUTCOME: A more favorable trade treaty was negotiated between Serbia and Austria-Hungary.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: No combat ensued; but the nations prepared to mobilize their armies.
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: Commercial treaty of 1909

Serbia sought to free itself from economic dependency on Austria-Hungary by importing French munitions and establishing a customs union with Bulgaria, which would mean that high-tariff Austro-Hungarian goods would not be able to compete in the Serbian market. Austria-Hungary responded in 1906 by barring the importation of Serbian pork. For its part, Serbia secured international investment to open more international export markets for its pork. Serbia also pressed Bosnia-Herzegovina, provinces of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, to provide an outlet to the Adriatic Sea.

When Russia, pursuing a pan-Slavic policy, backed Serbia's actions, war between Russia and Austria-Hungary loomed. Russia backed down, however, in response to a 1909 German ultimatum. Once Russian aid to Serbia was

cut off, Serbia and Austria-Hungary concluded a new trade treaty; however, Serbia's own pan-Slavic nationalism continued unabated. Its activity, both public and secret, stirred up an independence movement in Bosnia-Herzegovina, creating the conditions that sparked WORLD WAR I.

See also BALKAN WAR, FIRST; BALKAN WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Samuel R. Williamson, Jr., *Austria-Hungary and the Origins of the First World War* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1991).

Pima Revolt, First (1695)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pima Indians vs. Spanish settlers in Mexico and southern Arizona
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Territory of present-day Sonora, Mexico, and southern Arizona
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pima bid for independence of Spanish rule
OUTCOME: After a short-lived revolt, Spanish rule was reinstated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1695, the Pima Indians of lower Pimeria Alta—Sonora, Mexico, and southern Arizona—staged a short-lived revolt against their colonial Spanish overlord, destroying property and terrorizing missionaries. The uprising, about which very little is known, was quickly put down.

Further reading: Frank Russell, *Pima Indians* (Tempe: University of Arizona Press, 1975).

Pima Revolt, Second (1751)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pima Indians vs. colonial Spanish overlords
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Arizona
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pima attempt to overthrow colonial Spanish domination
OUTCOME: Indecisive; Pimas remained under Spanish rule
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Spanish, 17 by Oacpicagigua's hand, others unrecorded; Pima, unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1751, 50 years after the First PIMA REVOLT, the Pima Indians of upper Pimeria Alta, many of them descendants of earlier rebels who had fled north, followed Luis Oacpicagigua in a rebellion against the colonial Spanish overlords.

Oacpicagigua had once served the Spanish as captain-general of the western Pimas but had come to believe that the influx of Spanish settlers would eventually force his people into slavery. Accordingly, Oacpicagigua secretly worked to unite many Pimas, Papagos, Sobaipuris, and Apaches in an organized resistance.

On the night of November 20, 1751, Oacpicagigua and some of his men attacked 18 Spaniards whom he had been entertaining at his home in Saric. All were killed except for Padre Nentvig, who escaped to spread the alarm. But it was too late. During the succeeding weeks, rebels attacked missions and ranches in Caborca, Sonoita, Bac, and Guevavi.

The raids were destructive, but they did not coalesce into the general revolution Oacpicagigua had hoped for. The Sobiapuris and the Apaches backed out of the action at the decisive moment, and many Papagos and Pimas also failed to participate.

Spanish officials dispatched an army under the colonial governor, who, after several months of combat, finally quelled the insurrection. Luis Oacpicagigua managed to evade execution by a pledge to rebuild the churches destroyed during the uprising. In fact, he failed to keep this promise, and the people he had led never fully submitted to Spanish rule. For the next century and a half, they waged sporadic guerrilla warfare against the Spanish, then the Mexicans, and finally, in their turn, the Americans.

Further reading: Frank Russell, *Pima Indians* (Tempe: University of Arizona Press, 1975).

Polish-Bohemian War (1305–1312)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Poland vs. Bohemia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland
DECLARATION: Effective Polish declaration of independence, 1305
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Polish independence from Bohemia.
OUTCOME: Under Ladislas of Kujavia, Poland secured its independence and the principalities of Little Poland and Great Poland were united into a sovereign kingdom.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As a result of the HAPSBURG-BOHEMIAN WAR, King Wenceslaus II (1271–1305) achieved full control over Bohemia. He embarked on a reign that greatly augmented the power and prestige of the kingdom. In 1300, he won victories in Little Poland, which gained him the Polish

crown, so that he now ruled both Poland and Bohemia. However, the authority of Wenceslaus II did not survive his passing. Upon his death in 1305, his son, Wenceslaus III (1289–1306), was beset by challenges to his right to rule Poland, and en route to his coronation as Poland's king in 1306, he was assassinated in Olomuoc, a town in Moravia.

Into the vacuum created by Wenceslaus III's death stepped Duke Ladislas "Lokietek" (1260–1333), a renowned Polish champion from Kujavia. His ambition was to unify the disparate principalities of Poland and thereby gain independence from Bohemia. In the year before the murder of Wenceslaus III, he secured the backing of the Polish church and retook Little Poland from the Bohemians. Following the death of the Bohemian monarch, he campaigned in Great Poland, winning several decisive victories. By 1312, he was in a position to unite Little and Great Poland, and, having accomplished this, he was finally crowned King Ladislas I in 1320.

See also HUNGARIAN CIVIL WAR (1301–1308).

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish-Bohemian War (1438–1439)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Partisans of King Albert II vs. partisans of Ladislas III; Ladislas III vs. Slovakian Hussites
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bohemia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Bohemia and Slovakia
OUTCOME: The Hussites achieved control of much of Slovakia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce of 1439

Albert II (1397–1439), Hapsburg (Austrian) king of Germany, succeeded to the throne of the Holy Roman Empire that had been occupied by his late father-in-law, Sigismund (1368–1437). Because Sigismund had ruled both Hungary and Bohemia, Albert II assumed rule over these kingdoms as well. This did not sit well with a faction that supported the bay-king of Poland, Ladislas III (1424–-1444), as candidate for Holy Roman Emperor and ruler of Hungary and Bohemia.

In 1438, the partisans of Albert II and Ladislas III clashed. The war seemed about to end, however, almost before it had begun when Albert II fell in battle while campaigning against the Turks in 1439. However, after he assumed the Hungarian throne in 1440, the 16-year-old Ladislas found himself facing new opposition, from Slovakian Hussites (religious radicals, followers of the nationalist and religious dissident Jan Hus [1369–1415]) led by John Jiskra z Brandysa (d. 1470). The Hussites had control of Slovakia before the end of 1440. As for Ladislas, he never had the opportunity to resolve the power struggle between his throne and the Hussites. In 1444, at only 20 years of age, Ladislas III was killed in battle against the Turks at Varna on the coast of the Black Sea.

Following the death of Ladislas III, one of his commanders, General John Hunyadi (1387–1456), proclaimed himself "overseer" of Slovakia. He was challenged by Jiskra z Brandysa, but Hunyadi, a skilled tactician and strategist, repeatedly defeated him in battle, culminating in the Battle of Lucenec in 1451. A truce was concluded, by which Jiskra z Brandysa retained some control over Slovakia.

See also BOHEMIAN CIVIL WAR (1448–1451); HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1441–1444); HUSSITE WARS.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish Civil War (1573–1574)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: A variety of Polish factions
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Following the death of King Sigismund II Augustus and amid liberal reforms, Poland was thrown into chaos.
OUTCOME: General civil war ended with the election of the duc d'Anjou to the Polish throne, but the violence resumed when he stepped down after a 13-month reign.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Poland's King Sigismund II Augustus (1520–72) died in 1572 without issue, the choice of successor to the throne was left to the Polish people. This matter added to the political chaos that prevailed as a result of opposition to the Union of Lublin, by which Poland had been

formally united with Lithuania. A congress was convened in Warsaw in April 1573 to select a new king from among foreign contenders; the hope was that installation of a foreign-born monarch would avoid many conflicts among supporters of domestic candidates.

However, the liberal reforms that followed upon the Compact of Warsaw (January 28, 1573) so constrained the power of the Polish monarch that, 13 months after he was elected Polish king, Henry of Valois (1551–89), duc d'Anjou, returned to France to assume the throne there as Henry III following the death of his brother, Charles IX (1550–74) of France. Henry's departure reawakened the dormant civil war, and this time it was the Polish nobles who brought in a new king, Prince Stephen Bathory (1533–86) of Transylvania. The nobles enforced his coronation by military means.

See also RELIGION, FIFTH WAR OF.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish Civil War (1768–1773)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Confederation of Bar (with French, Ottoman, and Austrian support, but not direct military involvement) vs. the government of Stanislaus II Augustus (with Russian military aid and Prussian political support)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Poland; subsequently, the partition of parts of Poland among Russia, Prussia, and Austria
OUTCOME: Stanislaus II Augustus, effectively a Russian puppet, remained on the throne; about one-third of Poland was partitioned among Russia, Prussia, and Austria.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: First Partition of Poland, five treaties, July 25, 1772, September 18, 1773, March 15–18, 1775, February 9, 1776, and August 22, 1776

The conclusion of the SEVEN YEARS' WAR in Europe in 1763 left both Austria and Prussia dissatisfied—Austria had failed in its bid to regain Silesia from Prussia; Prussia had failed to acquire Saxony. Meanwhile, Russia was making advances against its traditional rival, Ottoman Turkey, and Catherine II (the Great; 1726–96) was anxious to forestall any aggression from a frustrated Austria. In 1764, she engineered the election of a puppet monarch, Stanislaus Poniatowski (1732–98) to the Polish throne, thereby making that hapless nation a virtual Russian satellite. Her plan was to use Poland as a means of placating both Prussia and Austria in order to maintain a balance of power in Europe that would protect her flank as she carried out her campaign against Turkey.

Some Poles resisted, especially when the new king, Stanislaus II Augustus, under pressure from Catherine, granted full rights to non-Catholic Poles. The Confederation of Bar was a league of Polish Catholic noblemen formed to counter Russian influence in Poland and to fight against equality for Protestants and Russian Orthodox Poles. The Bar sought to compel Stanislaus to abdicate. In this, the Bar enjoyed support from France and from the Ottomans, both wanting to halt Russian expansionism.

In June 1770, Catherine sent troops into Poland to intervene in the civil war that had developed between the Confederation of the Bar and the government of Stanislaus—whom the Bar had declared deposed. The Russian forces easily defeated the smaller, ad hoc army of the Confederation of the Bar, but Austria now threatened to intervene. Like France and the Ottomans, Austria feared Russian expansion. In response to the Austrian threat, Catherine turned to Prussia's Frederick II (1712–86, Frederick the Great). Although Frederick had no desire to trigger a general European war, he did want to expand into Polish territory, and so Catherine was able to play her Polish card. In a series of five treaties in 1772, Poland was partitioned: Russia gained part of northeast Poland, Austria annexed Galicia, and Prussia acquired Polish Pomerania and Ermeland. Overall, Poland was forced to cede about one-third of its territory.

See also CATHERINE THE GREAT'S FIRST WAR WITH THE TURKS.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971); Piotr Sefan Wandyez, *The Lands of Partitioned Poland* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1974).

Polish Rebellion (1606–1607)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Zebrzydowski's Polish Catholic nobles vs. King Sigismund III
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Zebrzydowski sought reform of Sigismund's policies.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was defeated militarily, but it succeeded in pushing through the desired reforms.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Many Poles were alienated by the policies of King Sigismund III (1566–1632), who was anti-Catholic, who sent Polish armies to secure the Swedish throne, who compromised Polish nationalism by courting Austria, and who sought to curtail the Polish constitution to increase his power over parliament. Cracow's governor, Mikolaj Zebrzydowski (fl. 1605–07), led other Polish nobles in a militant protest of the king's order for a standing army to be constituted under royal authority. Zebrzydowski presented a list of demands to the king. When these were rejected, he led a violent rebellion, which prompted Sigismund to recall his armies from Sweden to put down the rebels. Zebrzydowski was defeated in a July 1607 battle, but his point had been made. In 1609, the Polish parliament proclaimed an amnesty for all the rebels, and the supremacy of the constitution was affirmed. Thus the rebellion, though militarily defeated, secured the preeminence of the Polish Catholic nobility in politics and the subjection of the Crown to parliamentary rule.

The conflict is often called Zebrzydowski's Insurrection.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish Rebellion (1715–1717)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Polish people and nobles vs. Augustus II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The people rebelled against the presence, thievery, and general destructiveness of Saxon troops quartered throughout Poland.
OUTCOME: The king's threat to summon Russian troops prompted the negotiation of peace.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: In the hundreds among civilians and military alike.
TREATIES: 1717 agreement on Saxon troop withdrawal and limitation on the size of the Polish standing army.

Saxon troops quartered in Poland by King Augustus II (1670–1733) during the Second (or Great) NORTHERN WAR wreaked havoc on the populace with acts of theft and vandalism. With the support of the Polish nobility, a popular uprising erupted, and armed clashes between the people and the king's troops became frequent. Soon, the army ran amok—far beyond the king's ability to control it. Polish citizens were slain by the hundreds, and the people, in return, waged intensive guerrilla warfare against the army, bringing about substantial losses. At length, Augustus appealed to the Russian czar for aid. Fearing that Poland would now be overrun by Russians, the Polish nobles intervened and entered into negotiations with the king's government. By agreement in 1717, the Saxon army would withdraw from Poland, and Polish standing forces would be reduced to 18,000 troops.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish Rebellion (1794)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nationalist forces under Thaddeus Kościusko vs. Russia and Prussia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland
DECLARATION: March 1794, uprising declared
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Kościusko wanted to recover territory lost in the First and Second Partitions of Poland.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed and Poland was totally dismembered by the Third Partition; Poland effectively ceased to exist as a nation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Nationalists, 90,000 plus 50,000 peasants; Russians, 65,000; Prussians, 25,000
CASUALTIES: Nationalists, 29,000 killed or wounded; Russians, 9,100 killed or wounded; Prussians, 573 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Second Partition of Poland, January 23, 1793; Third Partition of Poland, October 24, 1795

Humiliated by the high-handed encroachments on their sovereignty by the major European powers during the first partitioning of Poland 20 years earlier (*see* the POLISH

CIVIL WAR (1768–1773), the Poles had reformed and strengthened their government, abolishing the trappings of what had been a hopelessly outmoded feudal state and replacing their weak elective monarchy with hereditary kingship. Now, afraid that Poland might indeed revive as a nation and fight to recover its land, Russia launched a preemptive invasion and concluded the second partition of Poland in 1793, which gave Russia most of eastern Poland and Prussia Gdansk and the region known as Great Poland.

Poland, not even invited to sign this set of agreements, broke out in a national revolt in 1794. Thaddeus Kościusko (1746–1817), a veteran of the American Revolution, led other exiled Polish nationalists in planning the rebellion from his headquarters in Leipzig, Germany.

Kościusko went to Cracow in March 1794, where he recruited the support of disaffected Polish army officers. This secured, he proclaimed a national uprising and assumed dictatorial powers. His first military objective was Russian-held Warsaw. During the advance on the Polish capital, he encountered Russian forces and defeated them. This victory inspired a general popular uprising.

Under Kościusko's leadership, three-quarters of the territory lost as a result of the First and Second Partitions was recovered. Although both Warsaw and Vilna were taken from foreign hands, a combined Prussian-Russian army defeated Kościusko at Kulm (Chelmno). When Cracow fell to the Russians on June 15, a panic spread among Poles in Warsaw, who feared the work of spies and traitors. The city was gripped by a rash of executions, until Kościusko personally restored order.

Warsaw girded for a siege, which lasted a month before Prussian and Russian forces suddenly lifted it in September 1794 (their presence was required to put down uprisings in Prussian-occupied areas of Poland).

By the fall of 1794, Kościusko had seized control of Great Poland, but he had lost Lithuania to Russia. At last, at the Battle of Maciejowice on October 10, 1794, Kościusko was defeated and taken prisoner. The rebellion collapsed both suddenly and violently when the Russian invaded the Warsaw suburb of Praga on November 3, 1794. The 22,000 Russian troops defeated the 25,000 Polish defenders, killing as many as 13,000 combatants and 7,000 noncombatants and taking 11,000 prisoners.

Poland was now subject to a Third Partition, concluded on October 24, 1795, which divided among Russia, Prussia, and Austria what remained after the Second Partition. In effect, Poland ceased to exist as a nation.

See also POLISH REBELLION (1715–1717); POLISH REBELLION (1830–1831).

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971); Piotr Sefan Wandyez, *The Lands of Partitioned Poland* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1974).

Polish Rebellion (1830–1831)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Polish nationalists vs. Russia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland
DECLARATION: Rebellion commenced on November 29, 1830.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebels sought to free Poland from Russian control.
OUTCOME: The rebellion, disorganized, was ultimately crushed, and Poland was incorporated into Russia as a Russian state.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Nationalists, 81,000; Russians, 127,000
CASUALTIES: Nationalists, 15,000–20,000 killed; Russians, 15,000 killed
TREATIES: None

Called the November Insurrection to distinguish it from the Polish Rebellion (1863–1864), which became known as the January Insurrection, this conflict began when Russia's czar Nicholas I (1796–1855), hoping to take advantage of the French Revolution of 1830, made plans to invade France and Belgium using the Polish army, which he supposed to be under his autocratic control. But among the many conspiratorial revolutionary groups Poland was producing at the time, there was a secret society—the National Association—formed by Polish troops with the object of coordinating an uprising against Poland's Russian overlords. As a result of the FRENCH REVOLUTION (1830), the Polish rebels believed their efforts would receive strong support from France.

The rebellion broke out in Warsaw on November 20, 1830, when Polish officers and troops at the military academy acted on their fear of an imminent Russian takeover of the academy and, ultimately, the army itself in keeping with Nicholas's plan. Russian cavalry companies were attacked, and an assault on the Warsaw residence of Russian grand duke Constantine (1779–1831) was mounted. Soon, almost the entire Polish army, liberated convicts, and the general Polish citizenry joined in a chaotic uprising. The result was not a revolution, but mob violence on a massive scale. After Russian authorities fled for their lives, Polish general Josef Chlopicki (1771–1854) proclaimed a revolutionary dictatorship and declared that the Russian succession to the Polish throne was at an end.

Czar Nicholas I (1796–1855) responded to the Polish rebellion by sending large numbers of troops into the country. Despite some Polish successes, the Russians advanced deep into Poland but were fought to stand at the Battle of Grochow on February 25, 1831. The Russians

went into winter quarters, and during the resulting lull in combat, the Poles, never well organized, began to fight among themselves, so that when the fighting resumed in the spring the rebels were considerably weakened. The Russians triumphed at the Battle of Ostroleka on May 26, 1831, then advanced on Warsaw, which fell to them on September 8, 1831. This rebellion collapsed, and rebel leaders fled the country.

The czar now cracked down on Poland harder than ever before. Poland was not merely annexed but incorporated into Russia as a Russian state. Nicholas I was determined to stamp out any vestiges of Polish nationality. His tyranny, however, only served to intensify already powerful Polish patriotism.

See also CRACOW INSURRECTION.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish Rebellion (1863–1864)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Polish nationalists vs. Russia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland
DECLARATION: Rebellion proclaimed, January 22, 1863
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The nationalists wanted to liberate Poland from Russian control.
OUTCOME: Russia crushed the rebellion and made Poland a Russian province.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Nationalists, 5,000–8,000 killed; Russians, 5,000 killed
TREATIES: None

The CRIMEAN WAR (1853–56) and turmoil caused by the Eastern Question (the threat to Europe's balance of power posed by the crumbling of the Ottoman Empire) led Russia's Czar Alexander II (1818–81) to take a more conciliatory stance toward Poland. Hoping to pacify the Poles, Alexander introduced a series of comparatively liberal reforms, but the salutary effect of these was mitigated by the autocratic policies and manner of the Russian authorities in Poland itself. By the beginning of the 1860s, even moderate Poles had been radicalized, and the country was gripped by mass demonstrations calling for independence. Once again seeking to placate the Poles, Alexander II installed his brother Constantine (1827–92) as viceroy in Warsaw, instructing him to give the Poles local voting rights. The Poles responded with an assassination attempt, provoking Constantine to crack down by issuing an order to conscript Polish rebels into the czar's army. This provoked the rebels to form a revolutionary assembly, and on January 22, 1863, an armed rebellion erupted, quickly spreading across Poland and into Lithuania.

The rebellion took the form of a guerrilla war, poorly conducted by young men inexperienced in military matters, but nevertheless persistent. When the Western powers—Britain, France, and Austria—attempted to mediate, Russia reacted with greater determination to subdue Poland once and for all. French emperor Napoleon III (1808–73) promised the rebels military aid (he wished to counter Prussia's support of Russia in Poland) but failed to deliver adequately. By May 1864, superior Russian forces had suppressed the guerrillas and had put an end to the secret rebel governments set up in Warsaw and Lithuania. Russian authorities executed or exiled everyone suspected of having participated in the rebellion. All of Alexander's mildly liberal reforms were reversed. Poland was made a Russian province, and laws were enacted to stamp out Polish culture and language.

The net result of the January Insurrection, as it was called to distinguish it from the POLISH REBELLION (1830–1831), known as the November Insurrection, was to extinguish all hopes that the Poles might create an autonomous national state for the next 50 years.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish Succession, War of the (1733–1738)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Stanislaus I Leszczynski (backed by France, Spain, and Sardinia) vs. Augustus III (backed by Russia and Austria)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland, Rhineland, Italy, and Austria
DECLARATION: October 10, 1733
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Polish throne following the death of Augustus II
OUTCOME: After an Austrian victory in the decisive Battle of Bitonio, the supporters of Stanislaus yielded to the supporters of Augustus III, who became king of Poland. In addition, the war led to a redistribution of Italian territories and inflated Russia's influence over Poland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In Poland—pro-Hapsburg forces: 30,000 Russians, 10,000 Saxons; pro-Stanislaus forces: large but unknown number of Poles and a small French reinforcement of 1,950. In the Rhineland—no estimates for the large French

invasion force or the overall Hapsburg resistance. In Italy—40,000 Spanish and 30,000 French-Sardinian troops; 50,000–60,000 Hapsburg forces.
CASUALTIES: At least 50,000 Frenchmen killed or wounded overall and more than 30,000 Austrians. Overall figures for other belligerents were not tabulated, although the Spanish lost 3,000 men at Bitonto alone.
TREATIES: Treaty of Vienna, November 18, 1738

When Poland's King Augustus II (1670–1733) died on February 1, 1733, Austria and Russia supported the succession of his son Frederick Augustus (1696–1763), elector of Saxony, to the throne. Most Poles, and certainly the major Polish nobles, preferred Stanislaus I Leszczynski (1677–1766), who, as the father-in-law of Louis XV (1710–74), had the backing of both France and Spain. In fact, Stanislaus had been the Poles' king once already for a brief five years after the Swedes, back in 1704, helped to depose Augustus in the Second (or Great) NORTHERN WAR—temporarily as it turned out. In any case, the Polish sejm (Diet, or parliament), consisting of some 12,000 delegates, on September 12 elected Stanislaus king.

This the Hapsburgs' ally, Russia, could not abide, and quickly dispatched an army 30,000 strong toward Warsaw. With the approach of the Russians, both Stanislaus and most of the Diet's delegates fled, the king, pursued by Russian and Saxon troops, to Danzig. Meanwhile, the Russians occupied the city and forced a rump parliament of some 3,000 to declare Frederick Augustus as Poland's new king, Augustus III, on October 5, 1733.

In response to the mobilization of the Russian army, France had formed anti-Hapsburg alliances with Sardinia on September 26 and Spain on November 7. They declared war on Austria on October 10. With some dispatch, Don Carlos (1716–88), the Spanish *infante* (heir apparent), led a Spanish army of 40,000 across Tuscany and the Papal States to Naples, defeated the Austrians at Bitonto on May 25, 1734, conquered Sicily, and was crowned king of Naples and Sicily (25 years later, he would become Spain's Charles III). The French war, however, did not proceed so smoothly. After overrunning Lorraine when they invaded the Rhineland, the French were effectively checked in southern Germany by the Hapsburg forces; the French-Sardinian forces invading Lombardy could not manage to take Mantua, and the small French contingent sent by sea to relieve the Russian siege of Danzig failed miserably.

Danzig fell in June 1734, but by then Stanislaus had escaped to Prussia. Although the Poles organized the Confederation of Dzików in November 1734 to support his cause, they were no match for the Russians and Augustus. Worse for the Poles, the Spaniards and the Sardinians fell to bickering, fracturing the Italian campaign of 1735. Worried that the British and the Dutch might join the fighting as Hapsburg allies, the French made a hasty, half-baked peace with Austria on October 3, 1735, which was followed by the definitive Treaty of Vienna on November 18, 1738. Don Carlos was allowed to retain Naples and Sicily but he had to give the Hapsburgs both Parma and Piacenza, which he had inherited in 1731, and to renounce his claims to Tuscany. Stanislaus renounced the Polish throne and was compensated for this with the dukedom of Lorraine. Augustus III was recognized as the rightful Polish king.

See also SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1735–1737).

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish-Swedish War for Livonia, First
(1600–1611)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sweden vs. Poland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Livonia (Estonia and portions of Latvia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of Livonia
OUTCOME: Undecided; Sweden occupied parts of Livonia but failed to gain control of the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the major Battle of Kirchholm, Sweden fielded 14,000 men, Poland 3,500
CASUALTIES: Unknown (but the Poles claimed 9,000 Swedish dead)
TREATIES: Armistice of 1611

Long an area of contention among Sweden, Poland, and Russia, the Baltic became the locus of fighting yet again when Sweden invaded and occupied most of Estonia and Livonia in 1600. They were halted by the Poles at the fortress city of Riga, where Herman Jan Karol Chodkiewicz (1560–1621) launched a counterattack, driving the Swedes out of most of Livonia with victories at Dorpat (Tartu) and Revel (Tallinn), but failing to secure complete control over the disputed region.

Then, in 1604, Charles IX (1550–1611), the newly declared and ambitious Swedish king, landed a fresh army of 14,000 in Estonia and marched on Riga to try his fortunes against Chodkiewicz. The two armies met at the battle of Kirchholm, where the Poles mustered only some 3,500 men—although 2,500 of them were horsemen in Poland's heavy cavalry, hailed as the best in Europe. They mounted a savage, reckless charge that swept the Swedes

from the field and themselves forever into Polish history. They not only won the battle, they came very close to capturing Sweden's warrior king himself, and Polish chroniclers would soon be claiming that the bodies of some 9,000 Swedish soldiers littered the abandoned battlefield. Afterward, the war fizzled, and continued only in sporadic fighting until ended by truce in 1611.

See also POLISH-SWEDISH WAR FOR LIVONIA, SECOND.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish-Swedish War for Livonia, Second (1617–1629)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sweden vs. Poland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Livonia (Estonia and portions of Latvia), Courland (southwestern Latvia), and northern Prussia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of Livonia and Baltic ports
OUTCOME: Sweden triumphed, acquiring Livonia and the use of major Prussian ports.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sweden: more than 32,000; Poland: 9,000; 7,000 Austrians.
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but deaths from disease far outnumbered combat casualties.
TREATIES: Truce of Altmark (1629)

The long Baltic Sea contest between the Poles and the Swedes flared up once again in 1617, six years after the death of Sweden's Charles IX (1550–1611) and the armistice that ended the First POLISH-SWEDISH WAR FOR LIVONIA. Charles's son, Gustavus II (1594–1632), having already faced Denmark from 1611 to 1613 in the War of KALMAR and fought the Russians in the inconclusive RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR (1613–1617), now turned to Poland, hoping to take advantage of the Poles' distractions with both the Russians and the Turks (*see* RUSSO-POLISH WAR [1609–1618] and POLISH-TURKISH WAR [1614–1621]). He quickly reconquered much of the Baltic coast of Livonia in 1617, then just as quickly arranged a two-year armistice. Come 1620, however, he was back, with an army of 16,000, which he led against Riga. The city fell in September of the following year, and Swedish forces overran all of Livonia and southwestern Latvia, then known as Courland. From here, they invaded northern Prussia, taking much of that territory and posing a threat to Poland's Baltic outlet by 1626.

A Polish counterattack, led by Herman Stanislaws Koniecpolski (1591–1646), threatened these Swedish conquests, but in May 1627 Gustavus broke the Polish offensive at Tczew, where 9,000 Poles, including the famed Polish heavy cavalry that had destroyed his father's army a generation before, were routed. Gustavus then returned to Sweden to bring back to the Polish borderlands some 32,000 reinforcements, which in 1628 he used to drive south and extend his conquests. At this point, the Holy Roman Empire intervened, dispatching a corps of 7,000 men to the aid of Polish king Sigismund III (1566–1632) and halting the Swedish advance. The Baltic coast, however, remained in Gustavus's hands.

By 1628, the war became one of attrition and deadlock. Anxious to enter the THIRTY YEARS' WAR—Gustavus agreed to the Truce of Altmark in 1629, securing most of the conquests he had made during the war.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish-Turkish War (1484–1504)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Poland vs. Ottoman Empire and Moldavia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Moldavia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Moldavia sought autonomy from both Poland and the Ottoman Empire.
OUTCOME: Combat between Poland and the Ottoman Empire ended indecisively with a truce. Moldavia achieved victory over the Poles but was forced to maintain its autonomy from the Ottoman Empire by paying an annual tribute to the sultan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The largest single force was the Polish invasion army of 1485, 20,000 men.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce of 1492 (Poland–Ottoman Empire), Truce of 1500 (Poland–Ottoman Empire); Treaty of 1504 (Moldavia–Ottoman Empire)

Moldavia, which Poland had annexed in the late 15th century during the reign of King Casimir IV (1427–92), became the subject of conflict between Poland and the

Ottoman Empire. In 1484, the Turkish navy took Kiliya at the mouth of the Danube River and Akkerman (Belgorod-Dnestovsky) at the mouth of the Dniester in an effort to sever Poland from outlets to the Black Sea. Casimir responded by forming an anti-Ottoman league and marched 20,000 troops into Moldavia to eject the Turks. From here, in 1485, he advanced against Kolomyya on the Pruth River. Cornered, Bayazid II (1447–1513), the Ottoman sultan, sued for peace. Although the disposition of the captured fortresses of both sides was never settled, Casimir and Bayazid concluded a truce.

The Polish-Ottoman truce ended with the death of Casimir in 1492. Sporadic fighting broke out, and in 1496 Poland's new king, John I Albert (1459–1501), Casimir's son, launched a major campaign that allied Poland with King Stephen (c. 1433–1504, Stephen the Great) of Moldavia. The objective was to keep the Turks out of Moldavia; however, Stephen came to believe that John I Albert wanted to depose him. Therefore, Moldavian forces resisted Polish intervention and defeated the Poles at the Battle of Suceava in 1497. Taking advantage of Stephen's preoccupation with his erstwhile allies, Ottoman forces invaded Moldavia, but finding the winter unusually severe, they withdrew in 1498 after fighting only a few minor engagements. Hostilities between the Poles and the Turks were definitively ended by a truce in 1500, but the Moldavians refused to sign on, and combat between them and the Ottomans continued at a low level until Stephen died in 1504. At that time, Moldavia agreed to pay the Ottoman sultan an annual tribute in exchange for autonomy.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish-Turkish War (1614–1621)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Poland vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Moldavia and Wallachia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Poland attempted to gain control of Moldavia and Wallachia from the Ottomans.
OUTCOME: The Ottoman Empire retained control of the area.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Maximum Polish forces 75,000; Ottoman forces were somewhat smaller.
CASUALTIES: Polish casualties in Moldavia approached 10,000 killed.
TREATIES: Truce of 1621

By the 17th century, the Ottomans were once again in control of Moldavia as well as Wallachia. Poland encouraged and aided anti-Ottoman rebellions in these areas. The Ottomans responded with fierce raids against the Polish Ukraine. To put an end to these, a 10,000-man Polish army under General Stanislas Zolkiewski (d. 1620) invaded Moldavia where, joined by Cossacks and Moldavians, it defeated a substantially more numerous Ottoman-Tatar force at the Battle of Jassy on September 20, 1620.

Osman II (1604–22), the Ottoman sultan, responded by marching an even larger force from Constantinople into Moldavia, which forced the Poles into retreat. Despite the Poles' attempt to withdraw, the Ottoman forces engaged them in Moldavia and destroyed the army, killing Zolkiewski. A new Polish army of 75,000 troops under Stanislas Lubomirski (1583–1641) fought to a bloody draw at the Battle of Chocim on the Dniester in 1621, prompting the sultan to agree to a truce. Although no further major battles were fought, sporadic raiding continued on both sides.

See also RUSSO-POLISH WAR (1609–1618); THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish-Turkish War (1683–1688)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Poland vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Polish Ukraine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Poland sought to regain from the Ottoman Empire control of the Polish Ukraine.
OUTCOME: The Poles regained western Ukraine, but the Ottoman Empire retained the province of Podolia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman Empire, as many as 250,000 men in a single campaign; the Poles commanded far fewer numbers—at Zorawno, the Ottoman Empire fielded 200,000 men to the Poles' 20,000.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Buczacz, 1672; Treaty of Zorawno, October 16, 1676

Polish forces were in the process of suppressing a Cossack rebellion in the Polish Ukraine when a massive force of a quarter-million Turks under Sultan Muhammad IV (1641–91) bore down on the much smaller force of John Sobieski (1624–96). As Sobieski retreated, the Turks took

Podolia province and, in 1672, occupied the fortress of Kamieniec. Unable to muster forces sufficiently large to counter the invasion, Polish king Michael (1638–73) signed the 1672 Treaty of Buczacz, ceding to the Ottoman Empire all of Podolia and relinquishing to an Ottoman protectorate the Polish Ukraine. However, the Polish parliament refused to ratify the treaty, and proud Poles rallied behind John Sobieski to resume the war.

Sobieski's troops scored a major triumph at the Battle of Chocim on November 11, 1673, and the Turks withdrew from Polish territory. King Michael had died the preceding day, so that when Sobieski returned to Warsaw, he was elected king, to reign as John III.

The Ottoman Turks were not finished, however. In 1675, 150,000 Turks and Tatars invaded and once again seized Podolia but were ejected by a much smaller Polish force at the Battle of Lvov. Nevertheless, the Turks pressed on with an augmented general invasion in 1676. John found himself unable to raise an army larger than 20,000 men to go up against the new 200,000-man invasion force. Incredibly, outnumbered 10 to 1, John defeated the invaders at the Battle of Zorawno in October 1676. The Ottoman defeat was not militarily definitive, but the sultan was so impressed by what John III had done that he agreed to the Treaty of Zorawno on October 16, 1676, by which the Ottoman Empire returned to Poland much of western Ukraine, retaining only Podolia.

See also Russo-Polish War (1658–1667); Russo-Turkish War (1678–1681).

Further reading: Norman Davies, *God's Playground: A History of Poland,* 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1982); O. Halecki (with additional material by A. Polonsky and Thaddeus V. Grommada), *A History of Poland,* new ed. (New York: Dorset Press, 1992); W. F. Reddaway, et al., eds., *The Cambridge History of Poland,* 2 vols. (reprint, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1971).

Polish-Turkish War (1683–1688)

See Austro-Turkish War (1683–1699).

Pompey-Pirate War (67 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Roman forces under Pompey the Great vs. Mediterranean pirates
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mediterranean coastal regions
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Elimination of piracy in the region
OUTCOME: Pompey scored a rapid victory.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Roman general and statesman Pompey the Great (106–48 B.C.E.) was commissioned by the Senate to campaign throughout the Mediterranean and its littorals (up to 50 miles inland) for the purpose of defeating the widespread piracy endemic to the region. Conducting a sweep of 90 days, Pompey routed the pirates who plagued the eastern and western Mediterranean. His brilliant victory earned him praise from the Senate—and a grant of dictatorial powers.

See also Gallic Wars; Lepidus, Revolt of; Mithradatic War, Third; Octavian's War against Pompey; Roman Civil War, Great (50–45 B.C.E.); Sectorian War.

Further reading: Peter A. L. Greenhalgh, *Pompey: The Roman Alexander* (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1981).

Pontiac's Rebellion (Pontiac's Conspiracy; Pontiac's War) (1763–1764)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ottawa, Delaware, Iroquois Indians vs. colonial British forces and settlers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Ohio country
DECLARATION: No formal declaration; on April 27, 1763, Pontiac urged Potawatomi and Huron to join his raid on British Detroit
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: An attempt by an Indian confederation to reclaim lands lost in the French and Indian War
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; Pontiac gained no lands and was forced to pledge obedience to the king of England.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Fort Detroit, May 1763: British, 120; Pontiac, 300
CASUALTIES: British forces entire garrisons wiped out at Fort Venango (June 16, 1763) and Fort Presque Isle (June 20, 1763); Delaware Indians, in addition to battle-induced casualties, suffered a smallpox epidemic when Simon Ecuyer presented their chiefs with smallpox-infected gifts.
TREATIES: September 7, 1764

The Ottawa chief Pontiac (1720–69), for whom the rebellion is named, was actually only one among several Indian leaders who collaborated in resistance to English encroachment on their land. The "rebellion"—a term born of the white perspective on the events—included Delaware, Iroquois (principally the Seneca), and Shawnee in addition to the Ottawa.

The conflict began with the fall of French-held Detroit to the British during the French and Indian War on November 29, 1760, and General Jeffrey Amherst's (1717–97) decision (in February of the next year) to abolish the French custom of giving gifts to the Indians, in

particular their supply of ammunition. Following the edict, a religious leader known as the Delaware Prophet began preaching that the Indians should reject all the ways of the white man. British military authorities interpreted the Delaware Prophet's preachings as part of a widespread conspiracy against forts and settlements. General Amherst dispatched Major Henry Gladwin (1729–91) with reinforcements to Detroit.

Perhaps this action forestalled the raids, for nothing happened until 1763, when France capitulated in the French and Indian War, ceding virtually all of its territory to Britain. This prompted Pontiac to call a grand council on April 27, 1763, urging the Potawatomi and Huron to join his Ottawa in an attack upon Detroit.

Pontiac planned to enter Fort Detroit, with some warriors, on pretext of making a social call, then, having gained entrance, commence battle. The operation was scheduled for May 7, but Gladwin learned of the plan and twice foiled it.

Frustrated, Pontiac began raiding the settlers in the vicinity of the fort, then, joined by Wyandot, Potawatomi, and Ojibwa, began firing into the fort itself. After six hours, the attackers withdrew.

Following this battle, on May 10, Pontiac called for a parley, and Captain Donald Campbell (c. 1735–63) left the fort to negotiate. No sooner was Campbell outside of the fort than he was seized by the Indians and held hostage. Pontiac massed a large number of warriors and demanded the surrender of the fort. When Gladwin refused, Pontiac laid siege while also ambushing and raiding settlers in the vicinity of the fort.

Pontiac also managed to win the support of French settlers and farmers and was able to unleash widespread attacks against many forts. On May 16, 1763, Fort Sandusky fell. On May 25, Fort Saint Joseph was taken. Two days later, Fort Miami (near present-day Fort Wayne, Indiana) was breached. On the 28th, a relief column bound for Detroit was ambushed, resulting in heavy casualties. On June 1, Fort Ouiatenon (Lafayette, Indiana) was taken. And Fort Michilimackinac, in Michigan, was overrun soon after.

Following the fall of Michilimackinac, attacks began farther east. Forts Pitt, Ligonier, and Bedford in Pennsylvania were all besieged but managed to hold out. About June 16, 1763, Senecas killed the entire 15- or 16-man garrison at Fort Venango (Franklin, Pennsylvania). On June 18, the Senecas moved on to Fort Le Boeuf (Waterford, Pennsylvania) and burned it. Joined by Ottawas, Hurons, and Chippewas, the Senecas attacked Fort Presque Isle (Erie, Pennsylvania) on June 20, torching it and killing the garrison after promising it safe conduct.

When a group of Delawares demanded the surrender of Fort Pitt on June 24, Simon Ecuyer, acting commander, refused. He summoned the Delaware chiefs to the fort for a parley and presented them with a handkerchief and two blankets—from the fort's smallpox-ridden hospital. This early instance of biological warfare not only caused the attackers to retreat but apparently created a smallpox epidemic within the tribe.

Forts Niagara and Detroit both survived long sieges, and Fort Detroit was periodically able to launch offensives, one of which, on July 4, 1763, resulted in the death of two Indians, including the nephew of Wasson, an important Chippewa chief.

On August 5, Colonel Henry Bouquet (1719–65) was leading a relief column to Fort Pitt, when he was attacked at Edge Hill, Pennsylvania, by a party of Delawares, Shawnees, Mingos, and Hurons. Despite being outnumbered, Bouquet prevailed on August 6, 1763. Called the Battle of Bushy Run, after the stream beside which Bouquet was camped, the battle turned the tide of Pontiac's Rebellion against the Indians.

The siege at Detroit was lifted in September, and, on October 3, 1763, Pontiac at last agreed to a peace, but a treaty was not concluded until September 7, 1764, following two more major English offensives. By virtue of the treaty, Pontiac and the other chiefs involved in the "rebellion" pledged obedience to the king of England.

The conflict had been costly, more on civilians, white and Indian alike, than on the military. At least 2,000 white settlers died. The Indian death toll, especially when the effects of smallpox are taken into consideration, was doubtless even greater.

As to Pontiac, he kept the peace until 1769, when he was assassinated as he was leaving a trading post in Cahokia, Illinois. The Indian who killed him may have been in the employ of local British traders.

Further reading: Francis Jennings, *Empire of Fortune: Crowns, Colonies, and Tribes in the Seven Years' War* (New York: Norton, 1988).

Popé's Rebellion

See Pueblo Uprising (1680).

Portuguese Conquest of Malacca

See Portuguese Conquests in India and the East Indies.

Portuguese Campaigns against Diu

(1509–1547)

Principal combatants: Portugal vs. Egypt and Gujarat
Principal theater(s): Diu, an island in the Arabian Sea
Declaration: None
Major issues and objectives: Portugal wanted to seize Giu in order to control commerce on the Arabian Sea.

OUTCOME: Portugal conquered the island and other key ports.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The contest for preeminence in the East Indian spice trade pitted Portugal against Egyptian Muslim trading interests. In 1509, Portugal sank an Egyptian fleet off Diu, an island in the Arabian Sea that was a possession of the Indian Muslim state of Gujarat. But it wasn't until 1531 that the Portuguese mounted a major campaign against Diu itself, a land mass from which the possessor could control commerce on the Arabian Sea by dominating key ports. The island was defended by a combination of Egyptian and Gujarat troops, who resisted siege and attack for two years, before finally surrendering in 1533.

In 1538, the Gujaratis attempted to retake Diu, but failed, losing the ports of Goa and Daman in the process. During 1546–47, the Gujaratis mounted a new siege against Diu, which would have succeeded had not a Portuguese relief expedition made a timely arrival from Goa.

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); Christopher Bell, *Portugal and the Quest for the Indies* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1974); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972).

Portuguese-Castilian War (1140)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. Castile and Léon
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence of Portugal and the disposition of Galicia
OUTCOME: The matter was settled by a tournament in Portugal's favor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Zamora, 1143

In 1139, Count Alfonso Henriques (1112–85) triumphed over the Moors at the Battle of Ourique and then declared Portuguese independence from Castile and Léon, which were ruled by his cousin, Alfonso VII (d. 1157). Thus Alfonso Henriques became the first king of Portugal. This achieved, he pursued the claim of his mother, Teresa (an illegitimate daughter of Alfonso VI of Castile), to western Galicia (northwest Spain). The following year, 1140, Alfonso VII responded by invading Portugal. With Spanish troops occupying his kingdom, Alfonso Henriques met with his cousin, and it was decided to settle the matter of the Galician claims not with a full-scale war but with a tournament between Portuguese and Castilian knights at Val-de-Vez. When the Portuguese champions proved triumphant, the Castilian king was as good as his word. The Galician matter was settled, and, by the Peace of Zamora in 1143, Alfonso VII formally recognized Alfonso Henriques as king of Portugal.

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972).

Portuguese-Castilian Wars (1369–1388)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal (with English alliance) vs. Castile (with French alliance)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal and Castile
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence of Portugal from Castile; succession to the Castilian throne
OUTCOME: Portugal become independent; the English claim to the Castilian throne was abandoned.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Alcoutin, 1371; Treaty of Windsor, 1386; Peace of Bayonne; Portuguese-Castilian peace treaty, 1411

The war between Portugal and Castile may be regarded as a phase of the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR. Pedro I (the Cruel; 1320–67), king of Portugal, disputed possession of the throne of Castile with Count Henry of Trastamara (1333–79). In 1367, however, Pedro fell to an assassin. Pedro's son Ferdinand I (the Handsome; 1345–83) succeeded to the Portuguese throne, whereupon a number of Castilian towns pledged allegiance to him. Despite this, in 1369, Henry of Trastamara assumed the Castilian throne as Henry II and decided on a preemptive strike against Portugal to prevent his rule from being progressively undermined.

Henry invaded, and by 1371 Ferdinand I, having suffered defeat, acceded to the Peace of Alcoutin, by which he ceded claim to Castile and made an arrangement to marry Henry's daughter. When, however, Ferdinand immediately demonstrated his bad faith by engaging in an

affair with Leonor Teles (d. 1386), a married Portuguese noblewoman, Henry II invaded again.

Henry successfully besieged Lisbon, the Portuguese capital, and compelled Ferdinand not only to give up a number of castles but also to sever his alliance with England's John of Gaunt (1340–99), who had a claim to the Castilian throne through marriage to the elder daughter of Pedro I.

Thus circumstances stood in 1372. Seven years later, when Henry II died, Ferdinand merely picked up the English alliance where he had left it. In 1380, John of Gaunt allied with Ferdinand for an invasion of Castile. Gaunt's expeditionary force arrived the following year, led by his brother, Edmund of Langely (then earl of Cambridge, later duke of York) (1362–85), who betrothed his son Edward to Ferdinand's only legitimate child, Beatrice. But in August 1382, halfway through the campaign, Ferdinand come to terms with the Castilians, agreeing now to marry Beatrice to a Castilian prince, and John of Gaunt's forces withdrew.

Beatrice became the wife of the prematurely decrepit King John I (1358–90) of Castile; at least when Ferdinand died, Leonor Teles became regent in her name, and Castile claimed the Portuguese Crown when, in 1383, Ferdinand I—a failed sovereign detested by his people—died.

The people of Portugal effectively repudiated Ferdinand's capitulation to Castile and, defiantly opposing Castile's claim on Portugal, elevated the bastard son of Pedro I, John (grand master of Aviz; 1357–1433) to the position of defender of the realm. The popular forces drove Leonor Teles out of Lisbon. She fled to Santarem, where she was met by Castilian invaders in 1384. They sent her packing to a convent for her protection.

The Castilian invaders laid siege to Lisbon, but the onset of plague and almost universal opposition from the people of Portugal caused the siege to collapse. King John I and his forces returned to Castile.

With the Castilians out of the country, the Portuguese Cortes (parliament) elevated John of Aviz to the Portuguese throne on April 6, 1385. He led forces in a series of sieges against pockets of resistance to his rule. This action moved John I of Castile to form an alliance with France and, once again, invade Portugal.

The invasion culminated in the Battle of Aljubarrota, outside of Lisbon, fought on August 14, 1385. Although the Portuguese were outnumbered by the combined Castilian and French forces, their English archers were instrumental in defeating the invaders, who, once again, withdrew from the country. This battle may be said to have secured the independence of Portugal.

The Treaty of Windsor, concluded in 1386, established a long-term alliance between England and Portugal, giving John of Gaunt the backing he needed to assert his claim to the throne of Castile. With Portuguese aid, he invaded Castile in 1387 but was repulsed. He settled for a compromise in 1388 by concluding the Peace of Bayonne, by which he renounced his claim to Castile in return for a cash settlement. Although Portugal had concluded a truce with Castile in 1387, a full and formal treaty was not signed until much later, 1411.

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); Christopher Bell, *Portugal and the Quest for the Indies* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1974); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972).

Portuguese Civil War (1449)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Alfonso V vs. the duke of Braganza and Pedro, duke of Coimbra
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Coimbra, Portugal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The king's brother persuaded him that Pedro was disloyal.
OUTCOME: Pedro and his supporters were defeated in battle and slain.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Alfonso fielded as many as 30,000 men against a far inferior force.
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but Pedro and almost all of his army were killed.
TREATIES: None

When Alfonso V (1432–81) became king of Portugal in 1438, he was still a child, and his uncle, Pedro (d. 1449), duke of Coimbra, became regent, despite the opposition of the powerful Braganza family, related to the king through the duke of Braganza, also named Alfonso (d. 1461), who was an illegitimate son of John I of Aviz (1357–1433). Although Pedro managed to arrange for the young king to marry his daughter Isabella in 1446, the Braganzas continued to poison Alfonso V's mind against his uncle, who was forced to resign his regency. Seeking to avoid confrontation, Pedro withdrew to his lands in Coimbra. The Braganzas, however, did not cease their calumnies, and an increasingly manipulated Alfonso V demanded the surrender of Pedro's arms. When Pedro refused, the duke of Braganza urged the king to go to war. Braganza's troops were soundly defeated by Pedro's partisans at the Battle of Panella. Alfonso then raised an army of 30,000 and advanced to the Alfarrobeira River where, on May 21, 1449, Alfonso defeated the much smaller forces of Pedro, who, together with most of his army, fell in battle.

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group,

2000); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972).

Portuguese Civil War (1481–1483)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: King John II vs. various nobles
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The king sought to curtail the power of a corrupt nobility.
OUTCOME: With popular support, King John II suppressed the abuses practiced by the nobles.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When John II (1455–95) ascended the Portuguese throne in 1481, he reacted perhaps to the open-handed and negligent rule of his father, Alfonso V (1432–81), who had been something of a puppet to the powerful Braganza family. He immediately set about curtailing the power of a nobility grown not only powerful but also quite corrupt by convening the Cortes (parliament) at Évora in 1481. The king forced restrictions on the great families and demanded a detailed oath of homage from them. When they responded by joining conspiracies against the king, John countered through a merciless purge, meting out death on the field as well as judicial executions. Indeed, the suspicion of treason served the king's purposes very well, allowing him to arrest Fernando II, duke of Braganza, and many of his followers. Although it was rumored the king had killed two of his conspiratorial cousins on the spot, that is, in his own castle, the duke at least was sentenced to death and executed in 1484 at Évora. The ruthless suppression of the aristocracy had lasted three years, and enjoyed strong support from the Portuguese middle class and peasantry, who were tired of inefficient, exploitative, and generally abusive government.

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); Christopher Bell, *Portugal and the Quest for the Indies* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1974); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *The Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808* (reprint, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Portuguese Civil War (1823–1824)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: King John VI vs. his rebellious son, Dom Miguel
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Restoration of an absolutist monarchy—under Dom Miguel
OUTCOME: Failing to obtain popular support, Dom Miguel ultimately stepped down and was exiled.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Despite two major royalist attempts to overthrow the constitutional monarchy and reinstall an absolutist government, Portugal drafted a democratic constitution in 1823.

The first rebellion began in Vila Real; the second, bigger, insurrection originated in Vila Franca de Xira and was sponsored by Dom Miguel (1802–66), third son of King John VI (1769–1826). On April 30, 1824, Dom Miguel and his forces attacked Lisbon, receiving support from the troops of the Lisbon garrison, who acclaimed him king. Dom Miguel brought in his mother, Queen Carlota Joaquina, and all the advisers of John VI fled the capital. In the meantime, Dom Miguel arrested Lisbon's chief of police and others loyal to John VI, then installed into high military office his followers.

What Dom Miguel had failed to calculate, however, was the loyalty of the people toward John VI. Without popular support, Dom Miguel's coup collapsed, and the young man was compelled to beseech forgiveness from his father. John VI responded by exiling Dom Miguel to Vienna. John VI now authorized the constitution.

See also BRAZILIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; MIGUELITE WARS; OPORTO, REVOLUTION AT.

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972).

Portuguese Civil War (1826–1827)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Miguelites vs. constitutionalists (backed by Great Britain)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Miguelites supported an absolute monarchy for Portugal, while the constitutionalists supported a constitutional monarchy.

OUTCOME: With British aid, the constitutionalists triumphed, forcing Dom Miguel to accept constitutional government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown; the British interventionist force, highly effective, consisted of only 5,000 men.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

With the death of John VI (1769–1826), his son, Pedro I (1798–1834) of Brazil, was recognized as King Pedro IV of Portugal. After promulgating a constitutional charter for Portugal, emulating Britain's parliamentary democracy, Pedro remained emperor of Brazil but abdicated the Portuguese throne in favor of his infant daughter Maria da Gloria (1819–53), with the proviso that she become betrothed to Dom Miguel (1802–66), his younger brother. Dom Miguel was pledged to accept constitutional government; however, his absolutist supporters, dubbed Miguelites, clashed with the constitutionalists under General John Carlos de Oliveira e Daun Saldanha (1791–1876). The Miguelites overran and occupied Lisbon, while the constitutionalists operated out of Oporto. In 1827, a 5,000-man British expeditionary force landed at Lisbon and engaged the Miguelites. Only after Miguel agreed to honor Pedro's constitutional charter did the British leave. Miguel was duly appointed regent.

See also MIGUELITE WARS; OPORTO, REVOLUTION AT; PORTUGUESE CIVIL WAR (1823–1824).

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972).

Portuguese Conquest of Ceuta (1415)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. the Moors
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ceuta, Gibraltar Strait
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Portugal wanted a toehold in Africa.
OUTCOME: Ceuta, poorly defended at the time, fell.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When John of Aviz (1357–1433) came to the throne of Portugal during the PORTUGUESE-CASTILIAN WARS (1369–1388), he founded a new dynasty that, despite the misgivings of many among the nobility and clergy, was immensely popular with the common folk. As he consolidated his hold on Portugal, his conquests came to represent what historians describe as the victory of the country's national yearnings over the feudal attachments of the traditional order. Because so many of the older nobles held tenaciously to Castile, John I rewarded his followers at their (and the crown's) expense, fostering a commerce that continued to flourish with the marriage of his daughter, Isabella, to Philip the Good (1396–1467) of Burgundy and the consequent closer trade relations between Portugal and Flanders. Almost naturally, then, with the onset of peace in 1388, John and his soldiers of fortune turned to Moorish Africa as an outlet for their frontiering ways and launched the great age of Portuguese expansion. Standing smack in their path was Ceuta, the fortress guarding the Strait of Gibraltar.

When the Moorish sultan left Ceuta all but undefended to put down a revolt in the Maghreb (part of Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia), King John I of Portugal acted. Seeking in part to gain a little favor, as a crusader, with a standoffish pope and the still seething Spanish, John set sail with his sons from Lisbon on July 25, 1415. Among the boys was young Prince Henry (1394–1460), the king's third son, who John hoped would gain some valuable experience with the expedition and who would become known to history as Henry the Navigator. The fleet anchored at Tarifa, then launched the assault. Despite the skeleton crew, the fortress withstood the first attack. Townspeople as well as Moors from the mountains came to the defense of the fortress, but it yielded to a second Portuguese assault on August 24, 1415. From this foothold, Portuguese conquest would expand onto the mainland of Africa, and Ceuta became a redoubtable Portuguese outpost, which withstood repeated assaults by the Moors and others.

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415–1825* (New York: Knopf, 1969); James Duffy, *Portuguese Africa* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *The Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808* (reprint, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Portuguese Conquests in India and the East Indies (1500–1545)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. Indian, Egyptian, and Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India and the East Indies
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest and commercial domination
OUTCOME: The Portuguese gained control of large parts of coastal India and Ceylon (Sri Lanka)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Alliances among the Muslim powers

On June 7, 1494, the Treaty of Tordesillas asserted Portugal's right—as opposed to Spain's—to the exploration of Africa and the seaway to India, and three years later Vasco da Gama (c. 1469–1524) set sail with four ships on the first expedition to India. They reached Calicut on the Malabar coastline in the spring of 1498 and set up a trading post. In the autumn of 1499, the survivors sailed into Lisbon, laden with all the rich spices and trade goods of the Orient, and Portuguese exploration became an opiate of national ambitions in the East. Converting the pagans and crushing the infidels became the clarion call of a Portugal intent on muscling its way into the Muslim trade monopoly along the Mediterranean and growing rich beyond imagining off the traffic in exotic merchandise.

Portugal's plan called for no immediate colonies. Instead, Portuguese sailors would establish commercial trading posts from the East Indies to the Arabian Sea and protect them with garrisons patrolled by the well-armed Portuguese fleet. But when the first Portuguese viceroy, Francisco de Almeida (c. 1450–1510), arrived in 1505, he made immediately clear the impact of the region's new traders by backing the Cochin rajah against the Calicut sultan. The Portuguese may not yet have been colonizers officially, but they fired off the cannon of every departing export-laden ship as a kind of fireworks display to impress the local Hindus and deflate the local Muslims with Portugal's imperial majesty.

Little wonder that Mahmud Begarha, sultan of Gujarat, formed an alliance with Kansu al-Gauri of Egypt in 1508 to counter the Portuguese assault. This led to the naval Battle of Dabul later in the year. Although the battle ended inconclusively, Almeida's son Lorenzo (d. 1508) was killed. While Almeida made plans to avenge Lorenzo's death, Afonso de Albuquerque (1453–1515) arrived in India to replace Almeida as viceroy. Almeida responded by imprisoning Albuquerque, then, during January–February 1509, he raided Muslim ports, razing Goa and Dabul. In February, Almeida attacked the Muslim fleet at Diu. Achieving total surprise, he destroyed the fleet, then returned to Cochin. The battle reestablished Portuguese supremacy at sea, the chief ingredient of Portugal's newfound wealth and power in the East. As for Almeida, his vengeance secured, he at last heeded the Portuguese king's order to acknowledge Albuquerque as the new viceroy.

Now installed, Albuquerque led a military expedition to Malaya and captured Goa in 1510. The following year, he took Malacca, establishing a military base from which he sent expeditions to the Moluccas during 1512–14. In the meantime, Goa rebelled against the Portuguese invaders, but Albuquerque managed to put down the revolt.

In 1513, the viceroy led an expedition to Aden, to which he unsuccessfully laid siege, then, two years later, took Ormuz, which would serve as a Portuguese stronghold for a century and a half. Despite his triumphs on behalf of Portugal, Albuquerque was recalled in 1515. He died on the voyage back to Europe.

Albuquerque had established a powerful Portuguese presence in India and the Indies. A great fort was built at Columbo, Ceylon (Sri Lanka), in 1518, which Portuguese traders used to establish an important presence in Burma. The new Portuguese viceroy, Numbo da Cunha (fl. 16th century), led an expedition of conquest to Diu, which fell to him in 1528.

During 1536–37, Sultan Bahadur of Gujarat (fl. 16th century) formed an alliance with the Ottoman Turks. In response, the Portuguese viceroy invited Bahadur to negotiations—only to have him captured and assassinated. Despite the death of Bahadur, the Ottoman fleet coordinated with a Gujarat land force to attack and lay siege to Diu. The Portuguese defenders managed to repulse the attackers. It was 1546 before a new Indian-Ottoman alliance was concluded, but Muslim forces repeatedly failed to evict the Portuguese.

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); Christopher Bell, *Portugal and the Quest for the Indies* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1974); C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415–1825* (New York: Knopf, 1969); James Duffy, *Portuguese Africa* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *The Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808* (reprint, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Portuguese-Dutch Wars in the East Indies (1601–1641)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Netherlands vs. Portugal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): East Indies and coastal India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Domination of trade (chiefly spices)
OUTCOME: Over the course of four decades, the Dutch displaced the Portuguese as masters of the East India trade.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Armistice of 1608

At the beginning of the 16th century the Portuguese had broken the Muslim monopoly on trade with the Orient (*see* PORTUGUESE CONQUESTS IN INDIA AND THE EAST INDIES). They controlled Goa as the chief port of western India; Hormuz, the key to the Persian Gulf; and Malacca, the gateway from the Indian Ocean to the South China Sea. Portugal maintained a string of fortified trading posts along the coast of East Africa and on the Indian gulf, as well as on the shores of Ceylon. The Portuguese had established trading settlements from Bengal to China, and they were the major foreign trade influence in the Spice Islands. If never in total control of the Oriental trade, they certainly dominated it until the joining of the Portuguese and the Spanish Crowns deprived the Dutch of their traditional trade with Lisbon and sent them seeking spices at their source. In 1601, the Dutch made the diplomatically critical move of concluding an alliance with the ruler of Ceylon (Sri Lanka). Dutch and Ceylonese forces defeated the Portuguese on the island, driving them off.

In 1602, Dutch naval forces defeated the Portuguese fleet near the Banda Islands in east Indonesia. Three years after this, in 1605, the Portuguese were forced off the island of Amboina (Ambon), and the Dutch compelled the Portuguese to agree to a 12-year armistice. In 1619, the Dutch returned to the offensive, taking and destroying the Javanese town of Jakarta and building Batavia adjacent to it, a walled fortress town that became headquarters of the powerful Dutch East India Company.

Batavia was more than a trading center. It became military headquarters for a sustained war against the remaining Portuguese interests in the East Indies. Also subject to attack were the British and any native powers that resisted Dutch domination. Through a combination of naval and land offensives, the Dutch acquired full control over Amboina, Banda, Ceylon, Java, and Ternate, as well as lesser areas. In this way, they came to dominate the East Indian spice trade.

With Dutch power consolidated in the East Indies, the Dutch launched attacks on Portuguese India and on Point de Galle, the Portuguese port-stronghold in Ceylon. This bastion fell to the Dutch in 1640. Emboldened by this victory, Dutch forces laid siege to Malacca, the most important Portuguese port on the southern Malay Peninsula. After enduring a long siege, the city fell to the Dutch in 1641. This marked the end of Portuguese hegemony in the East Indies and the culmination of Dutch supremacy there.

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); Christopher Bell, *Portugal and the Quest for the Indies* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1974); C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415–1825* (New York: Knopf, 1969); James Duffy, *Portuguese Africa* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *The Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808* (reprint, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Portuguese-Mogul War (1631–1632)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Moguls vs. Portuguese
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hugli, Bengal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Moguls sought to crush the Portuguese traders, who had monopolized Bengal trade and oppressed the natives.
OUTCOME: The major Portuguese trading base of Hugli was taken.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Moguls, 150,000; Portuguese, 1,100 defenders of Hugli
CASUALTIES: Moguls, 1,000 killed; Portuguese, all of the defenders were either killed in battle or subsequently executed; most of the civilian inhabitants of Hugli were killed as well.
TREATIES: None

From Hugli, in the Ganges-Brahmaputra delta, the Portuguese had been conducting an immensely profitable Indian trade since 1537. Portuguese interests enjoyed a monopoly on salt production and the tobacco trade and, in fact, managed most of Bengal's trade, cutting the Moguls out of the profits. Even worse, Portuguese traders routinely kidnaped Muslim as well as Hindu children and sold them into slavery.

At last, on June 24, 1631, Shah Jahan (1592–1666), the Mogul emperor, sent 150,000 troops under Qasim Kahn, the governor of Bengal, against Hugli, which was defended by a mere 300 Portuguese and a native Christian force of 700. Shah Jahan's army held Hugli under siege for three months before it finally collapsed. Many of the townspeople drowned in an effort to escape by boat. Only 400 people survived to surrender, and these were subsequently put to death (in 1635) for refusing to convert to Islam. About 1,000 of Shah Jahan's troops were killed in the assault on Hugli, which was greatly reduced in importance as a trading port.

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); Christopher Bell, *Portugal and the Quest for the*

Indies (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1974); C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415–1825* (New York: Knopf, 1969); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1976); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *The Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808* (reprint, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Portuguese-Moroccan War (1458–1471)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. Muslims in Morocco
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morocco
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Alfonso V the African of Portugal wanted to defeat the Muslims in the name of Christianity.
OUTCOME: The Portuguese acquired Tangier in 1471.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The Portuguese fielded a maximum of 30,000 troops; Muslim numbers, unknown.
CASUALTIES: Portuguese casualties were heavy in the first assault on Tangier, with battle deaths in excess of 10,000.
TREATIES: None

After the fall of Constantinople to the Ottomans in 1453, Portugal's King Alfonso V (the African; 1432–81) and Castile's King Henry IV (1425–74) united in a crusade against the Muslims. Henry's task was to attack the Moors in Granada, Spain, and Alfonso was to conquer the Muslims in Morocco, Africa. In the first of three military expeditions against Morocco, Alfonso led 25,000 men across the Strait of Gibraltar, with the objective of attacking Tangier. Advisers, however, persuaded him to lay siege to Alcázarquivir (Ksar el-Kebir) instead. He did so, and the city quickly fell to him.

Alfonso was slow to capitalize on his triumph. He did not launch his second expedition, the attack on Tangier, until 1464, and when he did, he met with catastrophe. His army was badly defeated, and he himself barely escaped. Meanwhile, that same year Henry reconquered Gibraltar from the Muslims. Alfonso's defeat discouraged him from continuing his crusade, but when the Portuguese sailors in 1468 captured and burned Anfa, a Muslim part on the Atlantic at the site of modern Casablanca, a reinvigorated Alfonso led about 30,000 men on his third and final expedition, a new assault on Tangier. Massacring Muslim civilians along the way, Alfonso's troops assembled before a city that had been deserted by its terrified inhabitants. Alfonso seized it. Castile, meanwhile, despite Henry's conquest, collapsed into political chaos, as factions among the nobility fell to feuding in the absence of a strong monarch.

See also SPANISH CHRISTIAN–MUSLIM WAR (1481–1492).

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2000); C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415–1825* (New York: Knopf, 1969); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972); James Duffy, *Portuguese Africa* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1976); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *The Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808* (reprint, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Portuguese-Moroccan War (1578)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. Muslim Morocco
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morocco
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King Sebastian of Portugal wanted to overthrow the Muslim sultan and install a pro-Christian pretender.
OUTCOME: Total defeat for Portugal
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Portugal, 25,000; Morocco, 70,000
CASUALTIES: Portugal suffered losses of 8,000 dead, including Sebastian and the pretender to the throne of Fez; 15,000 were taken prisoner.
TREATIES: None

In 1578, contrary to the wishes of Pope Gregory XIII (1502–85) and King Philip II (1527–98) of Spain, Portugal's king Sebastian (1554–78)—a religious zealot, who wished to subject Muslim Morocco to Christian rule—led 25,000 mostly mercenary troops in a crusade to replace Morocco's current sultan, 'Abd al-Malik (d. 1578), with a more pliable pretender, the former, now deposed sultan, al-Mutawakkil (d. 1578). Landing at Tangier, weighed down by artillery and an army unfamiliar with desert warfare, Sebastian encountered the far superior, 50,000- to 70,000-strong, forces of Sharif 'Abd al-Malik at Ksar el-Kebir (Alcázarquivir). On August 4, 1578, at the so-called Battle of the Three Kings (the sultan, the pretender, and Sebastian), the Portuguese advance withered under the fire of Morocco's mounted harquebusiers, and as the Christians retreated to Larache on the coast, many drowned or surrendered in crossing the Wadi al-Makhazin, which was at high tide. Among the casualties were Sebastian and the pretender, both of whom drowned.

Many in a stunned Portugal refused to believe that Sebastian had been slain, and in later years, he was looked on as a savior who would someday return to rescue Portu-

gal from Spanish domination. In reality, the death of the head-strong young Sebastian, without heir, brought the Portuguese empire under Spanish control for the next 60 years.

On the other hand, although the already seriously ill 'Abd al-Malik, died the morning after the battle (thus the European name of the battle), the victory provided the Muslim soldiery with a rich booty and Morocco a new prestige in Europe, enhancing both its diplomacy and its commerce.

See also SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1580–1589).

Further reading: James M. Anderson, *History of Portugal* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2000); Christopher Bell, *Portugal and the Quest for the Indies* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1974); C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415–1825* (New York: Knopf, 1969); Antonio Henrique R. De Oliveria Marques, *History of Portugal* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1972); James Duffy, *Portuguese Africa* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968); H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1976); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *The Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808* (reprint, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Portuguese North Java Wars (1535–1600)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. the Muslim states in northern Java
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Java
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest and commercial domination
OUTCOME: Through a long series of very small wars, the Portuguese gained control of northern Java.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the 16th century, Portugal established itself as the chief power in Malaysia by capturing Malacca, using it as a base from which to create a well-defended trading empire throughout the region. For the last two-thirds of the century, Portuguese trading interests chronically warred with the small Muslim states that constituted northern Java. These wars consisted of largely inconclusive battles, in which, nevertheless, the Portuguese almost always prevailed. Over a long period, the power of the Muslim rulers in this region diminished, so that Portugal could claim victory in the region.

See also PORTUGUESE CONQUESTS IN INDIA AND THE EAST INDIES.

Further reading: C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire* (New York: Knopf, 1969); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *The Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808* (reprint, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Portuguese-Omani Wars in East Africa (1652–1730)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. Oman (and native African forces)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): East Africa and coastal islands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: For the natives, political liberation; for Portugal and Omani, commercial domination of the East African trade in slaves and gold
OUTCOME: Both the Portuguese and Omani presence in the region was diminished, then removed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Various agreements between native rulers and Portuguese and Omani interests

Although commonly practiced in Africa itself, especially by the Arabs, and once widespread in the ancient Mediterranean world, slavery had nearly died out in medieval Europe before it was revived by the Portuguese during the time of Henry the Navigator (1394–1460). Beginning with his enslavement of Berbers in 1442, Portugal's intrepid explorers populated Cape Verde, Fernando Po (now Bioko), and São Tomé mostly with black slaves, many of whom they eventually took home. As Europe expanded into the New World, the traffic in slaves expanded, too, along with the new discoveries of gold that helped fund it. By the mid-17th century, based on the island of Mombasa, off the coast of Kenya, the Portuguese controlled the East African slave trade and the trade in gold. Suffering under the Portuguese yoke for many years, the Mombasan natives appealed in 1652 to the sultan of Oman (on the Arabian Peninsula) for military aid in driving off the Portuguese. The sultan dispatched a fleet to attack Zanzibar, a Portuguese-controlled island south of Mombasa. This began a long state of warfare between the Omanis and the Portuguese, which was both a war for trade domination—the prize being the commercial exploitation of the African east coast—and a religious conflict between the forces of Islam and the forces of Catholic Christianity.

The next major phase of combat came in 1687, when a former ruling house of Pate, an island nation off Kenya, asked the Portuguese to help it regain its realm from Omani control. The Portuguese suffered from poor intelligence information. Approaching Pate, they were con-

fronted by a substantially superior Omani fleet, which forced them to retreat to Mombasa.

In 1696, the Omani fleet attacked Mombasa, laying siege against Fort Jesus. The spectacular siege spanned three years before the beleaguered Portuguese finally capitulated, having lost all trading outlets north of Cape Delgado. The Omani ruler installed a garrison at Fort Jesus, which mutinied in 1727. Seeing that the Omani presence was weakening, the king of Pate again appealed to Portugal for help in finally driving the Omanis from his island. Oman itself was beset by internal disorder and could not reinforce Pate or Mombasa. The Portuguese easily prevailed against them and quickly reestablished a slave trading post at Zanzibar.

Inevitably, conflict developed between the natives and the returned Portuguese. A massive native uprising laid siege to the Portuguese installations in Zanzibar, Mombasa, and Pate, and by 1730 all of the Portuguese had again fled. They retreated to Portuguese colonies in western India (Goa) and in Mozambique (Portuguese East Africa).

Further reading: James Duffy, *Portuguese Africa* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968).

Portuguese Revolution (1640)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lisbon, Braga, and Évora, Portugal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The people of Portugal wanted an end to Spanish overlordship.
OUTCOME: A popular uprising ejected the Spanish colonial government and replaced it with a Portuguese king.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Restive under the Spanish yoke, the people of Lisbon, Braga, and Évora rioted in 1640 and rallied behind the leadership of John (1605–56), duke of Braganza, the highest noble in Portugal. The Spanish overlords summoned the nobles and army of Portugal to Madrid, but, by that time, under John's leadership, the popular uprising had expelled the Spanish governor from Portugal (on December 1, 1640). Instead of obediently traveling to Madrid, the nobles in Portugal's Cortes (parliament) offered John the Portuguese crown, and he accepted, becoming King John IV two weeks after the fall of the Spanish colonial government.

Further reading: H. V. Livermore, *A New History of Portugal,* 2nd ed. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1976).

Portuguese-Spanish Wars

See SPANISH-PORTUGUESE PHILIPPINE WARS; SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1580–1589); SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1641–1644); SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1657–1668); SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1735–1737); SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1762).

Portuguese War against Ternate (1550–1588)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Portugal vs. Ternate
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ternate, Indonesia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The sultan of Ternate sought to drive out the Portuguese and to exact vengeance for the murder of Sultan Hairun.
OUTCOME: The Portuguese were defeated on Ternate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: More than 500 Portuguese died on a siege of their garrison.
TREATIES: None

In the 16th century, Portugal expanded its commercial empire into the Arabian Sea and the East Indies, seeking trade in pepper and other spices, and defending that trade with ample amounts of gunpowder. By mid-century, Portugal had set its sites on the island of Ternate, in the Malaccas. There, Portuguese forces did battle with the army of Sultan Hairun (d. 1570) off and on for years, beginning in 1550. In 1570, Portuguese agents assassinated Hairun, an act that escalated warfare under the sultan's successor Baabullah (fl. 1570s), who pledged undying enmity for the Portuguese. The vengeful new ruler attacked and laid siege to the Portuguese fort on Ternate. The installation held out for four years, from 1570 to 1574, before Baabullah finally breached its defenses and massacred the entire garrison. Beleaguered in Malacca, which was held under siege by the Achanese, and under attack elsewhere, the Portuguese had been unable to relieve the siege of Ternate. In April 1606 a combined Spanish-Portuguese fleet recaptured the island, which the Portuguese held until the Dutch began to dominate the South Pacific in 1595.

Further reading: C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire* (New York: Knopf, 1969).

Potato War

See BAVARIAN SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE.

Pottawatomie Massacre

See KANSAS-MISSOURI BORDER WARS.

Powhatan War (1622–1644)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Indians of the Powhatan Confederacy vs. England's Virginia colony
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Virginia
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Indians were resisting colonial incursions onto Powhatan lands.
OUTCOME: Powhatan agreed to formal boundaries to pledge loyalty to the king of England, and to submit their choice of future tribal chiefs for the Virginia governor's approval.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Virginians, 347 in 1622, 400 in 1644; Powhatan, 200 after being served poisoned food
TREATIES: Signed in October 1646

The English colonists who settled Jamestown, Virginia, encountered Indians who were members of a remarkable confederacy of at least 32 Algonquian-speaking tribes (a total of perhaps 10,000 people) distributed among 200 villages and held together by a revered chief named Wahun-sen-a-cawh (or Wahunsonacock) (c. 1550–1618), whom the English named Powhatan after the town in which he lived. Generations of schoolchildren have learned the story of Captain John Smith (1580–1631), who accompanied the first 105 Jamestown settlers. Captured by some of Powhatan's men in December 1607, he was taken before Powhatan and saved from execution by the chief's 13-year-old daughter Pocahontas (c. 1595–1617), who also facilitated Smith's adoption by the tribe. Once Smith had won Powhatan's favor, he was able to obtain corn from the Indians, which saved the colonists from starvation.

The settlers were remarkably ungrateful to the Indians and, although an active trade grew up between them, the Virginians and the Powhatans (as the member tribes were known) distrusted and resented one another. Friction between the two groups increased in proportion to the colonists' hunger for land as the Virginians began cultivating tobacco for export. Planters wanted to usurp the Indians' already cleared and cultivated fields and even proposed taking Powhatan prisoner in order to gain control of his people.

Although that scheme was not carried out, Sir Thomas Gates (fl. 1585–1621) (who later became the colony's governor) murdered some Indian priests, and, in 1613, Samuel Argall (1572–1626), mariner and colonist, kidnapped Pocahontas, who was held hostage for a time. Her subsequent marriage to colonist John Rolfe (1585–c. 1622) may well have forestalled the war that these and other outrages might have otherwise provoked. In any event, whatever Powhatan may have felt about the English, he valued trade with them and managed to preserve peace until his death in 1618.

Powhatan's half brother Opechancanough (d. 1644) succeeded him as sachem of the confederation, and, although he promised friendship with the colonists, war was not long in coming.

In 1622 a planter named Morgan disappeared. His servants claimed that an Indian named Nemattanow (or Nematanou), prominent among the Powhatans, had ordered his death, and Nemattanow was killed. For this, Opechancanough vowed revenge, and the colonists likewise hurled threats. Opechancanough apparently backed down, renewing his pledge of friendship only to launch an all-out raid on every English settlement along the James River on Good Friday, March 22, 1622. By the end of that day, 347 settlers had been killed—about one-third of the colony.

In response to the assault, colonist patrols attacked Indians indiscriminately up and down the coast. There were no formal battles or campaigns, just 14 years of murder and raiding, punctuated by occasional peace conferences. It was not until 1632 that an uneasy truce, born of mutual exhaustion, was concluded. It lasted 12 years, until April 18, 1644, when Opechancanough, now old and blind, launched a coordinated offensive against the James River settlements. More than 400 colonists were killed in a series of lightning raids, but, as quickly as they had come, the attackers withdrew.

Virginia's Governor William Berkeley (1606–77) retaliated with a campaign of burning and destruction, but by March 1646, the Virginia assembly had had enough of war, and it negotiated with the Indians. Berkeley, who differed sharply with the assembly's decision, personally led a party of soldiers to Opechancanough's village, took the aged sachem prisoner, and brought him back to Jamestown. Although Berkeley commanded that the chief be treated with courtesy and respect, a mob taunted him, and one of the men who was guarding him shot him dead.

With the death of Opechancanough, Berkeley agreed with the assembly to conclude a peace, which they did in October 1646. Under that peace, the Powhatans pledged loyalty to the king of England, agreed that the appointment of future chiefs would be approved by the governor, and agreed to formal boundaries.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); James Axtell, *The Rise and Fall of the Powhatan Empire: Indians in Seventeenth-Century Virginia* (Williamsburg, Va.: Colonial Williamsburg Foundation, 1995); Philip L. Barbour, *The Three Worlds of Captain John Smith* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1964).

Praguerie (1440)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: French nobility vs. King Charles VII of France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poitou and Bourbon
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The nobles challenged the authority of the king.
OUTCOME: The rebellious nobles were defeated and agreed to an uneasy peace.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Cusset, 1440

French nobles rebelled against their king, Charles VII (1403–61), in emulation of a similar revolt in Prague, Bohemia—hence the name. The spirit of rebellion—in France as well as Bohemia—was fostered by the general political instability created by the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, which diminished the authority of the king and enhanced the power of the nobles. As early as the spring of 1437, some of those princes excluded from the royal council had begun plotting a seizure of power. They did not manage to pull it off, but their schemes provoked King Charles into attempting to curb further mischief by forbidding the aristocracy to raise and maintain private armies. This, the first of his great military reforms, threatened the captains of the realm's mercenary military. Many nobles, including the dauphin (Charles's own son, later Louis XI, 1423–83), united with these mercenary leaders in a revolt at Poitou in February 1440. Royalist forces put down the rebels there, sending them into Bourbon country, where, under Charles, duke of Bourbon (1401–56), they were again defeated.

The rebels negotiated the Peace of Cusset, which ended the uprising and secured generous treatment of the rebels. However, conflict between the king and the nobles continued for decades.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1475); BURGUNDIAN-SWISS WAR (1447–1477); HUSSITE WARS; ROSES, WARS OF THE.

Further reading: David Potter, *A History of France, 1460–1560: The Emergence of a Nation-State* (London: Macmillan, 1995); Jonathan Sumption, *The Hundred Years' War* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1995).

Procopius's Eastern Revolt (366)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Procopius's rebels vs. Eastern Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Procopius usurped the throne of the Eastern Empire.
OUTCOME: The revolt was short-lived; Procopius was defeated and executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Roman general Procopius (d. 366), in service to Julian (331–363, known to history as "The Apostate"), seized control of Constantinople and its environs in 366. He then declared himself emperor but was attacked and defeated by generals Arbetio (fl. fourth century) and Lupicinus (fl. fourth century) in service of Valens (c. 328–378), brother of Valentinian I (321–375) and coemperor of the Roman Empire. Procopius was captured and summarily executed.

Further reading: Noel Emmanuel Lenski, *Failure of Empire: Valens and the Roman State in the Fourth Century A.D.* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2002).

Pueblos, Conquest of the

See SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE PUEBLOS.

Pueblo Uprising (Popé's Rebellion) (1680)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Pueblo Indians vs. Spanish colonizers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pueblo country of present-day Arizona and New Mexico
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Pueblo Indians attempted to overthrow Spanish rule.
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; after chasing the Spanish to present-day El Paso, Popé's oppressive rule lasted eight years; once the Spanish regained control of Santa Fe, all pueblos submitted to Spanish rule within four years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: For the Pueblo assault on Santa Fe, 500; for the Spanish, about 50
CASUALTIES: Spanish, 400 settlers, 21 missionaries; Pueblos, unknown
TREATIES: None

The Spanish conquerors of the American Southwest combined a zealous concern for the souls of the native population—dispatching an army of missionaries and erecting scores of missions—with a heartless policy of exploitation of labor through the *encomienda* system, by which each

colonist was granted designated Indian families—sometimes the inhabitants of several towns—from whom he could exact labor as well as commodity tribute. By the middle of the 17th century, after 50 years of life under this system, the Pueblo Indians concluded a desperate alliance with their hereditary enemies, the Apaches (the name itself is derived from the Zuni word for "enemy"), and made several attempts at rebellion, but were defeated each time.

During the 1670s, the Apaches and Pueblos launched an all-out campaign of guerrilla terrorism throughout the Spanish Southwest. Two years of this activity virtually strangled Spanish colonial trade, and Governor Antonio de Otermin (fl. 1677–83) acted against those he deemed most responsible for the rebelliousness, arresting 47 Pueblo "medicine men," three of whom he hanged and the remainder imprisoned. Among the latter was Popé (d. c. 1688), from the important Tewa Pueblo.

Popé was released after several years and went into hiding in Taos, where he secretly organized a large-scale, highly coordinated rebellion.

It was an ambitious project, not only because absolute secrecy was vital, but also because none of the pueblo towns would act without the unanimous consent of its council, and that meant Popé had to persuade a wide variety of individuals to participate. Once this was accomplished, he had to coordinate the strike among the widely dispersed pueblos, for he realized that the only hope for success lay in coordinated action.

Popé dispatched runners to the various towns, each bearing a knotted cord designed so that the last knot would be untied in each pueblo on the day set for the revolt: August 13, 1680. When, despite his precautions (including the murder of a loose-tongued brother-in-law), word of the plot leaked out, Popé launched the assault on the 10th.

Despite the change in plan, the rebellion proved devastating. The Taos, Pecos, and Acoma missions were burned to the ground and the priests killed. Lesser missions also fell, and scores of haciendas were destroyed. On August 15, Popé and his army of 200 advanced on Santa Fe, the colonial capital, killing 400 settlers and 21 of 33 missionaries. Although the Santa Fe garrison was outnumbered 10 to 1, the 50 defenders did have a brass cannon, with which they held Popé at bay for four days. But then the city fell.

Popé entered Santa Fe and installed himself in the palace Governor Otermin had hurriedly evacuated on August 21. Before his onslaught, some 2,500 settlers fled far downriver as far as present-day El Paso, Texas, abandoning all their property.

Like so many "liberators" before and after him, Popé became a dictator, if anything, more corrupt and oppressive than any Spaniard had been. For eight years he plundered and taxed his people, ruling them with terror. When Popé died c. 1688, the pueblos were in a chronic state of civil war and were easy pickings for the Spanish.

In 1689, the Zia Pueblo fell to colonial forces, and in 1692, Governor Don Diego da Vargas (fl. 1691–97) retook Santa Fe. Within another four years the pueblos had again submitted to Spanish rule—with the single exception of the Hopis, whom the Spanish seem simply to have overlooked.

Further reading: Jack D. Forbes, *Apache, Navajo, and Spaniard* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1960); Charles Wilson Hackett, *Revolt of the Pueblo Indians and Oterman's Attempted Reconquest, 1680–1682,* 2 vols. (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1942); Robert Silverberg, *The Pueblo Revolt* (New York: Weybright and Talley, 1970).

Puerto Rico, Spanish Conquest of

See Spanish Conquest of Puerto Rico.

Pugachev's Revolt (1773–1774)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Peasant rebels led by Pugachev vs. the armies of Catherine II of Russia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Steppe region of Russia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pugachev claimed to be the rightful czar and promised to abolish serfdom and end oppression.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed and Pugachev executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Pugachev's forces, 15,000; government forces, unknown
CASUALTIES: About 20,000 of the 200,000 rebels who took part in the revolt were killed. At Ufa, 75 government troops were killed or wounded; at Fort Tatischev, 2,000 killed; at Kazan, 291 killed or wounded.
TREATIES: None

After Czar Peter III (1728–62) was secretly murdered by the courtiers of Catherine II (the Great; 1729–96) during the Russian Revolution (1762), a number of pretenders had appeared, hoping to lead the Russian peasants against a German-born empress they despised. One of these, a Volga Cossack named Fedot Bogomolov (d. 1772) appeared, claiming to be the missing Peter and displaying the "czar's signs," scars in the shape of a cross. His revolt, however, was quickly crushed, and he was captured, brutally tortured and mutilated, and sent into exile in Siberia, dying en route.

The same year saw by far the most successful of these Cossack revolts raised against Catherine. In November 1772, a man named Emelyan Ivanovich Pugachev (1726–75) appeared among the Yaik Cossacks, claiming to be the

"deposed" czar. In September 1773, Pugachev emerged from the steppes east of the Volga, backed by an army of 4,000, seized Fort Tatischev, with its 1,400 defenders, and executed all the officers. Immediately, Bashkir tribesmen and factory peasants flooded into his camp, and by the end of the year Pugachev commanded some 15,000 rebels.

It was a ragtag bunch—1,500 Cossacks, 5,000 tribesmen, 1,000 workers, and the rest made up of serfs, Tatars, and Kalmyks—but they had 100 cannon, and by 1774, they were ready to attack and laid siege to the Ural River towns of Ufa and Orenberg. These failed, but Catherine's imperial forces were at first unable to halt the growing rebellion, and Pugachev attacked and ravaged Kazan and then Saratov.

As news of these actions spread through the countryside, the oppressed lower orders of Russia began to see Pugachev as their savior. But he could not long sustain his rabble in the field. An imperial army under Count Aleksandr Suvorov (1729–1800) crushed Pugachev's forces at Tzadtsyn (Volgograd) in September 1774. Pugachev himself was captured but managed to escape, only to suffer betrayal at the hands of one of his own lieutenants. Recaptured, he was brought to Moscow and executed in 1775. His rebellion prompted a reactionary backlash, which actually bolstered the practice of serfdom in Russia.

Further reading: Simon Dixon, *Catherine the Great* (New York: Longman, 2001); Aleksandr Sergeevich Pushkin, *The History of Pugachev,* trans. Earl Sampson (London: Phoenix Press, 2001).

Punic War, First (264–241 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Carthage
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily and the Mediterranean Sea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome and Carthage fought for control of the island of Sicily.
OUTCOME: Rome won control of western Sicily and forced Carthage to pay a large indemnity.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Battle of Messina in Sicily in 264 B.C.E. precipitated full-scale war between Rome and Carthage. This battle began after an attack by the Syracusans, under Hieron II (d. 216 B.C.E.), and the Carthaginians on the Mamertimes, the Campanian mercenaries hired by Syracuse to hold the seaport of Messina. The Mamertimes called on Rome for help, and the Carthaginians took control of the city. The Roman army then repelled the Carthaginians, and the Syracusans allied themselves with Rome. The Romans invaded western Sicily and besieged Agrigentum, a Carthaginian stronghold.

Carthage sent Hanno (fl. third century B.C.E.) with an army to relieve Agrigentum in 262, but he was defeated. At that point, Rome controlled most of the island of Sicily.

At Mylae in 260, the Roman fleet won a battle against the Carthaginians by using new methods of naval warfare—the corvus, a narrow plank employed to form a bridge to the enemy ship, and fore and aft turrets from which missiles were hurled. After invading the islands of Corsica and Sardinia, Rome turned her attention to northern Africa. Setting sail with about 150,000 soldiers and sailors, a Roman fleet of 330 ships clashed with the Carthaginians at Cape Ecnomus off the coast of Sicily. After a decisive victory, the Romans continued toward Carthage and landed 20,000 troops under M. Atilius Regulus (fl. third century B.C.E.), who won a victory at the Battle of Adys in 256 and offered terms to the Carthaginians. These terms, however, were so severe that the Carthaginians rejected them and continued fighting. To bolster their strength, the Carthaginians engaged the aid of Xanthippus and a band of Greek mercenaries.

The hiring of Xanthippus proved to be beneficial to the Carthaginians. At the Battle of Tunis in 255, he defeated Regulus by using his cavalry, elephants, and phalanx of Greek mercenaries to good advantage. Approximately 2,500 Romans managed to escape back to their ships.

The following year, Carthage reinforced her strongholds on Sicily and recaptured Agrigentum. Suffering from the loss of nearly 100,000 soldiers when the Roman fleet went down in a storm, Rome nevertheless mounted an amphibious assault at Panormus in northwestern Sicily. In 251, at the Battle of Panormus, the Roman consul L. Caecilius Metellus (d. 221 B.C.E.) defeated the Carthaginian general Hasdrubal (d. 221 B.C.E.), who lost his entire force of elephants in Sicily. The Carthaginians sued for peace and sent the Roman general Regulus, who had been held hostage since the Battle of Tunis, to Rome to negotiate terms. Legend holds that Regulus advised his fellow Romans to reject Carthage's proposals and then returned voluntarily to Carthage to honor his parole. He was then tortured to death.

The next major engagement took place at Drepanum. The Roman and Carthaginian fleets, each of about 100 warships, fought a battle that resulted in the loss of 93 Roman ships and 8,000 men, and a victory for Carthage. The Carthaginian commander Hamilcar Barcas (c. 270–228 B.C.E.) then repulsed the Romans at Eryx. Barcas fought off Roman assaults in western Sicily for the next five years, between 247 and 242. Rome continued to rebuild her military force and in 242 captured the Carthaginian strongholds of Lilybaeum and Drepanum.

The final battle of the First Punic War occurred on the Aegates Islands in 241. The Roman commander, L. Lutatius Catulus (fl. third century B.C.E.), won a decisive

victory, sinking 50 Carthaginian ships and capturing 70 others. The Carthaginians sued for peace, evacuated Sicily, and agreed to pay an indemnity of 3,200 talents over the next 10 years. Rome continued to hold western Sicily as her first overseas province, whereas Syracuse remained in control of the eastern portion of the island.

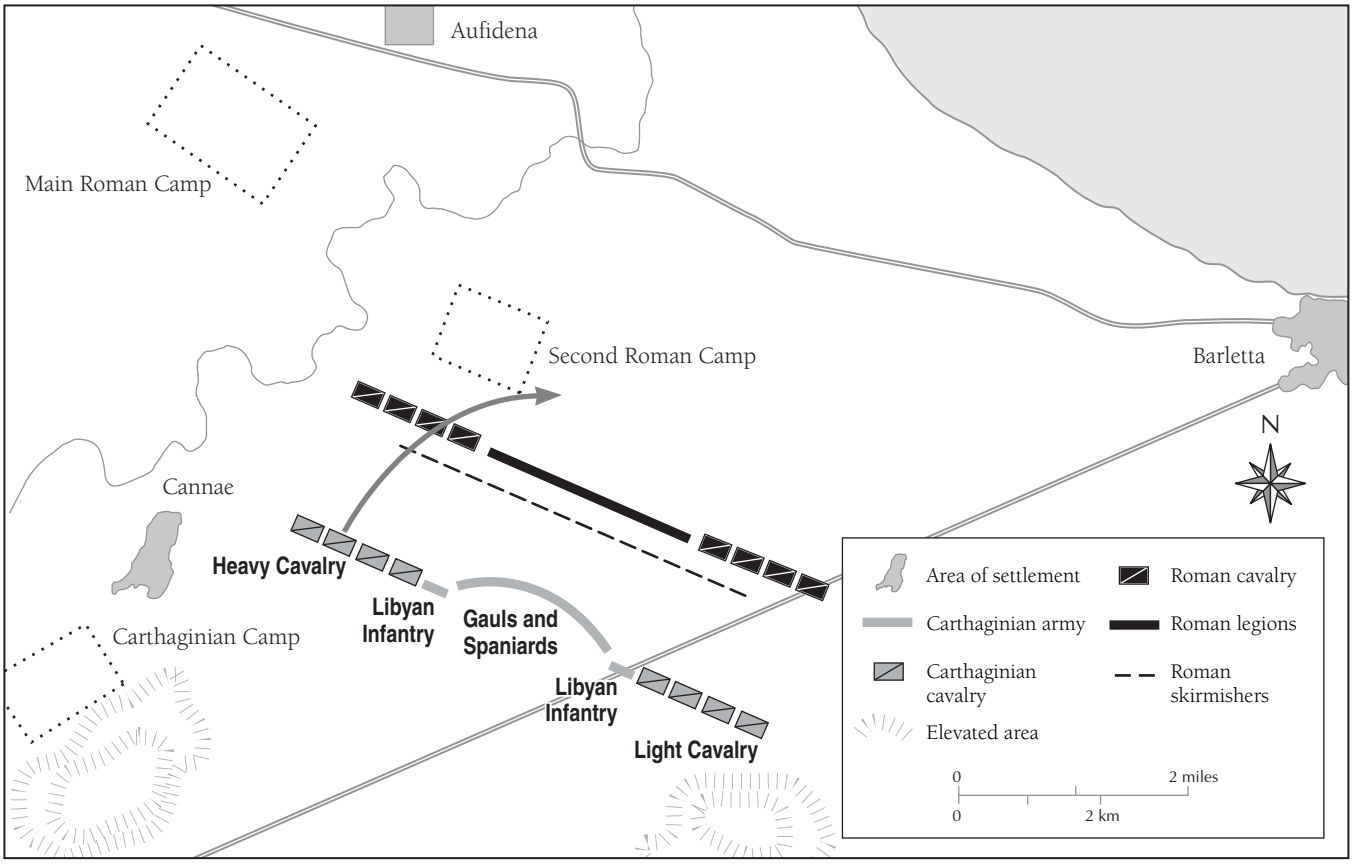
See also PUNIC WAR, SECOND; PUNIC WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Nigel Bagnall, *Punic Wars* (London: Trafalgar Square, 1991); Brian Caven, *Punic Wars* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1980); Adrian Goldsworthy, *The Punic Wars* (London: Cassell, 2001); J. F. Lazenby, *The First Punic War: A Military History* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1996).

Punic War, Second (219–202 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Carthage
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain, Africa, and Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Carthage, under the leadership of Hannibal, sought revenge for her loss in the First Punic War with Rome.
OUTCOME: Rome defeated Carthage and extracted from her a large indemnity and a promise to keep the peace.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Carthaginians, forces, 59,000; Romans, 87,000
CASUALTIES: At Trebia River, Carthaginians, 5,000; Romans, 30,000. At Lake Trasimene, 30,000 Romans. At Cannae, Carthaginians, 6,000; Romans, 54,000. At Zama, Carthaginians, 35,000
TREATIES: None

After being defeated in the First PUNIC WAR, Carthage relinquished her claims to Sicily and established a colony in eastern Spain. Known as New Carthage, the colony was ruled first by the Carthaginian general Hamilcar Barca (c. 270–228 B.C.E.), who had been victorious in the first war at Eryx and in western Sicily. When the general's son, Hannibal (247–183 B.C.E.), became ruler of the colony in 221, he set out to punish Italy for the crippling defeat Carthage suffered at her hands in the earlier conflict. In 221, he besieged Saguntum, the only city in Spain south of the Ebro River not under Carthage's control. Saguntum, a Greek stronghold, was an ally of Rome, and when Hannibal refused to call off the siege, Rome declared war on Carthage. After an eight-month siege, Hannibal stormed Saguntum, thereby capturing the city from which he would launch his invasion of Rome.



Battle of Cannae, 216 B.C.E.

Realizing that Rome controlled the sea, Hannibal decided to carry out his invasion by land. Setting out in March 218, Hannibal crossed the Ebro River with 90,000 men. After gaining control of the region between the Ebro and the Pyrenees, he left a garrison there to maintain his line of communication back to Spain and entered Gaul with about 50,000 infantry, 9,000 cavalry, and 80 elephants.

From July to October 218, Hannibal marched through Gaul. Having heard of Hannibal's approach, Rome sent Publius Cornelius Scipio (237–183 B.C.E.) to Massilia (Marseilles) to cut off the Carthaginians' route. Hannibal evaded this block by turning north up the Rhone Valley. Scipio sent the bulk of his force to Spain and returned with a small army to the coast of northern Italy.

Hannibal then faced a formidable challenge: the snow-covered Alps. He managed to cross the mountains in 15 days but sustained heavy losses due to the climate and attacks by mountain tribes. Twenty thousand infantry, 6,000 cavalry, and a few surviving elephants reached the Po Valley.

Hannibal first engaged his enemy at the Battle of the Ticinus River, where he defeated the Roman army under Scipio in November 218. The following month, at the Battle of the Trebia River, Hannibal's army, reinforced by recruits from Gaul, enticed the Romans to attack across the river while Mago (d. 203 B.C.E.), Hannibal's brother, struck the Roman flank and rear. Roman losses totaled about 30,000; Hannibal lost about 5,000. The Cisalpine Gauls were pleased with Hannibal's victory over Rome, their longtime enemy, and about 10,000 Gallic soldiers attached themselves to the Carthaginian military.

Hannibal then took up winter quarters in the Po Valley near modern-day Bologna. In March, he was ready to press on. His army of 40,000 crossed the Apennine passes north of Genoa, marched along the seacoast, and pushed through the Arnus marshes to the Rome-Arretium road. The Roman commander, Gaius Flaminius (d. 217 B.C.E.), rushed to meet Hannibal in battle, but the Carthaginian strategist had set an ambush for his enemy at Lake Trasimene. When the entire Roman force had marched into a narrow defile, Hannibal ordered his cavalry to close the northern end and his infantry to attack the Romans' east flank. In the ensuing battle, one of the bloodiest ambushes in history, 30,000 Romans were killed or captured.

Over the next several months, from May to October 217, the Romans engaged in delaying tactics and sought only to harass Hannibal's approaching army. At Geronium, the Roman commander, M. Minucius Rufus (fl. early 200s B.C.E.), engaged Hannibal and was nearly defeated but was saved by the arrival of Quintus Fabius (d. 203 B.C.E.), dictator of Rome. Hannibal quickly withdrew.

While Hannibal continued his push for Rome, his armies in Spain were forced to withdraw from the Ebro line. In Africa, the Romans persuaded the king of Numidia to rebel against Carthage in 213, but this outbreak was put down by Hasdrubal (d. 221 B.C.E.) and a Numidian prince named Masinissa (c. 240–148 B.C.E.). Hasdrubal returned to Spain, but there the Romans had regained control of Saguntum.

Meanwhile, the Romans organized 16 legions (80,000 infantry and 7,000 cavalry) to battle Hannibal's army of 40,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry. On August 2, 216, at the Battle of Cannae, Roman consul Terentius Varro (fl. early 200s B.C.E.) sent 11,000 men to attack Hannibal's camp. As the rest of the Roman army—72,000 infantry and cavalry—pushed Hannibal's central line back toward the Aufidus River, the Carthaginian infantry wings wheeled inward and the cavalry struck from the rear. The Romans were surrounded, and a slaughter ensued. Compared to Hannibal's losses of 6,000, the Romans suffered staggering casualties: 50,000 killed and 4,500 captured.

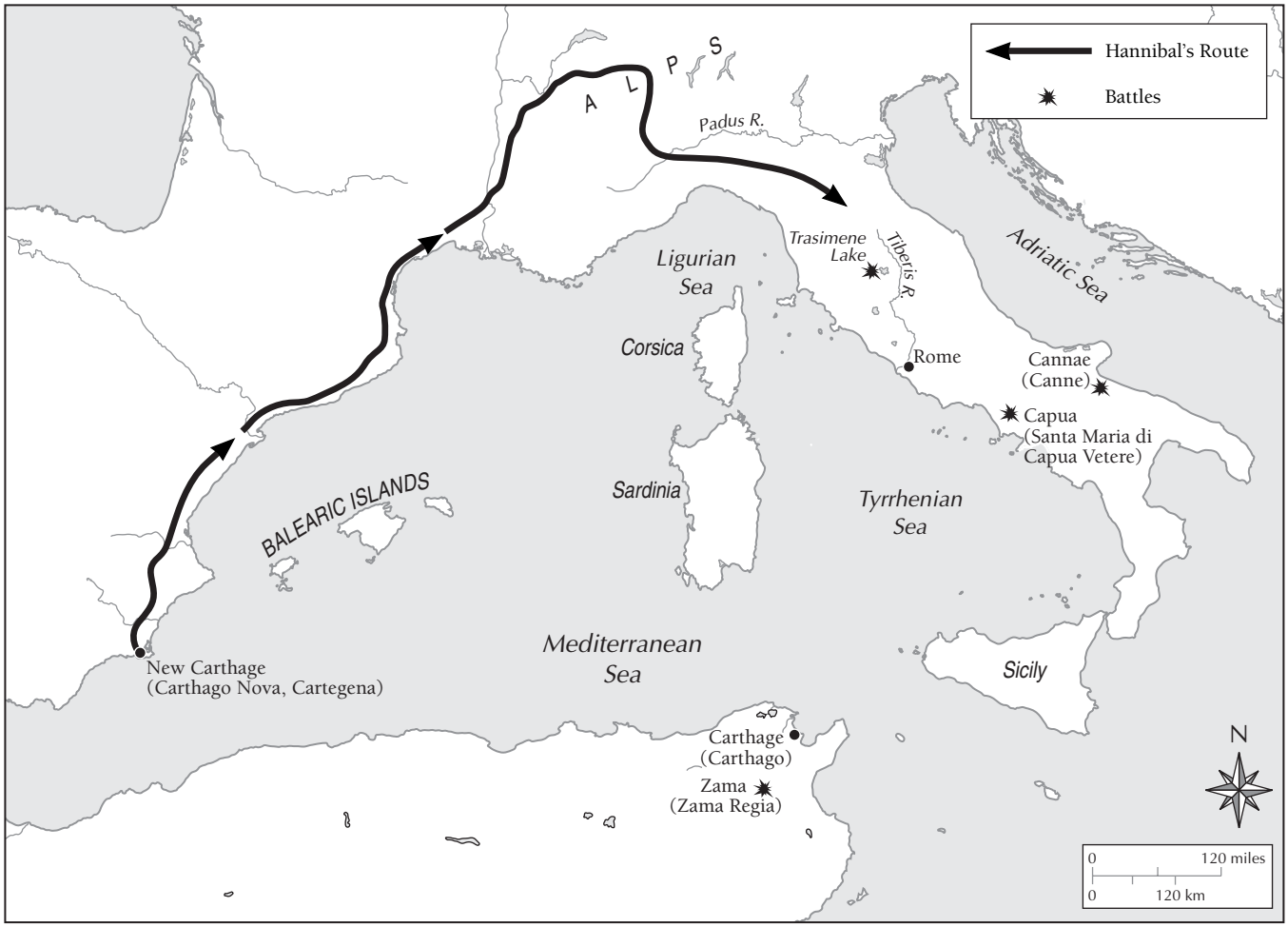
Despite three crippling defeats—at Trebia, Lake Tresimene, and Cannae—Rome persevered. The new commander, Marcus Claudius Marcellus (c. 268–208 B.C.E.), raised an army by pressing all able-bodied men into service. His two legions marched south from Rome to shore up the support from Rome's allies. At the First and Second Battles of Nola, Marcellus gained a victory against Hannibal, further encouraging Rome's allies to remain loyal. After the indecisive Third Battle of Nola, Hannibal marched toward the seaport of Tarentum, while his brother Hanno was defeated at Beneventum.

Beginning in 213 B.C.E., Marcellus besieged Syracuse, and in 211 he overwhelmed the garrison. Hannibal was successful at Tarentum in 212, but the Romans then besieged Capua, and Hannibal was forced to send Hanno (fl. third century B.C.E.) to the city's aid. The Romans foiled Hanno's attempts and resumed their siege. Hannibal attacked the Romans at the First Battle of Capua, brought supplies to Capua, and moved on to the south coast.

Over the next winter, the Romans increased their efforts to capture Capua, keeping the city cut off from any aid from the Carthaginians. Hannibal's army of 30,000 men made another attempt to relieve the city but was repelled. Instead of withdrawing in defeat, Hannibal pushed on toward Rome to try to draw the enemy force at Capua back to the capital city. The ploy failed, however, and Capua surrendered to the Romans in 211.

At the Second Battle of Herdonia, Hannibal defeated Roman proconsul Fulvius Centumalus (fl. early 200s B.C.E.) and went on to Numistro, where he defeated Marcellus. Suffering a crisis of leadership, the Roman Senate called on 25-year-old Publius Cornelius Scipio (also known as Scipio Africanus) to take charge of the Roman army in Spain. This new commander soon gained control of territory north of the Ebro and then marched to New Carthage, while his fleet blockaded the city. The town fell in 209.

Battles followed at Tarentum, Asculum, Baecula, and Grumentum. The next major engagement, the Battle of the Metarus in 207 B.C.E., began when Hasdrubal withdrew his Carthaginian army, as reinforcements for M. Livius Salinator's (fl. early 200s B.C.E.) Roman army arrived on the



Hannibal's transalpine invasion of Rome, 218–201 B.C.E.

scene. Hasdrubal's forces got lost during the withdrawal and were forced to prepare for battle quickly at dawn. During the battle, Gaius Claudius Nero (fl. early 200s B.C.E.) attacked Hasdrubal from the rear. This surprise attack demoralized the Carthaginians, who lost more than 10,000 men, including Hasdrubal, in the battle. Hannibal learned of his brother's death when the Roman army catapulted the severed head of Hasdrubal into Hannibal's camp.

The Roman army continued to press the advantage, and at the Battle of Ilipa in 206, Scipio's army of 48,000 defeated 70,000 Carthaginians, thereby ending Carthaginian rule in Spain. In 204, Scipio invaded North Africa with an army of 30,000. During the winter of 203, Scipio attacked the Carthaginian and Numidian camps at night, wiping out the entire army, and then renewed his siege of Utica. The Carthaginian Senate soon sent for Hannibal, and the general set sail from Italy. Upon his arrival, the Senate helped him raise a new army. He then marched to Zama with 45,000 infantry and 3,000 cavalry in an attempt to draw Scipio's army away from Carthage. The ploy worked, and Scipio soon followed Hannibal toward Zama with 34,000 infantry and 9,000 cavalry. At the Battle of Zama in 202, the Romans quickly smashed the first two lines of Carthaginian infantry as the Roman and Numidian cavalry drove Hannibal's cavalry off the field. At first, the third line of Carthaginians, the hardened veterans of many battles, held their own, but when the Roman and Numidian cavalry attacked the line from the rear, the battle was over. More than 20,000 Carthaginians were killed in the battle, and 15,000 were taken prisoner. Carthage sued for peace, surrendered all warships and elephants, and gave up control of Spain and her Mediterranean islands. Carthage also agreed to seek the permission of Rome before engaging in war and to pay Rome 10,000 talents over the next 50 years.

See also PUNIC WAR, FIRST; PUNIC WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Nigel Bagnall, *Punic Wars* (London: Trafalgar Square, 1991); Brian Caven, *Punic Wars* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1980); Adrian Goldsworthy, *The Punic Wars* (London: Cassell, 2001); J. F. Lazenby, *Hanni-*

bal's War: A Military History of the Second Punic War (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1998); John Prevas, *Hannibal Crosses the Alps: The Invasion of Italy and the Second Punic War* (New York: Da Capo, 2001).

Punic War, Third (149–146 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome and Carthage
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Africa
DECLARATION: 149 B.C.E.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome wanted to keep Carthage under its control and prevent her from waging war on Numidia.
OUTCOME: Rome utterly destroyed Carthage, sold the surviving Carthaginians into slavery, and took control of North Africa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Only 50,000 of 225,000 Carthaginians survived the destruction of their city.
TREATIES: None

Fifty years after the end of the Second PUNIC WAR, hostilities broke out between Carthage and Rome's ally Numidia, despite promises made at the close of the Second Punic War by Carthage to gain permission from Rome before waging war. The Roman Senate demanded that Carthage cease operations against Numidia, send 300 hostages to Rome, surrender her weapons, and dismantle her battlements. Carthage complied with these demands but refused to accede to Rome's final demand: to abandon the city of Carthage and move the population inland. In 149, Rome sent a large force to Carthage, but the Carthaginians mounted a strong defense and managed to thwart Roman's attack. In 147, Scipio Aemilianus (c. 185–129 B.C.E.) arrived in Africa with the Roman army and blockaded the city of Carthage by land and sea. After holding out for three years, the city fell in 146 B.C.E., following a house-to-house conflict. At the end of the battle, 78 percent of the Carthaginian population had perished from starvation, disease, or in battle. The Roman Senate ordered the city completely destroyed and sold all survivors into slavery.

See also CELTIBERIAN WARS; PUNIC WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: Nigel Bagnall, *Punic Wars* (London: Trafalgar Square, 1991); Brian Caven, *Punic Wars* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 1980); Adrian Goldsworthy, *The Punic Wars* (London: Cassell, 2001).

Punjab Revolt

See MOGUL CIVIL WAR (1607).

Puritan Conquest, First

See PEQUOT WAR (1634–1638).

Puritan Conquest, Second

See KING PHILIP'S WAR (1675–1676).

Pursuit of the Northern Cheyenne

See CHEYENNE, PURSUIT OF THE NORTHERN (1878–1879).

Pyramid Lake War

See PAIUTE WAR.

al-Qaeda, United States' War against *See* United States's "War on Terrorism."

Quadruple Alliance, War of the (1718–1720)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain (with Scottish Jacobites) vs. Britain, France, Netherlands, and Austria (the Quadruple Alliance)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain, Sicily, and Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Philip V of Spain sought the French Crown and an extension of Spain's territory.
OUTCOME: Philip V of Spain renounced his Italian holdings in return for a pledge from Austria that his son would inherit the duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Tuscany.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, about 48,000; Jacobites, 1,000; Quadruple Alliance, 51,000
CASUALTIES: Spain, 30,000 killed or wounded; Jacobites, 200 killed or wounded; Quadruple Alliance, 15,000-plus killed or wounded (mostly Austrian)
TREATIES: Treaty of The Hague (February 17, 1720)

At the death of Louis XIV (1638–1715) of France, his grandson Philip V (1683–1746) of Spain sought the French Crown for himself. At the same time, Philip's second wife, Elizabeth Farnese (1692–1766) of Parma, wanted to secure the family's holdings in Italy for her children. Opposing Philip in his quest for France were Britain, Holland, and Austria. These three countries, along with France, formed the Quadruple Alliance on August 2, 1718, to stop Philip from occupying Sardinia and Sicily. Later that month, a British fleet transported Austrian troops to Sicily, and 21 British warships under Admiral George Byng (1663–1733) defeated a Spanish naval force of 29 ships off Cape Passaro on the southeast coast of Sicily. Byng captured or destroyed 7 ships of the line, 9 frigates, and 4 smaller Spanish crafts, and the Spanish commander Don Antonio Castañeda (d. 1718) was mortally wounded. The way was then clear for the Austrian troops to seize Messina, Sicily, from Spanish control. The first attempt by a force of 21,000 Hapsburg troops was repulsed by the Spanish at Francavilla, and 3,100 Hapsburgs fell. However, a new attack in October 1719 took Messina, albeit at a cost of 5,200 killed or wounded out of a force of 18,000.

While the war raged in Sicily, Spain sent an expedition to Scotland to aid the Jacobites in a planned revolt against England. Although the initial force of 29 ships and 6,000 troops, sent in April 1719, wrecked in a storm, never reached its destination, a smaller Spanish force of 300 troops under George Keith (1693?–1778), earl of Marischal, did reach Scotland. There they were joined by 1,000 Highlanders under Rob Roy MacGregor (1671–1734) and other Scottish chiefs. This combined force faced British troops at Glenshiel on June 10, 1719, but fled or surrendered after a brief British bombardment.

In April 1719, 30,000 French troops invaded Spain and ranged over the northern part of the country with little resistance until November, when bad weather and disease prompted a withdrawal.

By December 1719, Philip had regained his senses. The French Crown was not to be his, and his efforts in Scotland to aid the Jacobites against the king of England had come to nothing. On February 17, 1720, he signed

the Treaty of The Hague, by which he renounced his claims in Italy in return for a promise by Austria that the duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Tuscany would be inherited by Charles (1716–88), his eldest son. Also included in the treaty was a provision that Sicily would be ceded to Austria and Sardinia to Savoy.

See also ANGLO-SPANISH WAR (1727–1729); AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE (1745–1748).

Further reading: Henry Arthur Kamen, *Philip V of Spain: The King Who Reigned Twice* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2001).

Quantrill's Raids

See UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: TRANS-MISSISSIPPI THEATER.

Queen Anne's War (1702–1713)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Colonial England and its Indian allies vs. colonial France and its Indian allies
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern seaboard of North America, from Nova Scotia to Florida
DECLARATION: War in Europe declared, May 2, 1702; no formal declaration in North America
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: American theater of the War of the Spanish Succession was a struggle for dominance in North America.
OUTCOME: The French retained New France, including Cape Breton and Prince Edward Island, but lost Newfoundland, Hudson Bay, and Acadia; Abenakis and other French-allied Indians pledged loyalty to Britain's queen Anne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: English: 5,200 in the Caribbean; 6,500 in North America; French: unknown.
CASUALTIES: English, 270 people killed at Deerfield, Massachusetts, and 1,600 shipwrecked in an attempted assault on Quebec; otherwise casualties were light; 200 dead in New England, 150 in the Carolinas. French and Indians: 60 French and Spanish soldiers in the North and 50 Indians (but many more were killed among the southern tribal allies of the French)
TREATIES: Treaty of Utrecht, July 13, 1713

Queen Anne's War was the American phase of a larger European conflict, the War of the SPANISH SUCCESSION. Britain, Holland, and Austria, fearing an alliance between France and Spain, formed the Grand Alliance after Charles II (1661–1700) of Spain, a Hapsburg, chose a Bourbon as his successor. When Charles II died in 1700, the French naturally supported the king's chosen successor, a grandson of Louis XIV (1638–1715). Britain, Holland, and Austria supported an obscure Bavarian prince, and the issue sparked war, which was declared on May 4, 1702.

In the American colonies, Queen Anne's War began on September 10, 1702, when the South Carolina legislature sent troops to seize the Spanish fort and town of St. Augustine, Florida. After a British naval expedition sacked the town, a force of 500 South Carolina colonists and Chickasaw Indian attacked the fort. Failing to penetrate it, they pillaged what little was left in the town and then burned it.

A cycle of raids and retribution began until former South Carolina governor James Moore (c. 1640–1729) led militiamen and Chickasaws through the territory of the Appalachee Indians of western Florida during July 1704. This expedition ravaged seven Appalachee villages—virtually annihilating the tribe—and destroyed 13 of the 14 Spanish missions in the country.

The way was now open to invade French Louisiana territory and the settlements on the Gulf. The French bribed Choctaw, Cherokee, Creek, and Chickasaw in an attempt to gain alliances. The Chickasaws remained pro-English, and the Cherokee maintained neutrality. Although some elements of the Creek Indians did side with the French, it was the Choctaws who proved France's most powerful ally, stopping Moore's advance.

In the North, the French had developed more extensive alliances with the Indians, especially the Abenakis of Maine. On August 10, 1703, English settlers plundered the Maine house belonging to the son of Jean Vincent de l'Abadie, baron de St. Castin, whose trading post had been similarly attacked in April 1688, during KING WILLIAM'S WAR. Through marriage, the younger St. Castin was deemed an Abenaki chief, and the attack touched off Indian raids all along the northern New England frontier.

Among the towns hardest hit was Deerfield, Massachusetts, a prosperous village of 41 houses and 270 people, which had borne the brunt of numerous raids during KING PHILIP'S WAR and King William's War.

Farther north, in Nova Scotia, a superannuated Benjamin Church, hero of King Philip's War, led 550 men into Acadian French territory, terrorizing the villages of Minas and Beaubassin on July 1 and 28, 1704. During August 18–29, a mixed force of French and Abenakis retaliated by destroying the English at Bonavista, Nova Scotia.

For the most part, Queen Anne's War dragged on in the North as well as the South as a litany of raids and individual murders. Some larger actions were attempted, as when the English unsuccessfully attempted to take Port Royal, Nova Scotia, in 1706, and the French and Spanish assaulted Charleston, South Carolina, from the sea but likewise failed to take the city. The French were successful in capturing St. Johns, Newfoundland, on December 21, 1708.

In an effort to garner more support from the mother country, the colonies sent a delegation of English-allied Mohawk chiefs to the court of Queen Anne (1665–1714) in 1710. The monarch was so impressed that she sent land

reinforcement to the colonies under Colonel Francis Nicholson (1655–1728) and a fleet under Sir Francis Hobby (fl. early 18th century). Together, they reduced Port Royal on October 16, 1710, and, the following summer, all Acadia fell to the English.

Even more ambitious was a naval expedition against Quebec, which, however was shipwrecked at the mouth of the St. Lawrence River with the loss of 1,600 men. The next year, in 1712, another assault against Quebec likewise failed. However, by this time, Louis XIV of France could no longer foot the bill of this far-flung war, the original cause of which had been rendered moot in any case when the Bavarian candidate supported by the Grand Alliance died. Louis's grandson ascended the Spanish throne by default.

By the Treaty of Utrecht, concluded on July 13, 1713, France ceded Hudson Bay and Acadia to the English but retained Cape Breton Island and other small islands in the St. Lawrence. The Abenakis and other French-allied Indians promised to become loyal subjects to Queen Anne.

Further reading: Robert Leckie, *A Few Acres of Snow: The Saga of the French and Indian Wars* (New York: Wiley, 2000); John Williams, *The Redeemed Captive Returning to Zion* (reprinted, Westport, Conn.: Hopkins, Bridgeman, 1987).

R

Rajput Rebellion against Aurangzeb
(1675–1707)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rajputs and Sikhs vs. the Mogul Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Rajputs and allied Sikhs sought to overthrow Mogul rule after Aurangzeb instituted a campaign of oppression against non-Muslims.
OUTCOME: Aurangzeb prevailed in straight combat but became bogged down in a long, ruinous guerrilla conflict.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1658, Aurangzeb (1618–1707) crowned himself emperor of India at Delhi and commenced a program of persecution of non-Muslims. In 1675, he turned in particular against the Sikhs and Rajputs, who responded by fanatically devoting themselves to wiping out Aurangzeb and all Muslims.

Led by the Mewar Durgadas, the Rajputs staged a massive rebellion during 1675–81, managing to drive out the Mogul garrisons of Aurangzeb. In 1681, Aurangzeb's own son, Akbar (d. 1704), joined the Rajputs in rebellion. Aurangzeb defeated the young man, who fled for his life to Persia.

The rebellion of the Rajputs deprived Aurangzeb's army of one of its most valuable assets, the Rajput cavalry, which rendered Aurangzeb vulnerable to the rising power of the Marathas. Aurangzeb decided to move preemptively against the Marathas and prevailed against them during 1686–89 but was then plagued by a long guerrilla conflict with their supposedly defeated forces. This marked the beginning of a long decline, during which Aurangzeb's empire became bankrupt, its soldiers mutinous, and its far-flung empire impossible to hold together. Aurangzeb's death in 1707 marked the end of Mogul hegemony.

See also MOGUL CIVIL WAR (1707–1708).

Further reading: Robert C. Hallissey, *The Rajput Rebellion against Aurangzeb: A Study of the Moghul Empire in Seventeenth-Century India* (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1977).

Rashtrakutan-Cholan War (c. 940–972)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Rashtrakuta vs. Chola dynasties of India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Rashtrakuta dynasty sought to expand its territory into southern India.
OUTCOME: The Chola dynasty was overwhelmed in battle by the Rashtrakuta dynasty and lost much territory.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As former vassals of the Chalukyas, the Rashtrakutas grew more powerful from the eighth century onward and began

to annex territory including Malwa to the north. The Rashtrakutan king, Krishna III (fl. 939–968), also began preparing to annex land that formerly belonged to the Pallavas. This region, however, was being claimed by the Cholas under Parantaka I (fl. 907–953). The Cholas took Nellore from the Rashtrakutas, but Krishna and Indra IV (r. ended 973), his successor, battled the Cholas and gained territory in the Vengi and Tamil plains and the Chola capital at Kanchipuram. With these territorial gains, the Rashtrakutas controlled southern India. The CHALUKYAN-RASHTRAKUTAN WARS, ending in 975, brought a decline to the Rashtrakuta dynasty and prominence to a western Chalukya dynasty.

Further reading: Brajadulal D. Chattopadhaya, *The Making of Early Medieval India* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1994).

Ravenna, Revolt in (726–731)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The army of the Byzantine Empire vs. military force raised by Pope Gregory II in Italy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northeast Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Leo III, Byzantine emperor, sought to strengthen the Christian Church by banning the worship of images; the Italian clergy vehemently opposed the edict.
OUTCOME: The army raised by Pope Gregory II repelled the advance of the Byzantine army.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 726, Byzantine emperor Leo III (c. 675–680 to 741) forbade the worship of images in the Roman Catholic Church. This edict by the emperor, who became known as the Iconoclast, was an attempt to remove "frills" from the church and make it better able to compete with the fast-growing, simpler Muslim faith. When most of the Italian clergy disagreed with Leo's edict, the emperor decided to enforce compliance by sending a military force to Ravenna, the Byzantine capital in Italy. There the Byzantine army clashed with the army of Pope Gregory (669–731), who drove back Leo's army and forced it to retreat to Constantinople. This battle further pointed to the growing schism between the Orthodox Church of the Byzantine Empire and the Roman Catholic Church.

Further reading: John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Early Centuries* (New York: Knopf, 1989); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002).

Razin's Revolt (1665–1671)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cossack and peasant army led by Stenka Razin vs. imperial Russian forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lower Volga and Caspian Sea region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Razin sought relief from czarist oppression.
OUTCOME: Although Razin acquired a substantial number of followers, his rebellion was crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Razin's army, 20,000; Czarist forces, 30,000
CASUALTIES: Total deaths, including civilians, 100,000+
TREATIES: None

Although often serving as military assets of the czars, the Cossacks also staged numerous revolts against them, the most celebrated being that of Stenka Razin (d. 1671), a Cossack *hetman,* or leader.

In the summer of 1670, at the head of 7,000 Cossack warriors, Razin took Tsaritsyn, then advanced down the Volga River, picking up more followers. In June, some 10,000 Cossacks attacked and captured Astrakhan, killing 441 of the 6,000 czarist troops defending the city. This triggered a larger rebellion among the Cossacks; by mid-September some 20,000 were under arms, advancing in two columns, up the Volga and up the Don.

At Simbirsk, 4,000 Cossacks repeatedly assaulted the garrison of *streltsy* (czarist musketeers) who held the city. After repelling the onslaught three times, the defenders were finally reinforced by a relief column of 6,000 men. Razin attempted to intercept the column but was defeated at the Battle of Sviyaga River on October 1. Thus Simbirsk was saved, and the rebel cause was dealt a severe blow.

In the meantime, on the Don, a Cossack force was defeated at the Battle of Korotoyak. Combined with the defeat outside of Simbirsk, this setback brought the Cossack advance to a standstill and presented czarist forces with an opening for a smashing counteroffensive. Many Cossacks at this point deserted Razin and collaborated with the czarist army. At Kagolnik, on April 14, 1671, Razin was defeated. Taken prisoner, he was tortured for two months until, on June 6, 1671, he was publicly drawn and quartered in Moscow's Red Square.

The death of Razin all but extinguished the rebellion. Some 30,000 *streltsy* and militiamen were dispatched to Astrakhan in August 1671 to mop up the last rebel holdouts. The city fell to the czarist army on November 26.

Further reading: Paul Avrich, *Russian Rebels, 1600–1800: Four Great Rebellions Which Shook the Russian State in the Seventeenth Century* (New York: Norton, 1990); George Vernadsky, *A History of Russia* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1961).

Red Cloud's War

See BOZEMAN TRAIL, WAR FOR THE.

Red Eyebrow Revolt (c. 17 C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Xin (Hsin) emperor Wang Mang vs. peasant rebels in Shandong (Shantung)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Yellow River region of Shandong
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When the Yellow River flooded in 17, desperate peasants rebelled against the unpopular usurper of the Han dynasty.
OUTCOME: The rebellion, while suppressed, sapped Wang's strength and caused his rule to spiral out of control.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

First and only emperor of the Xin ("New") dynasty, Wang Mang (33 B.C.E.–C.E. 23) was the nephew of the dowager empress of the decadent Han dynasty in China. He had served as her chief minister for a decade or so before he disposed of the infant emperor, Ru-zi (4 C.E.–?), to whom he was acting as regent and seized the Chinese throne for himself. The sweeping reforms he introduced, such as abolishing slavery and imposing an income tax, alienated the powerful Chinese landlords. He tried to justify these changes as a revival of the Zhou (Chou) dynasty's "Golden Age," but his argument failed to win over the landlords. As for the peasants, they were oppressed by his massive levies to fund the invasion and annexation of the tribal lands of the nomadic Xiongnu (Hsiung-nu).

Around the year 17 C.E., heavy rains caused the Yellow River to flood, bursting through dikes neglected by Wang Mang's government and driving tens of thousands of peasants from their homes. As a result, a peasant revolt, led by an aggressive Chinese woman named Mother Lu (fl. early first century), broke out in Shandong (Shantung) Province. Inspired by a religious fanaticism, the rebels painted their eyebrows red to make themselves resemble demons. The revolt reached such proportions as to sap Wang's military strength and cause the invasion of Xiongnu territory to fail. Thereafter, Wang—unable to withstand the combined opposition of aristocratic warlords and desperate peasants—faced a succession of revolts at home, causing him to lose much of Turkestan, which had long been under Han control. As anarchy swept China, Wang Mang was killed in another revolt, and the Han dynasty was soon restored to power.

Further reading: Rudi Thomsen, *Ambition and Confucianism: A Biography of Wang Mang* (Aarhus, Den.: Aarhus University Press, 1988).

Red River Rebellion (1869–1870)

See RIEL'S FIRST REBELLION.

Red River War (1874–1875)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Comanche and Kiowa Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Indian Territory (Oklahoma), Texas, and Kansas
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Kiowa-Comanche raids on white settlers and resistance to confinement on reservations
OUTCOME: Kwahadi Comanche, for the first time ever, consent to live on the reservation; 74 militant chiefs are exiled to Castillo de San Marcos, Florida.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Indians, about 1,200 warriors; U.S. Army, fewer than 1,000
CASUALTIES: Indians, 84 killed; army, 2 killed, 7 wounded
TREATIES: None

After President Ulysses S. Grant (1822–85) proclaimed a policy of conciliation and peace in dealing with the Indians of the West, the Kiowa, mainly led by Chief Satanta (1830–78) raided throughout neighboring Texas, withdrawing to the reservation for refuge. In response to complaints from outraged Texans, General William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91) made a personal tour of inspection of the reservation and nearby Fort Sill.

As Sherman's wagon train approached the area, on May 18, 1871, Satanta, Satank (c. 1810–70), Big Tree (c. 1847–1929), and about 100 Kiowa braves ambushed a 10-wagon train, killing eight teamsters and stealing property. Ironically, they had let pass a smaller train—which (unknown to them) carried General Sherman, who ordered the arrest of Satanta, Big Tree, and Satank. They were transported to Texas to stand trial for murder. Satank was shot en route during an escape attempt; Satanta and Big Tree were convicted in a Texas court and sentenced to hang. However, the sentences were commuted to prison terms, and in 1873 Satanta and Big Tree were paroled.

Once released, Satanta and Big Tree led new raids in the Texas Panhandle, prompting General Sherman to launch the major offensive that came to be known as the Red River War. By this time, the Kiowa had been joined by Comanche and Cheyenne and conducted ever more destructive raids. On June 27, Comanches and Cheyenne hit a white hunter village at Adobe Walls in the Texas Panhandle; on July 12, the Kiowa chief Lone Wolf (c. 1820–79) ambushed Texas Rangers at Lost Valley; throughout this period, warriors struck at ranchers and wayfarers in Kansas and Texas.

Sherman launched a campaign in the Staked Plains region of the Texas Panhandle, a campaign made especially arduous by a severe drought, which, on September 7, suddenly yielded to torrential rains that rendered travel all but impossible. Cut off from support, Colonel Nelson A. Miles (1839–1925) held off an Indian siege for three days, from September 9 to September 11, before the attackers finally withdrew.

Colonel Ranald Mackenzie (1840–89) commanding the 4th Cavalry, was attacked on the night of September 26 near Tule Canyon. Mackenzie struck back in the morning, chasing the attackers to the Palo Duro Canyon, where he destroyed a combined Kiowa-Comanche-Cheyenne village. During the fall, other troops burned more villages, leaving the Indians poorly supplied for the winter.

During the late fall and winter, parties of Kiowa and Cheyenne straggled in to Forts Sill and Darlington to submit to life on the reservation. On June 2, 1875, more than 400 Kwahadi Comanches consented to live on a reservation—the first time they had done so in their history.

Satanta, together with other Kiowa war chiefs, surrendered on October 7, 1874. Satanta was sent to the Texas state penitentiary, from which he had been previously paroled. On March 11, 1878, he leaped to his death from a window. Seventy-four other militant chiefs were exiled to Castillo de San Marcos, a former Spanish fortress in St. Augustine, Florida.

See also UNITED STATES–SIOUX WAR (1876–1877).

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Stan Haig, *Tribal Wars of the Southern Plains* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1993); Robert M. Utley, *Frontier Regulars: The United States Army and the Indian 1866–1890* (New York: Macmillan, 1973).

Reform, War of the (1857–1860)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mexican Conservatives vs. Liberals (Constitutionalists)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The conservatives fought against the implementation of the reforms of the constitution of 1857.
OUTCOME: After losing many battles, Liberal forces finally turned the tide, defeated the Conservatives, and installed Benito Juárez as president; he instituted the reforms of the 1857 constitution.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Conservatives, about 25,000; Liberals, 35,000
CASUALTIES: 70,000 combatants and civilians killed
TREATIES: None

The Mexican constitution of 1857 introduced reforms supported by the Liberals and opposed by the Conservatives, prompting them to revolt. In January 1858, General Félix Zuloaga (1814–76), a Conservative leader, led forces that overran Mexico City and forced the constitutional president, Benito Juárez (1806–72), to flee to Veracruz. Zuloaga assumed presidential powers, then was replaced by another Conservative, Miguel Miramón (1832–67). In the meantime, Juárez rallied the weak militia of the Liberals, which repelled Conservative attempts to take Veracruz, in March 1859 and March 1860. Despite these victories, the Conservatives, whose forces were both better equipped and better led than those of the Liberals, seemed likely to prevail. The Conservatives were also willing to fight on the most ruthless terms, throwing the nation into a bitter and bloody civil war. Indeed, during the first two years of the conflict, most of the triumphs went to the Conservatives. Their greatest victory was at the Battle of Ahuaalulco de los Pinos on October 29, 1858, in which the Liberal army was ignominiously routed. Although the Liberal commander, General Santos Degollado (d. 1861) lost every engagement he fought, he managed to keep the army intact, and this accomplishment bought time for Juárez to plead successfully for support from the United States, which sent arms and funding to the Liberals.

Not through military victory but by staying in the war did the Liberals ultimately prevail. In March 1859, General Miramón renewed his offensive against the Liberals, attempting again to push Juárez out of Veracruz. Miramón found himself defeated not by Liberal arms so much as by tropical diseases endemic to the Mexican lowlands. Taking advantage of the debilitated state of the Conservative army, Degollado led his forces in an assault against Mexico City, only to be defeated, yet again, at Chapultepec in April 1859.

Juárez ordered the confiscation of church property to raise funds to continue the battle against the well-financed Conservatives. With his forces now better armed, he put them in the charge of Jesus Gonzalez Ortega (1824–81), who won a striking victory against the Conservatives near Guadalajara and then at Calderón, both in 1860. On December 20, 1860, Ortega led Liberal forces to a mighty victory against Miramón at the Battle of Calpulalpam. This victory laid bare Mexico City, into which Juárez rode in triumph on January 1, 1861. With the war suddenly reversed in the Liberals' favor, Juárez assumed the presidency and implemented the reforms of the 1857 constitution.

See also MEXICAN-FRENCH WAR.

Further reading: Brian R. Hamnetet, *Juárez* (London: Longman, 1995); Enrique Krause, *Mexico: Biography of Power, A History of Modern Mexico, 1810–1996* (New York: HarperCollins, 1998); Walter V. Scholes, *Mexican Politics during the Juárez Regime, 1855–1872* (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1969).

Regulators' Revolt (1771)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Regulators (militant frontiersmen) vs. colonial militia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Carolina backcountry
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Disaffected Carolina frontiersmen rebelled against corrupt, unresponsive, tax-hungry, and repressive royal colonial government.
OUTCOME: The Regulators were suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Regulators, 2,000; militia forces, 1,200
CASUALTIES: Six Regulators executed; other minor casualties
TREATIES: None

After the English victory in the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, many Americans were proud to be part of the triumphant British Empire, but many others felt oppressed and outraged by the series of taxes and duties the Crown imposed on the colonies in an attempt to recoup some of the expense of the long wilderness war. The towns of New England, especially Boston, harbored the strongest streak of radicalism and ultimately agitated for and organized the Revolution. In the frontier regions, much of the population was Tory in sympathy (i.e., loyal to Britain), but many on the frontier were disaffected, feeling that the East Coast centers of government, as well as the mother country across the Atlantic, cared little about the inland settlements. The alienation of the frontier was intensified by George III's (1738–1820) Proclamation of 1763, which fixed the Appalachians as the absolute western limit of white settlement. Although most of the organized demonstrations against British authority in the pre-Revolutionary years took place in the cities and towns of the East Coast, the first armed preludes to outright revolution occurred on the frontier.

The poor farmers of the western counties of North Carolina were among those with grievances against the Tidewater aristocrats who held the reins of colonial government. In 1768, they formed an association to protest what they saw as unjust taxation and thoroughly corrupt justices of the peace, who had been sent from the East to administer law for the frontier. In 1769, the association turned militant, as a group of farmers and settlers formed the Regulators, a political and paramilitary vigilante band. The Regulators won control of the provincial assembly, which sufficiently alarmed the British colonial governor, William Tryon (1729–88), to prompt him to dissolve the assembly before it could take any action.

Cut off even from quasi-legal action, the Regulators increasingly turned to vigilante violence. For example, when a lawyer convicted of extortion was freed by the provincial magistrate, the Regulators pillaged the courthouse and assaulted the lawyer. In response to this and similar acts, the colonial government passed the Bloody Act (1771), which proclaimed the rioters guilty of treason. Amid escalating tension later in 1771, Governor Tryon dispatched 1,200 militiamen into the area. They confronted some 2,000 Regulators on May 16, 1771, at the Battle of Alamance Creek. Although outnumbered, the militiamen were much better armed and disciplined. After soundly defeating the Regulators, they arrested a number identified as ringleaders. Six Regulator leaders were subsequently hanged, and the others were compelled to swear allegiance to the eastern Tidewater government. With this single battle and subsequent punishment, the Regulators' Revolt ended.

Further reading: Marjoleine Kars, *Breaking Loose Together: The Regulator Rebellion in Pre-Revolutionary North Carolina* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 2002).

Religion, First War of (1562–1563)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catholics vs. Huguenots (with English aid) in France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Huguenots sought religious freedom.
OUTCOME: A degree of tolerance was granted to the Huguenots.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Catholics, 23,000; Huguenots, 15,000 (including 3,000 English troops)
CASUALTIES: Military losses were about 4,000 killed on each side; Huguenot civilian losses were about 3,000 killed.
TREATIES: Peace of Amboise (March 1563)

On March 1, 1562, supporters of the Catholic duke François de Guise (1519–63) killed a congregation of Protestants at Vassy. This massacre was instigated by the granting of limited toleration to the Protestants by Catherine de' Medici (1519–85), the queen mother who took control of the throne at the death of King Francis II (1544–60). The Catholics, under François de Guise, the Constable de Montmorency (Anne, duc de Montmorency; 1493–1567), and Prince Antoine de Bourbon (1518–62), king of Navarre, and the Protestants, under Louis I de Bourbon, prince of Condé (1530–69), and Comte Gaspard de Coligny (1519–72), admiral of France, were soon pitted against each other in a battle known as the First War of Religion. Louis de Condé and Gaspard de Coligny ordered the Huguenots to seize Orléans to retaliate for the Vassy massacre and called on all Protestants in France to rebel. In September 1562, the English sent John Dudley (fl. 16th

century) of Warwick to help the Huguenots, and his force captured Le Havre. About one month later, the Catholics defeated Rouen, a Protestant stronghold. One of the leaders of the Catholic movement, Antoine de Bourbon, was killed during the attack. The Huguenots continued to rise in rebellion, and in December 15,000 Protestants under Condé and Coligny marched north to join the English troops at Le Havre. En route, they encountered about 19,000 Catholics at Dreux. The Catholics under Guise were victorious, but one of their leaders, Montmorency, was captured, as was the Protestant leader Condé. On February 18, 1563, Guise was killed while besieging Orléans. Peace was finally secured in March when Montmorency and Condé, both prisoners since the Battle of Dreux, negotiated a settlement at the request of Queen Catherine. The Peace of Amboise stipulated a degree of tolerance. The opposing sides then combined forces to push the English from Le Havre, which fell on July 28, 1563.

See also RELIGION, SECOND WAR OF; RELIGION, THIRD WAR OF; RELIGION, FOURTH WAR OF; RELIGION, FIFTH WAR OF; RELIGION, SIX AND SEVENTH WARS OF; RELIGION, EIGHTH WAR OF; and RELIGION, NINTH WAR OF.

Further reading: R. J. Knecht, *The French Civil Wars, 1562–1598* (New York: Pearson Education, 2000); R. J. Knecht and Mabel Segun, *French Wars of Religion* (New York: Addison-Wesley Longman, 1996).

Religion, Second War of (1567–1568)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catholics vs. Huguenots in France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Huguenots sought religious freedom.
OUTCOME: A degree of tolerance was granted to the Huguenots.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 16,000 French (Catholics); 3,500 Huguenots
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but heavy on both sides
TREATIES: Peace of Longjumeau (March 1568)

The Peace of Amboise (July 28, 1563), which stipulated a greater degree of tolerance between the Catholics and the Huguenots in France, ended the First WAR OF RELIGION. However, peace lasted only four years. On September 29, 1567, the Huguenots under Louis de Bourbon, prince de Condé (1530–69), and Comte Gaspard de Coligny (1519–72) tried to capture the royal family at Meaux. Although they were unsuccessful, other Protestant bands threatened Paris and captured Orléans, Auxerre, Vienne, Valence, Nîmes, Montpellier, and Montaubon. At the Battle of St. Denis, a force of 16,000 men under Constable de Montmorency (Anne, duc de Montmorency; 1493–1567), attacked Condé's small army of 3,500. Despite the long odds, the Huguenots managed to remain on the field for several hours. Montmorency, aged 74, was killed during the fray. This war ended on March 23, 1568, with the Peace of Longjumeau by which the Huguenots gained substantial concessions from Queen Catherine de' Medici (1519–85).

See also RELIGION, THIRD WAR OF (1568–1570); RELIGION, FOURTH WAR OF; RELIGION, FIFTH WAR OF; RELIGION, SIX AND SEVENTH WARS OF; RELIGION, EIGHTH WAR OF; and RELIGION, NINTH WAR OF.

Further reading: R. J. Knecht, *The French Civil Wars, 1562–1598* (New York: Pearson Education, 2000); R. J. Knecht and Mabel Segun, *French Wars of Religion* (New York: Addison-Wesley Longman, 1996).

Religion, Third War of (1568–1570)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catholics vs. Huguenots in France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Huguenots sought religious freedom.
OUTCOME: A degree of tolerance was granted to the Huguenots.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Catholics, 18,000; Huguenots, 16,500
CASUALTIES: Catholics, 1,000 killed or wounded; Huguenots, 8,400 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Peace of St. Germain, August 8, 1570

The Third War of Religion broke out on August 18, 1568, when Catholics attempted to capture Louis de Bourbon, prince de Condé (1530–69), and Comte Gaspard de Coligny (1519–72), the primary Protestant leaders. The Royalist Catholics continued to suppress Protestantism. Sporadic fighting occurred throughout the Loire Valley for the remainder of 1568. In March 1569, the Royalists under Marshal Gaspard de Tavannes (1509–73) engaged in battle with Condé's forces in the region between Angoulême and Cognac. Later in March, Tavanne crossed the Charente River near Châteauneuf and soundly defeated the Huguenots at the Battle of Jarmac. Although Condé was captured and murdered, Coligny managed to withdraw a portion of the Protestant army in good order. About three months later, help for the Huguenots arrived in the form of 13,000 German Protestant reinforcements. This enlarged force laid siege to Poitiers. Then on August 24, 1569, Coligny sent Comte Gabriel de Montgomery (c. 1530–74) to Orthez, where he repulsed a Royalist invasion of French-held Navarre and defeated Catholic forces arranged against him. Royalist marshal Tavanne then relieved Poitiers and forced Coligny to raise the siege. The major battle of the Third War of Religion occurred on October

3, 1569, at Moncontour. The Royalists, aided by a force of Swiss sympathizers, forced the Huguenot cavalry off the field and then crushed the Huguenot infantry. The Huguenots lost about 8,000, whereas Royalist losses numbered about 1,000. The following year, however, Coligny marched his Huguenot forces through central France from April through June and began threatening Paris. These actions forced the Peace of St. Germain, which granted many religious freedoms to the Protestants.

See also RELIGION, FIRST WAR OF; RELIGION, SECOND WAR OF; RELIGION, FOURTH WAR OF; RELIGION, FIFTH WAR OF; RELIGION, SIX AND SEVENTH WARS OF; RELIGION, EIGHTH WAR OF; RELIGION, NINTH WAR OF.

Further reading: R. J. Knecht, *The French Civil Wars, 1562–1598* (New York: Pearson Education, 2000); R. J. Knecht and Mabel Segun, *French Wars of Religion* (New York: Addison-Wesley Longman, 1996).

Religion, Fourth War of (1572–1573)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catholics vs. Huguenots in France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Huguenots sought religious freedom.
OUTCOME: A degree of tolerance was granted to the Huguenots, and a group of moderate Catholics formed a new political party known as the Politiques.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

A massacre of 3,000 Protestants and their leader Louis de Bourbon, prince of Condé (1530–69), precipitated the outbreak of the Fourth War of Religion between Catholics and Protestants in France. After the massacre of St. Bartholomew's Eve in Paris, August 24, 1572, Prince Henry IV of Navarre (1553–1610) took charge of the Protestant forces. Marked primarily by a long siege of La Rochelle by Royalist forces under another Prince Henry, the younger brother of Charles IX (1550–74), this Fourth War of Religion resulted in the Protestants' gaining military control over most of southwest France. However, at least 3,000 more Huguenots were massacred in the provinces before the war ended.

The St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre outraged even Catholic moderates, who, seeking to counter the extremes of the Catholic Royalists, formed a new political party, the Politiques, to negotiate with the Protestants and establish peace and national unity.

See also RELIGION, FIRST WAR OF (1562–1563); RELIGION, SECOND WAR OF (1567–1568); RELIGION, THIRD WAR OF (1568–1570); RELIGION, FIFTH WAR OF (1575–1576); RELIGION, SIXTH AND SEVENTH WARS OF (1576–1577; 1580); RELIGION, EIGHTH WAR OF (1585–1589); RELIGION, NINTH WAR OF (1589–1598).

Further reading: R. J. Knecht, *The French Civil Wars, 1562–1598* (New York: Pearson Education, 2000); R. J. Knecht and Mabel Segun, *French Wars of Religion* (New York: Addison-Wesley Longman, 1996).

Religion, Fifth War of (1575–1576)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catholics vs. Huguenots in France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Henry, duc de Guise; and his Royalist faction wanted to take the French throne away from Henry III, who was more tolerant of religious differences than they.
OUTCOME: The Royalist Catholics under Henry, duke de Guise, formed a Holy League with King Philip of Spain to secure the French throne for the Catholics.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Mousieur, May 5, 1576

Protestants and Catholics in France had been fighting sporadically since 1562 in the First War of RELIGION, the Second War of RELIGION, the Third War of RELIGION, and the Fourth War of RELIGION when violence again erupted in 1575. In the most important action of this war, Henry, duc de Guise (1555–88), led the Catholic Royalists to victory at the Battle of Dormans. Aligned against Guise, however, were not only the Protestants under Henry IV of Navarre (1553–1610) but also the Politiques, moderate Catholics who wanted the king to make peace with the Protestants and restore national unity. Henry III (1551–89) was not wholeheartedly in support of Guise, and he offered pledges of more religious freedom to the Protestants at the Peace of Mousieur, signed on May 5, 1576. Guise refused to accept the terms of the peace and began negotiating with Philip II (1527–98) of Spain to organize a Holy League and secure Spain's help in capturing the French throne.

See also RELIGION, SECOND WAR OF; RELIGION, THIRD WAR OF; RELIGION, FOURTH WAR OF; RELIGION, SIXTH AND SEVENTH WARS OF; RELIGION, EIGHTH WAR OF ; and RELIGION, NINTH WAR OF.

Further reading: R. J. Knecht, *The French Civil Wars, 1562–1598* (New York: Pearson Education, 2000); R. J. Knecht and Mabel Segun, *French Wars of Religion* (New York: Addison-Wesley Longman, 1996).

Religion, Sixth and Seventh Wars of
(1576–1577, 1580)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catholics vs. Huguenots in France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Huguenots sought religious freedom.
OUTCOME: After subduing the Protestants, Henry III wavered in his determination to carry out the terms of the Peace of Bergerac.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Bergerac (1577)

The Sixth War of Religion between the Catholics and Protestants in France included only one campaign and was settled by the Peace of Bergerac of 1577. During this period, Henry III (1551–89) tried to persuade the Holy League, formed in 1576 by Catholic leader Henry, duke de Guise (1555–88), and Philip II (1527–98) of Spain, to support an attack on the Protestants. Henry succeeded in subduing the Protestants but wavered in his determination to carry out the terms of the Peace of Bergerac.

The Seventh War of Religion in 1580, also known as the "Lovers' War," had little to do with hostilities between the Catholics and Protestants. Instead fighting was instigated by the actions of Margaret, the promiscuous wife of Henry IV of Navarre (1553–1610). Over the next five years, Catholics, Protestants, and the moderate Politiques (*see* RELIGION, FOURTH WAR OF; RELIGION, FIFTH WAR OF) all engaged in intrigue in their attempts to name a successor to the childless Henry III. Although Henry of Navarre was next in line by direct heredity, the Holy League maneuvered to ensure that Henry, duc de Guise, would gain the throne after the reign of Charles de Bourbon (1566–1612), proposed as the successor to Henry III.

See also RELIGION, FIRST WAR OF; RELIGION, SECOND WAR OF; RELIGION, THIRD WAR OF; RELIGION, FOURTH WAR OF; RELIGION, FIFTH WAR OF; RELIGION, EIGHTH WAR OF; RELIGION, NINTH WAR OF (1589–1598).

Further reading: R. J. Knecht, *The French Civil Wars, 1562–1598* (New York: Pearson Education, 2000); R. J. Knecht and Mabel Segun, *French Wars of Religion* (New York: Addison-Wesley Longman, 1996).

Religion, Eighth War of (1585–1589)

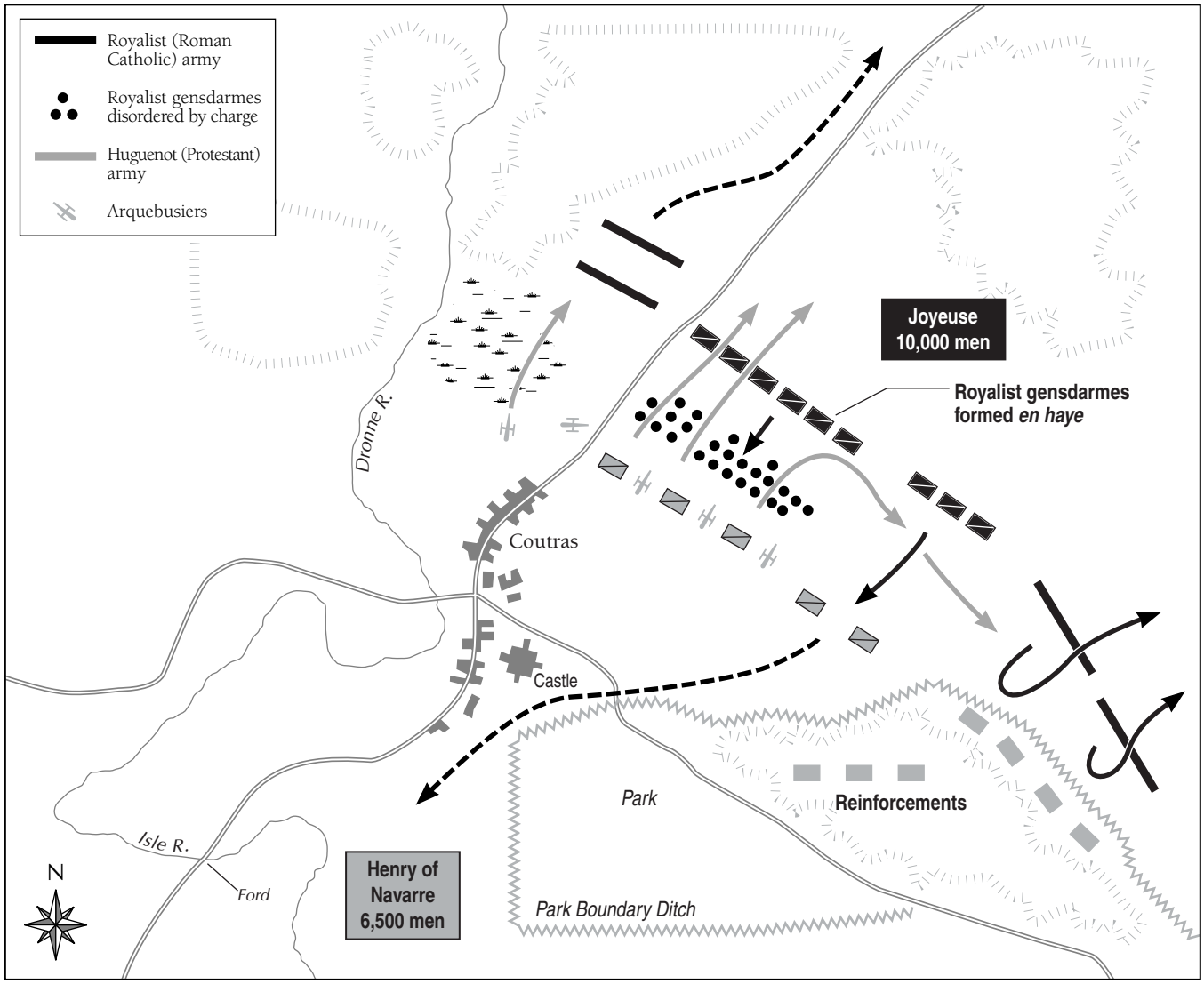
PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catholics vs. Huguenots in France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Catholic Royalists in France wanted to ensure that one of their numbers would be named successor to the childless Henry III.
OUTCOME: King Henry named the Protestant leader Henry of Navarre as his successor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Catholics, 8,700+; Huguenots, 6,500
CASUALTIES: Catholics, 3,400 killed; Huguenots, 200 killed
TREATIES: None

The Eighth War of Religion, also known as the "War of the Three Henrys," pitted the Royalist Henry III (1551–89), Henry of Navarre (1553–1610), and Henry de Guise (1555–88) against each other in a struggle over succession to the French throne. The war began when Henry III withdrew many of the concessions he had granted to the Protestants during his reign. At the Battle of Coutras on October 20, 1587, the army of Henry of Navarre, 1,500 cavalry and 5,000 infantry, smashed the Royalist cavalry—1,700 lancers—and 7,000 infantry. More than 3,000 Royalists were killed; Protestant deaths totaled 200. Especially effective against the Royalist was the massed fire of the Protestant arquebuses, primitive muskets.

Despite the Protestant victory at Coutras, the Catholics under Henry of Guise prevailed at Vimoy and Auneau and checked the advance of a German army marching into the Loire Valley to aid to Protestants. Henry's next victory was in Paris, where he forced the king to capitulate in May 1588. In subsequent intrigues, Henry de Guise and his brother Cardinal Louis I de Guise (1527–78) were assassinated. Fleeing the Catholics' rage over the murders, Henry III sought refuge with Protestant leader Henry of Navarre. The king failed to find permanent safety and was assassinated, stabbed to death, by a Catholic monk on August 2, 1589. On his deathbed, the king named Henry of Navarre his successor. The Catholics refused to acknowledge him king, insisting instead that Cardinal Charles de Bourbon (1566–1612) was the rightful ruler of France. This conflict sparked the NINTH WAR OF RELIGION.

See also RELIGION, FIRST WAR OF; RELIGION, SECOND WAR OF; RELIGION, THIRD WAR OF (1568–1570); RELIGION, FOURTH WAR OF; RELIGION, FIFTH WAR OF; RELIGION, SIXTH AND SEVENTH WARS OF; and RELIGION, NINTH WAR OF.

Further reading: R. J. Knecht, *The French Civil Wars, 1562–1598* (New York: Pearson Education, 2000); R. J. Knecht and Mabel Segun, *French Wars of Religion* (New York: Addison-Wesley Longman, 1996).



Battle of Coutras, October 20, 1587

Religion, Ninth War of (1589–1598)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catholics vs. Huguenots in France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Protestants in France sought religious freedom.
OUTCOME: Henry III, although he had returned to the Catholic faith, issued the Edict of Nantes, which proclaimed religious freedom for French Protestants.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Catholics, 26,000; Huguenots, 20,000
CASUALTIES: Catholics, 13,550 killed or wounded; Huguenots, 12,040 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Edict of Nantes (1598)

The naming of Henry of Navarre (1553–1610) as successor to the French throne sparked the final War of Religion between Protestant Huguenots and Catholics in France. Insisting that Charles, duke de Bourbon (1566–1612), was the rightful successor to Henry III (1551–89), the Catholics enlisted the aid of the Spanish. Charles, duke of Mayenne (1554–1611), the younger brother of Henry of Guise (1555–88), led the Catholic efforts.

At the Battle of Arques on September 21, 1589, Henry of Navarre (1553–1660) ambushed Mayenne's army of 24,000 French Catholic and Spanish soldiers. Having lost 600 men, Mayenne withdrew to Amiens, while the victorious Navarre, whose casualties numbered 200 killed or wounded, rushed toward Paris.

A Catholic garrison near Paris repulsed Navarre's advance on November 1, 1589. Not to be daunted in his quest for the throne, Henry withdrew but promptly

proclaimed himself Henry IV and established a temporary capital at Tours.

Henry of Navarre won another important battle at Ivry on March 14, matching 11,000 troops against Mayenne's 19,000. Mayenne lost 3,800 killed, whereas Navarre suffered only 500 casualties.

Civil war continued unabated. Between May and August 1590, Paris was reduced to near starvation during Navarre's siege of the city. Maneuvers continued, especially in northern France until May 1592; however, in July 1593 Henry of Navarre reunited most of the French populace by declaring his return to the Catholic faith. His army then turned to counter a threat of invasion by Spain and the French Catholics allied with Mayenne.

On March 21, 1594, Henry of Navarre entered Paris in triumph and over the next few years battled the invading Spanish: at Fontaine-Française on June 9, 1596, at Calais on April 9, 1596, and at Amiens on September 17, 1596. No further major campaigns ensued.

On April 13, 1598, Henry of Navarre ended the decades of violence between the Catholics and the Protestants by issuing the Edict of Nantes, whereby he granted religious freedom to the Protestants. Then on May 2, 1598, the war with Spain ended with the Treaty of Vervins, whereby Spain recognized Henry as king of France. The next major conflict between the Catholics and Protestants in France occurred 27 years later when the Protestants rose in revolt in 1625 and the English joined their cause in the Anglo-French War (1627–1628).

See also Religion, First War of; Religion, Second War of; Religion, Third War of; Religion, Fourth War of; Religion, Fifth War of; Religion, Sixth and Seventh Wars of; and Religion, Eighth War of.

Further reading: R. J. Knecht, *The French Civil Wars, 1562–1598* (New York: Pearson Education, 2000); R. J. Knecht and Mabel Segun, *French Wars of Religion* (New York: Addison-Wesley Longman, 1996).

Revolutionary War, United States

See American Revolution.

Revolution of 1688 *See* Glorious Revolution.

Revolutions of 1848 *See* Austrian Revolution 1848–1849); French Revolution (1848); German Revolution (1848); Hungarian Revolution (1848–1849); Italian Revolution (1848–1849).

Rhodesian Civil War (1971–1980)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: White supremacist Rhodesian government vs. black rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) and neighboring Zambia and Mozambique
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The black majority sought control of the government.
OUTCOME: Rhodesia gained independence as Zimbabwe.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rhodesian government forces, 58,700; rebels, 20,000+
CASUALTIES: Total lives lost, 21,000 within Rhodesia/Zimbabwe; 6,000 in neighboring Zambia and Mozambique; the overwhelming majority of casualties were among black civilians and the rebel forces.
TREATIES: A 1979 London-based peace conference produced no formal treaty, but the war was resolved by the election of 1980.

Prime Minister Ian Smith (b. 1919), head of the white supremacist government of Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), broke away from the British Commonwealth in 1965 and, despite the fact that he represented only 250,000 whites in an overwhelmingly black nation of six million people, declared independence for the nation under his leadership. This provoked sporadic guerrilla warfare, which developed into a full-scale civil war in December 1972.

From December 1972 to December 1975, the black rebels proved unsuccessful against the white Rhodesian security forces. During this period, 720 rebel guerrillas were killed, whereas only 75 government troops died. The situation began to improve for the rebels at the end of 1975 when they acquired bases in newly independent Mozambique (*see* Mozambican War of Independence). The rebels began to attack on two fronts—Mozambique and Zambia. Nevertheless, they were outnumbered, mustering by 1976 about 20,000 men against a total of 58,700 government army, air force, reserve, and police personnel. Moreover, the insurgents were divided between forces loyal to the Zambian-based Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU) and the Mozambique-based Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU).

Despite the strain of fighting a two-front war, Rhodesian government forces continued to enjoy success against the divided rebels, whom they called "terrs"—terrorists. However, each year took a greater toll on both sides, and a pattern of raid and reprisal developed, culminating (on September 2, 1978) in the downing of a Rhodesian airliner by a rebel-fired SAM-7 missile. This moved Prime Minister Smith to arrange a compromise by turning over leadership to a majority black government under a moderate black leader, Bishop Abel Muzorewa (b. 1925). Guerrilla leaders who were not included in the government, however, continued the war, claiming that Muzorewa was a white puppet.

Elections early in 1980 brought the two most important "outlaw" rebel leaders to power. Robert Mugabe (b.

1924) was elected president, and Joshua Nkomo (1917–1999) became vice president. With this Rhodesia became Zimbabwe, and the war ended.

Further reading: Martin Meredith, *Our Votes, Our Guns: Robert Mugabe and the Tragedy of Zimbabwe* (New York: Public Affairs, 2002).

Riel's First Rebellion (Red River Rebellion) (1869–1870)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Métis rebels vs. Canadian government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Red River area of Manitoba
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When the Hudson's Bay Company transferred ownership of Rupert's Land to the Canadian government, the Métis people, living in the Red River settlement included in the transfer, feared they would lose their traditional rights and rebelled.
OUTCOME: Setting up a provincial government at present-day Winnipeg, the rebels petitioned to be included in the new province of Manitoba, which Canada was forming out of the vast Rupert's holdings. When fighting broke out between the Métis and local English settlers, Canada repressed the rebellion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Métis: 10,000 (4,000 of whom were "mixed blood" Scottish and English settlers); Canadian numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but losses light on both sides.
TREATIES: None

Sometimes called the "Métis Messiah," Louis David Riel (1844–85) was a leader of the Métis peoples of western Canada. Riel's father, also named Louis (fl. early 19th century), had organized a brief rebellion against Hudson's Bay Company rule over the Red River Settlement (present-day Manitoba) in 1849, when the boy was not yet five years old, and he grew up surrounded by anti-English and anti-Canadian feeling. Sent to study for the priesthood in Montreal, the youthful Riel there gave the first evidence of the moodiness, distraction, and quarrelsome personality that would seem to the Métis messianic but would lead the Canadian government to confine him for a while in mental asylums in Quebec. Possibly distraught by the death of his father, Riel gave up the priesthood; scorned by the white parents of his lover when he proposed marriage, Riel returned to the West.

In 1869 the Hudson's Bay Company turned Rupert's Land, the company's vast holdings in the Canadian West, over to the British Crown. When the government launched a survey as the first step in transferring those lands to Canadian jurisdiction, the Métis at Red River reacted with fear and anger. Generally of mixed French and Indian ancestry, the Métis believed, with good cause, that neither their land rights nor the separate culture they had developed over centuries would be respected by the English-speaking Canadians. Given his father's status, Riel quickly became their spokesman after standing firm against a party of surveyors who were trying to enter the settlement. Under his leadership, the Red River people established the Comité National des Métis, which blocked the region's new Canadian governor William McDougal (1822–1905) from entering the territory and seized nearby Fort Garry (Winnipeg).

The 6,000 Métis turned for help to local English-speaking settlers, 4,000 or so of them also "mixed bloods" with Scottish or English fathers and grandfathers and often lumped together with the Métis by white Canadians as *bois brulé,* or "scorched wood." Because they too were leery of the Canadians, they joined with the Métis in a provisional government headed by Riel. In 1870, the Red River Settlement negotiated with the Canadians to become part the province of Manitoba. Though both parties came to terms, the agreement was shattered when rebellious Métis court-martialed and executed some local sympathizers with the Canadian cause for bearing arms against the state. One of them—an obscure Irishman named Thomas Scott (d. 1870), who had threatened to kill Riel—became a martyr for white Canadians.

Canada's government in Ottawa responded by denying the rebel Métis amnesty, and the rebels fled to Métis settlements on the Saskatchewan River. Riel ensconced himself in Fort Garry when Ottawa sent Colonel Garnet Wolseley (1833–1913) in August to "maintain order" in Manitoba. When Wolseley and his British regulars arrived, Riel gave up the fort without a fight on August 24, 1870. He too fled the area. That year, the Red River area was incorporated into the new Manitoba Province, which granted many of the rights—such as separate French schools for the Métis—demanded by Riel and his rebels.

Further reading: Marcel Giraud, *The Métis in the Canadian West,* trans. George Woodcock (Edmonton: University of Alberta Press, 1986); Joseph Kinsey Howard, *Strange Empire: Louis Riel and the Métis People* (1952; reprint ed., Toronto: Lewis and Samuel, 1974); Charles Phillips, "Louis David Riel" and "The Metis," in *Encyclopedia of the American West,* ed. Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod, vols. 3 and 4 (New York: Macmillan Reference USA, 1996).

Riel's Second Rebellion (Northwest Rebellion) (1885)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Métis rebels vs. the Northwest Mounted Police and the Canadian army

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Saskatchewan, Canada
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When the Métis, who had removed to Saskatchewan after Riel's First Rebellion, and other Indians in the area began to feel the impact of the westward settlement of English-speaking whites, they called on their exiled leader, Louis David Riel, who returned from the United States to head up a second revolt.
OUTCOME: The resistance was crushed, and Riel was tried for treason and executed, helping to create a bitter legacy the impact of which is still felt today between French-speaking and English-speaking Canadians.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 400+; Canadian government forces, 8,000+
CASUALTIES: Rebels, 35 killed; Canadian government forces, 40 killed, 115 wounded
TREATIES: None

In the Canadian parliamentary elections of 1873 following RIEL'S FIRST REBELLION, the leader of that rebellion, Louis David Riel (1844–85) was elected as the new province of Manitoba's representative. Denied his seat, he was reelected in 1874, and again the government declined to let him hold office. The following year Riel was banished from all of Canada. Caught on Canadian soil, he was thrown into a Quebec mental institution for two years—between 1876 and 1878. After he was released, he headed south to Montana, took out papers for American citizenship, and began calling himself David—rather than Louis—Riel. Back in Canada, four members of the Thomas Scott jury, who had ruled on the case of the white Canadian court-martialed and executed by the rebel Métis during the first rebellion, were murdered. Another was beaten within an inch of his life and left for dead just across the border in the United States. White-Métis racial tension escalated; Métis land was appropriated, and the Métis people were harassed and scorned by white Canadians arriving in the new Canadian West.

Riel had been teaching at a Jesuit mission school near Sun River for several years when the Métis in Saskatchewan appealed to him in 1884 to return to Canada to help them fight off the growing number of English settlers and the Canada Pacific Railway, which ominously had begun to survey their lands. Hailed as a messiah, the perhaps mentally unstable Riel refused all compromise with the Canadians. Turning his back on Canada's legal channels of redress and protest, Riel deliberately provoked Canadian authorities. Once again, he set up a provisional government, this time in Saskatchewan. Growing increasing suspicious of those around him, including some of his oldest friends, Riel broke with the Catholic Church in the spring of 1885, declared a new Métis provincial government, and enlisted local Indians in his fight against the whites. In March, he defeated a force of the Northwest Mounted Police and attacked settlers along Frog Creek. Canada sent its army out after Riel, which defeated the Métis guerrillas at Bartoche on May 12, 1885.

Tried for treason at Regina, Riel refused to plead insanity, as his lawyers recommended, before an English-speaking jury. The jury found him guilty and sentenced him to hang. After a number of postponements, the government carried out the execution on November 6, 1885. Riel's death became a national scandal, provoking outbursts of protest among French Canadians in Quebec and a bitter controversy over Catholic (and French-speaking) schools in Manitoba and Quebec. For the Métis, and for French-speaking Canadians in general, Riel remained a martyr though English-speaking Canadians continued mostly to consider him a madman. Both attitudes remained common even in the early 21st century, when cultural tensions spawned more than a century before continued to mar the relations between Canada's ethnic groups.

Further reading: Marcel Giraud, *The Métis in the Canadian West,* trans. George Woodcock (Edmonton: University of Alberta Press, 1986); Joseph Kinsey Howard, *Strange Empire: Louis Riel and the Métis People* (1952; reprint ed., Toronto: Lewis and Samuel, 1974); Charles Phillips, "Louis David Riel" and "The Métis," in *Encyclopedia of the American West,* ed. Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod, vols. 3 and 4 (New York: Macmillan Reference USA, 1996).

Rif War (1893)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rif tribesmen vs. Spanish colonists at Melilla
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morocco
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spain wanted to subdue the Rif, who raided the Spanish enclave of Melilla.
OUTCOME: The Rif were suppressed, and the sultan of Morocco agreed to pay an indemnity.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rif numbers unknown; Spanish troops, 25,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Fez (1894)

Spanish possessions along the northern Mediterranean coast of Morocco were threatened by Muslim Berbers known as the Rif, because they lived in the Rif region of Morocco. The sultan of Morocco proved unable to suppress the Rif, whereupon Spain fortified its Melilla enclave there. Nevertheless, Melilla was besieged by the Rif, provoking a public outcry in Spain. Accordingly, in November 1893 the Spanish government to Melilla dispatched 25,000 troops, who pushed the Rif back. The following year, the Treaty of Fez (1894) was concluded between Spain and the

sultan of Morocco, who agreed to pay Spain a war indemnity of 20 million pesetas and to conduct a punitive campaign against the Rif. For its part, Spain was given explicit leave to complete its fortification of Melilla, creating a buffer zone between it and Morocco.

See also RIF WAR (1919–1926).

Further reading: C. R. Pennell, *Morocco since 1830: A History* (New York: New York University Press, 2001).

Rif War (Abd el-Krim's Revolt) (1919–1926)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain and France vs. Rifs
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morocco
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Rifs under Abd el-Krim wanted to establish Morocco as an independent republic.
OUTCOME: Initial victories against Spain alone were decisive; later, the Rifs lost to an alliance of France and Spain.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 150,000; France, 160,000; Rifs, 80,000–120,000
CASUALTIES: Spain, 50,000 killed; France, 10,000 killed; Rifs, 30,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Paris Conference of June 16–July 10, 1926

In the largest anticolonial rebellion of the early 20th century, Spanish possessions in northern Morocco came under attack in the east by the Rif—66 Berber tribes living in the Rif Mountain region—led by Abd el-Krim (1882–1963), and in the west by Moroccans under Ahmed ibn-Muhammad Raisuli (1875–1925).

The first uprisings occurred in 1919. While troops under the Spanish high commissioner of Morocco, Damaso Berenguer (1873–1953), succeeded against those led by Raisuli, General Fernandez Silvestre was dealt a devastating defeat by Abd el-Krim's Rifs. The general, together with 13,000 out of 20,000 Spanish troops engaged, fell at the Battle of Anual on July 21, 1921, utterly defeated by a mere 6,000 Rif warriors.

In the wake of this disaster, panic gripped the colony, and Spain withdrew from eastern Morocco. Abd el-Krim immediately set up the Republic of the Rif, with himself as president. His triumph against Silvestre drew to his side a huge army of between 80,000 and 120,000 rebel warriors. With the Spanish out of the way, Abd el-Krim moved next against the French, his object being to gain control of all Morocco. Leading 20,000 men out of his large army, he took many French outposts as he marched to Fez in 1925. Forty-three of 66 French outposts and blockhouses fell to Krim's advance.

Krim's triumph prompted the French to reinforce their army, to 60,000 by July and to 160,000 by the end of the year. Moreover, traditional rivals for the Moroccan prize, France and Spain now joined forces. Spain's dictator General Miguel Primo de Rivera (1870–1930) led a combined Spanish-French expeditionary force that landed at Alhucemas Bay on Morocco's Mediterranean coast in September 1925. He advanced against Abd el-Krim's headquarters at Targuist, while from the south a 160,000-man French army led by WORLD WAR I hero Marshal Philippe Pétain (1856–1951) moved northward, boxing the Rif troops into an area north of Taza. This combined attack rapidly turned the tide of the war. In the face of vastly superior forces—some 360,000 men in all, the largest army mobilized for colonial warfare to that time—Abd el-Krim surrendered on May 26, 1926, and suffered exile to the island of Réunion. At a Paris conference held during June 16–July 10, 1926, France and Spain restored the borders of their Moroccan zones as established by a 1912 treaty.

See also RIF WAR (1893).

Further reading: Rupert Furneaux, *Abdel Krim: Emir of the Rif* (London: Secker and Warburg, 1967); C. R. Pennell, *Morocco since 1830: A History* (New York: New York University Press, 2001).

Río de la Plata, Wars of the

See ARGENTINE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; PARAGUAYAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE (1810–1811); URUGUAYAN REVOLT.

Robert's Revolt (921–923)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Robert, count of Paris, vs. Charles III, king of France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Robert sought to depose the king.
OUTCOME: Charles III was toppled, but Robert died in battle; the throne was occupied by the Carolingian duke Rudolph of Burgundy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Robert I, count of Paris (c. 865–923), rebelled against Charles III (the Simple; 879–929) of France after his many military successes increased both his prestige and his ambition. Initially, Robert enjoyed great success against Charles, forcing him to retreat to Lorraine. In June 922, the nobles elected Robert king at Reims, and he was crowned on the 29th. Charles, however, recruited an army in Lorraine and marched to Laon. The following year, on June 15, 923, Charles engaged Robert at the Battle of Soissons. Although

the forces of the count emerged victorious, Robert himself fell, apparently killed in a duel with Charles.

Rudolph (d. 936), the Carolingian duke of Burgundy, assumed the throne and went on to triumph against the Normans and the men of Aquitaine.

Further reading: Heinrich Fichtenau. *The Carolingian Empire* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1978).

Rogue River War (1855–1856)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: "Rogue" Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Oregon-California border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Deteriorating relations between white settlers and marauding Indians, exacerbated by the memory of an Indian "massacre" of Oregon missionaries and by the local territorial officials' policy of removing Indians to reservations, broke out into a minor war that involved reluctant federal troops.
OUTCOME: The Indians were defeated and removed to a reservation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: "Rogue" Indians, 200; United States, est. 180
CASUALTIES: Indians 48+ killed; U.S. 38 killed, 25 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

Following the WHITMAN MASSACRE of 1847 and the reprisal led by Cornelius Gilliam (d. 1848), Indian-white relations in the Northwest steadily deteriorated until, by 1854, Indians and whites fell into the habit of shooting each other on sight. Fearful and outraged settlers called for aid from the regular army. General John E. Wool (1784–1869), who commanded the U.S. Army's Department of the Pacific, was charged with policing the Indian situation in the Northwest. One of a distinct white minority who favored reason and moderation in dealing with the Indians, Wool soon found himself facing not only an Indian "situation" but a white "situation" as well. The general not only refused to annihilate the Indians, as the settlers loudly demanded, but repeatedly and publicly excoriated the citizenry of Oregon for their lust after Indian extermination. By the autumn of 1855, the army found itself caught between Indians and settlers.

Settlers called the Takelma and Tututni, who lived near the Oregon-California border, "Rogue" Indians because they repeatedly attacked travelers along the Siskiyou Trail near the Rogue River. In August, drunken Indians killed 10 or 11 miners along the Klamath River. In retaliation, whites killed some 25 Indians—though not those who had killed the miners; they had fled. The Rogue River War was now under way, and, in September 1855, the local violence was intensified by rumors of a developing war between Yakamas and whites east of the Cascades. As whites began to menace all Indians, hostile or not, Captain Andrew Jackson Smith (fl. mid-19th century), commanding Fort Lane, found it necessary to offer Indian men, women, and children the protection of the fort. Before Lane could admit all of the endangered Indians into the fort, however, a band of settlers raided a nearby camp, killing 23 "Rogue Indians," including old men, women, and children. The next day, October 17, Indian war parties took revenge, killing 27 settlers in the Rogue Valley and burning the hamlet of Gallice Creek.

With the bulk of General Wool's regulars engaged in fighting the Yakamas, Walla Wallas, Umatillas, and Cayuses in what was now being called the Yakama War, Captain Smith could do little with his small garrison except keep it from being overrun itself. By the time relief was scheduled to arrive at Fort Lane, the Rogue River War actually seemed to be winding down of its own volition. The Takelma and Tututni chiefs known to the whites as Limpy, Old John, and George (all fl. mid-19th century), weary of warfare, agreed to surrender to Captain Smith at a place called Big Meadows. Apparently at the very last minute, the chiefs thought better of it and instead mustered some 200 warriors for an attack on Smith's 50 dragoons and 30 infantrymen. The element of surprise was lost when two Indian women informed Smith of the planned attack. Outnumbered, the captain did the best he could, deploying his men on a hilltop that offered a good defensive position.

When it came, the attack was fierce and unremitting. The soldiers dug in the night after the first day of fighting. Morning revealed that 25 men had been killed or wounded. By the afternoon of May 28, 1856, the Indians were massing for a final assault.

At that moment, with the good timing of a bad Hollywood western, the promised reinforcements arrived, commanded by Captain Christopher C. Augur (served 1843–85). Overjoyed, Smith rallied his men for a downhill charge as Augur's infantry charged up from the rear. It was one of the few times that a classic military charge was effective against Indians, as Smith and Augur played out the cliché situation in which victory is snatched from the jaws of defeat. Indeed, the "Rogues" were so utterly routed that within the month all had surrendered and meekly submitted to life on a reservation.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); E. A. Schwartz, *The Royal River Indian War and Its Aftermath, 1850–1980* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1997); Robert M. Utley, *Frontiersman in Blue: The United States Army and the Indian, 1848–1865* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1981).

Rohan's Revolts

See BEARNESE REVOLT, FIRST; BEARNESE REVOLT, SECOND; BEARNESE REVOLT, THIRD.

Rohilla War (1774)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Rohillas vs. the Marathas (and, subsequently, Oudh), aided by British East India Company mercenaries
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rohilkhand, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British wanted to maintain Oudh as a buffer against the Marathas and to this end aided the nawab of Oudh in defeating the Marathas and in annexing Rohilkhand.
OUTCOME: The Marathas were pushed out of Oudh and Rohilkhand, the Rohillas were subjugated, and Rohilkhand was annexed to Oudh.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Rohillas were Afghans who had been displaced by the forces of Nadir Shah (1688–1747) of Persia and settled in Rohilkhand, north-central India by 1740. When the Marathas menaced them in 1771, they asked for aid from the nawab of Oudh, Asaf-ud-Daula (1749–97), who sent mercenary troops. The Rohillas, however, failed to pay the troops, who attacked Oudh, already beleaguered by Maratha forces.

At this point, Warren Hastings (1772–1818), Britain's governor-general of Bengal, intervened. He believed Oudh was vital to British interests as a buffer between Maratha and the British settlements in eastern India. Therefore, Hastings dispatched to the nawab a brigade of soldiers in the employ of the British East India Company. Together, the nawab's troops and the British mercenary brigade pushed back the Marathas. This left the British mercenaries free to move against the Rohillas, whose territory the nawab had decided to annex. The Rohillas were defeated at the Battle of Miranput Katra in February 1774, whereupon Oudh annexed Rohilkhand. Oudh was enlarged, and Hastings had thus gained an augmented buffer against the Marathas. Parliament belatedly impeached Hastings for having exceeded his authority, but he was acquitted upon trial, and Britain had made a further step in what would be its ultimate conquest of India.

See also MARATHA WARS.

Further reading: Lawrence Jones, *The Raj: the Making and Unmaking of British India* (New York: St. Martin's, 2000); Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas P. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002).

Roman-Alemannic War (271)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Alemanni invaders vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern and central Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Alemanni invaded Italy and sought to take Rome itself.
OUTCOME: After suffering defeat, Emperor Aurelian rallied and drove the Alemanni out of Italy; although triumphant, he took steps to reduce the Roman Empire and to protect Rome future invasions.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By 270 C.E. the Alemanni, Germanic tribespeople, who were highly successful in their attacks against the Romans, had overrun the Agri Deumates (Baden-Württemberg) on Rome's German frontier. From here, joined by the Jutungi and the Vandals, they invaded northern Italy and were met at Placentia (Piacenza) on the Po River by a Roman army under Emperor Aurelian (c. 212–275). The Alemanni dealt Aurelian a severe defeat and advanced down the Italian Peninsula toward Rome. Undaunted, Aurelian regrouped and rallied his troops, then gave chase, overtaking the Alemanni at Faro, in central Italy. Here Aurelian triumphed, driving the Alemanni north. Unwilling to relinquish the initiative, Aurelian pursued the retreating barbarians to Pavia, where he forced them to a stand in a battle that nearly destroyed the invading forces. Surviving Alemanni dispersed into the Alps.

Although he was ultimately victorious, Aurelian was greatly abashed by the invasion. He ordered a withdrawal from Agri Decumates and erected a chain of forts on the south bank of the Danube. By the end of the 270s, the city of Rome itself had been walled.

Further reading: E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002); Alaric Watson, *Aurelian and the Third Century* (London: Routledge, 1999).

Roman-Armenian War (93–92 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome (with Parthia) vs. Armenia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cappadocia, Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to drive the Armenians out of Cappadocia, a client state.
OUTCOME: Roman legions triumphed over the Armenian invaders.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Alliance between Rome and Parthia, 92 B.C.E.

Seeking to expand his power and his kingdom, Tigranes I (the Great; c. 140–55 B.C.E.), king of Armenia, annexed parts of eastern Asia Minor, then allied himself with the Pontine emperor Mithradates VI (the Great) (r. 120–64 B.C.E.) and, in 93 B.C.E., to invade the Roman protectorate of Cappadocia, in east-central Asia Minor. With Parthian king Mithradates II (the Great; r. 123–86 B.C.E.), the Roman praetor and military commander Cornelius Sulla (138–78 B.C.E) formed an alliance against Tigranes and the Pontine Mithradates. Yet even before Parthian reinforcements arrived, the Roman legions drove the Armenians out of Cappadocia. Tigranes was thus defeated by Roman arms alone.

See also ROMAN-ARMENIAN WAR (72–66 B.C.E.).

Further reading: Neilson C. Debevoise, *Political History of Parthia* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969); Mark Dunster, *Parthia* (Fresno, Calif.: Linden Publishers, 1979).

Roman-Armenian War (72–66 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Armenia and Pontus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Armenia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to punish Mithradates VI (the Great), king of Pontus, who had taken refuge with his son-in-law, Tigranes I (the Great) of Armenia; when Tigranes refused to surrender Mithradates, Rome sought the conquest of Armenia.
OUTCOME: Mithradates returned to Pontus, and Armenia fell to Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Mithradates VI (the Great; r. 120–64 B.C.E.) king of Pontus, was defeated by Rome in the Third MITHRADATIC WAR, he took refuge with Tigranes II (the Great) (c. 140–55 B.C.E.) of Armenia. Tigranes II had brought a unity to Armenia that would last 500 years, and this "King of Kings" (as he was called) gladly gave sanctuary to his father-in-law, Mithradates VI. Lucius Licinius Lucullus (c. 110–56 B.C.E.), commanding the Roman legions against Mithradates, demanded that Tigranes surrender the fugitive. When Tigranes refused, Lucullus attacked and overran Armenia, looting its capital city, Tigranocerta, on October 6, 69. From the base he established in the fallen capital, Lucullus set out to subjugate all of Armenia. However, the difficult mountainous terrain and inhospitable climate of Armenia proved more formidable. While Lucullus's legions were struggling with weather and topography, Tigranes and Mithradates raised and trained a new army, only to be defeated by the Romans at the Battle of Artaxata in 68. Following this victory, Lucullus, determined to capture the new Armenian capital, drove his reluctant and exhausted troops northward until they mutinied, refusing to march farther. Lucullus had no choice but to retreat to the valley of the Euphrates. Mithradates responded to this retreat by returning to Pontus, where he was determined to take a stand once again against the Romans. Lucullus followed, but was recalled to Rome in 66 before he could give battle.

In 66, Pompey the Great (106–48 B.C.E.) led Roman forces against Armenia, defeating Tigranes with the aid of his disloyal son. The Armenian king agreed to Roman vassalage.

See also ROMAN-ARMENIAN WAR (93–92 B.C.E.).

Further reading: Mack Chahin, *The Kingdom of Armenia* (London: Taylor and Francis, 2001).

Roman-Armenian War (113–117)

See ROMAN EASTERN WAR (113–117).

Roman-Armenian War (162–165)

See ROMAN EASTERN WAR (162–165).

Roman Civil War (88–82 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Lucius Cornelius Sulla vs. his Roman rivals
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy and the environs of Rome
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Roman Empire
OUTCOME: Sulla converted or defeated all rivals and was named dictator for life.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sulla, 40,000; opposition substantially smaller
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 88 B.C.E., the tribune Publius Sulpicius Rufus (124–88 B.C.E.) led a democratic revolt against the dictatorship of Lucius Cornelius Sulla (138–78 B.C.E.) while Sulla was on his way to fight the First MITHRADATIC WAR. Sulla quickly returned and crushed the incipient revolt, then set out for Greece again. The very next year, a new uprising of democrats, this one led by Lucius Cornelius Cinna (d. 84 B.C.E.), began. This time, the democrats seized power, and Caius Marius (157–86 B.C.E.), who had conspired with

Rufus and then fled with other rebels to Africa in 88 B.C.E., returned. Marius set up a tyrannical and despotic regime in 86, and although he died later that year, Cinna continued his despotic rule.

Seeking to neutralize the power of Sulla, Cinna dispatched Gaius Flavius Fimbria (d. 84) to replace him as commander in the East during the ongoing First Mithradatic War. Sulla, however, managed to persuade Fimbria to join his side, and in 83, reinforced with Fimbria's troops, Sulla marched back to Italy. Resistance from Italian tribes and from Romans he neutralized either by defeating the opposing forces in battle or winning them over to his cause. Desperate, those who opposed Sulla attempted to capture the city of Rome itself. Sulla and his allies met the rival forces at the Colline Gate and there destroyed them in November 82. The Senate immediately named Sulla dictator for life.

See also ROMAN CIVIL WAR, GREAT.

Further reading: P. A. Kildahl, *Caius Marius* (New York: Twayne, 1968); Rex Warner, tr., *The Fall of the Roman Republic: Six Lives—Marius, Sulla, Crussus, Pompey, Caesar, Cicero* (New York: Penguin, 1972).

Roman Civil War, Great (50–45 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Caesar's legions vs. the Roman army of Pompey
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain, Egypt, Africa, Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Julius Caesar sought to cement his control over the Roman Empire.
OUTCOME: Caesar succeeded in subduing all opponents and was appointed dictator of Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Caesar, 60,000; Pompey, 180,000
CASUALTIES: At the great Battle of Pharsalus (August 9, 48 B.C.E.), Caesar lost 230 killed, and 2,000 wounded, whereas Pompey lost 15,000 killed and wounded, and 24,000 prisoners.
TREATIES: None

Having conquered Gaul, Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) was a military hero. The Roman Senate, fearful of his power, ordered Caesar to relinquish his province of Gaul, disband his army, and return to Rome. Caesar refused. Instead he crossed the Rubicon River with his army into Italy, despite the fact that the Roman law forbade generals from entering Italy proper with their armies without permission from the Senate. Pompey (the Great; 106–48 B.C.E.), having been appointed sole consul by the Senate, took his army and most of the Senate into Greece, where he hoped to increase his forces to battle Caesar. Caesar entered Rome and took control of the city.

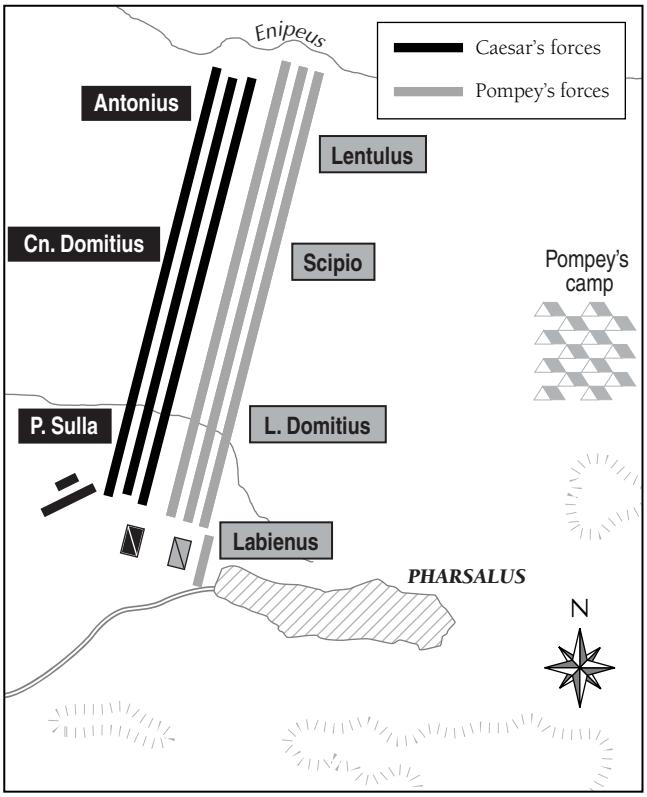
ILERDA CAMPAIGN

Rather than pursue Pompey in Greece, Caesar turned toward Spain. First, however, he was forced to take the city of Massilia (Marseille). Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus (d. 48 B.C.E.), a supporter of Pompey, had arrived in Massilia with a small force and persuaded the city to declare its allegiance to Pompey. Caesar used three legions under Gaius Trebonius (d. 43 B.C.E.) to besiege the city, while the others proceeded to the passes of the Pyrenees. There they were able to block the advance of Pompey's armies under Lucius Afranius (d. 46 B.C.E.) and Marcus Petreius (fl. 50–44 B.C.E.). These two Pompeian generals then waited for Caesar at Ilerda while the rest of Spain was held by Vibellius Rufus (fl. 50–44 B.C.E.) and Marcus Varro (116–27 B.C.E.). At Ilerda, Caesar's 37,000-strong army confronted the Pompeian force in July 49 B.C.E. Caesar had decided not to destroy the Pompeian army but to try to capture it, thereby adding to his force by recruiting captives. As Afranius and Petreius began their withdrawal from Ilerda, Caesar outmaneuvered them and cut off their retreat. They returned to Ilerda, where Caesar surrounded them and captured their water supply. On August 2, 49, the two Pompeian leaders surrendered, their legions were disbanded. Caesar then gained control over Gades (Cadiz) and marched to Massilia. Upon his arrival, Massilia surrendered on September 6, 49 B.C.E. Caesar returned to Rome, and in October 49, the senators who had remained in Rome appointed him dictator.

Meanwhile, Gaius Curio (d. 49 B.C.E.), Caesar's legate, had gained control of Sicily and had moved on to Africa. There he faced a Pompeian force under Attius Varus (fl. 50–48 B.C.E.) and his ally Juba (c. 85–46 B.C.E.), king of Numidia. Curio defeated the allies near Utica but was himself defeated at the Bagradas River on August 24, 49.

SIEGE OF DYRRHACHIUM

Caesar, deciding to pursue Pompey, set sail on January 4, 48, with seven legions and a few cavalry. Landing to the south of Pompey's base at Dyrrhachium, Caesar then sent his ships back to Brundisium to pick up Mark Antony (82/81–30 B.C.E.). Pompey's troops got word of Caesar's attempt to join Mark Antony's forces with his own and blockaded Antony in Brundisium. Pompey, with nearly 100,000 men, moved from eastern Epirus (southern Albania) to Dyrrhachium. By March 48 Antony was able to break out of Brundisium, and he joined Caesar in a siege of Pompey's numerically superior forces in Dyrrhachium. On July 10, Pompey's army broke through the lines of investment, while Caesar withdrew his forces to Thessaly. In July and August, the two armies camped on either side of the Pharsalus plain. On August 9, 48, Caesar's outnumbered army soundly defeated Pompey, who fled in disguise to the coast, where he set sail for Egypt. The battle had inflicted 2,200 casualties on Caesar and 15,000 on Pompey. About 24,000 Pompeian troops were taken prisoner.



Battle of Pharsalus, 48 B.C.E.

EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN

Caesar and 4,000 of his men pursued Pompey to Egypt, but upon their arrival in Alexandria they were told that Pompey had been assassinated by his associates. The former Pompeians had also encouraged Ptolemy XII (c. 112–51 B.C.E.) and his sister Cleopatra (69–30 B.C.E.) to defy Caesar, who had taken up positions in a portion of Alexandria. From August 48 until January 47, the former Pompeians laid siege to Alexandria. Learning that his ally Mithradates of Pergamum (fl. 50–44 B.C.E.) had arrived at the Nile River, Caesar slipped out of Alexandria with part of his force. In February at the Battle of the Nile, Caesar and Mithradates completely defeated Ptolemy and the Roman-Egyptian army. Over the following months, Caesar established control over Egypt and placed Cleopatra, who had become his ally and his lover, on the throne with her younger brother Ptolemy XIII (63–47 B.C.E.).

PONTIC CAMPAIGN

In April 47, Caesar set sail for Syria with a portion of his army. There he had plans to defeat Pharnaces (fl. 50–44 B.C.E.), king of the Bosporus Cimmerius, who had taken advantage of the Roman civil war to reestablish the kingdom of Pontus. At the Battle of Zela in May 47, Caesar defeated Pharnaces and sent to Rome his message, *"Veni, vidi, vici"* ("I came, I saw, I conquered"). He gave control of the kingdom of Pharnaces to his ally Mithradates of Pergamum.

AFRICAN CAMPAIGN

After returning to Rome, where he subdued a mutiny by many of his veteran legionnaires who wanted to be discharged from the army and rewarded for their victories, Caesar sent 25,000 men first to Sicily and then to Africa, where he confronted the remnants of the Pompeian force defeated earlier in Spain and Greece. Under the leadership of Metellus Scipio (d. 46 B.C.E.) and Caesar's former lieutenant Labienus, the army also included a Numidian force under King Juba. Caesar arrived at Ruspina and, maneuvering away from this base, was encircled by the army of Labenius. Caesar broke free of the encircling army and returned to Ruspina, where he was blockaded by the army of Scipio and Juba. In December 47 and January 46, Caesar marched inland and laid siege to Thapsus. At the Battle of Thapsus in February 46 the Pompeian-Numidian army, earlier decimated by illness and desertions, attacked Caesar's troops and was completely defeated. Having subdued Africa, Caesar returned to Rome in May 46.

SPANISH THEATER

Caesar did not remain long in Rome, however. In December 46, he sailed to Spain and took control of the force he had left there after the Ilerda campaign. In Spain, Roman-Pompeian troops who had fled Africa after the Battle of Thapsus had rallied under Pompey's sons. At the Battle of Munda on March 17, 45, Caesar attacked the army of Gnaeus Pompey (d. 45 B.C.E.) and Labienus (d. 45 B.C.E.) in their hilltop positions but was nearly defeated. Rushing to the center of the battle line, Caesar was able to forestall panic, and his reinvigorated army surged forward. The battle was a massacre; 30,000 Pompeians were killed. Labienus was killed, and Gnaeus Pompey was captured and executed. Sextus (fl. 48–34 B.C.E.), the younger brother of Gnaeus Pompey, escaped along with a remnant of the Pompeian fleet. Caesar marched through Spain and then returned to Rome, in July 45. His reign there as monarch of the Roman empire was now undisputed, but it lasted only a short time. On March 15, 44 B.C.E., Caesar was assassinated by a group of Roman senators alarmed at the despotism of his rule. Following his death, Rome was ruled by Caesar's grandnephew Octavian (63–14 B.C.E.) (later known as Augustus), Mark Antony, and Marcus Lepidus (d. c. 77). This Second Triumvirate faced another round of civil war, which lasted from 43 to 31 B.C.E.

See also ROMAN CIVIL WAR (43–31 B.C.E.).

Further reading: Julius Caesar, *Civil War* (after 49 B.C.E.; trans. and reprint ed., New York: Penguin, 1976); Philip Matyszak, *Chronicle of the Roman Republic: The Rulers of Ancient Rome from Romulus to Augustus* (New York and London: Thames and Hudson, 2003).

Roman Civil War (43–31 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Marc Antony, Octavian and Lepidus ("Second Triumvirate") vs. Pompey and other Roman generals leaders of the Roman Senate; subsequently, the Triumvirs fought among themselves.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Roman Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Following the murder of Julius Caesar, his friend, Marc Antony, his heir, Octavian, and Roman general Lepidus formed the Second Triumvirate to punish those responsible, then fell to fighting among themselves.
OUTCOME: Over the course of little more than a decade, Octavian destroyed Caesar's enemies, defeated his rivals, and consolidated the Roman state under his rule as Augustus Caesar.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Triumvirate, 120,000; Pompey, perhaps 80,000 maximum
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Brundisium (40 B.C.E.) and Treaty of Tarentum (37 B.C.E.)

Following the Punic Wars (*see* PUNIC WAR, FIRST; PUNIC WAR, SECOND; PUNIC WAR, THIRD), the Roman Republic began to lose its authority as Rome itself expanded toward a worldwide empire. By the time Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.), began his rise to power, the old peasant militia of the Republic had become a professional army, the soldiers of which owed their allegiance not to the Roman state, much less to the Senate, but to the individual generals upon whom their fortunes literally depended. Inevitably, Rome's legions became a political tool. For a generation, Rome's fate was decided by powerful generals, as its politics became volatile and expensive. From this combination three men emerged within a few years to claim leadership of the state—a renowned and revered general named Gnaeus Pompey (106–48 B.C.E.); a wealthy landowner, speculator, and moneylender named Marcus Crassus (115–53 B.C.E.); and Julius Caesar himself, the scion of an obscure patrician family but also a skilled writer, spellbinding orator, astute politician, and accomplished general. The three men formed a coalition, an informal compact called later the "First Triumvirate."

After Crassus was killed in a foreign war in Parthia (*see* ROMAN-PARTHIAN WAR [55–36 B.C.E.]), Pompey colluded with a powerful oligarchy in the Senate to trump up charges of treason against Caesar, who had been appointed governor of Gaul (*see* GALLIC WARS). Ordered to return alone to Rome to face the charges, Caesar came instead with his extensive and loyal army, and Pompey fled to Egypt, where he was put to death by the nominally independent country's teen-aged king, Ptolemy XIII (63–47 B.C.E.). Caesar, arriving in Egypt in pursuit of Pompey, quickly replaced Ptolemy with Ptolemy's sister, Cleopatra (69–30 B.C.E.). Cleopatra and Caesar became lovers; she was pregnant with Caesar's child when he returned to Rome to a hero's welcome and a humbled but secretly seething Senate (*see* GREAT ROMAN CIVIL WAR). Declared dictator, he announced his intentions to assume the position for life, which lead the Senate oligarchy to plot his assassination. On March 15—the Ides of March—in 44 B.C.E. some 60 senators surrounded Caesar in the forum as he presided over the assembly and stabbed him 23 times.

News of Caesar death reached Caesar's 18-year-old grandnephew and protégé, Gaius Octavian (63–19 B.C.E.), in Appollinia, a Greek city on the Adriatic coast, where he was completing his education. Octavius rushed back to Italy to find he had been named in the dictator's will as his adopted son and heir. Urged on by his stepfather and others, Octavian decided to take up what was bound to be a perilous inheritance, and he proceeded on to Rome, where he would discover there were others vying for the position his dead "father" had created—Caesar's chief lieutenant, the swaggering and handsome Mark Antony (82/81–30 B.C.E.); Caesar's second in command, Marcus Aemilius Lepidus (d. 13/12 B.C.E.), who succeeded the great Roman as chief priest in the state religion; and two powerful senators, Marcus Junius Brutus (85–42 B.C.E.) and Gaius Cassius Longinus (d. 42 B.C.E.), who had led the assassination conspiracy.

Antony, who had assumed he would be Caesar's heir, had taken possession of his papers and assets, and refused to hand over any of Caesar's funds. Upon his arrival in Rome, Octavian paid from his own pockets the late dictator's bequests that Antony had refused to pay and underwrote the public games instituted by Caesar to ingratiate himself with the Roman populace. In the process, Octavian managed to win considerable numbers of Caesar's former troops to his cause. Brutus and Cassius left Rome, more or less ignoring the new pretender to power, and took command of the eastern half of the empire. The Senate, encouraged by Cicero (106–43 B.C.E.), broke with Antony and swung its support to the young man who was now calling himself Gaius Julius Caesar. Cicero had assumed that Octavian (as historians by tradition continue to refer to him before he assumes the title "Augustus") would be easier for the Senate to manipulate than either Antony or Lepidus, and eventually he would pay for that mistake with his life.

After several months of battling for supremacy, the three men agreed to a division of power in a coalition called the "Second Triumvirate." Formed in part to seek retribution against Caesar's assassins, this triumvirate, unlike the first, became official when the Senate in 43 B.C.E. granted to the triumvirs five years of autocratic power in order to reconstitute the fractured state. Antony and Octavian hunted down the two leading tyrannicides in Macedonia, where both Brutus and Cassius chose suicide on the battlefield rather than capture at Philippi. The

triumvirs then turned on Rome itself, drawing up a list of proscribed enemies and executing 200 senators and 2,000 nobles. Among the condemned senators, at Antony's insistence, was Cicero, whose head and hands were nailed to the Rostra in the forum, one nail—in mockery of the great orator's eloquence—driven through his tongue. Finally, the triumvirs had Julius Caesar officially recognized as a god of the Roman state, which enhanced Octavian's prestige. To Antony, the coalition's senior partner, went the Eastern Empire and Gaul.

Upon his return to Italy, Octavian found himself embroiled in the Perusine War against Antony's brother, Lucius Antonius (fl. 43–31 B.C.E.) over the settlement of Octavian's veterans. Pompey's son, Sextus Pompeius (67–35 B.C.E.), was causing trouble as well, having seized Sicily and Rome's sea routes. To appease Sextus and win time to finish the Perusine conflict, Octavian married one of his relatives, Scribonia (divorced 40 B.C.E.) but this did not stop Sextus from making overtures to Antony once the war was concluded. Meanwhile, Antony had formed a strong political bond with Egypt's wealthy queen and Caesar's former lover, Cleopatra. Soon that bond became a romantic one as well. Octavian was no doubt relieved when Antony rejected Sextus's blandishments. In 40 B.C.E., Octavian and Antony reached a fresh understanding in the Treaty of Brundisium.

Under the new agreement, Octavian was to have the whole of the Western Roman Empire, including Gaul and excepting Africa, which went to Lepidus. Italy itself was declared neutral ground, although in fact it was controlled by Octavian. Antony kept the eastern half of the empire, but having spent—much to the dismay of Rome—the previous winter with Cleopatra, he now agreed under the treaty to a marriage with Octavian's sister, Octavia (69–11 B.C.E.). The treaty delighted the peoples of the empire, east and west, because it seemed to promise an end to generations of social strife and occasional civil war. Just as Antony was closely linking his future to Octavian by marrying into his family, Octavian sought to strengthen his ties to the Senate aristocracy, many members of which supported either Antony or Sextus, by a new marriage of his own to Livia Drusilla (58–29 B.C.E.).

The goodwill established by the treaty did not last, and in the long run provisions of the treaty themselves became sources of discord. Reconciliation with Sextus proved abortive, and Lepidus, unhappy with his portion of power, rebelled. Antony's true love lay in Egypt, not in Italy, but when he returned to Cleopatra the insult was not only to his new wife but to her brother as well. In 37 B.C.E., with Antony's reluctant help, Octavian destroyed Sextus (*see* OCTAVIAN'S WAR AGAINST POMPEY). In 36 B.C.E., when Lepidus attacked, Octavian defeated him and placed him under guard for the rest of his life. In 32 B.C.E. Octavian renounced the triumvirate outright, and Antony responded by divorcing Octavia. Urged on by Octavian, the next year the Senate declared war on Antony. Octavian himself accompanied the Roman ships that defeated Antony and Cleopatra at the Battle of Actium in 31 B.C.E. (*see* OCTAVIAN'S WAR AGAINST ANTONY). Like Brutus and Cassius before them, the pair chose suicide over capture by the ruthless Octavian.

Octavian went on to reign as Caesar Augustus, the first Roman emperor. The Republic had died, replaced by the rule of a single strong man. Under such rule would grow a Roman Empire whose glory became the touchstone of civilization thereafter. But such rule also created the problem of succession, which the empire never solved. Instead, the habit of political assassination, having brought Augustus to power, would plague his empire throughout its history.

Further reading: Robin Seager, *Pompey the Great* (London: Blackwell, 2002); Pat Southern, *Mark Antony* (London: Tempus, 1999); Richard D. Weigel, *Lepidus: The Tarnished Triumvir* (London: Routledge, 1992).

Roman Civil War (68–69 C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vindex and Galba vs. Nero; Rufus and Galba vs. Vindex; Otho vs. Galba and, separately, Vitellius; Vespasian vs. Vitellius
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mostly Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ascension to the imperial throne of Rome
OUTCOME: After a succession of rebellions and ascensions, Vespasian was proclaimed emperor of Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This Roman civil war began as a revolt against Nero (37–68), the ruler among whom none of the legion of "bad" Roman emperors is more infamous for sadistic, corrupt, and incompetent rule. Gaius Julius Vindex (d. 68), legate (governor) of Gaul, led a revolt against Nero in 68 B.C.E. and was joined by Servius Sulpicius Galba (3–69), legate of Spain. At the urging of Vindex, Galba's troops proclaimed him emperor. In the meantime, however, the legate of Upper Germany, Lucius Verginius Rufus (15–69), led an army against Vindex and crushed his revolt, Vindex committed suicide. Although Rufus's troops wanted to proclaim him emperor, Rufus refused and threw his support behind Galba. When the Praetorian Guard—the emperor's own bodyguard—joined Rufus in this acclamation, the Senate proclaimed Galba emperor and condemned Nero, who promptly killed himself.

Yet the matter of Roman rule was hardly resolved. 69 C.E. would become known as the "Year of the Four Emperors," as, in turn, four contenders occupied the

imperial throne. Galba was only the first. Aulus Vitellius (15–69), legate of Lower Germany, accepted acclamation as emperor by his legions, which he led toward Italy. Galba, in the meantime, was slain by the very Praetorians who had acclaimed him but now supported Marcus Salvius Otho (32–69), legate of Lusitania (modern Portugal) and a longtime opponent of Nero. Otho won recognition from the Senate as emperor, then marched against the advancing Vitellius. At the First Battle of Bedriacum (near Cremona, Italy), on April 16, 69, Vitellius was victorious. Defeat prompted Otho to commit suicide, leaving the way clear for Vitellius to complete his march on Rome, where he was acclaimed emperor by the Senate.

During this time, however, in Judea, Vespasian (9–79) was proclaimed emperor by his troops and with the additional support of the legates of Syria and Egypt, who sent a large combined army under Antonius Primus (fl. first century) into Italy. Antonius triumphed over Vitellius at the Second Battle of Bedriacum (fought probably in November of 69). Vitellius himself was assassinated in Rome on December 20, 69, as Antonius's army arrived in the capital. On December 21, the Roman Senate ratified Vespasian as the new emperor of Rome.

Further reading: Barbara Levick, *Vespasian* (London: Routledge, 199); Kenneth Wellesley, *Year of the Four Emperors* (London: Routledge, 2000).

Roman Civil War (193–197)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Severus vs. (variously) Pescennius Niger and Slodius Septimus Albinus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chiefly Byzantium and Gaul
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the imperial Roman throne
OUTCOME: Severus defeated his two rivals and assumed the throne, effectively initiating a military dictatorship of the empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Commodus (161–192)—yet another of Rome's "bad emperors"—reigned from 180 to 192, when he was assassinated. He was succeeded by the elderly Publius Helvius Pertinax (126–193), who sought to restore Rome to moral and financial soundness by introducing a program of severe austerity, beginning with the imperial court. The Praetorians bridled at this and, in 193, assassinated Pertinax. The throne was offered for sale to the highest bidder. The claimant was Marcus Didius Julianus (133–193), who, however, was immediately confronted by three rivals, each of whom was a general and enjoyed the backing of the legions they respectively commanded. In Britain, Clodius Septimus Albinus (d. 197) pressed his claim. In Pannonia (Hungary), it was Luscius Septimus Severus. In Syria, the claimant was Pescennius Niger (d. 194).

On his way to Rome, Severus quickly usurped power, the Senate having just ordered the execution of Didius Julianus because it resented the manner in which he had assumed power. Severus set to work purging and reforming the treacherous Praetorian Guard, then neutralized opposition from Albinus by (quite deceitfully) promising him succession to the throne. During his march toward Rome, Severus also dealt with Pescennius Niger, defeating him at the Battle of Cyzicus in 193, again at Nicaea later in the year, and finally at Issus in 194. Severus's pursuing legions caught up with Niger as he fled from the last battle and promptly executed him.

Despite the death of Niger, Byzantium, a stronghold of forces loyal to him, held off a siege by Severus. He persisted and in 196 at last overran the city, which his troops mercilessly sacked. By this time, however, conflict between Severus and Albinus had reached a boil, and Albinus preemptively declared himself emperor. He led his British legions into Gaul, where he clashed with the Pannonian legions under the command of Severus. At the Battle of Lugdunum (Lyon, France) in 197, Albinus met his end, and Severus turned the wrath of his legions against the city of Lugdunum, leveling it.

Following his victory over Albinus, Severus marched his legions back to Macedonia to resume the Roman-Parthian War (195–202). Over the empire of Rome, Severus created a military dictatorship, supplanting with the army the power formerly enjoyed by the Senate.

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,* 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1993); Michael Grant, *Sick Caesars: Madness and Malady in Imperial Rome* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 2003).

Roman Civil War (235–268)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Publius Licinius Egnatius Gallienus vs. many rivals and pretenders, in addition to Germanic invaders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy and the northern and eastern borders of the Roman Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the imperial throne and survival of the empire
OUTCOME: Gallienus successfully retained his throne, albeit of an increasingly imperiled and reduced empire, until he was assassinated by his own troops.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Like the ROMAN CIVIL WAR (43–31 B.C.E.), this period was less a discrete war than an epoch of internal conflict often verging on outright anarchy. During this period, the empire was assailed not only by intense political and economic instability but by continual menace and incursions from Germanic peoples, and, between 251 and 265, an epidemic of plague. Only the long tradition of military discipline among the legions kept Rome from immediate collapse during this time. Nevertheless, even the legions suffered from pervasive corruption and debility.

The reign of Publius Licinius Egnatius Gallienus (253–268) was dubbed the "Reign of Thirty Tyrants" because of the number of petty rulers (according to the historian Edward Gibbon, 19 rather than 30) and others who vied for the imperial throne. Armed conflict was endemic throughout three decades, although Gallienus enjoyed remarkable success in retaining power over his increasingly attenuated empire. His life and reign came to an end in 268, when he was assassinated by members of his own legions during a campaign to crush a rebellion in Milan.

See also ROMAN CIVIL WAR (238).

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002).

Roman Civil War (238)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Thrax (Gaius Julius Verus Maximinus) vs. (variously) Clodus Pupienus Maximus, Decimus Caelius Balbinus, Gordianus I, Gordianus II, Gordianus III, and his own troops
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Carthage and Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the imperial throne
OUTCOME: Thrax defeated most of his external enemies but was killed by his own troops; Gordianus III became emperor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The reign of Gaius Julius Verus Maximinus (173–238)—known as Thrax, in honor of his Thracian birth—was consumed in battles against invading Germans. Thrax's continual absence from Rome cost him recognition by the Senate, which in 238 proclaimed Clodius Pupienus Maximus (d. 238) and Decimus Caelius Balbinus (d. 238) co-emperors of Rome. In the meantime, disaffected Roman legionnaires in northern Africa proclaimed Gordianus I (158–238) emperor. Superannuated, Gordianus I conferred co-emperor status on his son Gordianus II (192–238). The young man, however, was soon killed in battle in Carthage by supporters of Thrax. After this, his father committed suicide, and Gordianus III (c. 224–244), grandson of Gordianus I, was proclaimed emperor by the Senate, which now formally deposed Thrax. In response, he advanced into northeaster Italy, where he laid siege against Aquileia. The siege settled into a frustrating stalemate, during which Thrax's own restive troops assassinated him.

With Thrax disposed of, the Praetorian Guard now made its preference known by killing Pupienus Maximus and Balbinus, thereby affirming the Senate's choice of Gordianus III as emperor.

See also ROMAN CIVIL WAR (235–268).

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002).

Roman Civil War (284–285)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Carinus vs. Diocletian
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Moesia (modern Bulgaria)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Emperor of the West, Carinus wanted to become emperor of the East as well.
OUTCOME: Although militarily victorious, Carinus was killed by one of his own troops, and Diocletian became sole emperor of a united Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Marcus Aurelius Carinus (d. 285), who long served as administrator and *virtual* emperor of the West, was proclaimed emperor of the West in fact upon the death of his father, Marcus Aurelius Carus (c. 223–283). In the East, however, the Roman legions proclaimed Diocletian (245–313) emperor. Carinus was not content with rule only in the West and therefore led an army against Diocletian.

Initially, Carinus enjoyed a heartening success in small engagements in Moesia (Bulgaria) and seemed destined to win a major victory against Diocletian at the Battle of Margus (Morava). However, at the height of the combat he was suddenly killed, apparently by one of his own troops. This catapulted Diocletian to victory and to imperial rule over both the Western and Eastern Empires. In a single stroke, the civil war was over.

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002); Stephen Williams, *Diocletian and the Roman Recovery* (London: Routledge, 1996).

Roman Civil War (306–307)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Maxentius vs. Severus (with help from Galerius)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Environs of Rome
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the imperial throne.
OUTCOME: Severus was killed, and Maxentius proclaimed himself emperor; however, four other contenders made the same claim, and the empire was essentially divided among them.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Diocletian (245–313) introduced a host of military and administrative reforms that helped stave off the disintegration of the Roman Empire. However, aged and ailing, he abdicated in 305 C.E., thrusting the beleaguered empire into yet another civil war. Years earlier, the emperor had taken pains to appoint successors—giving the Eastern Empire to Galerius (d. 311) and the Western to Constantius I (250–306)—but conflict developed. Constantius died in 306, and the army chose his son, Constantine I (c. 280–337), to succeed him. Galerius, however, supported Severus (d. 307) as emperor of the West. The situation was further clouded by the claim of Maxentius (d. 312), who, aided by his father, Maximian (d. 310), met the armies of Galerius and Severus in battle just outside of Rome. Severus was suddenly deserted by his forces and threw himself on the mercy of Maximian, who responded by having him executed. This ended a year of great turmoil, and, in 307, Maxentius proclaimed himself emperor. Within three years, however, he was joined by four other self-proclaimed emperors. An uneasy peace—riddled with schemes and conspiracies—was maintained, none of the five contenders wishing to risk their hold on the piece of the now-fragmented Roman Empire he respectively ruled.

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990); Stephen Williams, *Diocletian and the Roman Recovery* (London: Routledge, 1996).

Roman Civil War (311–312)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Constantine I the Great vs. Maxentius
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Environs of Rome
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the imperial throne of the West
OUTCOME: Constantine, victorious, became emperor of the Western Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Milvian Bridge, Constantine fielded 50,000 men against Maxentius's 75,000; total strength, 311–312: Constantine, 100,000; Maxentius, 170,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Constantine I (the Great; c. 280–337) opposed Maxentius (d. 312), his rival emperor, by invading northern Italy with 40,000 men. In rapid succession he triumphed at Susa, Turin, and Milan, each time winning brilliant victories against numerically superior forces. After victories at Brescia and Verona, Constantine marched on Rome. With reinforcements, Constantine had about 50,000 men when late in 312 he was met at the Tiber, just outside of Rome, at Milvian Bridge by a 75,000-man army under Maxentius. Constantine won an outstanding victory that gave him the throne of the Western Empire. The early church historian Pamphili Eusebius of Caesarea (c. 260–before 341) created an enduring legend about the battle, writing that Constantine had a vision of a flaming cross, bearing the legend *In hoc signo vinces*—"By this sign conquer"—and there and then converted to Christianity in exchange for victory. In fact, Constantine did not convert until he was on his deathbed in 337, but in 313, with Licinius (270?–325), emperor of the East, he issued an edict proclaiming toleration of Christianity in the Roman Empire.

Further reading: G. P. Baker, *Constantine the Great and the Christian Revolution* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990).

Roman Civil War (313)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Licinius vs. Maximinus (Daia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace and western Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Maximinus wanted to seize the Eastern Empire from Licinius.
OUTCOME: Maximinus was defeated and yielded territory to Licinius, who lived out the rest of his life as the unchallenged emperor of the Eastern Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Licinius, 30,000; Maximinus, 70,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Maximinus (Daia) (d. 313) opposed Licinius (c. 270–325), Roman emperor of the East, in 313. He led an army of 70,000 across the Bosporus and attacked the emperor's much smaller force of 30,000 at Thrace. Despite his superiority of numbers, Maximinus was beaten back into Asia Minor. Licinius then led his veterans of the Danubian campaigns in a counterattack against Maximinus in western Asia Minor, defeating him at the Battle of Tzirallum and sending his rival into full retreat. Soon after this battle, Maximinus died, and Licinius annexed the territory he had controlled. From this point on, Licinius reigned, without further contest, as the emperor of the East.

Further reading: G. P. Baker, *Constantine the Great and the Christian Revolution* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990).

Roman Civil War (314–324)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Constantine I (the Great) vs. Licinius
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pannonia (Hungary), Thrace, Asia Minor, Hellespont
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Licinius, emperor of the East, wanted to seize control of the West from Constantine I.
OUTCOME: Constantine I defeated Licinius and had him executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In Pannonia, Constantine commanded 20,000, Licinius, 35,000; by the First Battle of Adrianople, each army consisted of 120,000–150,000 men
CASUALTIES: Totals unknown, but Licinius lost 35,000–50,000 men at Adrianople (July 3, 323)
TREATIES: None

Licinius (c. 270–325), emperor of the Eastern Empire, attempted to ignite a revolt against his western counterpart, Constantine I (the Great; c. 280–337) in 314. In response, Constantine led 20,000 soldiers in an invasion of the East, narrowly defeating Licinius's forces in eastern Pannonia (Hungary) later in the year. He pursued Licinius's retreating army, which took a stand at Mardia and lost decisively there. Licinius then agreed to acknowledge Constantine as emperor of all Roman European holdings, save Thrace. In turn, Constantine renounced his perquisites as "senior" emperor. Left unresolved, however, was the disposition of the Christians, Constantine advocating toleration, Licinius objecting. Still, an uneasy peace endured until 323 C.E., when Constantine, in pursuit of marauding Goths, made an incursion into Thrace, thereby reigniting war with the Eastern Empire.

In the new conflict, Constantine seized the initiative, attacking Licinius's army at Adrianople (Edirne) on July 3, 323. Shortly after this land victory, Flavius Hulius Crispus (305–26), Constantine's son, led a 200-ship fleet against Licinius's superior 350-ship fleet and defeated it at the Hellespont (Dardanelles). Totally defeated, Licinius fled deep into Asia Minor. He recruited a new army and returned to confront Constantine's forces at the Battle of Chrysopolis (Scutari) in September 323. After an exceptionally hard-fought battle, Licinius was defeated and once again fled the field only to surrender later. He was executed as a traitor.

Further reading: G. P. Baker, *Constantine the Great and the Christian Revolution* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990).

Roman Civil War (350–351)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Constantius vs. Magnentius
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy and Yugoslavia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Constantius sought to punish the murderer of his brother Constans and to reunite the Roman Empire under his rule.
OUTCOME: Constantius defeated Flavius Popilius Magnentius and become the sole emperor in 351.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the Battle of Mursa (351), each army numbered about 100,000 men.
CASUALTIES: At Mursa and in the retreat following the battle, Magnentius lost 12,000 men killed, Constantius lost 15,000.
TREATIES: None

In 337 C.E., when Constantine I (c. 280–337) died, the Roman Empire was divided among his three sons. Constantine II (c. 317–40) inherited Gaul, Spain, and Britain;

Constantius II (317–361) received Greece, Thrace and the East; Constans (c. 323–350) became ruler of Italy, Africa, and Illyricum (the Balkan Peninsula). Constantine II invaded Italy almost immediately. After he was killed in an ambush near Aquileia, a large city used as a port of entry for Italy and a key defense zone, in 340, Constans seized his holdings. But Constans himself fell victim to an intrigue when his general, Flavius Popilius Magnentius (d. 353), led a revolt against him and killed the Roman ruler. Magnentius then declared himself emperor. Constantius was occupied in a war with Shapur II (309–79) of Persia at this time. Once peace was secured, Constantius marched west to have a showdown with the murderer of his brother. Reaching Illyricum, modern Dalmatia and an important but troublesome Roman province, he found that his sister, Constantina (d. 354), had crowned Magnentius Augustus. The armies of Constantius and Magnentius (about 100,000 men each) marched toward lower Pannonia—modern Hungary, a major frontier province. At the Battle of Mursa (Osijek, Yugoslavia), Constantius's army proved more maneuverable and superior. His troops enveloped the left flank of Magnentius's army, on September 28, 351, and his cavalry charged through the Gallic legions. Magnentius lost about 12,000 soldiers and withdrew to Italy. Constantius's army—which suffered as many as 15,000 casualties—pursued Magnentius, but at the Battle of Pavia, Magnentius was victorious. Despite that victory, the Roman populace rose against him, and he retreated to Gaul, where not only the local populace but his own army turned against him. Magnentius committed suicide in 353, and Constantius became the sole Roman emperor.

Further reading: G. P. Baker, *Constantine the Great and the Christian Revolution* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990).

Roman Civil War (360–361)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Constantius II vs. Julian
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A jealous Constantius II sought to punish his cousin Julian for accepting the title of emperor from soldiers in Gaul.
OUTCOME: Constantius died before confronting Julian, who became the legitimate emperor and continued the war against Persia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Julian was able to raise an army of 95,000 in the wake of this conflict.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Muslim Persians invaded the Christian kingdom of Armenia, Roman emperor Constantius II (317–61) took an army to the East to wage war against the Persians. Constantius was defeated in the war and sent word to his cousin Flavius Claudius Julianus (Julian) (331–63) to come to his aid. Not only was Constantius anxious for victory against the Persians, but he also wanted to remove from Gaul Julian and the cream of the Roman Legions faithful to him. Julian represented a grave threat to Constantius's power. Famed for his conversion to Christianity, Julian was extremely popular among his men, who had waged successful wars in Gaul against the Franks and Alemanni. Julian's soldiers refused to leave Gaul and defiantly proclaimed Julian emperor. Constantius, hearing of this rebellion, rushed toward Constantinople from the East; Julian hurried across southern Germany and parts of Austria, Hungary, and Yugoslavia to meet his cousin in battle. During the march, he learned that Constantius had fallen ill in Asia Minor and had died. At that moment, Julian repudiated Christianity—becoming known to history as Julian the Apostate—in order to claim the throne as emperor of the Roman Empire. This done, he turned his attention to Persia and raised an army of 95,000 men, the largest expeditionary force Rome had ever assembled in the East.

See also ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (337–363).

Further reading: G. P. Baker, *Constantine the Great and the Christian Revolution* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2001); G. W. Bowersock, *Julian the Apostate* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1997); Robert Louis Wilken, *The Christians as the Romans Saw Them* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2003).

Roman Civil War (394)

See ARBOGAST AND EUGENIUS, REVOLT OF.

Roman Conquest of Britain (43–61 C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. British tribesmen
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Britain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to subjugate the British tribes and securely attach the region to the Roman Empire.
OUTCOME: Rome won complete control of Britain by 61 C.E.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Roman legions, 50,000; tribal numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Although Julius Caesar (43–61) had first invaded Britain during the GALLIC WARS of 58–51 B.C.E., the British tribes remained unsubdued. Emperor Claudius I (10 B.C.E.–54)

sent Aulus Plautius (fl. 43–61), commander of four Roman legions and auxiliaries, to the region in 43 C.E. He landed at Rutupiae (Richborough, Kent), and was soon reinforced (in 44) by troops under the personal leadership of Claudius, who brought elephants intended to overawe the tribesmen.

Aulus Plautius and Claudius defeated the Catuvellauni and Trinovantes, and drove the Catavellauni chieftain, Caratacus (fl. 43–61), into Wales. Along the route of his retreat, Caratacus recruited support from the Silures and Orgovices of Wales and appealed to Queen Cartimandua (fl. 30–70) of Brigante. Cartimandua treacherously betrayed him to Roman authorities. Nevertheless, Caratacus made numerous raids into Roman-held territory before he was defeated at the Battle of Caer Craddock (in modern Shropshire) in 50. He was sent, a prisoner, to Rome.

By 61, not only were Londinium (London), Camulodunum (Colchester), and Verulamium (St. Albans), the three main population centers, firmly a part of the Roman Empire, but the British frontier of Wales was as well. The last major resistance was BOUDECCA'S REVOLT (from 60 to 61).

Further reading: T. W. Potter and Catherine Johns, *Roman Britain* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993); Malcolm Todd, *Roman Britain* (London: Blackwell, 1999).

Roman Eastern War (113–117)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome and Armenia, Assyria, and Parthia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Armenia and Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to secure extend her reach into Armenia and Mesopotamia.
OUTCOME: Rome annexed Armenia and Assyria as provinces and gained control of Parthia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Osroes (c. 109–129) of Parthia violated an ancient treaty concluded in 20 B.C.E. by placing a puppet ruler on the Armenian throne, Emperor Trajan (53–117) of Rome set out with an army to evict the puppet. In 144 he invaded Armenia, overthrew the king, and annexed the region as an imperial province. From here, Trajan moved into Mesopotamia and established the province of Assyria. Continuing his advance, he targeted Babylon but turned his forces around when Assyria and Armenia suddenly rose in rebellion and, in disarray, were invaded by Parthia. Osroes now exploited the fragmented state of Roman forces in Mesopotamia and Assyrian by attacking. By 115, Trajan found himself cut off, but after suffering a defeat at Hatra, he managed to consolidate and reunite his forces, so that by 116 he regained control of the region.

Trajan placed on the throne of Parthia a nobleman loyal to the Romans, Publius Aelius Hadrianus (known as Hadrian) (76–138). Nevertheless, the succession of battles had exhausted the aged Trajan, who died on the return journey to Rome. Hadrian thus became emperor of Rome and made peace with Parthia in the process, forsaking the projected Roman program of conquest east of the Euphrates River.

Further reading: Julian Bennett, *Trajan: Optimus Princeps* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 2002); Neilson C. Debevoise, *Political History of Parthia* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969); Stewart Perowne, *Hadrian* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1990).

Roman Eastern War (162–165)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Parthia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Armenia and Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Parthia sought to oust the Romans from Armenia and Mesopotamia.
OUTCOME: Rome subdued Parthia and regained control of Armenia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 162, Vologasus III (fl. 147–191), king of Parthia, invaded Armenia and defeated the Roman army stationed in the province. Vologasus continued into Mesopotamia and crushed Roman garrisons stationed there. Newly installed, Emperor Marcus Aurelius (121–180) sent his righthand man and virtual assistant emperor Lucius Aurelius Verus (130–169) with a Roman army to the East. Operating from Antioch, Verus regained Armenia by 163, while, over the next two years, Avidius Cassius (d. 175) led a Roman counteroffensive at Seleucia and Ctesiphon, the capital of Parthia. This prompted Parthia to sue for peace, after which many of the Roman soldiers returned home. En route to Italy, the troops were infected by plague, which spread throughout the Roman Empire. The resulting depopulation made it impossible for Rome to hold Parthia.

Further reading: Anthony R. Birley, *Marcus Aurelius* (London: Routledge, 2000); Neilson C. Debevoise, *Political History of Parthia* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969).

Roman-Etruscan Wars

See ETRUSCAN-ROMAN WARS, EARLY; ETRUSCAN-ROMAN WARS, LATER.

Roman Gothic War, First (249–252)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Goths
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Danube River region to northern Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Goths sought to exploit internal dissension in Rome to invade the Roman frontier.
OUTCOME: Rome bought transitory peace with tribute money.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown, but Gothic numbers reported as "great"
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: A tribute agreement, probably more or less formalized

Cuiva (fl. 240s–250s), king of the Goths, led a very large army across the Danube and confronted the Roman legions at Philippopolis (in modern Bulgaria). The legions were soundly defeated, and Cuiva rolled over them, penetrating into northern Greece. Here, Emperor Decius (201–251) mounted a major defensive campaign against the Goths, blocked them, then forced them to fall back into the marshes south of the Danubian mouth.

Cuiva now found himself in a corner, and in 251 the Battle of Forum Terebronii was fought at a distinct Roman advantage. However, desperation made the Goths that much more determined. Cuiva's forces held out, and when Romans under C. V. Tribonianus Gallus (d. 253) faltered, then failed to maintain the initiative and press home the attack, Cuiva made his move. The Goths launched a counterattack that devastated the Roman legions. Decius fell in battle, leaving Gallus to make a craven truce. He not only allowed the Goths to retain the spoils of war and to withdraw—intact—across the Danube but also accepted a tribute agreement, bribing Cuiva to refrain from further invasions or raids.

See also ROMAN GOTHIC WAR, SECOND; ROMAN GOTHIC WAR, THIRD; ROMAN GOTHIC WAR, FOURTH; ROMAN GOTHIC WAR, FIFTH.

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Peter Heather, *The Goths* (London: Blackwell, 1996). Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990).

Roman Gothic War, Second (252–268)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Goths
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Danube River and Aegean region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Goths violated the peace concluded after the First Gothic War.
OUTCOME: The Goths gained control of most of the Aegean region, except for Greece.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

No sooner had the Goths agreed, in exchange for tribute, to refrain from incursions into Roman territory (*see* ROMAN GOTHIC WAR, FIRST) than they once again crossed the Danube. Aemilianus (d. 253), legate of Moesia, rushed to repel the invasion and soundly defeated this Gothic incursion. Flushed with victory, Aemilianus rushed back to Rome in a bid to seize the throne. He succeeded, only to be assassinated by his own troops, whereupon Marcus Aurelius Claudius (d. 268) assumed command on the Danube under emperors Valerian (r. 253–259) and Gallienus (r. 259–268) and stoutly resisted further Goth incursions.

Battles were sporadic during the period of Marcus Aurelius Claudius's command, but the Goths did not recross the Danube; however, Goth "sea rovers" plied the Black Sea and raided the coasts of Moesia, Thrace, and northern Asia Minor from 252 to 268. Valerian dispatched a series of expeditions to end these depredations but fared miserably, especially in shore actions during 257–258. Worse for Rome, the Goths were joined by a related tribe, the Heruli, with whom they expanded inland from their Black Sea beachheads. Combined Goth-Heruli raiders devastated parts of the Caucasus, Georgia, and Asia Minor, notoriously sacking Ephesus, where in 262 they destroyed the Temple of Diana, famed as one of the Seven Wonders of the World. From Asia Minor, the raiders invaded Greece and captured or sacked Athens, Corinth, Sparta, Argos, and other towns during 265–267.

For the most part, the raiders enjoyed unalloyed triumph, except for sharp defeats at the hands of Odaenathus (d. 267/268) and Publius Herennius Dexippus (c. 210–after 270). The latter managed to drive the invaders out of central Greece by 267. Thus, except for Greece, the Goths and Heruli controlled most of the Aegean region when the Second Roman Gothic War wound down in 268.

See also ROMAN GOTHIC WAR, THIRD; ROMAN GOTHIC WAR, FOURTH; ROMAN GOTHIC WAR, FIFTH.

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Peter Heather, *The Goths* (London: Blackwell, 1996); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990).

Roman Gothic War, Third (270)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Goths
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Danube River region, Moesia (lower Danube area), and Dacia (encompassing most of Romania)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After the death of Emperor Claudius, the Goths decided to exploit Roman internal disorder.
OUTCOME: The Goths were driven out of Moesia, but Dacia was lost to Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Gallienus (r. 259–268) was succeeded as emperor by Claudius II (214–270), known as Gothicus. His death in 270 prompted the Goths to recross the Danube and invade Moesia and Dacia. Aurelian (c. 212–75), who had succeeded to the throne, confronted the incursion with considerable vigor and managed to drive the Goths out of Moesia. However, he decided on a course of discretion rather than valor when it came to Dacia, which he decided to sacrifice as a lost cause. He evacuated as many Roman colonists as he could, resettled them in Moesia, and left Dacia to the Goths.

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Peter Heather, *The Goths* (London: Blackwell, 1996); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990).

Roman Gothic War, Fourth (367–369)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Visigoths and Ostrogoths
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In response to pressure from invading Huns, the Visigoths and Ostrogoths invaded Roman-held Thrace.
OUTCOME: The Ostrogoths and Visigoths were granted permission to settle certain frontier regions of the empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Formal agreement that Visigothic settlement would remain north of the Danube

During the continued unrest that followed the Roman Civil War (360–361), the rebel Procopius (fl. 360s) had been aided by various Gothic mercenaries. In response, Valens (c. 328–78), emperor of the East, captured and imprisoned some of the mercenaries. This was met with protests from the Visigothic king, Athanaric (d. 381), who sent an army into Roman-held Thrace. In the meantime, pressure from invading Huns was driving both Visigoths and Ostrogoths westward, into Thrace and other Danubian regions. The fighting that resulted was largely confused and indecisive—until 369, when a concerted Roman offensive resulted in a substantial victory. Athanaric agreed that his Visigoths would remain north of the Danube. However, the continued advances of the Huns soon wrecked the peace, as more Gothic tribes settled in Thrace and then, after the fact, sought Valens's permission to resettle there. Valens agreed and also released his Gothic prisoners; however, he simultaneously invaded Visigothic territory north of the Danube. Moreover, Roman officials within the region Valens had allotted for Gothic settlement preyed upon the settlers, robbing them and extorting tribute from them.

Further reading: Thomas S. Burns, *A History of the Ostrogoths* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1991); Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Peter Heather, *The Goths* (London: Blackwell, 1996); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990).

Roman Gothic War, Fifth (377–383)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Visigoths and allied Germanic tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thrace and Moesia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Goth depredations within Roman territory combined with Roman abuse of Goth settlers to create a new war.
OUTCOME: The Romans negotiated a peace permitting the Goths to remain on Roman lands in exchange for military service.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Goths and allies, 100,000–200,000; Roman strength at the Second Battle of Adrianople (August 9, 378), 60,000
CASUALTIES: 40,000 Romans fell at the Second Battle of Adrianople (August 9, 378)
TREATIES: Agreement to exchange Goth settlement rights for Roman military service.

Following the Fourth Roman Gothic War, Goth settlers poured into Roman-controlled Thrace in large numbers. For their part, the new settlers were often wild and unruly; Roman officials were abusive. The inevitable result was friction that rapidly escalated into a new Roman Gothic war.

This time, the Goths decided to find strength in numbers by making alliances with other Germanic tribes,

including the Ostrogoths. Roman negotiators sought to act preemptively by attacking the Visigoth leaders Fritigern (d. 380) and Alavius (d. 377) at a parley in 377. Alavius was killed, but Fritigern escaped and led a vengeance counterattack against Romans under Lupicinius (fl. 370s–380s) at Marianopolis (modern Shumla, in eastern Bulgaria). After victory in this exchange, Fritigern united with other Goth leaders between the lower Danube and the Black Sea (the area of modern Dobruja).

The Roman emperor Valens (c. 328–378) dispatched legions to Thrace, forcing the Goths to fall back and confining them to the marshes south of the Danube's mouth. The Goths and their allies took a stand here at the Battle of the Salices or Willows. The Romans failed to make a decisive move, and Fritigern was able to withdraw with his forces intact.

His retreat was neither furtive nor abject. He led his troops through Thrace and Moesia, raiding, pillaging, and destroying, often in concert with Alans, Sarmatians, and even Huns. In response, Valens called on his nephew and co-emperor, Gratian (359–383). However, by 378 the Gothic tribes had formed a powerful alliance. Gratian was delayed in his arrival in Thrace by Frankish and Alemanni incursions in Gaul. After disposing of this menace, he made his way toward Thrace during the summer of 378. Even without Gratian's assistance, Valens's forces had made substantial gains against the barbarians during July and August 378. Perhaps as many as 200,000 Visigoths, Ostrogoths, Sarmatians, Alans, and Huns were held at bay in a wagon camp near Adrianople by August. It would have been prudent for Valens to await the arrival of Gratian before pushing the attack; however, craving glory, Valens led his 60,000 troops against the Goth camp on August 9, 378. This Second Battle of Adrianople resulted in disaster for the legions, which were overwhelmed by horsemen. Forty thousand Romans died, including Valens. Nevertheless, the Goths proved unable to take Adrianople and, instead, once again fell to destructive raiding throughout Thrace.

Gratian assumed to full function of emperor of the West and recruited Theodosius I (c. 346–395) as the new emperor of the East, charging him with defending against the barbarians. Theodosius was as wise as Valens had been rash. He did not attempt to sweep the Visigoths (and others) from Thrace but instead continually harassed them with small, sharp actions. Exhausted, the barbarians agreed to negotiate, and in 383 an unprecedented agreement was made whereby the Visigoths were permitted to live unmolested in designated areas of Thrace in exchange for military service to Rome.

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Peter Heather, *The Goths* (London: Blackwell, 1996); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990); Stephen Williams and Gerard Friell, *Theodosius: The Empire at Bay* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1995).

Roman Northern Frontier Wars
(24 B.C.E.–16 C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Germanic tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bavaria, Austria, Hungary, and France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Republic of Rome struggled to hold back the invasion of Germanic tribes from the north.
OUTCOME: Rome was forced to abandon the colonization of Germany.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This period saw the beginning of the great Pax Romana, a time of relative peace punctuated by some military operations in the north. To secure the border protecting Gaul and Italy, Emperor Augustus (63–14 B.C.E.) sent his legions to the north to capture more territory and provide a buffer between Rome and the Germanic tribes. In 51 B.C.E. he founded Aosta in northern Italy and took control of Illyria (Yugoslavia) and Moesia (northern Bulgaria). In 16 B.C.E., Augustus went to Gaul to take personal command. His stepsons Tiberius (42 B.C.E.–37 C.E.) and Drusus (13 B.C.E.–23 C.E.) led punitive expeditions in Rhaetia (Bavaria), Noricum (Austria) and Pannonia (western Hungary) and annexed these regions to the Roman Empire. Drusus was victorious against the Germanic tribes in Gaul, marched to Germany, and won a battle at the Lippe River, traditional battlefield between the forces of Rome and the German tribes. At the death of Drusus, who had injured himself in a fall from his horse, Tiberius continued the campaigns in Germany. He put down tribal revolts in 4 C.E. and uprisings in Pannonia and Illyria between 6 and 9 C.E., leaving Publius Quintilius Varus (d. 9 C.E.) in Germany with five legions and several auxiliary forces. Varus angered the commander of one of the auxiliaries, Arminius (c. 18 B.C.E.–19 C.E.), a young German chief of the Cherusci tribe, which although not the most powerful of the German tribes, was the most famous. Planning his revenge on Varus, Arminius staged a rebellion in the region between the Visurgis and Aliso. Varus and 20,000 soldiers, accompanied by some 10,000 noncombatants, crossed the Visurgis and entered the Teutoberg Forest. When the legions became mired in the forest's muddy trails, Arminius and his followers deserted from the Roman ranks and attacked a Roman detachment. Varus continued to press northward, but his progress was

slowed by his lengthy baggage train and by the number of noncombatants among his columns. After several days, the Germans—mostly Cherusci—broke through the legions. Twenty thousand Roman troops were killed, and Varus and his surviving officers committed suicide. Although Tiberius continued punitive expeditions against the Germans between 11 and 16, Rome, whose people were stunned by the annihilation of Varus's legions at Teutoberg, was forced to establish the Rhine and Danube rivers rather than the Elbe as the boundaries of her holdings in Germany, and tribal warfare and internal violence were rampant in Germany for the next several centuries.

Further reading: Edward Gibbon, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, 3 vols., edited by J. B. Bury (New York: Modern Library, 1995); Ramsay MacMullen, *Corruption and the Decline of Rome* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1990).

Roman-Parthian War (55–38 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Parthia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Parthia and Rome-Parthian borderlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pompey (of the First Triumvirate) craved the glory of conquest.
OUTCOME: The Roman legions were defeated in two major attempts at invasion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rome, 39,000; Parthian forces larger
CASUALTIES: Rome lost 4,000 killed and 10,000 prisoners at Carrhae (53 B.C.E.)
TREATIES: None

In 55, the Roman governor of Syria, Aulus Gabinius (d. 47), aided Mithradates III (d. 54 B.C.E.), who had been forced into exile by his brother Orodes II (d. 37/36 B.C.E.), in his bid to regain the Parthian throne. Orodes, however, defeated Mithradates III at the Battle of Seelucia in 55 and captured and killed him the following year.

Gabinius's action opened the door to a Roman invasion of Parthia. An army of 39,000 under Marcus Licinius Crassus (c. 115–53 B.C.E.) commenced a campaign in Carrhae during 54–53. Shortly after crossing the Euphrates, the Romans were set upon by Parthian cavalry and archers. The legions assumed defensive positions, whereupon the Parthians besieged them, continually attacking at long distance with arrows. At last, Crassus dispatched 6,000 men under his son, Publius Crassus (55–15 B.C.E.), to attack the Parthian cavalry so that the main Roman force could break out. The Parthians fell back, only to counterattack with great ferocity. Four thousand Romans fell, and another 10,000 were taken prisoner.

The Carrhae campaign left Mesopotamia in Parthian hands and cemented an enmity between Rome and Parthia, leading to sporadic, bloody, and inconclusive combat from 53 to 38 B.C.E., mostly provoked by Parthian invasions of Roman-held Syria.

Further reading: Neilson C. Debevoise, *Political History of Parthia* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969); Mark Dunster, *Parthia* (London: Linden, 1979); Plutarch, "Life of Crassus," in *The Fall of the Roman Republic: Six Lives: Marius, Sulla, Crassus, Pompey, Caesar, Cicero,* trans. Rex Warner (New York: Penguin, 1972).

Roman-Parthian War (56–63)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Parthia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Armenia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Both empires wanted to control Armenia.
OUTCOME: A Parthian king was placed on the Armenian throne with the proviso that he acknowledge the Roman emperor Nero as his overlord.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

The first century C.E. was a time of great turmoil in Southwest Asia. Parthia, the greatest kingdom in the region, was often at odds with Rome, even though both Parthia and Rome had a common enemy in the barbarians to the north. It was over control of one of the northern regions, Armenia, that the war of 56–63 was fought. In 56, Rome controlled Armenia through a puppet ruler, Radamistus (d. 56) who was killed in 56. Upon his death, Vologesus I (fl. 51–77), king of Parthia (northern Iran), attempted to put his brother Tiridates (d. c. 73) on the Armenian throne. The Roman emperor Nero (37–68) responded by ordering Corbulo (d. 67), his military commander in Asia Minor, to install another Roman puppet. Accordingly, in 57, Corbulo led an army into Armenia, ousted Tiridates, and replaced him with a pliant ruler, Tigranes VI of Cappadocia (d. 62). Because Vologesus was using his army to quell internal disorders at the time, he did not oppose the invasion; however, in 61, he mounted an invasion of Armenia and defeated Corbulo's legions. With the Romans out of the country, Tiridates was reinstated, and Corbulo wisely allowed Nero to save face by negotiating his agreement to permit Tiridates to rule, provided Tiridates acknowledge Nero as his overlord.

Further reading: Neilson C. Debevoise, *Political History of Parthia* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969); Mark Dunster, *Parthia* (London: Linden, 1979).

Roman-Parthian War (195–202)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Parthia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mesopotamia (modern Iran)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to curtail Parthian incursions into Armenia and then to annex some part of Parthia itself.
OUTCOME: Parthia was almost totally defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Mesopotamia had been under nominal Roman rule since the reign of Marcus Aurelius (121–180), but during the ROMAN CIVIL WAR (193–197), which pitted rivals for the imperial throne against one another and thereby fragmented Roman power, the Parthian king Vologesus IV (fl. 191–209) invaded Armenia and laid siege against the Mesopotamian city of Nisibis. It was not until Lucius Septimus Severus (146–211) won out against his rivals to become sole emperor of Rome that the Roman legions were able to mount a credible response, even though Severus had to deal with other potential rivals. In 196, the emperor led his forces across the Euphrates to capture the great Parthian city of Seleucia. From the conquest, the legions attacked Ctesiphon, which also fell to them. Severus then marched north, forcing Vologesus to lift his siege of Nisibis and retreat into the mountains.

Only Hatra, defended by a formidable Parthian force, remained firm. The legions hammered this objective fruitlessly in 197 and again in 199; however, Nisibis was returned firmly into Roman hands, and Severus made it his capital to govern the Roman province he carved out of the defeated Vologesus's realm. Hatra remained unbreached, a lonely Parthian outpost and a constant thorn in the emperor's side.

Further reading: Neilson C. Debevoise, *Political History of Parthia* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969); Mark Dunster, *Parthia* (London: Linden, 1979).

Roman-Persian War (230–233)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Persian Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Roman-Persian borderlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to counter the aggression of the newly expanded Persian Empire.
OUTCOME: Rome regained its Mesopotamian possessions and reestablished the Roman-Persian frontier.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None; no formal peace was established

Ardashir I (d. 241)—also known as Ataxerxes I—king of Persia, rebelled against his Parthian masters in 226 and, by the following year, had not only shed the Parthian yoke but conquered Parthia itself, to found the Sassanid dynasty. From this vast conquest, he moved on to lay claim to all of Asia Minor; in 230–231 he led an invasion into Roman Mesopotamia and boldly asserted Persian sovereignty by minting coins in the invaded region.

At first,the Roman emperor, Marcus Aurelius Alexander Severus (c. 208–235), attempted political negotiation with Ardashir. One of the abler emperors and generals of the late Roman period, Alexander led a three-pronged invasion of Persia after negotiations collapsed. But Alexander was more courageous than experienced, and his "prong" of the invasion was defeated. The other two Roman forces fared better, however, yet also failed to achieve decisive victories. Ardashir held his ground, but suffered severe losses and was unable to turn his defensive action into a counterattack. Thus the war ended in a draw, although both sides declared victory—Rome with more justification, since, strategically, the war reestablished the empire's frontier.

Further reading: A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia, 550 B.C.–A.D. 650* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998).

Roman-Persian War (241–244)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia, under Shapur I, continued its Sassanid program of expansion by invading Syria; Rome countered.
OUTCOME: Persia gave up Syria, and the prewar Persian-Roman frontier was reestablished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Presumably a formal agreement reestablishing status quo ante bellum

The second of the Sassanid kings of Persia, Shapur I (d. 272), son of the dynasty's founder, Ardashir I (d. 241), and, for a time, coruler with his father, continued Ardashir's practice of nibbling at the Roman borderlands to expand the Persian Empire. Even before Ardashir's death, he mounted a major invasion of Syria, conquered much of it, and besieged the great city of Antioch. Shapur counted

on Rome's internal strife to weaken the empire's ability and will to respond; however, Marcus Antonius Gordianus III (c. 224–244), emperor of Rome, in company with his best general (and father-in-law), Gaius Furius Sabinus Aquila Timesithesus (d. 243), marched into Syria in 242 and met Shapur's forces at the Battle of Resaena on the upper Araxes River the following year. The battle proved decisive, and Shapur withdrew from Syria.

Timesithesus and Gordianus were anxious to capitalize on their victory by driving into Persia itself. But Timesithesus died late in 243 and the next year Gordianus was assassinated, possibly at the instigation of his successor, Philip (c. 204–249) (called Philip the Arabian). Having no desire to press the campaign against Shapur any further, Philip negotiated a peace that reestablished the prewar Persian-Roman frontier.

Further reading: A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia, 550 B.C.–A.D. 650* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998).

Roman-Persian War (257–261)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Persia; Persia vs. Palmyra
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persian king Shapur I sought conquest of Syria.
OUTCOME: Rome was defeated and Emperor Valerian taken captive—although Shapur himself suffered a serious defeat at the hands of a Palmyran prince.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As with the ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR (241–244), internal disorder in Rome encouraged Shapur I (d. 272) to seize the opportunity to attack. He moved into Armenia, which his forces conquered by 258. Shapur had installed a Persian puppet on the Armenian throne, he then stabbed with raiding forces into Mesopotamia and Syria, plundering the important city of Antioch later in 258. Roman emperor Valerian (d. c. 261) was able to make an effective response to this. He expelled the Persians from Antioch but was unable to follow up this victory with a triumph over Shapur's main forces, which remained very much intact. Valerian lost the Battle of Edessa in 260, and Shapur blocked, then surrounded, the Roman armies. In a desperate situation and seeking to avoid the destruction of his legions, Valerian sued for peace and was taken captive. Leaderless, the Roman army panicked and instantly surrendered. Valerian was hauled off to Persia, where he died a prisoner.

Unopposed, Shapur overran Syria, retook Antioch, then redoubled raids into all the Roman regions of the East, including Cilicia and Cappadocia, both of which he devastated, although he met stout resistance in Cappadocia. In the end, Shapur was defeated not by Rome but by Palmyran forces, which attacked Shapur's booty-laden army as it returned to Persia. The defeat was so severe that Shapur ended his aggression against Syria and Asia Minor.

Further reading: A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia, 550 B.C.–A.D. 650* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998).

Roman-Persian War (282–283)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome wanted to retake Mesopotamia from Persia.
OUTCOME: Upper Mesopotamia was retaken, and Rome negotiated peace with the Persians; however, internal intrigue resulted in the deaths of Emperor Carus and his son Numerianus, and ultimately resulted in the elevation of Diocletian as emperor of Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 283; no document survives

Marcus Aurelius Carus (c. 223–283), a Praetorian who became emperor of Rome, together with his son Marcus Aurelius Numerianus (d. 284), invaded Persian-occupied Mesopotamia in 282, retaking upper Mesopotamia, along with the Persian provincial capital of Ctesiphon. From here, Carus advanced east of the Tigris, presumably with the intention of invading the Sassanid Empire. Before Carus proceeded much farther, however, Persia's king Bahram I (d. 276) sued for peace and negotiated a settlement with the Romans.

The legions did not vacate Persian territory after the peace, however, but resumed their march eastward, deep into Sassanid territory. The invasion was halted by the sudden death of Carus in 283. The cause of death was officially recorded as a lightning bolt, but most scholars believe he had been the victim of assassination, killed by the prefect of the Praetorian Guard, Arius Aper (d. 285).

The death of Carus turned the Roman legions back toward Rome, and Numerianus was now jointly emperor with his brother Carinus (d. 285). Before the Roman army reached the Bosporus, however, Numerianus was killed. Arius Aper was accused of having assassinated him, and Diocletian (245–313), a commander who had served under Carus, personally executed the Praetorian

prefect. After this action, the army proclaimed Diocletian emperor.

See also ROMAN CIVIL WAR (284–285 C.E.).

Further reading: A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia, 550 B.C.–A.D. 650* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998); Peter Wilcox, *Rome's Enemies: Parthians and Sassanids,* vol. 175 (London: Osprey, 1988).

Roman-Persian War (295–297)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome wanted to retake upper Mesopotamia from the Persians.
OUTCOME: After suffering a decisive defeat in a surprise attack along the Tigris, Narses made vast concessions to Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rome, 25,000; Persia, 100,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Nisibis, 297

Throughout the third century, Persia had taken advantage of the internal disintegration of the Roman Empire to move against often weakly held Roman provinces. Narses (d. c. 302), king of Persia, invaded Armenia in 295 and removed the Roman puppet Tirdates III (c. 238–314) from the throne. This provoked the Roman caesar of the East, Galerius (d. 311), to assemble a small force, which included Tirdates and a cadre of Armenian exiles, and attack Narses. After defeating small Persian forces in Mesopotamia, Galerius and his army were routed near Carrhae in 296. This was the very scene of the defeat of Crassus (c. 115–53 B.C.E.) in the ROMAN-PARTHIAN WAR (55–38 B.C.E.).

Emperor Diocletian (c. 245–313?) publicly chastised Galerius but allowed him to retain his command. The following year, Galerius regrouped and reinforced his army, then advanced against the Persians once again. Commanding 25,000, he encountered a vastly superior Persian force of 100,000 near the upper Tigris but nevertheless managed to surprise it. The element of surprise served him well, and the Persian force, though larger, was nearly destroyed. Galerius and his men ran riot, looting the treasures carried by the army and capturing Narses's harem as well as his family. The Persian emperor desperately sued for peace and concluded the Peace of Nisibis in 297, whereby Persia restored all of upper Mesopotamia to Rome and, in addition, ceded five provinces northeast of the Tigris. Narses also acknowledged Tiridates III as king of Armenia. In return, the Persian emperor's harem and family were restored to him.

Further reading: A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia, 550 B.C.–A.D. 650* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998); Peter Wilcox, *Rome's Enemies: Parthians and Sassanids,* vol. 175 (London: Osprey, 1988).

Roman-Persian War (337–364)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Armenia and Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia sought to regain upper Mesopotamia and Armenia from the Romans.
OUTCOME: War was, for the most part, chronic and indecisive—until the death of Emperor Julian disordered the Roman legions and left Persian emperor Shapur II essentially free to possess the disputed territories.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rome, 95,000; Persian strength unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Constantius II (317–361), son and heir of Constantine I (the Great; c. 228–337), inherited the throne of the Eastern Empire upon the death of his father in 337. Immediately, he was assailed by the forces of Persia's Shapur II (309–79), who was determined to regain Armenia and northern Mesopotamia from Rome. Presumably, Shapur was motivated to a large degree by religious zeal. Initial Persian raids into these regions inaugurated a long, sporadic state of war between Rome and Persia, which, however, resulted in only the sketchiest of historical records.

It is believed that the war encompassed nine great battles, of which the best known is Singara (Sinjar, Iraq), which may have taken place in 344 or as late as 348. While it is known that Constantius at first prevailed, historians are divided on the ultimate issue of the battle. Some believe the Romans succeeded in capturing Shapur's camp, only to be driven out of it in a nighttime counterattack. Others hold that the battle ended in a draw.

Singara was the scene of a Roman offensive. Repeatedly, however, Shapur seized the initiative and put the legions on the defensive. Three times he attacked the Mesopotamian fortress of Nisibis (337, possibly in 344, and again in 349), and three times he was repulsed by the Roman defenders.

The first major phase of the war ended in 350 with a truce, as both Constantius and Shapur became preoccupied with other threats to their empires. However, in 358, war recommenced with a new Persian invasion of Armenia. The Romans valiantly held the fortress of Amida (in Diyarbekir, Turkey) against a 73-day siege. The siege not only proved costly to Shapur but forced him to delay his campaign until

the end of winter. But in 359 he pressed on, capturing Singara and Bezabde, two Roman fortress towns. Constantius rushed to the region with reinforcements but was unable to retake Bezabde. He summoned aid from his cousin Julian (331–363), who assembled a force of 95,000 legionnaires during 363–363, then invaded early in 363. At Ctesiphon on the Tigris River, Julian coordinated a brilliant amphibious assault on Shapur's position. The Persian army was badly cut up and retreated into the city of Ctesiphon. Unfortunately for Julian, promised aid from the Armenians did not materialize, and he decided not to lay siege to Ctesiphon but to penetrate farther into Persian territory. The invaders, however, were greeted by a Persian scorched-earth policy and soon found themselves short of supplies. Julian therefore began a withdrawal to the north, traveling up the Tigris with the intention of establishing a new base of operations in Armenia. It was during this retreat that Shapur again showed himself, repeatedly attacking the Roman columns with light cavalry. In one attack, at night against a Roman camp, Julian was mortally wounded.

Julian was replaced by Flavius Claudius Jovian (d. 365) as commander of the legions. That general quickly buckled. Fearing a fatal shortage of supplies, he sued for peace. Shapur shrewdly kept the hungry army waiting with deliberately drawn-out negotiations. On the verge of starvation, Jovian agreed to cede to Persia all provinces east of the Tigris as well as the major Roman fortresses, including Nisibis. On behalf of Rome, Jovian further renounced suzerainty over both Armenia and the Caucasian region. He led his emaciated army abjectly back to Antioch. On his way back to Constantinople in 365 Jovian died suddenly and mysteriously, quite likely the victim of assassination.

Further reading: A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia, 550 B.C.–A.D. 650* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998); Peter Wilcox, *Rome's Enemies: Parthians and Sassanids,* vol. 175 (London: Osprey, 1988).

Roman-Persian War (421–422)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mesopotamian provinces of Persia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to compel Persia's king Bahram V to reinstate a policy of toleration of Christianity.
OUTCOME: After suffering a number of minor defeats, Bahram agreed to tolerate Christianity throughout the Persian Empire in exchange for a Roman pledge to tolerate Zoroastrianism throughout Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 422

When King Bahram V (d. 439)—known as Gor ("the Wild Ass")—ascended the Sassanid throne, he overturned the policy of religious toleration maintained by his father, Yazdegerd I, assassinated in 420, and instituted a program of violent persecution against Christians—or, at least, allowed his powerful chief minister, Mihr-Naresh (fl. fifth century) to persecute them. Rome responded by attacking Bahram's forces in Mesopotamia, inflicting a series of defeats against him in minor battles. Thoroughly intimidated, Bahram V sued for peace and agreed by treaty to tolerate Christianity throughout his empire. Rome, in turn, agreed to tolerate the dominant religion of Persia, Zoroastrianism, and the balance of Bahram V's reign became known not for religious persecution but for a combination of romantic chivalry and noble huntsmanship.

Further reading: A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia, 550 B.C.–A.D. 650* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998); Peter Wilcox, *Rome's Enemies: Parthians and Sassanids,* vol. 175 (London: Osprey, 1988).

Roman-Persian War (441)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia's Mesopotamian provinces
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to compel Persia to reinstate its former policy of toleration of Christianity.
OUTCOME: Persian king Yazdegerd II agreed to reinstate the toleration policy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

Although Bahram V (d. 439) had agreed not to persecute Christians in Persia (*see* ROMAN-PERSIAN WAR [421–422]), his son and successor, Yazdegerd II (d. 457), reinstated violent persecution, thereby provoking intervention from Rome. At first Rome sought to achieve a diplomatic solution, but when this failed, a small number of troops were sent to harass Persian forces in Mesopotamia. Like his father, Yazdegerd was easily intimidated, and nothing more than a brief foray into the Persian provinces was sufficient to persuade him to reaffirm his father's agreement to pursue a policy of toleration.

Further reading: A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia, 550 B.C.–A.D. 650* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998); Peter Wilcox, *Rome's Enemies: Parthians and Sassanids,* vol. 175 (London: Osprey, 1988).

Roman-Persian War (502–506)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome (Eastern Empire/Byzantine Empire) vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Roman Armenia and Roman Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Persian king was provoked by Rome's refusal to help Persia pay tribute to the White Huns.
OUTCOME: After many initial reverses, Roman forces defeated the Persians and the prewar frontier was reestablished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Frontier agreement of 506

Anastasius I (430?–518), emperor of the Eastern Empire, refused the appeal of Persian king Kavadh I (d. 531) for financial aid to help him pay tribute owed to the White Huns (Ephthalites), who had been instrumental in regaining the throne for Kavadh after he was deposed by his brother. His refusal was motivated by a desire to halt Persian expansion along the Black Sea; however, the effects of the refusal were compounded by unwelcome Roman incursions into Armenia. Provoked, Kavadh invaded Roman Armenia in 502 and captured the principal city, Theodosiopolis (Erzurum, Turkey) and, in 503, followed this triumph with a victory in Roman Mesopotamia when Amida (Diyarbakir, Turkey) fell to Persian forces after a 90-day siege.

Anastasius was able gradually to mount an effective counterattack and, during 504–506, repeatedly defeated Persian forces after initially repulsing an attempt to take Edessa (in modern Greece). After Amida was retaken by Anastasius's forces in 506, Kavadh sued for peace and agreed to the restoration of the Roman-Persian border on its prewar terms.

Further reading: Mack Chahin, *The Kingdom of Armenia* (New York: Taylor and Francis, 2001); Robert H. Hewsen and Christopher C. Salvatico, *Armenia: A Historical Atlas* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1999); A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972); Josef Wiesehofer, *Ancient Persia, 550 B.C.–A.D. 650* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998); Peter Wilcox, *Rome's Enemies: Parthians and Sassanids,* vol. 175 (London: Osprey, 1988).

Roman-Persian War (524–532)

See JUSTINIAN'S FIRST PERSIAN WAR.

Roman-Persian War (539–562)

See JUSTINIAN'S SECOND PERSIAN WAR.

Roman-Persian War (572–591)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. Rome and the Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia, Macedonia, Media, and Armenia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia sought territorial expansion at the expense of the East Roman Empire
OUTCOME: Persia was defeated, suffered civil war, and made peace with Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Roman army at the time of the intervention (590), 60,000; Persian forces at this time numbered about 40,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce, 573–575; peace treaty between Maurice of Rome and Chosroes II of Persia, 591

Chosroes I (d. 579), emperor of Persia, sent an expeditionary force into Roman Mesopotamia after Justin II (d. 578), emperor of Rome, struck a threatening alliance with the Turks in support of an uprising among Christian Armenians. Simultaneously, Chosroes fought a defensive action against the Turks in the East.

Chosroes's grandson, also named Chosroes (591–628), laid siege to Dara and dispatched forces to raid Syria. The Persians penetrated as far as Antioch. Rome, recognizing that the war it had provoked was going badly, sued for peace and secured a three–year truce spanning 573–575. During this period, the Romans—and the Persians—prepared for an expanded war.

In 575, Chosroes dispatched his grandson into Roman territory again but was driven out of Cappadocia; in 577, the Roman general Justinian (527–565) defeated young Chosroes at the Battle of Melitene, just west of the upper Euphrates River. This drove the Persian forces to the west. Justinian exploited the advantage he had gained by invading Persian Armenia, advancing to the Caspian Sea, where he established a base and constructed a fleet of warships late in 577.

In 578, Justinian invaded Assyria, which prompted the elder Chosroes to sue for peace. This was negotiated when the old man died in 579, and the new Persian king, Hormizd IV (r. 579–590), repudiated his father's negotiations, refusing to yield any territory. The war, therefore, continued—and continued to go badly for the Persians. They lost most of Armenia and were forced to withdraw from the Caucasus. For their part, the Turks overran Khorasan, penetrating as far as Hyrcania on the Caspian Sea. Within Persia, the reign of Hormizd IV proved disastrous. His tyranny provoked internal dissent and rebellion.

By 588, the Sassanid Empire of Persia was on the verge of collapse. At that point General Bahram Chobin (d. 591) performed a miracle: ambushing a larger Turkish force, he achieved a complete victory at the Battle of the Hyrcanian

Rock. By pressing his advantage, he pushed the Turks out of most of the area south of the Oxus River (near Mus), but was defeated at the hands of the Roman emperor Maurice (539–602) at the Battle of Nisibis later in the year. This loss resulted in a Persian withdrawal to Armenia. Still later, in 589, Bahram sought to regain lost ground by going on the offensive at the Battle of the Araxes. After this defeat, Hormizd ordered Bahram's relief, but the general refused to relinquish command. He now turned against the unpopular Persian emperor, whom he overthrew. The younger Chosroes now assumed the throne, but Bahram again refused to yield and seized the throne for himself. Chosroes found refuge with Persia's Roman enemies.

Emperor Maurice took advantage of the Persian disarray by supporting Chosroes against Bahram. He dispatched a Roman army under Narses via Assyria to restore Chosroes. Simultaneously, Roman legions advanced into Media. Bahram met Narses in battle at the Zab River. Outnumbered (60,000 to 40,000), Bahram was defeated, fled, and was killed. Restored to the throne as Chosroes II, the new Persian ruler made peace with Rome.

Further reading: Geoffrey Greatrex and Samuel N. C. Lieu, eds., *Roman Eastern Frontier and the Persian Wars:* Part II, *363–628 A.D., a Narrative Sourcebook* (New York: Routledge, 2002); A. T. Olmstead, *History of the Persian Empire* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972); Peter Wilcox, *Rome's Enemies: Parthians and Sassanids,* vol. 175 (London: Osprey, 1988).

Roman-Syrian War

See SYRIAN-ROMAN WARS.

Romanus's Early Campaigns (1068–1069)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Byzantine Empire vs. the Seljuk Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria, Media, Anatolia (Turkey)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Romanus rebuilt his army and mounted campaigns to protect his Byzantine Empire from attacks by the Seljuk Turks.
OUTCOME: Romanus drove the Turks out of the Byzantine Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Romanus IV Diogenes (d. 1072) married Eudocia Macreom Dolitissa (fl. 11th century), the widow of Constantine X (d. 1067) in 1067. The new ruler of the Byzantine Empire spent his first year on the throne rebuilding the empire's armies, which had been allowed to deteriorate over the previous 25 years. His first action was against the Seljuk Turks, who had set up winter quarters in Phrygia and Pontus. At the Battle of Sebastia, Romanus defeated Alp Arslan (d. c. 1030), the Seljuks' leader, and forced him to withdraw to Armenia and Mesopotamia. Romanus then struck in Syria against Arabs who had risen against the Byzantine rule there. He next marched to Cappadocia, where he drove off the Turks. He pressed onward to Akhlat, the Turkish stronghold on Lake Van. Part of his army moved to Media, where it was defeated by Alp Arslan. The Seljuk Turk leader then raided into Anatolia, but Romanus devised a clever attack and defeated the Turks at the Battle of Heraclea. By the end of the campaigns of 1069, Romanus had driven the Seljuk Turks out of the Byzantine Empire.

Further reading: John F. Haldon, *The Byzantine Wars* (Mount Pleasant, S.C.: Arcadia, 2000); Cyril A. Manso, ed. *History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002).

Roman War against Pyrrhus of Epirus (281–272 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Tarentum (forces led by Pyrrhus of Epirus)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Italy
DECLARATION: Tarentum against Rome
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tarentum sought to stem Roman expansion in the region.
OUTCOME: Tarentum succeeded in its objective, but at great cost.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rome, 70,000; Pyrrhus, 70,000
CASUALTIES: Rome lost 7,000–15,000 killed at Heraclea (280), and Pyrrhus lost 4,000–11,000; each side lost about 11,000 men at Asculum (279 B.C.E.)
TREATIES: None

When Tarentum (in southern Italy) feared that Roman expansion would soon engulf it, that city-state declared war on Rome and sought aid from Pyrrhus (319–272 B.C.E.), king of Epirus. He arrived with 20,000 infantrymen and some 3,000 Thessalian and Epirote cavalry troopers and set up as ruler of the Greek city-states of southern Italy.

In 280, Publius Valerius Laevinus (fl. 280s–270s B.C.E.) led about 35,000 Romans against what was now 30,000 troops deployed by Pyrrhus at Heraclea on the Siris River. Pyrrhus brilliantly deployed his elephants, surprising and overwhelming the Romans, who had never seen such creatures. He effected a rout, driving the legions across the Siris and inflicting 7,000 to 15,000 deaths. Pyrrhus's losses were also heavy, between 4,000 and 11,000 killed. Later congratulated on this victory, Pyrrhus reportedly replied, "One more such victory and I am lost."

Thereafter a "Pyrrhic victory" described a triumph not worth its cost.

Pyrrhus advanced toward Rome and, learning that a new Roman-allied army was marching to intercept him, recruited a force that may have numbered 70,000 and included Samnites and Greeks. In 279, Pyrrhus's forces clashed with the Roman-allied army (also numbering perhaps 70,000) near Asculum (modern Ascoli, Italy). The first day of battle proved indecisive, but the second day was carried by Pyrrhus, again largely because of judicious use of elephants. However, this time there was no rout, and the Roman forces withdrew intact. Both sides sustained heavy losses of about 11,000 each, and Pyrrhus himself was seriously wounded. Like Heraclea, Asculum was a "Pyrrhic victory."

Following Asculum, Pyrrhus answered a call for aid from Syracuse on the island of Sicily, this time against the Carthaginians, who had laid siege to Syracuse. During 278–76 B.C.E., Pyrrhus repeatedly prevailed against the Carthaginians but never drove them off the island. Worse, his struggle against the Carthaginians prompted them to conclude an alliance with Rome. Despite this, Pyrrhus might well have come to control all of Sicily had he stayed; however, in 275 he returned to the southern Italian mainland and fought the Battle of Beneventum against Roman forces. At first, it looked as if Pyrrhus's elephants would yet again carry the day, for they drove the Romans against the walls of their own camp. At a critical moment, however, the Romans managed to turn the elephants back against the attackers, creating great confusion and panic. The Romans exploited this success with a sharp counterattack that defeated Pyrrhus, who suffered heavy losses. Later in 275, Tarentum fell to the Romans, and Pyrrhus departed the field.

Further reading: Petros Garoufalias, *Pyrrhus, King of Epirus* (London: Stacey International, 1978); C. A. Kinkaid, *Successors of Alexander the Great: Ptolemy I-Pyrrhus of Epirus-Antiochus III* (Golden, Colo.: Ares, 1980).

Roman War with the Quadi and Sarmatians (374–375)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Quadi and Sarmatians vs. the Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Romania, Bulgaria, Austria, Hungary, and Yugoslavia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Quadi wanted the Roman Empire to remove the fortification it had erected from Quadi territory.
OUTCOME: Romans battled the Quadi and their allies the Sarmations until the death of Valentinian.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The invading Huns pushed the Germanic people known as the Quadi westward into Dacia (Romania), where they settled in about 359. They remained there with little to do with the Roman Empire to the south until Emperor Valentinian I (321–375) ordered fortifications constructed on the south bank of the Danube River in Quadi territory. Gabinus (d. 374), the Quadi king, at first tried to appeal to the fort commander but was killed for his efforts by the Roman general Marcellinus (330–395). The Quadi then rose in protest with the Sarmatians. They swept across Moesia (Bulgaria) and Pannonia (Austria, Hungary, and Yugoslavia). In 374, the Roman army under Theodosius (c. 346–395) forced the Sarmatians to make a separate peace in Moesia, while Valentinian marched into Quadi territory in 375 and wreaked havoc in the region. The Quadi then sent envoys to Valentinian to ask for peace. Valentinian became so angry at their attempts to blame the war on Roman incursions into Quadi territory that he suffered a stroke and died. Flavius Gratianus (Gratian) (359–383), his son, then became emperor in the West, and the Quadi lived in peace until they invaded Italy with the Visigoths in 405.

Further reading: Stephen Williams and Gerard Friell, *Theodosius: The Empire at Bay* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1995).

Roman War with the Cimbri and Teutones (104–101 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Germanic tribes of Cimbri and Teutones
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaul and northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The barbarian tribes of Cimbri and Teutones sought to invade the territory of the Roman Republic.
OUTCOME: Rome defeated the barbarian tribes of Cimbri and Teutones.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Vercellae (101 B.C.E.), 140,000 Cimbri were killed and 50,000 captured.
TREATIES: None

In about 109 B.C.E. the Germanic tribes of the Cimbri and the Teutones migrated through Switzerland to Gaul. At the Rhone River, they were met by and they defeated the Roman army of M. Junius Silanus (fl. second century B.C.E.). Disaster struck the Romans again in 105 at the Battle of Arausio (Orange), where the Roman army was nearly annihilated and some 40,000 Roman noncombatants were also killed.

In 104, Caius Marius (155?–86 B.C.E.), who had been fighting in Numidia, took command in Gaul. As the Cimbri and Teutones prepared to invade Italy, Marius made sweeping military reforms and recruited new troops. He fortified his camp at the Rhone and Isere rivers in preparation for new assaults. In 102, the barbarian tribes divided their forces. The Teutones moved toward Italy, but Marius's army ambushed the horde at the Battle of Aquae Sextae (Aix-en-Provence), killing 90,000 and capturing 20,000. The Cimbri, however, managed to move through Switzerland and the Brenner Pass and to defeat a Roman force in the Adige River valley in northern Italy. They continued toward the south into the Po River valley. Marius hurried his forces back to Italy, where they thoroughly defeated the Cimbri horde at the Battle of Vercellae in 101. About 140,000 barbarians were killed, and more than 50,000 were captured. No further attacks from Gaul threatened Italy.

Further reading: John B. Bury, *The Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000); Peter Wilcox, *Barbarians against Rome: Rome's Celtic, Germanic, Spanish and Gallic Enemies* (London: Osprey, 2000).

Roman War with the Vandals (468)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Vandals
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Mediterranean
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Emperor Leo I of the Eastern Roman Empire wanted to push the Germanic Vandals out of the Mediterranean region.
OUTCOME: The Roman general Basiliscus was defeated near Cape Bon (Tunisia), and the Vandals retained control of the Mediterranean.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rome, more than 100,000 men; Vandal numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Having been pushed from the Danube River basin, Gaul, and Spain, the Germanic Vandals, an ancient tribe originally from Denmark, relocated to North Africa in 429. Under the leadership of King Gaiseric (390–477), the Vandals began increasing their territory in the Mediterranean region, making Carthage their capital in 439. In 455, the Vandals marched on Rome and sacked the city. Withdrawing to Carthage with Licinia Eudoxia (c. 422–480), widow of Emperor Valentinian III (419–455), as their hostage, by 468 the Vandals had gained control over Roman Africa, Sicily, and other eastern Mediterranean islands. Leo I (c. 400–74), emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire, sent his brother-in-law Basiliscus (d. 478) to attack the Vandals at their North Africa base. Basiliscus postponed the attack for so long that the Vandals were able to decimate the Roman fleet at Cape Bon (Tunisia). As for Basiliscus, he fled back to Constantinople with his large but unused army. The Vandals continued to hold power in the Mediterranean region, and the Eastern Empire made peace with the Vandals in 476.

Further reading: Frank M. Clover, *Late Roman West and the Vandals* (London: Ashgate, 1993); Thomas Hodgkin, *Huns, Vandals, and the Fall of the Roman Empire* (London: Lionel Leventhal, 1996).

Roman Wars with Veii (438–426 B.C.E., 405–396 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. Veii
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome sought to end the Etruscan dominance in central Italy.
OUTCOME: Rome won a prolonged siege of Veii and became the leading state in central Italy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Located about 10 miles to the northwest of Rome on the banks of the Tiber River, the Etruscan state of Veii was first engaged in war with Rome between 438 and 425 B.C.E. At the siege of the Veii outpost Fidenae, King Tolumnius (d. c. 430) of Veii was killed. Although asked to come to Veii's aid, few other Etruscan states entered the fray. Rome won the siege of Fidenae in 426 and went on to besiege the state of Veii for nine years. Realizing that the Romans would soon reach Veii after the defeat of Fidenae, the citizens of Veii fortified their city. Veii at last fell to the Romans in 396 after the troops of Marcus Furius Camillus (d. c. 365) crawled through tunnels into the city, which they sacked. The people and territory of Veii were absorbed by Rome. As a result of the siege of Veii, Rome had established a new career path for its citizens by offering regular payments to troops in the field. The Roman Republic by this time was the leading state in central Italy.

Further reading: A. Alfödi, *Early Rome and the Latins* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 965); Graeme Barker, *Etruscans* (London: Blackwell, 2000); Howard H. Soullard, *Etruscan Cities and Rome* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Rome, Celtic Sack of (390 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Celts vs. Etruscan Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rome and environs

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Celtic expansion
OUTCOME: The Etruscan city-state of Rome was sacked, except for the Capitol.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Celts (Senones) of Britain first invaded Italy about 450 B.C.E., and they made a full-scale assault against Rome in 390 (some authorities say 387), achieving victory against Roman (Etruscan) forces at the Battle of Clusium (or Clisium). Rome, during this period an Etruscan city-state, appealed to its neighbors for military aid, and, in violation of accepted behavior for diplomats, Roman ambassadors rushed to the defense of the Clusium. In response, the Celts, led by Brennus (fl. latter fourth century B.C.E.) (the Welsh word *brenin* is the equivalent of "king") marched on Rome itself. Celtic forces routed the Roman army at Allia, then went on to overrun and sack Rome, destroying everything except the Capitol.

The Celtic sack of Rome had a profound long-term effect on the Roman collective psychology. Even centuries later, after the rise of Roman power and after Rome had subjugated most of the Celtic kingdoms, fear of the Celtic threat persisted and influenced Rome's aggressive foreign policy.

See also ETRUSCAN-ROMAN WARS, EARLY.

Further reading: Peter Berresford Ellis, *Celt and Roman: The Celts of Italy* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998).

Rome, March on

See FASCIST MARCH ON ROME.

Rome, Republican Revolt in

See ETRUSCAN-ROMAN WARS, EARLY.

Rome, Vandal Sack of

See VANDAL SACK OF ROME.

Rome, Visigothic Sack of

See VISIGOTHIC SACK OF ROME.

Roses, Wars of the (1455–1487)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Two houses of the English nobility—the Yorks vs. the Lancasters.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: The intrigue and fighting was continuous.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: These were dynastic conflicts, fought between two factions both to seize immediate control of the kingdom and to achieve an uncontested claim to the throne.
OUTCOME: In effect, the wars led to the founding of a new ruling house, the Tudor family, whose monarchs were to bring strong and relatively stable government to England.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but concentrated in the partisan nobility
TREATIES: None

Less a series of wars in the traditional sense, the Wars of the Roses were a sequence of intrigues, rebellions, and attacks that took place over the dozen years from 1455 and 1487, in three distinct stages. Between 1455 to 1464, what began as a battle between rival factions under the weak Lancaster king Henry VI (1421–71) became in the end a war for possession of the crown, which settled briefly on the head of House of York candidate Edward IV (1442–83). In the second phase, from 1469 to 1471, renewed factional wrangling led to dynastic war between Edward IV and supporters of Henry VI, who was (also briefly) restored to the throne. The final stage, from 1483 to 1487, consisted of outright dynastic war and led to the accession of Henry VII (1457–1509), the first Tudor king. The wars are familiar to the English reading public as the backdrop and sometimes subject of a number of Shakespeare's historical plays, best known among them, perhaps, *Richard III*. They were first called the "Wars of the Roses" many years later by Tudor propagandists—the idea being that the warring houses of Lancaster (represented by a red rose) and York (represented by a white rose) had been reconciled in the Tudor ascendancy, thus replacing an insecure age of upheaval and unrest by orderly times of peace and prosperity.

Although both the Lancasters and the Yorks had some claim to the monarchy through descent from the sons of Edward III (1312–77), a Lancaster had actually sat on the throne since 1399. If it had not been for the near anarchy rampant in England during the middle of the 15th century, the Yorkists might never have made a bid for power. But after the death of Henry V (1387–1422), the Lancasters did not acquit themselves well in France, where the HUNDRED YEARS' WAR ground to a halt, having done little for the English but bankrupt the government and discredit Lancastrian rule. Great lords with private armies commanded the English countryside, where lawlessness ran rife and taxation hung heavy. The catalysts of struggle between York and Lancaster lay in the long minority of Henry VI. Henry proved to be a simpleton, slouching toward madness, and was from the start under the thumb of his ambitious queen, Margaret of Anjou (c. 1430–82). Her party, the Beauforts, had allowed the English position in France

to deteriorate and caused the English themselves to turn to the Yorkists with the fall of Bordeaux in 1453.

That year Henry lapsed into insanity, causing a powerful baronial cabal, backed by Richard Neville (the "Kingmaker"; 1428–71), earl of Warwick, to make its move. The barons invested Richard (1411–60), duke of York, as protector of the realm. When Henry recovered his sanity in 1455, he brought the Beauforts back to court, reestablishing Margaret's authority. York took up arms, in self-protection as well as ambition. At the battle of St. Albans on May 22, 1455, York proved victorious, and an uneasy truce followed. Civil war broke out again four years later, when York rose once more in rebellion. The Yorkists had some initial success before they scattered following defeat at Ludford Bridge on October 12, 1459. Many fled to France, where Warwick was regrouping the Yorkist forces. In June 1460, they returned to England, where Warwick and Richard's son and heir Edward (1470–83) decisively defeated the Lancastrian forces at Northampton on July 10. Thereafter, York tried to lay claim to the throne but settled instead for the right to succeed upon the death of Henry. Because this effectively disinherited King Henry's son, also named Edward, Queen Margaret continued her strident opposition.

Gathering forces in northern England, Margaret led the Lancastrians on a surprise attack and killed York at Wakefield in December. She then marched south toward London, defeating Warwick on the way at the Second Battle of St. Albans on February 17, 1461, which left the Yorkist cause in the hands of the 18-year-old Edward of York. On February 2, he had defeated a Lancastrian force at Mortimer's Cross, and now he too was marching on London. Arriving before Margaret on February 26, within the week the young duke of York was proclaimed King Edward IV at Westminster, on March 4. Then, with what was left of Warwick's army, Edward chased Margaret north to Towton, where they would fight the bloodiest battle of the war. At Towton, Edward won a complete victory for the Yorkist cause. Henry, Margaret, and their son Prince Edward fled to Scotland. The first stage of the Wars of the Roses drew to a close as the fighting waned, except for seesaw struggles for the castles of Northumbria between 1461 and 1464 and the reduction of a few pockets of Lancastrian resistance, such as the battles of Hedgeley Moor and Hexham in April–May 1464.

The next round grew from disputes within the Yorkist ranks. Warwick and Edward fell out over foreign policy, and Warwick and his cronies found themselves increasingly passed over at court. Soon Warwick was fomenting rebellion with the king's ambitious brother George (1449–78), duke of Clarence. By 1469 civil war had broken out once more as Warwick and Clarence backed risings in the north. By July, they had defeated Edward's supporters at Edgecote (near Banbury), and soon they took the king himself prisoner. However, Edward was rescued by March 1470. He regained control of his government and forced the conspirators to flee to France. There they allied themselves with the French king Louis XI (1423–83) and their former enemy, Margaret of Anjou.

Warwick and Clarence returned to England in September 1470, defeated and deposed Edward, and restored the crown to Henry VI. Edward himself now fled with his supporters to the Netherlands. Securing aid from Burgundia, he returned to England in March 1471. Edward outmaneuvered Warwick long enough to regain the loyalty of his brother, the duke of Clarence. The two joined forces to defeat Warwick at Barnet on April 14. That same day, Margaret landed at Weymouth. When she learned of Warwick's disastrous defeat, she turned west and rushed toward the safety of Wales. But Edward's army beat hers to the River Severn; at the battle of Tewkesbury on May 4 Edward captured Margaret, destroyed her forces, and put her son to death. Shortly afterward, he had Henry VI murdered in the Tower of London.

Edward's throne was safe for the rest of his life, but when he died in 1483 his brother, Richard (1461–83), the duke of Gloucester, disregarded the claims of his nephew, the young Edward V, and had himself crowned Richard III. In doing so, he alienated many Yorkists, his only natural constituency. These men now turned to the House they had so long opposed and to the last hope of the Lancastrians, Henry Tudor (later Henry VII). Backed by the Yorkist defectors, allied with the French, Henry rebelled. As all readers of William Shakespeare know, Henry defeated and killed Richard at Bosworth Field (on August 22, 1485). The next year Henry married Edward IV's daughter Elizabeth of York (1466–1503) thus uniting the Yorkist and Lancastrian claims. There was still some persuading to do, some malcontents to put down. It was only when Henry defeated a Yorkist rising supporting the pretender Lambert Simnel (*see* SIMNEL'S REBELLION) on June 16, 1487, that what Henry's descendants would call the Wars of the Roses came to a close.

More recent historians have downplayed the significance of these wars, claiming that the Tudor writers and later historians following their lead exaggerated the level of casualties and the extent of the disorder they caused. Most of the fighting was limited not merely to the nobility but to the two factions and those most closely associated with them, so that even at the height of the fighting, most common people continued about their everyday business. The conflicts did not much disrupt the growing prosperity and the rising standard of living of ordinary men and women in England in the second half of the 15th century, though the political crisis they created no doubt had a larger effect. Their most lasting impact was probably to produce the new dynasty of the Tudors—a lusty, expansive, and confident lot who would take England to glories no previous rulers, Lancaster or York, would have imagined possible.

See also BUCKINGHAM'S REVOLT; CADE'S REBELLION; WARWICK'S REBELLION.

Further reading: Anthony Goodman, *The Wars of the Roses* (London: Routledge, 1981); A. J. Pollard, *The Wars of the Roses* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1988); John Gillingham, *The Wars of the Roses: Peace and Conflict in Fifteenth Century England* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1981); B. Alison Weir, *The Wars of the Roses* (New York: Random House, 1996).

Ruandan (Rwandan) Civil War (1959–1961)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tutsi (and Twa) tribe vs. Hutu tribe
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ruanda (Rwanda), Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The oppressed Hutu rebelled against the dominant minority Tutsi.
OUTCOME: The Hutu prevailed, but the stage was set for further civil war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but some 150,000 Tutsis became exiles.
TREATIES: None, except for a UN-sponsored referendum effectively ending Tutsi rule

The German defeat in WORLD WAR II resulted in the transfer of the former East African colony to a Belgian protectorate, Ruanda-Urundi, under the aegis of the United Nations. In 1959, after UN-supervised elections, the Belgian administrators granted self-government to Ruanda-Urundi. This sparked a revolt of the long-suppressed and long-oppressed Hutu against the Tutsi (Watusi). The Tutsi traditionally dominated the region, culturally and economically as well as in government, even though they constituted only 15 percent of the population. The Hutu, the majority tribe, were long held in servitude by the Tutsi. As the Tutsi moved to seize the power granted by Belgium, the Hutu commenced a war not only against the Tutsi but their allies the Twa (pygmies).

The war was bloody and bitter, but the Hutu prevailed. In a 1961 UN-sanctioned referendum, the vast majority of Ruandans voted to depose the Tutsi king and replace him with a republic. On July 1, 1962, Ruanda officially became independent. Following the elections and independence some 150,000 Tutsis went into exile. Many of them would invade their former country in 1963. This and other Tutsi-Hutu conflicts became the basis of the disastrous RWANDAN CIVIL WAR of 1990–94.

Further reading: Alain Destexhe, *Rwanda and Genocide in the Twentieth Century* (New York: New York University Press, 1996); Mahmood Mamdani, *When Victims Become Killers: Colonialism, Nativism, and the Genocide in Rwanda* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 2002); Gerard Prunier, *The Rwanda Crisis: History of a Genocide* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1995).

Ruandan Civil War *See* RWANDAN CIVIL WAR.

Russian-Bulgarian War (969–972)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kievan Russia vs. Bulgaria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bulgaria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Kievan prince Sviatoslav sought territorial conquest.
OUTCOME: Some of Bulgaria fell to Sviatoslav, who, however, provoked war with the Byzantine Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This war is important because it relates to the BYZANTINE-RUSSIAN WAR of 970–972, which erupted over a dispute as to how Bulgaria should be divided between Russia and the Byzantine Empire. During 967–969, combined Russian and Byzantine forces invaded Bulgaria. In 969, Kievan Russians led by Prince Sviatoslav (d. 972) sought to exploit the disarray in Bulgaria created by the death, in 927, of the Bulgarian czar Symeon (d. 927). Sviatoslav led an army into Bulgaria, took Philippopolis, then captured the new Bulgarian ruler, Boris II (d. 984). After this, the Russians overran the country. The Bulgarians resisted, but it was ultimately Russia's erstwhile Byzantine ally that transformed the war into one between Byzantium and Russia. The Byzantine emperor, John Tzimisces (925–976), moved in 970 to check the Russian advance. This resulted in exhausting and inconclusive combat for the next two years.

Further reading: R. J. Crampton, *A Concise History of Bulgaria* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997).

Russian Civil War (1425–1453)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Internecine dispute within Muscovy (ancient Russia) and between Muscovy and the Tartars
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Muscovy (Russia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the throne of Muscovy
OUTCOME: Ultimately, the reign of Ivan III the Great was assured.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The reign of Basil II (1415–62) was marked by universal anarchy in Russia. He came to the throne at age 10 as grand prince of Moscow following the death of his father, Basil I (1371–1425), in 1425. Immediately, the boy's uncle, Yuri (d. c. 1434), attempted to seize control of Russia with the support of the Tartars. This put him in opposition to the *boyars* (nobility), who supported Basil II. However, in 1432, the boyars suddenly transferred their allegiance to Yuri because of a dispute over an arranged marriage between Basil and a boyar girl. Assisted by the boyars, Yuri managed to seize control of Moscow, but his death in 1434 abruptly ended his royal ambitions. His ineffectual son, also named Yuri (d. after 1432), halfheartedly attempted to capitalize on his father's gains but was quickly defeated, taken captive, and blinded.

In 1446, Dimitri Shemiaka (d. 1453), another of Yuri's sons, prince of Galicia (part of Poland), allied himself with other princes and effectively conquered Muscovy in 1446. Basil, captured, was blinded—but, inexplicably, Dimitri Shemiaka restored Basil to the throne in 1447.

In 1447 and, again in 1451, the Tartars invaded, the second invasion reaching the walls of Moscow itself. The defeat of Yuri and his son left the Tartars as Basil II's only significant threat. The Muscovites managed to repel the Tartar invasions, successfully defending the walled city of Moscow, even though the Tartars sporadically gained the advantage and even once captured Basil, holding him for an exorbitant ransom.

During the 1450s, Basil II's son Ivan (1440–1505) invaded Galicia, defeating Dimitri Shemiaka and forcing him into exile at Novgorod. Despite his blindness, Basil began to unify Muscovy, laying the foundation for the empire that would grow under the rule of Ivan—as Czar Ivan III (the Great).

Further reading: Robert O. Crummey, *The Formation of Muscovy, 1304–1613* (London: Longman, 1991); Geoffrey A. Hasking, *Russia and the Russians: A History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2001).

Russian Civil War (1604–1613)

See TIME OF TROUBLES, RUSSIA'S.

Russian Civil War (1917–1922)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: "Red" Soviet (communist, Bolshevik) revolutionary government vs. "White" czarist counterrevolutionaries (with varied foreign interventions)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia, Siberia, and the Baltic states (Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Following the communist victory in the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917, this civil war was essentially a counterrevolution to overthrow the new Soviet (communist) regime.
OUTCOME: The counterrevolution was defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Soviet Red Army, 5,427,273 (but only 498,891 effective peak strength); White, 317,800 effective peak strength
CASUALTIES: Soviet Red Army, 418,768 battle deaths, 283,079 deaths from disease and other causes, 536,725 wounded; Whites, 175,000 battle deaths, 150,000 deaths from disease and other causes
TREATIES: None

Almost immediately following the triumph of the communist regime in the BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION (1917), the Don Cossacks revolted on December 9, 1917, in the first organized counterrevolutionary opposition. These men joined czarist loyalists known as the Whites by the end of 1917 and created an army of 3,500, which soon grew to about 5,000 and repeatedly engaged Bolshevik militia forces over an 80-day period called the First Kuban Campaign, or the Ice March. The most experienced of the White commanders, General Lavr Kornilov (1870–1918), fell in battle on April 13, 1918, but the White forces continued to grow. Under General Anton Denikin (1872–1947), some 9,000 counterrevolutionary troops rallied by the summer of 1918, including 3,500 fierce Cossacks. With these troops, Denikin launched the Second Kuban Campaign and by October had seized the Kuban region from Bolshevik control. Following this triumph, the White ranks swelled to 40,000, and a full-scale civil war was at hand.

Encouraged by the success of the counterrevolutionary movement, a number of foreign powers, hostile to the Bolsheviks, intervened on behalf of the Whites. Japan occupied Vladivostok in December 1917 and committed 74,000 soldiers to action in Siberia. Small numbers of French and Greek troops fought in the Ukraine and occupied Odessa until April 8, 1919. A combined U.S., British, and French expeditionary force seized the ports of Murmansk (June 23, 1918) and Archangel (August 1, 1918), retrieving materiel they had sent to the now-fallen czar. This materiel they now turned over to the Whites. Yet the commitment by the major powers to the civil war was never compelling, and the Americans (some 5,800 men) were withdrawn in August 1919 from northern Russia after losses of 144 killed in action, 100 dead from other causes, and 305 wounded. French and British forces withdrew in September and October—the Royal Navy having done considerable damage to Bolshevik naval forces on the Baltic. Two Russian battleships were sunk, as were five destroyers, two submarines, a cruiser, and a submarine depot ship. The British lost one submarine, two destroyers, and 10 smaller craft.

In August 1918, the United States deployed 8,358 men—two regiments—to Siberia, less to aid the Whites directly than to prevent the Japanese from seizing the Russian Maritime Provinces should the Bolsheviks prove victorious. The Americans reinforced 4,000 Canadian, 3,000

French, and 2,000 British troops already in place. These forces engaged in skirmishes with the Bolsheviks for two years before withdrawing in April 1920. By that time, the Japanese had mostly withdrawn, though they did not completely evacuate Siberia until October 25, 1922. While few casualties were suffered among the foreign and Bolshevik forces in these engagements, Bolshevik partisans attacked the pro-czarist stronghold of Nikolaevsk on May 25, 1920, killing 700 Japanese troops and slaughtering as many as 6,000 civilians.

Although the major foreign powers did not throw major troop support behind the White cause, they did contribute significant quantities of munitions. The Whites also received aid from the so-called Czech Legion, 50,000 poorly equipped but experienced troops formerly belonging to the Austro-Hungarian army who had recently been released from World War I prisoner-of-war camps. The legion seized control of the Trans-Siberian Railroad in June 1918 and advanced along the line into eastern Russia. As they approached Yekaterinburg, the village in which Bolshevik partisans were holding the deposed czar, Nicholas II (1868–1918), his wife, and children, the partisans apparently panicked and summarily executed the royal family. In this sense, the last of the Romanov dynasty fell victim not to the Bolshevik Revolution but to the civil war that followed.

As the Czechs and Whites pressed their offensive, a provisional anti-Soviet government was established at Omsk. Former Imperial Russian navy admiral Alexander Kolchak (1874–1920) seized control of the Omsk government and thereby effectively proclaimed himself head of the White government. Rallying to him, the Whites advanced deeply into eastern Russia with an army of about 120,000 men. In December 1918, this force captured Perm and took some 30,000 Bolshevik prisoners.

The White momentum of late 1918 continued into the next year. Ufa fell in the spring of 1919 and was followed by the wanton massacre of 670 Bolshevik prisoners of war. Thinly deployed across a 700-mile front, the Whites continued to advance until Leon Trotsky (1879–1940), one of the primary architects of the Bolshevik Revolution, at last organized a truly effective Red Army force of 119,214 men. Beginning in late April, General Mikhail Tukhachevsky (1893–1937) led this army in a counteroffensive against the Whites, compelling Kolchak to make a long fighting retreat through the summer and fall of 1919.

On June 6, 1919, the Red Army's most distinguished commander, Mikhail Frunze (1885–1925), retook Ufa, killing about 3,000 White soldiers. Throughout the fall, Kolchak's forces suffered one defeat after another, losing nearly 20,000 killed or wounded during September–October. Kolchak himself was captured and executed on February 7, 1920, and about 40,000 Whites became POWs. In the meantime, the Czech Legion fought an eastward retreat along the Trans-Siberian Railroad, reaching Vladivostok, from which 57,459 men (the entire legion and associated units) were evacuated and thereby removed from the fighting. This left only the so-called White Guards, mostly Cossacks, in Siberia. The White Guards became a much-feared guerrilla force that murdered untold thousands of civilians.

While fighting, often irregular and disorganized, raged in Siberia, Red forces took the offensive in the Baltic, invading Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia during 1918–19. German and Allied troops, bitter enemies in the just-concluded World War I, were sent to the Baltic States, forcing the Bolsheviks to withdraw back into Russia by spring 1919. Estonia then became a staging area for a White counteroffensive. A White army of 18,500 marched across the Estonian frontier into Russia on October 6, 1919, and made a daring assault on Leningrad (St. Petersburg). Trotsky rallied 24,000 civilian defenders from the city. Soon reinforced to a strength of 73,000, these fighters repulsed the White army, forcing it back into Estonia.

A third front of great importance, in addition to Siberia and the Baltic, was the Don River region in the Ukraine and southern Caucasus. Here Trotsky built up his largest Red Army force, 380,000 combat-capable troops, by January 1919. Fighting on this huge front was exceptionally fierce and at first greatly favored the Whites. The northern Caucasus fell to the Whites by early 1919, Tsaritsyn (later Stalingrad) was conquered on June 17, 1919, and 40,000 Reds became POWs. Kiev, capital city of the Ukraine, was taken by White forces on September 2. By this time the Whites had found a powerful ally in Ukrainian nationalists, who turned their wrath not only against the Reds but also against Ukrainian Jews. Estimates of Jews slaughtered by the nationalists vary from 31,071 (the actual burial count) to 100,000, and some estimates reach 200,000.

By October 1919, the White offensive had largely swept the Reds out of southern Russia, and White forces were now on the march to Moscow. At Tula, however, a large city on the road to Moscow, a massive 175,000-man Red Army force counterattacked the White advance of some 100,000 men. The White army collapsed, unit by unit, and began a retreat back into the Ukraine. The Reds pursued, and, on December 17, 1919, retook Kiev. The White army retreated all the way to the Black Sea, where its survivors were evacuated by Allied ships in March 1920. A small White force under General Peter Wrangel (1878–1928) remained in Crimea, but otherwise the counterrevolution seemed to have been defeated.

The sudden demands of the Russo-Polish War (1919–1920) briefly revived White hopes. Wrangel rebuilt an army of 40,000 and went on a new offensive north of the Sea of Azov. Unfortunately for Wrangel, however, the war with Poland soon ended, allowing Trotsky to release more Red Army troops against the offensive. General Frunze led about 130,000 Reds in a vast sweep of the

Crimea, driving Wrangel and the entire remainder of the White military as well as many sympathizing civilians, a total of 145,693 men, women, and children, to seek evacuation to Constantinople aboard a fleet of 126 British ships. With the end of the evacuation on November 15, 1920, the major phase of the Russian Civil War ended—although sporadic and disorganized violence, mostly from anarchists, continued into 1922.

Further reading: Orlando Figes, *A People's Tragedy: The Russian Revolution, 1891–1924* (New York: Penguin, 1998); W. Bruce Lincoln, *Red Victory: A History of the Russian Civil War* (New York: Da Capo, 1999); Evan Mawdsely, *The Russian Civil War* (Edinburgh, U.K.: Berlinn, 2001); Rex A. Wade, *The Bolshevik Revolution and the Russian Civil War* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2000).

Russian Conquest of Buryat Mongols

See RUSSIAN CONQUEST OF CENTRAL ASIA.

Russian Conquest of Central Asia

(1604–1689)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. peoples of the region and the Manchu Chinese
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Asia and the Chinese frontier
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Territorial expansion and conquest
OUTCOME: The Russians were remarkably successful in expanding their holdings until the Manchu retaliated in the border country; here, the Russians backed down after a long war of raiding and attrition.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Nerchinsk, 1689

Russian expansion into Central Asia began with the founding of the settlement of Tomsk on the middle Yenisei River. From here, Russian settlement progressed, sometimes violently, to the upper Yenisei, where Yaniseisk, a fort, was built in 1618. In 1628, Russian expansion had reached the middle Lena River. Kirensk was founded in 1630, followed two years later by Yakutsk. In 1639, Russian settlement reached the Sea of Okhotsk, the first Russian outpost on the Pacific.

Throughout the 1640s, culminating in 1652, Russian armies fought the Buryat Mongols, ultimately defeating them and thereby gaining control of Lake Baikal and the surrounding territory. Simultaneously, during 1643–46, Russian forces set out from Yakutsk and reached the Chinese frontier. In 1644, they were at the mouth of the Kolyma River, which put Russia into contact with the Arctic Ocean. Two new settlements were established, Okotsk in 1648 and Irkutsk and Khabarovsk in 1651. With this, commander Verofey Khabarov (fl. 17th century) erected forts throughout the Amur Valley and, to the north, the land of the Daur.

Russian penetration to the doorstep of China touched off skirmishes and pitched battles from 1653 to 1685. Although the Manchus had little enough interest in the Amur Valley, they were outraged by the persecution of Chinese settlers at the hands of Russian conquerors in the region. This prompted frequent Manchu raids against Russian positions in the valley. The ceaseless raiding wore the Russians down, and in 1660 a Manchu army forced the Russians out of the Amur Valley. This triggered a three-year war between Russia and Manchu China (1683–85). The result was the permanent ouster of the Russians from the Amur region. Russian czar Peter I (the Great; 1672–1725), ruling jointly with his half brother Ivan V (1682–96), concluded the Treaty of Nerchinsk with the Manchus in 1689, which brought peace and prosperous trade between China and Russia for some 175 years.

See also RUSSIAN-MANCHU WAR (1660) and RUSSIAN-MANCHU WAR (1683–1685).

Further reading: Fred W. Bergholz, *Partition of the Steppe: The Struggle of the Russians, Manchus, and the Zunghar Mongols to Empire in Central Asia, 1619–1758* (New York: Peter Lang, 1993); Robert K. Massie, *Peter the Great: His Life and World* (New York: Ballantine, 1981).

Russian Conquest of Finland

See RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR.

Russian Conquest of Merv

(1884–1885)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Merv
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Merv, Turkmenistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russian colonial expansion
OUTCOME: Merv fell in a sustained campaign.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By 1881, Russia had annexed virtually the entire Transcaspian Region (*see* RUSSIAN CONQUESTS IN CENTRAL ASIA [1864–1881]). The only Moslem principality of Central Asia that retained its independence was Merv. Once the Russians established control elsewhere in the region, the surrender of Merv became inevitable. A sustained campaign during 1884–85 resulted in the annexation of the principality and pushed the Russian border to the

doorstep of Afghanistan. This heightened tension between the Russians and the British, since their colonial interests now threatened to encroach on one another.

Further reading: Geoffrey A. Hosking, *Russia and the Russians: A History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2001); Dominic Lieven, *Empire: The Russian Empire and Its Rivals* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2002).

Russian Dynastic War (972–980)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Struggle among heirs to the medieval Russian throne, Oleg, Yaropolk, and Vladimir
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia and Kiev
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sole possession of the Russian throne
OUTCOME: After defeating and killing Oleg, Yaropolk was in turn defeated, then executed, by Vladimir, who become sole ruler of Russia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Russia in the Middle Ages was a fragmented, feudal realm, and when the powerful Prince Sviatoslav (d. 972) died in 972, he left Russia in the hands of his three sons, Oleg (d. 977?), Yaropolk (d. c. 979), and Vladimir (956–1015). Almost immediately, they began to fight each other for sole possession of the throne. Combat was indecisive until 977, when Yaropolk's Kievan forces defeated Oleg's Drevlian army, and Oleg apparently fell in battle; his death was not confirmed, but he disappeared forever. Alarmed by Yaropolk's success, Vladimir sought an alliance with Scandinavia but managed only to recruit the costly services of Norse mercenaries. It proved a sound investment. Vladimir used them to obtain control of Polotsk in 978 and the following year Novgorod as well. In 980, Vladimir's forces marched on Kiev and took Yaropolk prisoner. He then surrendered Kiev without giving battle—and was soon executed, leaving Vladimir sole ruler of feudal Russia.

Further reading: Paul Dukes, *A History of Russia: Medieval, Modern, Contemporary, 882–1996* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1998); Lawrence N. Langer, *Historical Dictionary of Medieval Russia* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press, 2002); David Nicolle, *Medieval Russian Armies 838–1252* (London: Osprey, 1999).

Russian Dynastic War (1015–1025)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Struggle among the heirs of Grand Prince Vladimir (with Polish intervention)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kiev and Novgorod
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the thrones of Kiev and Novgorod
OUTCOME: Yaroslav emerged triumphant over his brothers.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Like his father Sviatoslav (d. 972), before him (*see* RUSSIAN DYNASTIC WAR [972–980]), Grand Prince Vladimir (956–1015) left on his death in 1015 a Russia divided among contending heirs—a situation that created inevitable conflict.

Vladimir's nephew Sviatopolk (d. 1021) sought sole rule and did not hesitate to murder his younger brothers Boris and Gleb (both died 1015) immediately following his uncle's death. This made him sole ruler of Kievan Russia and earned him the sobriquet of "the Damned"). In the meantime, however, another of Sviatopolk's brothers, Yaroslav (d. 1054), heir to the Novgorod throne, marched on Kiev, attacked Sviatopolk, and sent him fleeing to Poland to the protection of his father-in-law, Boleslav I (d. 1054). With Boleslav, Sviatopolk recruited a large army—precise numbers unknown—and invaded Russia, driving Yaroslav's forces back into Kiev, then all the way back to Novgorod.

In this way, Sviatopolk regained Kiev, but, always treacherous, suddenly betrayed his father-in-law and turned against his Polish allies. This gave Yaroslav an opening to counterattack Sviatopolk. He deftly allied his forces to those of the spurned Poles and attacked Kiev, defeating Sviatopolk, who was killed in battle. Yaroslav was now grand prince of Kiev and Novgorod. Subsequently, yet another heir, Mstislav (d. 1036), successfully fought Yaroslav for a portion of the realm. Yaroslav drove him east of the Dnieper, where Mstislav ruled independently until his death. However, Yaroslav remained sole ruler of Kiev and Novgorod.

Further reading: Paul Dukes, *A History of Russia: Medieval, Modern, Contemporary, 882–1996* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1998); Lawrence N. Langer, *Historical Dictionary of Medieval Russia* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press, 2002); Robert Mitchell and Nevill Forbes, trans., *Chronicle of Novgorod,* 1016–1471 (New York: Best Books, 1914).

Russian-Krim Tartar War

See RUSSIAN-TARTAR WAR.

Russian-Manchu War (1660)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Manchu China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Manchu borderlands

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Manchu sought to prevent a Russian invasion.
OUTCOME: The Russians were ejected from the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the course of the RUSSIAN CONQUEST OF CENTRAL ASIA (1604–89) Russian attacks along the Manchu borderlands resulted in a strong retaliation by Manchu forces. Little is known about military operations in this region at the time, but, within a brief span, Russian troops were pushed out of the Amur River area and also from positions occupied near the Sungari River.

Further reading: Geoffrey A. Hosking, *Russia: People and Empire, 1552–1917* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1996).

Russian-Manchu War (1683–1685)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Manchu China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Amur Valley, near the Manchu border
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Manchus reacted to Russian persecution of Manchu and Chinese settlers in the Amur Valley.
OUTCOME: The Russians were ejected from the valley for a second time.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Nerchinsk, 1689

During the late phase of the RUSSIAN CONQUEST OF CENTRAL ASIA (1604–89), Russians reoccupied the Amur Valley, from which they had been ousted in the RUSSIAN-MANCHU WAR (1660). They conducted a program of persecution of Chinese and Manchu settlers in the region. This provoked a response from Manchu China in the form of frequent raids against Russian settlers in the valley. The Manchus intensified the raiding, ultimately conducting well-developed military campaigns against the Russians, whom, for a second time, they had succeeded in driving out of the Amur Valley. Four years later, the Treaty of Nerchinsk established a prosperous peace between Russia and China, based on trade and enduring for some 175 years.

Further reading: Geoffrey Hosking, *Russia: People and Empire, 1552–1917* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1996).

Russian Rebellion against the Mongols (1381–1382)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongols (White Horde) vs. Russians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern and central Russia, especially Moscow and environs
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The White Horde conquered much territory, including Russia, but failed to hold onto it.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Across a broad front, the Russians mounted a rebellion against their Mongol occupiers beginning in 1381. However, within a year, Toktamish (r. c. 1376–c. 1395), who had become khan of the White Horde—thanks to the support of the great Tamerlane—suppressed the rebellion in northern and central Russia. On August 23, 1382, Toktamish overran and captured Moscow, unleashing wholesale slaughter within the city.

Fortunately for the Russians, Toktamish soon turned against Tamerlane, and the forces of the two fell to fighting during 1385–95. Under Dmitri Donskoi (1350–89), Russia was able to regain not only Moscow but many other holdings lost to the Mongols.

Further reading: David Christian, *A History of Russia, Central Asia and Mongolia:* vol. 1, *Inner Eurasia from Prehistory to the Mongol Empire* (London: Blackwell, 1999); Charles J. Halperin, *Russia and the Golden Horde: The Mongol Impact on Medieval Russian History* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987); Geoffrey A. Hosking, *Russia and the Russians: A History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2001).

Russian Revolution (The Revolution of 1762) (1762)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Catherine I the Great vs. Czar Peter III
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Catherine wanted to depose her husband and become czarina of Russia.
OUTCOME: Catherine succeeded in accomplishing a bloodless coup d'état—although, afterward, Peter III was killed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: None except for Peter III, killed in a "brawl" several days after the coup.
TREATIES: None

Although often called the Revolution of 1762, this brief struggle was a coup d'état by Catherine I (the Great; 1729–96) to overthrow her dim-witted husband, Czar Peter III (1728–62). He had undermined Russian national solidarity by attempting to impose on the Russian Orthodox Church his own Lutheran beliefs and practices. Seeing an opportunity to both save Russia and acquire absolute power, Catherine, a woman of extraordinary intellect and vision, ambitious, ruthless, and pragmatic, conspired with her lover Grigori Orlov (1734–83), a highly placed courtier whose brother Aleksei (1737–1809) was an influential army officer, to win over the army to her cause. When Peter attempted to mount a campaign to assist his native Holstein in its effort to annex Schleswig, his troops, who had no respect for him, refused to join the effort, and the time was therefore ripe for the coup.

While Peter was absent from the royal court, Catherine, Grigori Orlov, and the imperial guard traveled to St. Petersburg, where on July 9, 1762, the Russian senate and the Orthodox Church acclaimed her ascension to the throne. She was crowned czarina almost immediately. From the throne, she quickly proclaimed Peter's removal and led her troops to nearby Oranienbaum, where Peter was staying, to compel his abdication. He did so, without the necessity of bloodshed, on July 10. It is unlikely that the dissolute and feckless Peter would have posed a continuing threat to Catherine's power; however, Aleksei Orlov arranged an altercation a few days later, which resulted in Peter's death. Thus Catherine managed the permanent removal of her husband and rival.

Further reading: Simon Dixon, *Catherine the Great: Profiles in Power Series* (New York: Pearson, 2001); Carolly Erickson, *Great Catherine* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995); Isabel de Madariaga, *Catherine the Great: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2002); Henri Troyat, *Catherine the Great* (New York: New American Library, 1994).

Russian Revolution (1905)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russian peasants, workers and others vs. the czarist government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia, especially St. Petersburg and Moscow
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Various groups had different objectives; the major objective was to liberalize the Russian government.
OUTCOME: The czar promised reform but delivered repression.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: By 1906, 3,611 government officials had been killed, along with about 1,500 soldiers; 15,000 rebels died, and 20,000 were wounded.
TREATIES: None

By the late 19th century, Russia seethed with discontent among many classes, including the rising industrial proletariat and the rural peasantry but also among the nobility and ethnic peoples in the border regions. This discontent intensified during the Russo-Japanese War (1904–05), in which Russia suffered a costly and humiliating defeat that dramatically illustrated the ineptitude and corruption of the old czarist regime.

On January 22, 1905, an Orthodox priest, Father Georgi Gapon (c. 1870–1906), led workers in a march on the czar's Winter Palace in St. Petersburg to present Nicholas II (1868–1918) with a petition of grievances. Unknown to the marchers, the czar was absent at the time, but government troops fired on the unarmed petitioners, killing 70 and wounding perhaps 300 in what became the infamous "Bloody Sunday."

Rage swept Russia, touching off a rash of workers' strikes. When Nicholas's minister of the interior, Vyacheslav Plehve (1846–1904) proposed placating the people with a new moderate constitution, leftists were emboldened to take more extreme action. Plehve, a much-hated reactionary and architect of turn-of-the-century pogroms, was assassinated by a bomb blast on July 28, 1904. Next, during October 20–30, 1905, a general strike gripped all of Russia. During this period of intense ferment, a radical Soviet (council) of Workers' Deputies formed under the leadership of Leon Trotsky (1879–1940), and a more moderate Constitutional Democratic Party was also created. In the meantime, in rural districts, peasants occupied or vandalized the property of their landlords, while the urban proletariat demanded civil rights reforms and general pardons.

Yielding to the advice of his prime minister, Count Sergei Witte (1849–1915), Czar Nicholas II allowed the promulgation of the October Manifesto (on October 30, 1905), which granted broad civil liberties, promised a new constitution, and created an elected Duma, or national parliament.

On the surface, the relatively bloodless revolution seemed to have succeeded. However, the czar had bargained in bad faith and openly supported the "Black Hundreds," right-wing terrorists who assaulted radicals, workers, and other suspected revolutionaries. On December 16, 1905, the czar approved the roundup of some 200 members of the St. Petersburg Soviet. Their arrest and imprisonment effectively crushed the organization but incited the Moscow Soviet to organize a violent insurrection that government troops brutally suppressed after five

days of street combat. As for the Duma, it was dissolved in 1906 after elections produced an anti-czarist majority, even though the government had engineered a narrow franchise to eliminate radical elements.

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Russian Revolution (1917)

See BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION; FEBRUARY (MARCH) REVOLUTION; KORNILOV'S REVOLT.

Russian-Tartar War (1571–1572)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Krim Tartars
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia, especially Moscow
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Krim raided Russia for loot and prisoners to ransom.
OUTCOME: Initial raids were devastating; the Krim were eventually driven out of the country.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Tartars, 40,000; Russian numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Reportedly, 60,000 Muscovites died and 100,000 captives were taken from the city.
TREATIES: None

While Russian czar Ivan IV (The Terrible; 1530–84) was engaged in one of his numerous wars with the Turks (*see* RUSSO-TURKISH WAR [1568–1569]), repulsing an Ottoman invasion of Astrakhan, the khan of the Krim Tartars (a Crimean Tartar group) staged cavalry raids along the Crimean frontier with Russia, then penetrated as far as Moscow itself on May 24, 1571. Mounting a full-scale assault, the Krim breached the walls of the then lightly defended city and burned most of it, save the Kremlin. It is reported that 60,000 Muscovites died in the rampage and 100,000 prisoners were taken before the attackers were finally repulsed in 1572 by Russian forces returned from the Turkish front. Later in the year, the Krim Tartars closed within 30 miles of Moscow but were checked at the Battle of Molodi, during July 29–August 2. The Krim were soundly defeated at a cost of some 3,000 Russian musketeers. Although the Tartars withdrew from Muscovy (the ancient Russian territory), they remained a menace for many more years.

Further reading: Donald Ostrowski, *Muscovy and the Mongols: Cross-Cultural Influences on the Steppe Frontier, 1304–1589* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998); E. H. Parker, *A Thousand Years of the Tartars* (London: Kegan Paul, 2001).

Russo-Afghan War (1885)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Afghanistan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russian-Afghan border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russia and Afghanistan disputed their frontier; Britain contemplated intervention to prevent Russian possession of Afghan routes into India.
OUTCOME: Combat between Russian and Afghan forces was short, sharp, and one-sided (favoring the Russians); threatened British military intervention never materialized; the border dispute was resolved primarily through negotiation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Agreement of September 10, 1885

Disputes over the Russian-Afghan border were frequent in the 19th century, and in 1884, Russian troops occupied the border city of Merv; the following year, they crossed the border and ejected Afghan forces from the Penjdeh region. At this point, the British, who were part of an Anglo-Russian boundary commission established to resolve the Russian-Afghan border dispute, prepared to intervene militarily to protect the city of Herat. This was felt to be essential to the defense of British India. The prospect of British intervention prompted the Russians to back down and agree to an interim settlement, whereby Russian forces would hold their present positions pending ultimate resolution of the border.

On March 30, 1885, Russian troops, violating orders to stay in place, attacked the Afghans at Ak-Teppe, dealing them a severe defeat. The British government decided to withhold a military response and instead negotiated an agreement of September 10, 1885, which gave Russia the Penjdeh district in exchange for Afghan possession of the Zulfkar Pass—the vulnerable gateway to India. Within two years, the Anglo-Russian commission settled the entire Russian-Afghan border dispute.

Further reading: Ludwig W. Adamec, *Historical Dictionary of Afghanistan* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press, 1997); Martin Ewans, *Afghanistan: A Short History of Its People and Politics* (New York: HarperCollins, 2002); Svatopluk Soucek, *History of Inner Asia* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2000).

Russo-Finnish War ("Winter War") (1939–1940)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Soviet Union vs. Finland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Finland

DECLARATION: Russia invaded on November 30, 1939, without a declaration.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Soviets wanted Finland as a buffer zone against anticipated German aggression.
OUTCOME: After a hard-fought 104-day war, costly to the Soviets, Finland surrendered.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Soviet Union, 710,578; Finland, 350,000
CASUALTIES: Soviet Union, 126,875 killed, 264,908 wounded; Finland, 23,157 killed, 43,557 wounded
TREATIES: March 12, 1940

Despite having concluded with Germany a nonaggression pact on August 23, 1939, the Soviet government feared an eventual Nazi invasion and was anxious to secure its borders for defense and to obtain buffer zones to absorb anticipated German attacks. One such buffer zone was secured by invading and annexing the eastern third of Poland, and also by annexing small Baltic and Balkan states. This left only one area of critical vulnerability: The Russo-Finnish border, from which Leningrad (St. Petersburg) lay only 20 miles distant, well within reach of Finnish artillery. All things being equal, the Russian government was willing to respect Finland's independence, but Moscow planners believed that Germany planned to effect a landing in Finland and use it as a base from which to attack into Russia.

At first, the Soviets sought a military alliance with the Finns. This was rejected by the Finnish government as a violation of its policy of neutrality. Although Finland assured Russia that it would oppose any German landings—or, for that matter, any Russian incursion—Russia demanded what it called certain "concrete guarantees," which, as the Finns saw it, violated their neutrality. Negotiations between Finland and the USSR became increasingly heated. Then, on November 26, 1939, four Soviet soldiers were killed, and nine were wounded when seven artillery shells were fired near the Russian village of Manila. According to the Russians, the shells had been fired by the Finns; however, the Finnish artillery was actually stationed so far behind the border that it was impossible for Finland to have fired these shots. Clearly, the incident had been Russian in origin—an excuse to go to war with Finland. The so-called "Manila shots" were the justification for Russia's invasion of Finland on November 30, 1939.

The Russians launched an aerial bombardment of Helsinki on the first day of the war, accompanied by an attack along the Mannerheim Line with seven Soviet divisions. Although outgunned and outnumbered, the Finns had the advantage of superior tactics, which used the snow and rugged terrain to advantage. All along the border, the Soviets were repulsed. Then, under Colonel Paavo Tavela (1897–1973), a Finnish counterattack hit the Soviets hard at Tolvajarvi. By December 23, however, the counterattack had petered out. Still, Soviet losses were heavy: 4,000 killed, 5,000 wounded, compared to only 630 Finns killed and 1,320 wounded.

If Soviet ground forces performed poorly, the Red Air Force produced even more disappointing results. Aircraft flew more than 44,000 sorties and dropped 7,500 tons of ordnance on Finland yet produced no decisive effect.

The Finns refused to remain on the defensive. On the eastern border, the 9th Finnish Division scored a great victory at Suomussalmi during December 11–January 8, destroying two entire Soviet divisions; some 27,500 Red Army soldiers were killed. North of Lake Ladoga, separating Russia and Finland, the Finns attacked at Great Mottis, destroying an entire Soviet division in January 1940.

Yet the Soviets refused to cut their losses. If the Finns had superior commanders and better tactics, the Soviets had almost limitless numbers and Stalin's equally limitless will to commit these numbers to battle, even to slaughter.

Of 2,500 aircraft deployed, the Soviets lost 725; of 3,200 tanks, they lost 1,600. Soviet casualties were staggering—126,875 killed out of 710,578 deployed. Nevertheless, Soviet strength remained far superior, and the Finns knew they could not long hold out. The Finns sued for peace and on March 12, 1940, accepted a Soviet puppet government—although, ostensibly, Finland remained independent. Finland also ceded the strategically valuable Karelian Isthmus and Viipuri. Never happy with the March 12, 1940, treaty, Finland joined the German invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941.

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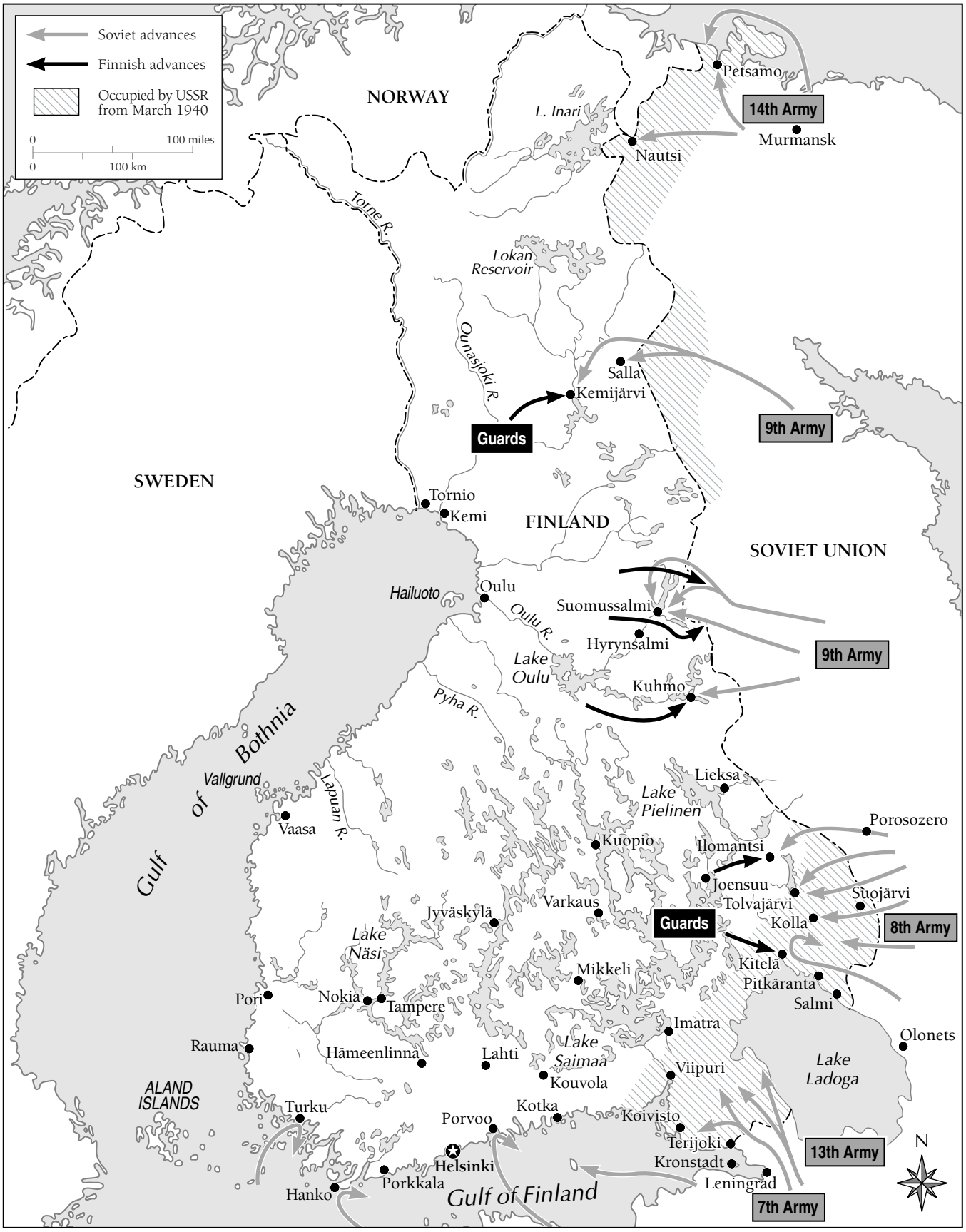
Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Japan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Korea, Manchuria, and the North Pacific
DECLARATION: Began with a surprise Japanese attack on February 8, 1904, after which Russia declared war.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When imperial Russia refused to accept the demands of a Japan grown equally imperial in the previous half-century, the Japanese launched a surprise attack on the Russian fleet, intending to take Manchuria and Korea with a war of expansion.
OUTCOME: Russia was defeated, Japan became a world power, and a naval arms race began that ultimately contributed to World War I.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 1,365,000; Japan, 1,200,000



Russo-Finnish War, 1939–1940

CASUALTIES: Russia, 71,453 killed, 141,800 wounded; Japan, 80,378 killed, 153,673 wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Portsmouth, September 5, 1905.

On February 8, 1904, the Japanese fleet laid siege to a Russian naval squadron anchored at Russian-controlled Port Arthur on the coast of the Liaodong (Liaotung) Peninsula in southern Manchuria. Japan's surprise attack on Russia launched one of the largest armed conflicts the world had ever witnessed, a war that saw the first large-scale use of automatic weapons and in which for the first time in modern history an Asian country defeated a European power.

For half a century Japan had watched with apprehension the Russian Empire expand into eastern Asia, threatening Japan's own imperial designs. Since Russia had begun the construction of the Trans-Siberian Railroad in 1891, it had looked longingly toward China's huge Manchurian province. After the decadent Manchu dynasty lost a war with Japan in 1894, China had entered into an anti-Japanese alliance with Russia, granting the czar rights to extend the railroad across Manchuria to Vladivostok and giving Russia in the process control over an important strip of Chinese territory. In 1898, Russia pressured the Chinese into leasing the strategically important Port Arthur (today called Lu-shun), and in 1903 Czar Nicholas II (1868–1918) reneged on his agreement to withdraw his troops from Manchuria, making the military occupation of the Liao-tung Peninsula permanent. With Russia's navy stationed at Port Arthur and its army occupying the peninsula, it seemed to the Japanese only a matter of time before the czar would stake a claim to Korea, which lay just to the east of Manchuria like a dagger pointed at the heart of Japan.

Since defeating China, Japan had been building up its army, and by the turn of the century it enjoyed a marked superiority over Russia in the number of ground troops in the Far East. All that held the Japanese in check was Great Britain, which ruled the sea with its all-powerful navy. However, Britain abandoned its policy of "splendid isolation"—namely, its refusal to enter into official alliances with any national power—in 1902 and signed a treaty with Japan in order to stop the headlong expansionism of Nicholas II. Confident of Britain's neutrality, Japanese military leaders began planning for the war that world leaders, certainly not unaware of the constantly escalating hostility between Russia and Japan, had long expected.

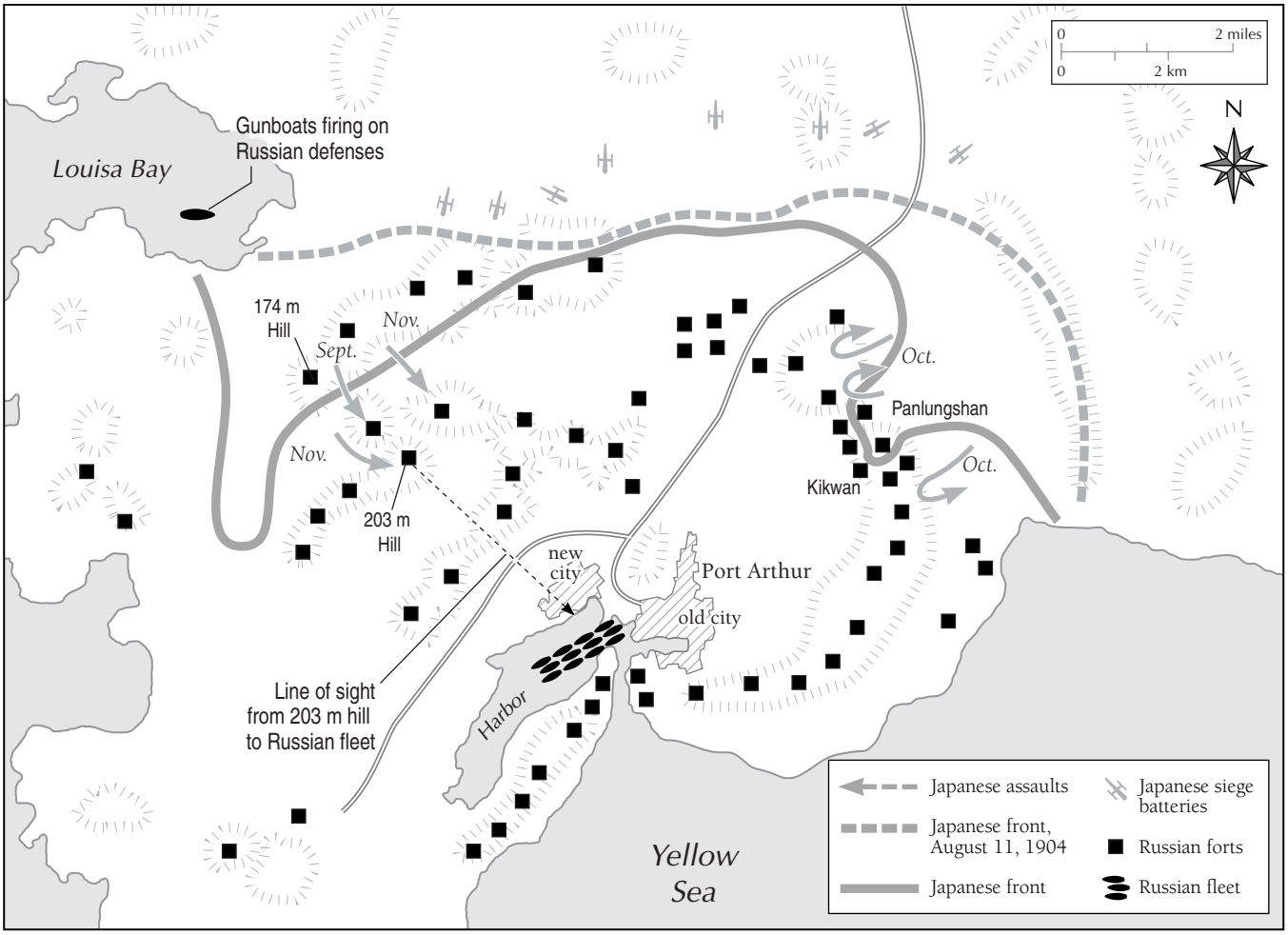
Late in 1903, Russia and Japan undertook talks, with the Japanese proposing that each side should recognize the other's special interests and economic rights in both Manchuria and Korea. But the Russians responded in a desultory fashion, and the Japanese ambassador broke of the negotiations in a fit of pique on February 6, 1904. Three days later Japan sank two Russian warships at Chemulpo (Inchon, Korea) and torpedoed the main Russian fleet at Port Arthur. When the attack came, Japan was a small country little known in the West, and Russia was one of Europe's five Great Powers. Most of the world expected Russia to make short work of the island kingdom. No country, certainly not Japan's newfound ally Britain, much less Russia itself, imagined the Japanese could so easily debilitate the czar's Pacific fleet. However, there was little the czar could do, since the rest of the Russian navy in the area remained icebound at Vladivostok.

More shocking was the speed with which Japan's army overran Korea and crossed the Yalu River into Manchuria. Having achieved superiority at sea, Japan was able to send thousands of troops into both Korea and Manchuria. By May 1 vast areas in those countries belonged to the Japanese, and by September the Russians had been driven north and west to Mukden (Shenyang), and Port Arthur itself was surrounded. Russian ground forces fought back in two bloody but indecisive battles before retreating farther north. After a long, grueling siege, Port Arthur fell on January 5, 1905.

Nicholas, his czarina, and imperial court—all under the influence of the half-crazed monk Grigory Yefimovich Rasputin (c. 1872–1916)—was slow to react to Japanese advances. Yet overmatched and outgunned, Nicholas refused to back down, vaguely trusting in God rather than sound military action to defend the honor and glory of Russia. Before the fall of Port Arthur, Nicholas dispatched his large Baltic Fleet to the Pacific. On its way to Vladivostok, it suffered the same fate as the Pacific fleet the year before. Caught in the straits off the Japanese islands of Tsushima, the Russian navy fought the Battle of Tsushima, which lasted two days and resulted in the complete destruction of the Russian fleet at the cost of three Japanese torpedo boats. Meanwhile, during the same month in Manchuria, the Japanese took the offensive again, winning the Battle of Mukden.

Although many Japanese troops died, within little more than a year, Japan brought the mighty Russian Empire to its knees. The consequences of Japan's great victory were swift and far-reaching. Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919), a U.S. president who scarcely concealed his own imperial ambitions, offered to mediate a peace. A conference was held at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, between August 9 and September 5, 1905, where a peace treaty was signed on September 5, 1905. Japan's conquest of Korea was recognized. It gained control of the Liaotung Peninsula and Port Arthur—and the South Manchurian Railroad that led to Port Arthur. A humiliated Russia meekly agreed to evacuate southern Manchuria.

Within two months of signing the treaty, Nicholas II was faced with a revolution. Ragged Russian workers, starving peasants, and dispirited soldiers rose up en masse to plead for succor from their "Little Father," only to have their pleas and bodies crushed under the hooves of



Siege of Port Arthur, June 1, 1904–January 2, 1905

Cossack horses. Though Nicholas suppressed the RUSSIAN REVOLUTION (1905), he did so only after buying off middle- and upper-class reformers by issuing the October Manifesto, a kind of constitutional charter.

Russia never recovered from the war and the revolution. As for Japan, its victory, costly though it was, proved a turning point for Asia, which awoke to the fact that Europe was not invincible.

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Russo-Lithuanian War *See* RUSSO-POLISH WAR (1499–1503).

Russo-Persian War (1722–1723)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Persia (with the peripheral involvement of the Ottoman Empire)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Caspian coastal region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russia sought to counter Ottoman expansion by occupying as much of Persia as possible.
OUTCOME: Russia acquired significant control of the Caspian Sea, but nearly provoked a war with Turkey.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of St. Petersburg, September 12, 1723

The first quarter of the 18th century saw the almost fatal collapse of Persia, which was invaded by Afghan armies (PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR [1726–38]) and by the Ottomans (TURKO-PERSIAN WAR [1730–36]), as well as the Russians. To counter Ottoman expansion toward the Caspian Sea,

Czar Peter I (the Great; 1672–1725) decided to move against weak, Ottoman-dominated Persia, and he overran and took Derbent in 1722. In 1723, he captured Baku and Resht. The Ottomans responded by invading Georgia (then part of Persia) and taking its capital, Tiflis. This counterthrust moved Peter to conclude the Treaty of St. Petersburg with Persia on September 12, 1723. By this treaty, Russia annexed the Caspian coast between Derbent and Resht, whereas the shah received in return the services of Russian troops to keep order in his unstable kingdom.

The treaty provoked protest from the Ottoman Empire, which, backed by Britain, challenged Russia's acquisition of control of the Caspian Sea. War now threatened to break out directly between Russia and the Ottomans but was averted by the Treaty of Constantinople in 1724, which ceded western Persia to Turkey and northern Persia to Russia, including the Caspian territory gained in the 1722–23 war.

Further reading: Lindsey Hughes, *Russia in the Age of Peter the Great* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2000); Robert K. Massie, *Peter the Great: His Life and World* (New York: Ballantine Books, 1986); David Morgan, *Medieval Persia 1040–1797* (New York: Pearson Education, 1989).

Russo-Persian War (1804–1813)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Persia (and rebel forces in Georgia and Karabakh)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Georgia and Karabakh in the Caucasus
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia sought to aid rebels in these regions to prevent Russian annexation.
OUTCOME: After much inconclusive combat, the decisive Battle of Aslanduz resulted in an overwhelming Persian defeat and the capitulation of Persian and rebel forces.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Aslanduz (October 13, 1812), 10,000 Persians were killed or wounded; two months later, 4,000 Persians died in the fall of Lenkoran.
TREATIES: Treaty of Gulistan, 1813

In 1800, Russia annexed Georgia and Karabakh, regions in the Caucasus that had been controlled by Persia. Resistance was immediate, and rebels within these regions secured Persian aid. Thus, when Russian forces laid siege against rebel-held Erivan in 1804, they were forced into retreat by the arrival of Persian troops commanded by Shah Fath Ali (c. 1762–1835) and Crown Prince Abbas Mirza (1789–1833). The pair had defeated the Russians in a three-day battle at Echmiddzin and thus, unexpectedly, broke through to relieve Evrian.

Following the end of the Erivan siege was a long period of desultory and ultimately inconclusive war, which the Russian czar, Alexander I (1777–1825), sought to end by ordering a massive surprise attack against a Persian army led by Abbas Mirza. The Battle of Aslanduz was a defeat so stunning that the shah of Persia formally ceded Georgia, Karabakh, and additional Caucasian territories to Russia in the 1813 Treaty of Gulistan. The peace did not prove permanent, as war erupted again 12 years later as the Russo-Persian War of 1825–1828.

Further reading: Nicholas Griffin, *Caucasus: Mountain Men and Holy Wars* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2003); Leonid Ivan Strakhovsky, *Alexander I of Russia, the Man Who Defeated Napoleon* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1970); Henri Troyat, *Alexander of Russia: Napoleon's Conqueror* (New York: Grove/Atlantic, 2002).

Russo-Persian War (1825–1828)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Persia vs. Russia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Georgia and Persia
DECLARATION: Persia against Russia, 1825
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia denounced the Treaty of Gulistan and attempted to retake Georgia, which it had ceded to Russia.
OUTCOME: Persia suffered total defeat and was forced to make crippling and humiliating concessions to Russia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Persia, 30,000; Russia, 15,000
CASUALTIES: Persian losses are unknown; Russian battle deaths reached 5,000.
TREATIES: Treaty of Turkomanchi, 1828

The death of Nadir Shah (1688–1747) brought a long decline in the Persian Empire, which became most acute early in the 19th century. Dispute over certain aspects of the Treaty of Gulistan, which ended the Russo-Persian War (1804–1813) and by which Persia ceded Georgia to Russia, Karabakh, and other Caucasian regions, prompted the shah, Fath Ali (1771–1834), to denounce the treaty, especially in the face of Russia's formal annexation of the territory. The treaty abrogated, Persia launched an attack in Georgia with the aim of retaking it, but defeat at the Battle of Ganja (September 26, 1826) ended the offensive ignominiously. Modern Russian artillery created panic throughout the Persian cavalry, the Persian line broke, and the Persians fled.

Taking advantage of the rout at Ganja, Russian forces pursued the retreating Persians into Persia. General Ivan Paskevich (1782–1856) led his troops against Erivan and Tabriz, both of which fell to him in October 1827. To make matters worse for the Persians, the onset of winter caused the army to break up, leaving the Persian capital

city of Tehran vulnerable. Paskevich's army took Tehran and captured the principal Persian artillery arsenal.

With its capital and a major means of its defense in Russian hands, the Persian government capitulated. The shah concluded the Treaty of Turkomanchi, which moved the Persian-Russian border back to the Aras River, conceded to Russia the exclusive right to station warships on the Caspian Sea, levied an indemnity against Persia, and gave to Russia generous commercial and territorial privileges. The defeat put Persia in a much worse situation than it had found itself at the conclusion of the 1804–13 war, and its days as a formidable military power were over. However, the cost to Russia was also great: 5,000 of the 15,000-man army in the region were lost. And there was worse. Although the shah's government had been defeated, Shamil tribesmen waged a chronic guerrilla war in the Caucasus, which proved a severe drain on czarist forces in the region for years to come.

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Russo-Persian War (1911)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Persia (Iran)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Claiming that they were looking out for Russian interests following the Persian Revolution of 1906–09, Russian forces occupied a portion of Persia and backed an abortive counterrevolution. After clashing with revolutionary Persia's American treasurer, the Russians threatened full-scale invasion, unless the American was removed.
OUTCOME: The revolutionary government was overthrown by coup d'état, and the new Persian government acceded to Russian demands for the removal of the American official. The war ended.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This brief conflict was touched off by William M. Schuster (1877–1960), an American hired as the treasurer-general of Persia. His mission was to sort out the nation's finances, which had been left in chaos by the PERSIAN REVOLUTION (1906–1909). In the aftermath of the revolution, Russia sent troops to occupy Kazvin, a city in northern Persia, claiming that the military presence was necessary to protect Russian interests in the city. Schuster protested and clashed with the Russians, pointing out that the Russian occupation violated an Anglo-Russian accord of 1907. Furthermore, it was clear to Schuster that the Russians decided to back an attempt by the former shah of Persia, Muhammad Ali (1872–1925), to carry out a counterrevolution and reclaim control of the country. Although the czarist government had previously opposed Ali, he was preferable to an upstart republic. The counterrevolution failed, but the Russians refused to withdraw their troops and twice presented the new Persian national assembly with demands for Schuster's removal. The assembly rejected the demands in November 1911, and Russian troops committed various atrocities in Tabriz, northern Persia. They next invaded and conquered Azerbaijan, then marched toward the Persian capital, Tehran.

At this point, exploiting the pressure exerted by the Russians, the regency government (which ruled during the minority of Ahmed Shah [1898–1930]) conspired with the cabinet to carry out a coup d'état on December 24, 1911. Once the regents had seized power, they promptly dissolved the revolutionary assembly and established a governing directory. Among the first acts of this body was to accede to the Russian demand for Schuster's withdrawal. With that, the Russians withdrew to Kazvin, and the war ended, but Russia continued to dominate Persian government until the fall of the Romanov dynasty in the BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION of 1917.

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Russo-Polish War (1019–1025)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Boleslav I, duke of Poland, vs. Sviatopolk, deposed Russian ruler of Kiev
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Region near Kiev
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Boleslav enlisted Polish aid in defeating his brother and rival, Yaroslav, grand prince of Novgorod; once this was accomplished, however, Sviatopolk planned to attack his Polish allies.
OUTCOME: The Poles preempted Sviatopolk's attack on them, and Boleslav I defeated Sviatopolk and his army, making large territorial gains in the process.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Yaroslav (d. 1054), grand prince of Novgorod, defeated his brother, Prince Sviatopolk (d. 1021) of Kiev, Sviatopolk sought refuge in the court of Boleslav I (d. 1025), his father-in-law and the ruling duke of Poland. While in Boleslav's court, Sviatopolk roused Boleslav and other Poles to war against Yaroslav with the object of regaining territories earlier lost to Novgorod—and, of course, with the additional object of restoring him to the throne in Kiev.

Boleslav led a Polish army into Russia, engaging Yaroslav in 1020 at the Battle of Bug. After a protracted fight, Boleslav prevailed, advanced into Kiev, restored Sviatopolk to the throne, and occupied the city. No sooner was this accomplished, however, than Sviatopolk bristled under Polish domination. He decided to betray his father-in-law and laid plans to massacre the Polish army of occupation in Kiev. Unfortunately for Sviatopolk, his plan was discovered, which incited the Poles to riot. The Poles looted Kiev, then left the city, with Sviatopolk and his forces in pursuit.

At the Bug River, Boleslav's army suddenly wheeled about and attacked its pursuer. Sviatopolk's army was defeated and retreated to Kiev. Realizing that the Russian army was weak, the Poles laid siege to Kiev, which soon surrendered. Thus Boleslav amassed all territory bounded by the Elbe and the Bug rivers, and from the Baltic Sea to the Danube. Unwilling to rely on military conquest alone, Boleslav solidified his authority by securing papal sanction for his coronation by the archbishop of Ghiezno on December 25, 1024.

Further reading: Janet Martin, *Medieval Russia, 980–1584* (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1995); David Nicolle, *Medieval Russian Armies 838–1252* (London: Osprey, 1999).

Russo-Polish War (1499–1503)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Poland-Lithuania
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland and Lithuania
DECLARATION: Ivan III (the Great) declared war on Alexander I.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ivan III of Russia acted punitively against his son-in-law, Alexander I, king of Poland-Lithuania, for having violated his marriage contract.
OUTCOME: A treaty gave Ivan III all territory he had already conquered and acknowledged him as czar of all Russia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1503, conceding territory and authority to Ivan III

Ivan III (the Great; 1440–1505), grand duke of Moscow, declared war on his son-in-law, Alexander I (d. 1506), king of Poland-Lithuania, over a dispute in Alexander's marriage contract with Ivan. The Russians invaded Poland, causing significant destruction and engaging Lithuanian troops in battle on July 14, 1500. Although the Russians emerged victorious in this battle, they were not able to wrest Smolensk from Lithuanian control. While the struggle for Smolensk was under way, the Livonian Knights—elite independent Polish troops—intervened on behalf of the Lithuanian forces. The Knights defeated the Russians at the Battle of Siritza, then laid siege against Pskov in 1502. However, they failed to take the city, and the resulting inconclusive combat soon exhausted all sides, prompting a treaty in 1503. In the end, Ivan III emerged the winner, retaining all territory he had conquered and earning acknowledgment as czar of all the Russias.

Further reading: Janet Martin, *Medieval Russia, 980–1584* (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1995); Saulius Suziedelis, *Historical Dictionary of Lithuania* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press, 1997).

Russo-Polish War (1506–1508)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Poland and Lithuania
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Border region between Russia and Lithuania
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russia sought to dominate Poland-Lithuania.
OUTCOME: The opponents never engaged in full-scale war; by the time both sides were ready to do so, a truce had been concluded, one mainly beneficial to Russia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Light
TREATIES: Truce of 1508

This was an escalation of a dispute between Sigismund I (1467–1548), duke of Lithuania and king of Poland, and Basil III (1479–1533), grand duke of Moscow. Basil III controlled the services of a number of lesser foreign princes. He ordered them to conduct a major campaign against Lithuania, sparing nothing. As these commanders were on the verge of embarking and as Sigismund I prepared to mount a large-scale defense, some desultory combat took place; however, preparations consumed so much time that by 1508, when the armies were ready to clash, a truce was concluded. By the terms of this agreement, Russia retained all conquered territories. The truce did not resolve the tension between Russia, the Poles, and the Lithuanians, and warfare would resume in the Russo-Polish War (1512–1521).

Further reading: Samuel Fiszman, ed., *Polish Renaissance in Its European Context* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1989); Janet Martin, *Medieval Russia, 980–1584* (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1995); Saulius Suziedelis, *Historical Dictionary of Lithuania* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press, 1997).

Russo-Polish War (1512–1521)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Poland-Lithuania (and Crimean Tatar allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Smolensk, Moscow, Russian-Tartar frontier areas
DECLARATION: Grand Duke Basil III of Moscow against Sigismund I of Poland-Lithuania, 1512
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Basil renewed war against Poland-Lithuania when he discovered a secret agreement between that kingdom and the Tartars.
OUTCOME: Russia gained control of contested Smolensk.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 30,000 Russians lost at the Battle of Orsha
TREATIES: Treaty in 1517 and definitive armistice in 1521

About 1512, Poland concluded a treaty with the Tartars (Crimean Tatars), who agreed to attack their frontier with Muscovy-Byelorussia. The grand duke of Moscow, Basil III (1479–1533), discovered the agreement and decided to reopen the war between his country and Poland-Lithuania that had been fought periodically over more than a decade (*see* Russo-Polish War [1499–1503] and Russo-Polish War [1506–1508]).

Basil began with sieges against Smolensk, which was in Lithuanian hands. Two sieges were mounted in December 1512, both failed to breach the city walls. Basil backed away and conducted raids elsewhere, accumulating other Lithuanian-held territory. Two years after the first sieges, he returned to the gates of Smolensk, mounted a new assault, and took the city in June 1514.

Elsewhere, the Russians did not fare so well. At the Battle of Orsha, some 30,000 Russians fell, and it became apparent to Sigismund I (1467–1548) of Poland-Lithuania that the Russian forces were thinly spread and were vulnerable. In 1517, he persuaded his Tartar allies to attack the Russians at Tula, south of Moscow. To Sigismund's surprise and consternation, the hard-pressed Russians managed to repulse the attack, and the Tartars soon withdrew.

With both sides weary of war, negotiations were commenced. But by this time, border warfare had become virtually reflexive, and even as representatives of Basil III and Sigismund I negotiated, the Tartars continued to clash with the Russians at the Crimean frontier. This warfare at last ceased in 1521, when Basil III obtained a firm armistice that brought Smolensk under his control.

Further reading: Samuel Fiszman, ed., *Polish Renaissance in Its European Context* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1989); Janet Martin, *Medieval Russia, 980–1584* (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1995); E. H. Parker, *A Thousand Years of the Tartars* (London: Kegan Paul, 2001); Saulius Suziedelis, *Historical Dictionary of Lithuania* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press, 1997).

Russo-Polish War (1534–1537)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Poland-Lithuania
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russian-Polish frontier regions
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King Sigismund I of Poland-Lithuania hoped to make territorial gains by exploiting the Russian chaos following the death of Grand Duke Basil III
OUTCOME: The Polish-Lithuanian offensive failed, and the war ended, by a truce, with Russia still in control of contested Smolensk.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Truce concluded in 1537; no larger treaty

The death of Basil III (1479–1533), grand duke of Moscow, put Muscovy in the hands of his widow as regent to his son, Ivan IV (1530–84), who would later rule as "Ivan the Terrible." During his minority (1533–47), Ivan was well schooled in the brutality of Russian politics, living through the intrigue and murder that followed on the death of his father. Rightly fearing danger and treachery from all quarters, especially from her own family, Ivan's mother, Yelena Glinkskaya (d. 1538), ordered mass imprisonments. When Basil's brother was intercepted on the way to Sigismund I (1467–1548) of Poland-Lithuania, traditional foe of Muscovy (*see* Russo-Polish War [1506–1508] and Russo-Polish War [1512–1521]), she had him charged with treason. The seizure of Basil's brother prompted Sigismund to invade Russia and to incite rebellion in frontier regions. Although Sigismund mustered a sizable army, and even in the face of chaos in Muscovy, Polish and Lithuanian forces were forced into retreat. As was often the case, Russian forces prevailed by dint of their size. Smolensk, held by Russia only since the Russo-Polish War of 1512–1521, was retained by Russia, and the inconclusive war was ended with a truce.

Further reading: Samuel Fiszman, ed., *Polish Renaissance in Its European Context* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1989); Janet Martin, *Medieval Russia,*

980–1584 (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1995); E. H. Parker, *A Thousand Years of the Tartars* (London: Kegan Paul, 2001); Saulius Suziedelis, *Historical Dictionary of Lithuania* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press, 1997).

Russo-Polish War (1609–1618)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Poland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russian-Polish frontier and Moscow and environs
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Exploiting Russian weakness during the "time of troubles," Sigismund III of Poland attempted to seize the Russian throne.
OUTCOME: The Poles failed to achieve their principal objective, seizure of the Russian throne, but they did obtain control of Smolensk.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The largest single invasion force was 30,000 Poles; at Smolensk, 70,000 Russian civilians joined 12,000 soldiers in the defense.
CASUALTIES: Russia lost 15,000 killed in the attempt to relieve Smolensk.
TREATIES: 15-year armistice signed on December 1, 1618

The beginning of the 17th century brought a long spasm of violent instability to Russia known as the "time of troubles" (*see* TIME OF TROUBLES, RUSSIA'S), Sigismund III (1566–1632) decided to exploit the time of troubles to usurp the throne of Muscovy for himself, like his grandfather, Sigismund I (1467–1548), king of Poland-Lithuania, had attempted to do during the RUSSO-POLISH WAR (1512–1521), when the death of Grand Duke Basil III left Russia similarly destabilized.

In 1609, Sigismund III led a large army in an invasion of Russia and laid siege to Smolensk. While he did this, he called upon all Poles living in Russia to rise up. Basil IV Shuiski (d. 1612), a Russian warlord, led an army of 30,000 to the relief of Smolensk but was ambushed by a much smaller Polish force under Stanislas Zolkiewski (d. 1620). The Russians were defeated at the Battle of Klushino in September 1610. Basil IV Shuiski fled the field and made for Moscow, where, word of his defeat having preceded him, he was immediately deposed. With the city leaderless, it readily fell to Polish forces on October 8, 1610. (Smolensk would hold out longer, but yielded early the following year.)

Muscovites offered the Russian throne to Ladislas (1595–1648), son of Sigismund III, pursuant to an earlier treaty (Treaty of Smolensk). Surprisingly, Sigismund balked at this; he wanted himself and not his son on the Russian throne. Instead of accepting the Russian offer, he used German troops, in addition to his own Polish forces, to storm the Kremlin and establish his government. This incited a popular uprising among Muscovites and the peasantry of the surrounding area. The Kremlin was attacked; Sigismund responded by burning much of Moscow. This did not lift the siege of the Kremlin. When Sigismund III (who, fortunately for himself, had not yet traveled to the Kremlin in person) sent a force to relieve the Kremlin, Russian citizens intercepted and defeated it. The Kremlin fell to the Russians.

In 1613, a measure of stability was brought to Russia by the election of Michael Romanov (1596–1645) as czar. Defeated and demoralized Polish troops retreated to the frontier, from where they continued to wage sporadic and desultory war. In 1617, Ladislas rallied his forces for a new assault on Moscow. When the attack was defeated, Ladislas agreed to a 15-year armistice on December 1, 1618. At great cost, the Poles had failed to seize the Russian throne but had gained control of long-contested Smolensk. As for Russia, it saw the commencement of the Romanov dynasty, which would endure until the FEBRUARY (MARCH) REVOLUTION and the BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION, both of 1917.

Further reading: Samuel Fiszman, ed., *Polish Renaissance in Its European Context* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1989); Janet Martin, *Medieval Russia, 980–1584* (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1995); E. H. Parker, *A Thousand Years of the Tartars* (London: Kegan Paul, 2001); S. F. Platanov, *The Time of Troubles: A Historical Study of the Internal Crisis and Social Struggle in Sixteenth- and Seventeenth-Century Muscovy* (Lawrence: University Press of Kansas, 1970); Saulius Suziedelis, *Historical Dictionary of Lithuania* (Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press, 1997).

Russo-Polish War (1632–1634)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Poland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Smolensk and environs
DECLARATION: Russia against Poland, 1632
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russian czar Michael Romanov wanted to reclaim sovereignty over Smolensk.
OUTCOME: The Russians were defeated, renounced Smolensk and associated territories but received in return a pledge from Polish king Ladislas IV to make no future claim on the Russian throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 35,000; Poland, 40,000
CASUALTIES: Russia lost 27,000 men, a casualty rate of 77 percent.
TREATIES: Treaty of Polianovka, 1634

The RUSSO-POLISH WAR (1609–1618) ended with a 15-year armistice and the delivery of Smolensk into Polish

hands. With the approaching expiration of the 15-year period, Russian czar Michael Romanov (1596–1645) laid plans for a campaign to recover Smolensk. Although the armistice was not scheduled to expire until 1633, the death of Poland's king, Sigismund III (1566–1632), in 1632 prompted Michael to take action sooner. Arguing that the armistice was valid only during the reigns of both signatories, in September 1632 he ordered Russian troops to lay siege to the walled city of Smolensk. The Poles, who had relied on the armistice, garrisoned Smolensk lightly with only 3,000 men and were therefore overwhelmingly outnumbered. Nevertheless, they defended the city in the expectation of the arrival of a relief force under Poland's Ladislas IV (1595–1648). However, when food and water ran out, the defenders gave up the city after a three-month siege.

In the meantime Ladislas's army engaged and defeated a Russian force under Boris Shein (fl. 17th century), which they pursued to Smolensk. When the Russian took refuge inside the captured city, it was now the Poles who laid siege. After six months, the Russian army surrendered, in February 1634. By that time, only 8,000 of Shein's 35,000 men were still alive.

By the Treaty of Polianovka, Czar Michael Romanov formally ceded Smolensk to Poland, along with the surrounding province and a large swath of the northeastern Baltic coast. On his part, Ladislas willingly renounced all future claims to the Russian throne and acknowledged Michael Romanov as rightful czar. As for Boris Shein, his heroism was poorly rewarded. Back in Moscow, he was seized by the czar, who saw in him the perfect scapegoat. Boris was tried and executed for treason.

Further reading: Samuel Fiszman, ed., *Polish Renaissance in Its European Context* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1989); W. Bruce Lincoln, *The Romanovs: Autocrats of All the Russias* (New York: Dell, 1983).

Russo-Polish War (1654–1656)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Poland (with Tartar aid at the end of 1655)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ukraine, Lithuania, Poland
DECLARATION: Russia on Poland, 1654
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The war began as Cossack retaliation for losses suffered in Chmielnicki's Revolt, 1648–54, but expanded into a Russian attempt to regain Ukraine and make territorial gains in Lithuania.
OUTCOME: Russia made gains in Lithuania before Russia and Poland made an alliance against their common enemy, Sweden.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, more than 100,000; Tartars, 150,000, Poland, numbers far inferior to Russian forces
CASUALTIES: At Vilna (July 28, 1655), 20,000 Lithuanians and Poles died.
TREATIES: Treaty of Nimieza, 1656

After suffering defeat in the Ukraine at the hands of Poland during CHMIELNICKI'S REVOLT, the Cossack leader Bogdan Chmielnicki (c. 1593–1657) allied his Cossack forces with regular Russian troops to attack Polish occupiers of Kiev and Smolensk. This initiated the Russo-Polish War of 1654–1656.

With the Poles under attack in Kiev and Smolensk, Czar Alexis (1629–76) personally led an army of 100,000 against Polish forces in Lithuania. Overwhelming the Poles with superior numbers, Alexis quickly occupied much of Lithuania. In the meantime, Poland was also attacked by Sweden in 1655 (*see* NORTHERN WAR, FIRST), and its forces thus spread even more thinly. Alexis took advantage of this to proclaim himself grand duke of Lithuania, while combined Russian-Cossack armies ranged across the Ukraine, retaking most of the territory that had been yielded to Poland. From the Ukrainian frontier region, these forces also launched a succession of raids into Poland itself; however, in November 1655, a force of 150,000 Tartars under Mahmet Girei (fl. 1650) switched allegiance from Russia to the Poles and attacked Chimielnicki, driving his forces back. Thus the Russians failed to complete the conquest of Ukraine.

Fearing a full-scale Russian invasion, Poland's John II Casimir (1609–72) fled to Silesia, then negotiated an alliance with Holy Roman Emperor Leopold I (1640–1705). In the meantime, however, Poland was in the hands of invading Russians and Swedes. The presence of the Swedes made the czar eager to conclude a treaty with John II Casimir. The Russians withdrew from the territories of John II Casimir, and were free to mount a concentrated attack on Swedish forces in Swedish Livonia, part of modern Poland, at the time occupied by Sweden.

The war between Russia and Poland was ended by the Treaty of Nimieza, of 1656, which constituted an alliance against the common Russian-Polish enemy, Sweden.

See also RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR (1656–1658).

Further reading: Samuel Fiszman, ed., *Polish Renaissance in Its European Context* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1989); Michael F. Hamm, *Kiev* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1993).

Russo-Polish War (1658–1667)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Poland (with Ukrainian and Tartar aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ukraine and Lithuania
DECLARATION: Poland on Russia, 1658

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Poland aimed to end Russia's occupation of Lithuania.
OUTCOME: Despite a series of strong Polish victories, internal strife within Poland put Russia in an advantageous negotiating position; Smolensk and Kiev reverted to Russia for a specified period of two years, the Ukraine was divided between Russia and Poland, and the Cossacks were put under the joint control of Russia and Poland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 150,000; Polish-Ukrainian forces, 40,000
CASUALTIES: At Konotop (1659), Russia lost 30,000 men.
TREATIES: Treaty of Andrusovo, 1667

The RUSSO-POLISH WAR (1654–1656) ended with a Russian-Polish alliance against Sweden. As soon as that three-year pact expired, however, John II Casimir (1609–72) of Poland resumed warfare against the Russians, who had invaded and occupied Lithuania in the earlier war. Initially, the Polish forces were beaten at the Battle of Vilna and the Battle of Kaunas. In Ukraine, however, a Russian army of 150,000 was driven off with the loss of 30,000 killed. The Poles also regrouped and rallied, mounting a fierce counterattack that drove the Russian army out of Lithuania. Some 60,000 Russians were defeated at Lvov in 1660 by 40,000 Poles and Tartars. Sustaining momentum, the Polish forces went on to invade the regions surrounding Vitebsk and Polotsk later that year.

The Russian loss of Lithuania was bad enough, but the defeat and rout of a better-equipped and larger Russian army by an inferior force of Poles—allied with Tartars—under George Lubomirski (1616–67) was devastating. The Russian forces limped away from the Battle of Lubar in 1660, and an associated Cossack army was similarly defeated a short time afterward.

After the crushing defeat at the Battle of Lubar, the Russians were unable or unwilling to mount any major counteroffensive. Warfare degenerated into sporadic border clashes until the Poles organized an aggressive drive to victory at the Battle of Lublin in 1664. This set the stage for what promised to be peace negotiations favorable to the Poles; however, internal strife during LUBOMIRSKI'S REBELLION (1665–67) caused chaos throughout the Polish leadership. Despite its heavy losses, Russia now found itself in an advantageous negotiating position, and the Treaty of Andrusovo of 1667 obligated Poland to cede Smolensk and Kiev to Russia for a period of two years. The Ukraine was divided between Poland and Russia along the Dnieper River, and the Cossacks were put under the combined control of the Russians and Poles. (Although control of Kiev was to revert to Poland after two years, the Poles in fact never regained control of the Ukrainian city.)

Further reading: Samuel Fiszman, ed., *Polish Renaissance in Its European Context* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1989); Michael F. Hamm, *Kiev* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1993).

Russo-Polish War (1919–1920)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bolshevik Russia vs. Poland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland and Ukraine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Bolshevik government sought control over Polish territory.
OUTCOME: The seesaw course of the war ended with a major Polish triumph and the imposition of an eastern border for Poland within the Ukraine.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 757,000; Poland, 737,767
CASUALTIES: At the turning-point Battle of Warsaw (August 25, 1920), Russia lost 100,000 killed, wounded, or captured; Poland lost 4,362 killed, 21,751 wounded.
TREATIES: Treaty of Riga, March 18, 1921

Bolshevik Russian forces took advantage of the withdrawal of German forces from Poland following the armistice that ended WORLD WAR I to invade Poland. By February 1919, elements of the Red Army had crossed the Bug River and were engaged by Polish forces led by Jozef Pilsudski (1867–1935), which drove the Bolsheviks back across the Polish frontier and into the Ukraine as far as the Berezina River.

In the aftermath of World War I, the Supreme Council of the Allies assigned an eastern Polish border that was within Russia, but the Bolsheviks sought to establish the border farther west, along the actual war front. As for Pilsudski, he sought an even more eastern border, that of 1772, which encompassed the entire Ukraine. Pilsudski allied Polish forces with anti-Bolshevik Ukrainians led by Simon Petlyura (1879–1926) and advanced against Kiev. The city was besieged on April 25, 1920, and fell to Pilsudski on May 7. This incited a determined Bolshevik counterthrust, which pushed the Polish forces out of Kiev and also out of Vilna, Lithuania. Under the command of Mikhail Tukhachevskiy (1893–1937), the Red Army pursued the retreating Poles all the way to the outskirts of the Polish capital, Warsaw. Aided by a French force under Maxime Weygand (1867–1965), the Poles took a stand outside of their capital and defeated the Red Army after a costly 10-day battle. One hundred thousand Russians were killed, wounded, or captured.

The repulse from Warsaw severely depleted the Bolshevik invading forces, and the Poles took advantage of this to pursue the retreating Russians. On August 31, 1920, Poland unleashed Europe's last full-scale cavalry offensive, defeating Russian forces at Zamosa. On September 12, the Poles advanced along the Pripet Marshes,

and on September 26 defeated the Russians at the Niemen River. A battle on the Shchara River followed, the next day, in which 50,000 Russians where taken prisoner. The Bolsheviks sued for peace, and an armistice was imposed on October 12. This was followed by the Treaty of Riga, concluded on March 18, 1921, by which the Soviet government was compelled to accept Poland's territorial claims along the lines that had been specified by Pilsudski.

Further reading: Jan T. Gross, *Revolution from Abroad: The Soviet Conquest of Poland's Western Ukraine and Western Belorussia* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 2002); Janusz Cisek Kosciuszko, *We Are Here! American Pilots of the Kosciuszko Squadron in Defense of Poland, 1919–1921* (Jefferson, N.C.: McFarland, 2002).

Russo-Swedish War (1240–1242)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Swedish, Danish, and Lithuanian forces vs. Novgorod
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Neva River region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Swedish coalition wanted territory claimed by Novgorod.
OUTCOME: Russian troops under Alexander Nevski defeated the coalition.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace agreement concluded at Novgorod, 1242.

Sweden, Denmark, and Lithuania were eager to exploit the disarray created by the Second MONGOL INVASION OF RUSSIA to gain territory for themselves and, not incidentally, to extend the reach of Christianity. The latter motive gained them the support of Pope Gregory IX (1147[?]–1241). Under a Swedish soldier-statesman named Birger (d. 1266), a combined army of Swedes, Danes, and Livonian knights invaded Russia, where they challenged Novgorod's claims on the Neva River and Gulf of Finland. Prince Alexander (c. 1220–1263) of Novgorod, champion of Orthodox Christianity, engaged Birger's forces near present-day St. Petersburg and won a great victory. He took the precaution of building a series of forts on the Neva, then returned home to Novgorod, where he was honored with the surname Nevski ("of the Neva") and is still celebrated as one of Russia's seminal heroes.

Still, the Swedish coalition was not finished. No sooner had Nevski left the region than they seized Pskov. The Livonian knights built a fort at Koporie on the Neva, extorted tributes from the people, and pillaged the region corresponding to modern Estonia. In response, Alexander Nevski returned with an army that drove the knights out of Koporie and Pskov, an action culminating in the celebrated April 5, 1242, "Battle on the Ice," fought on a frozen channel leading to Lake Peipus. This ended the war, and Alexander returned to Novgorod, where a definitive peace was concluded. In later years, Russians would invoke the memory of Nevski and the Battle on the Ice to inspire resistance to invaders from Napoleon to Hitler.

Further reading: Henrik Birnbaum, *Novgorod in Focus: Selected Essays* (Bloomington, Ind.: Slavica, 1996); Janet Martin, *Medieval Russia, 980–1584* (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1995); Robert Mitchell and Nevill Forbes. trans., *Chronicle of Novgorod, 1016–1471* (London: Best Books, 1914).

Russo-Swedish War (1590–1595)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Estonia and Livonia
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russia wanted to wrest control of Estonia from Sweden.
OUTCOME: The two sides fought to a truce favorable to Russia; after reinforcing its army, Sweden resumed fighting and not only retained Estonia but acquired much of Livonia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Swedish strength at Narva, 20,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Armistice in 1591; treaty in 1593

Russian czar Feodor I (1557–98) hungered after Swedish-controlled northern Estonia and in particular wanted to acquire Reval (Tallinn), its principal city. At the urging of his chief adviser and power-behind-the-throne, Boris Godunov (c. 1551–1605), Feodor authorized an invasion. Godunov led a Russian army toward Narva, where it engaged and defeated a Swedish force of 20,000 men early in 1590. While laying siege to Narva, the Russians also menaced Estonia, which convinced Sweden to come to a one-year truce, granting Russia sovereignty over a number of towns, most notably the Baltic ports of Kaporye, Ivangorod, and Yani, while delaying Russian occupation of Estonia. Sweden's John III (1537–92), however, soon grew impatient with these terms and decided to retake the ceded towns. Negotiations over Narva and northern Estonia were reopened, but John died during them, the talks collapsed, and the war resumed.

Sweden sought to exploit a Tartar threat against Russia by augmenting its forces in Estonia, but initially met with no success and, in 1593, concluded a treaty that allowed Russia to retain most of what it had gained. However, the peace was soon broken once again, as Swedish forces regained control of Estonia's Baltic coast and much of Livonia (including parts of modern Estonia and Latvia) by 1695.

Further reading: Samuel Fiszman, ed., *Polish Renaissance in Its European Context* (Bloomington: Indiana Uni-

versity Press, 1989); S. F. Platanov, *The Time of Troubles: A Historical Study of the Internal Crisis and Social Struggle in Sixteenth- and Seventeenth-Century Muscovy* (Lawrence: University Press of Kansas, 1970); Toivo U. Raun, *Estonia and the Estonians* (Washington, D.C.: Hoover Institution Press, 2001).

Russo-Swedish War (1613–1617)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sweden vs. Muscovite Russians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Novgorod and Pskov
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Muscovites wanted to seize Swedish-held Novgorod; Swedes wanted to gain control of the Russian throne.
OUTCOME: Swedes ceded Novgorod to Moscow; they gained in return all territories on the Gulf of Finland; Russia relinquished claims on Estonia and Livonia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Stolbovo, January 26, 1617

During the internal Russian conflict known as the TIME OF TROUBLES, Muscovite forces attacked Novgorod, which was held by the Swedes, who had made a bid to gain control of the Russian throne, which, in the time of troubles, was very much in play. With the election of Czar Michael Romanov (1596–1645), however, the Swedes' hopes were dashed, and Sweden's Gustavus II (1594–1632) cast aside conquest by intrigue. He now opted for military action, launching an invasion of Moscow after first defeating the Russian expedition against Novgorod.

Despite his success at Novgorod, Gustavus was stopped in 1614 by the defenders of the formidable fortress of Pskov, which withstood a six-month siege. Short of supplies, his forces depleted, Gustavus withdrew his army and opened peace negotiations culminating in the Treaty of Stolbovo on January 26, 1617. By this agreement, the Swedes ceded Novgorod to Moscow, but gained all territories on the Gulf of Finland in return. Moreover, Russia relinquished claims on Estonia and Livonia.

Further reading: S. F. Platanov, *The Time of Troubles: A Historical Study of the Internal Crisis and Social Struggle in Sixteenth- and Seventeenth-Century Muscovy* (Lawrence: University Press of Kansas, 1970); B. F. Porshnev, *Muscovy and Sweden in the Thirty Years' War, 1630–1635* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1995).

Russo-Swedish War (1656–1658)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Estonia and Livonia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russia wanted to reclaim lands lost to Sweden.
OUTCOME: Despite a driving offensive, the Russians lost to Sweden and withdrew from the contested lands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Several thousand Russians fell at Riga (1656).
TREATIES: Truce concluded in 1658

This conflict may be regarded as a phase of the First NORTHERN WAR, during which Russian czar Alexis (1629–1676) decided to seize an opportunity to recover lands earlier lost to Sweden in the RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR (1613–1617). He concluded a hasty peace with Poland to end the RUSSO-POLISH WAR (1654–1656), so that he could concentrate his forces for an invasion of Swedish-held Livonia and Estonia.

The czar captured numerous towns and fortresses before massing his army outside of Riga, to which he laid siege during July and August 1656. The Swedes countered with a devastating sortie out of Riga, which overran the Russian lines, broke the siege, and resulted in the slaughter of thousands. Stunned, Czar Alexis fled the field. With the Russians gone, the Swedes generally reinforced their defenses throughout the Baltic area. This enabled them to withstand another Russian offensive in 1658, after which an abashed Alexis agreed to a truce, which endured well into the next century.

Further reading: Robert I. Frost, *The Northern Wars: War, State, and Society in Northeastern Europe, 1558–1721* (New York: Longman, 2000); S. F. Platanov, *The Time of Troubles: A Historical Study of the Internal Crisis and Social Struggle in Sixteenth- and Seventeenth-Century Muscovy* (Lawrence: University Press of Kansas, 1970).

Russo-Swedish War (1741–1743)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Finland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sweden wanted to regain Finnish territories lost to Russia.
OUTCOME: Greatly outnumbered, the Swedish army was soundly defeated, and Russia was confirmed in its possession of southern Finland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sweden, 17,000; Russia, 26,000
CASUALTIES: At Wilmanstrand, Russia lost 2,400 killed or wounded; Sweden lost 3,300 killed or wounded and 1,300 captured.
TREATIES: Treaty of Åbo, August 7, 1743

When the hawkish Hattar Party (literally, the "Hats") gained control of Swedish politics, it yielded to French entreaties to start a war with Russia to regain lost territory. Although Sweden's standing army consisted of only 20,000 men, the nation began hostilities in 1741. Russia's superior army had been on a war footing since the freshly concluded RUSSO-TURKISH WAR (1736–1739). Accordingly, Russian troops took the offensive, winning the Battle of Wilmanstrand in Finland on September 3, 1741, inflicting 4,600 casualties (including 1,300 captured) on 6,000 Swedes engaged.

In the meantime, a bloodless coup put Elizabeth Petrovna (1709–62) on the Russian throne. Despite Russia's triumph, she had no wish to press the war further and invited peace. Unwisely, the Swedes responded with unreasonable terms, and Elizabeth sent Russian troops to invade Finland again. They easily overran the main contingent of the Swedish army. Seventeen thousand Swedes laid down their arms at Helsingfors (Helsinki) on August 20, 1742, and fighting ceased.

Despite Russia's overwhelming victory, peace negotiations dragged on for nearly a year before culminating in the Treaty of Åbo on August 7, 1743. The treaty provided that Russia would retain the southern part of its Finnish territory to the Kymmene River, which became the new border. Sweden's childless Frederick I (1676–1751) further agreed to Elizabeth's election of Holstein's duke Adolphus Frederick (1710–71), a Russian ally, to inherit the Swedish Crown.

Further reading: Max Engman and David Kirby, eds., *Finland: People, Nation, State* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1989); Eino Jutikkala, *A History of Finland* (New York: Praeger, 1974); Anatole Gregory Mazour, *Finland between East and West* (Princeton, N.J.: Van Nostrand, 1956).

Russo-Swedish War (1788–1790)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Finland
DECLARATION: Made unilaterally by Gustavus III
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Acting without legislative authority, Gustavus III wanted to retake Finnish territories lost to Russia.
OUTCOME: A return to the status quo ante bellum
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 31 ships of the line, and 24 frigates; Sweden, 21 ships of the line and 13 frigates.
CASUALTIES: Russia lost four ships of the line; Sweden lost 12 ships of the line
TREATIES: Treaty of Wereloe, August 15, 1790

In 1788, Sweden's Gustavus III (1746–92) saw that Russia was preoccupied with CATHERINE THE GREAT'S SECOND WAR WITH THE TURKS. In June, acting without the approval of the Swedish diet, Gustavus invaded the Russian-held portion of Finland. Unfortunately for the Swedish king, many of his officers rightly deemed the war illegal and refused to fight. As a result, operations during 1788 and 1789 were failures, culminating in a disastrous defeat at the Finnish town of Fredrikshamm (Hamina).

Following Fredrikshamm, the dissident officers formed the Anjala League to negotiate peace with Russia's Catherine II (the Great; 1729–1796). During this period, while the dissidents negotiated, Gustavus conducted a sea war, which became one of the greatest conflicts fought on the Baltic. By 1799, Sweden mustered 21 ships of the line and 13 frigates against 17 Russian ships of the line and eight frigates. On July 17, 1788, the Battle of Hogland pitted 20 Swedish ships against all of the Russian fleet's ships of the line. Although the battle ended indecisively, the Swedes managed to capture a 74-gun Russian ship at the cost of a lesser 70-gun vessel. At Svensksund (August 24, 1789) and at Vyborg (July 3, 1790), the Russian fleet emerged victorious, although casualties were heavy on both sides. Svensksund was a duel between small coastal craft, 81 Russian boats versus 49 Swedish vessels. The Swedes lost 11 craft, the Russians two. At Vyborg, 31 Russian ships of the line and 24 frigates overwhelmed seven Swedish ships of the line, three frigates, and about 30 smaller warships and 30 transports. The engagement was a disaster for the Swedes, who lost some 5,000 men (many taken prisoner), although the bulk of the fleet was able to withdraw intact. Russia lost more than 2,000 killed or wounded.

Six days after Vyborg, the Swedes retaliated by mustering a very large mixed fleet of 196 ships against 141 Russian vessels in the Second Battle of Svenskund. At a cost of four ships and 181 killed, the Swedes sunk 64 Russian ships and inflicted 7,369 casualties, including 900 killed. This Swedish triumph staved off ignominious defeat at the hands of the Russians, who concluded the Treaty of Wereloe in 1790, restoring the status quo ante bellum.

Further reading: Simon Dixon, *Catherine the Great: Profiles in Power Series* (New York: Pearson, 2001); Carolly Erickson, *Great Catherine* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995); Isabel de Madariaga, *Catherine the Great: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2002); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2000); Henri Troyat, *Catherine the Great* (New York: New American Library, 1994).

Russo-Swedish War (1808–1809)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Finland

DECLARATION: Russia against Sweden, February 1808
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Seizing on Sweden's refusal to end its alliance with Britain, Russia invaded Finland in order to acquire that country.
OUTCOME: Russia prevailed; Finland became a Russian duchy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 9,000; Sweden, 11,000
CASUALTIES: At Revolax (April 27, 1808), 3,000 out of 4,000 Russians were killed.
TREATIES: Treaty of Fredrikshamm, September 17, 1809

The NAPOLEONIC WARS occasioned a great deal of diplomatic maneuvering among belligerents. After France and Russia made peace by the Treaty of Tilsit in 1807, they called on Sweden to end its anti-French alliance with Britain. Sweden refused, and Czar Alexander I (1777–1825) responded by invading Swedish-held Finland in February 1808 with an army under Mikhail Bogdonovich (1761–1818), prince Barclay de Tolly.

On April 16, 1808, 3,000 Russian troops laid siege to the fortress of Sveaborg, forcing the surrender of its 7,000-man garrison after scarcely a fight. Following this, the Russians marched unimpeded through Finland, which, by the end of 1808, the Swedes had evacuated.

The Swedes did score a major triumph at Revolax on April 27, 1808, when their 8,000-man force overwhelmed 4,000 Russians, killing all but 1,000 of them. The Battle of Orawis, on September 15, 1808, proved inconclusive. Meanwhile, at sea, Sweden held out well against the Russians. Nevertheless, the losses in Finland were too much for Sweden's King Gustavus IV (1778–1837), whose repressive autocracy was overthrown by a coup d'état on March 13, 1809, forcing him into exile. For its part, however, Russia refused to negotiate peace terms with the unstable provisional government that followed. The czar did not want to recognize a revolutionary regime; besides, he was not finished with his campaign of expansion. The Russians pressed the fight to the Åland Islands, which fell to the invaders, and then fought two battles in northern Sweden. After an 11,000-man Swedish army was trapped and held on the Ratun Peninsula in August 1809, Swedish forces totally evacuated Finland, and the new Swedish king, Charles XIII (1748–1818), negotiated the Treaty of Fredrikshamm with the Russians on September 17, 1809. Sweden formally ceded Finland and the Åland Islands to Russia. Finland thus became a Russian duchy.

Further reading: George C. Schoolfield, *Helsinki of the Czars: A Cultural History 1808–1918* (London: Boydell and Brewer, 1996); Fred Singleton, *Short History of Finland* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998).

Russo-Turkish War (1568–1569)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Astrakhan, on the Volga River
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Turkish grand vizier Muhammad Sokollu wanted to build a canal linking the Don and Volga; he needed to seize Russian-held Astrakhan to do this.
OUTCOME: Canal construction bogged down; the grand vizier failed to take Astrakhan; his troops withdrew, only to be lost at sea.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Muhammad Sokollu (1505–79), Ottoman grand vizier under Sultan Selim II (1524–74), devised a scheme to curb Russian expansion by digging a canal linking the Don and Volga rivers. This would allow Turkish vessels to pass between the Black and Caspian seas, giving Turkey direct access to Persia and Central Asia. To accomplish this objective, the grand vizier sent troops to Azov in 1568 in order to take Astrakhan from Russia. Soldiers marched up the Don River and began construction of the canal, but when they had progressed about a third of the way, engineering difficulties forced a halt.

Undaunted, the grand vizier ordered his ships portaged to the Volga. From this position, he invested Astrakhan on the Volga delta in 1569. The city, which had been in Russian hands for only 13 years, withstood the siege long enough for a relief column to arrive. At the approach of the column, the weary Turks withdrew. Although a major battle was avoided, all of the siege troops perished in a storm on the Black Sea as they returned home. The sultan responded by ordering Sokollu to attempt no more canals.

Further reading: Daniel Goffman, *The Ottoman Empire and Early Modern Europe* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble Books, 1995).

Russo-Turkish War (1678–1681)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Turkey
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ukraine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Turks wanted to acquire the Ukraine.
OUTCOME: After suffering severe casualties, the Turks withdrew and agreed to renounce their claims to the Ukraine.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Radzin, January 8, 1681

The origin of this war lay in Sultan Muhammad IV's (1641–91) refusal to honor what he deemed the overly generous terms of the Treaty of Zorawno, which ended the POLISH-TURKISH WAR (1671–77). He dispatched an army under Grand Vizier Kara Mustafa (d. 1683), determined to push the Russians and Poles out of the Ukraine.

Though the next two years the Turks ravaged the Ukraine, destroying many towns, they suffered heavy casualties and lost much of their artillery. When the Ukraine refused to yield, the Turks at last withdrew, and on January 8, 1681, the sultan concluded the Treaty of Radzin, renouncing all claims to Ukraine. By resisting the Turks, Ukraine prevailed, but at a terrible lost to the civilian population.

Further reading: Daniel Goffman, *The Ottoman Empire and Early Modern Europe* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble Books, 1995); Anna Reid, *Borderland: A Journey through the History of the Ukraine* (Denver: Westview, 2000).

Russo-Turkish War (1695–1700)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Delta of the Don River
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Peter I the Great wanted to take the Turkish-held fortress-city of Azov.
OUTCOME: Despite heavy losses, the Russians took Azov.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 75,000; Turkey, 31,000
CASUALTIES: Some 32,000 Russians died; Turkish losses unknown
TREATIES: Truce, 1700

Acting on the advice of his Swiss-Scotch adviser François Lefort (1656–99), Czar Peter I (the Great; 1672–1725) made an assault on the Turkish-held city-fortress of Azov at the Don River delta. The czar personally led 31,000 men in this first siege in 1695. The assault failed, forcing the Russians to withdraw with heavy losses, including 2,000 killed in action.

Peter determined that the failure had occurred because, without a navy, he had been unable to blockade Azov. Within a year, Peter built a fleet and dispatched it to blockade the city. The fleet overcame Ottoman naval opposition, and Peter's land forces took Azov in July 1696. The cost, however, was great: more than 30,000 Russians fell. Mindful of the cost, Peter resolved to ensure that the sacrifice would not be in vain. He decided to undertake a great expedition against the Ottomans in order to end permanently the threat they posed. In preparation, Peter toured Europe, seeking allies as well as knowledge of Western technical, scientific, and military advances. During the period of Peter's travels, the Hapsburgs concluded a peace in the AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1683–1699), which prompted Peter to abandon his Turkish plans to join Poland against Sweden in the Great Northern War. In 1700, Peter concluded a truce with the Ottoman Empire, trading the Russian Black Sea fleet for permanent possession of Azov.

See also NORTHERN WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Daniel Goffman, *The Ottoman Empire and Early Modern Europe* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Robert K. Massie, *Peter the Great: His Life and World* (New York: Ballantine Books, 1987); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble Books, 1995).

Russo-Turkish War (1710–1711)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Ottoman Turks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Moldavia (part of Romania)
DECLARATION: Turkey against Russia, 1710
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Turks refused to surrender Sweden's king Charles XII to the Russians.
OUTCOME: Superior Turkish numbers defeated the army of Czar Peter I the Great, who had to relinquish the fortress-city of Azov, so hard won in the Russo-Turkish War of 1695–1700.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 54,000; Ottomans, 200,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of the Pruth, July 21, 1711

The warrior-king Charles XII (1682–1718) of Sweden suffered a disastrous defeat at the hands of the Russians during the GREAT NORTHERN WAR. With his army all but destroyed, Charles took refuge in Turkish Moldavia, whereupon, in October 1710, Czar Peter I (the Great; 1672–1725) demanded that the Ottoman sultan surrender his guest. In response to this imperious demand, the sultan made war against Peter.

With the Turks arrayed along the Russian border, the recklessly overconfident czar led 54,000 soldiers in an invasion of Moldavia in March 1711. He was met by 120,000 Ottoman infantry men and 80,000 cavalry, which pushed the Russians back to the Pruth River, trapping him against this natural barrier as he anxiously awaited reinforcements from Slavs, Moldavians, and Wallachians, with whom he had secret alliances. When these troops failed to materialize, Peter had no choice but to negotiate a peace,

and he was indeed fortunate that he had the opportunity for such negotiations. Had the Ottomans chosen to attack Peter his badly outnumbered forces would almost surely have been destroyed. As it was, the Treaty of the Pruth, signed on July 21, 1711, compelled Russia to return Azov (acquired at great cost in the RUSSO-TURKISH WAR [1695–1700]) to the Turks and to dismantle its border fortresses. The czar also had to grant Sweden's Charles free passage back to Sweden—but the bellicose monarch remained among the Turks for three more years, trying unsuccessfully to persuade the Ottomans to launch an all-out war against Russia.

Further reading: Daniel Goffman, *The Ottoman Empire and Early Modern Europe* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Robert K. Massie, *Peter the Great: His Life and World* (New York: Ballantine Books, 1987); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble Books, 1995); François Marie Arouet de Voltaire, *Lion of the North: Charles XII of Sweden* (Madison, N.J.: Fairleigh Dickinson University Press, 1981).

Russo-Turkish War (1722–1724)

See RUSSO-PERSIAN WAR (1722–1723).

Russo-Turkish War (Austro-Turkish War) (1736–1739)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia (with Austria) vs. Ottoman Turks (with Tartar allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ukraine
DECLARATION: Russia on the Ottoman Empire, 1736
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russia wanted to secure possession of the Turkish Ukraine.
OUTCOME: Despite initial gains, Russia agreed to an unfavorable peace after its Austrian allies abandoned the war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the Battle of Khotin (August 17, 1739), Russia deployed 68,000 men, Turkey 90,000.
CASUALTIES: Total Russian casualties have been estimated at 100,000 dead, as a result of battle, disease, and general privation. Austria lost about 20,000 men. Turkish losses are unknown.
TREATIES: Treaty of Nissa, October 3, 1739

The War of the POLISH SUCCESSION was among the European conflicts that brought into play a complex network of alliances and enmities. When Russia discovered that France had solicited military aid from the Ottoman Empire during that war, Russia declared war on the Ottomans in 1736. Russian forces were dispatched to Turkish areas north of the Black Sea. However, having struck an alliance with the Tartars, the Ottomans severely punished the invaders, who withdrew into the Russian Ukraine, having lost 30,000 men out of a force of 58,000. The withdrawal brought Tartar raids into the Ukraine, so costly that Russia's ally, Austria, declared war on the Turks in January 1737.

Austrian armies invaded Bosnia, Wallachia, and southern Serbia. The fortress city of Nish fell, but a Turkish counter offensive forced Austria to withdraw. In the meantime, in the Turkish Ukraine, Russian and Turkish armies contended for Azov and Ochakov, frequently taking, losing, and retaking these cities. The French mediated a peace agreement, which was honored more in the breach than in the observance, and the Turks fought their way along the Danube toward Belgrade during 1738. The Austrians fared poorly against the Turks in the Balkans, but the Russian army, under Count Burkhard C. von Münnich (1683–1767), defeated 90,000 Turks with his 68,000 Russians at Chocim (Khotin) on August 17, 1739. After this, he took Jassy (Iaşi), Moldavia's capital.

Münnich was preparing to invade Constantinople (Istanbul), the Ottoman capital, when Austria, Russia's ally, signed a separate peace at Belgrade on September 18, 1739, following the fall of that city to the Turks. The Austrians ceded Belgrade, northern Serbia, parts of Bosnia, and Wallachia to the Turks, who were now free to turn all of their attention to Münnich's army. The prospect of a concentrated attack by the Turks was enough to prompt the Russians to negotiate peace. By the Treaty of Nissa, signed on October 3, 1739, Russia relinquished all that it had conquered, save the often-contested Azov. Russia agreed to dismantle the town's fortifications and further agreed that Russian naval vessels would stay out of the Sea of Azov and the Black Sea.

Further reading: Daniel Goffman, *The Ottoman Empire and Early Modern Europe* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Robert K. Massie, *Peter the Great: His Life and World* (New York: Ballantine Books, 1987); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble Books, 1995); E. H. Parker, *A Thousand Years of the Tartars* (London: Kegan Paul, 2001).

Russo-Turkish War (1768–1774)

See CATHERINE THE GREAT'S FIRST WAR WITH THE TURKS.

Russo-Turkish War (1787–1792)

See CATHERINE THE GREAT'S SECOND WAR WITH THE TURKS.

Russo-Turkish War (1806–1812)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia (with British alliance) vs. Ottoman Empire (with French alliance)

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Moldavia, Wallachia (Romania) and waters off Constantinople
DECLARATION: Ottoman Empire on Russia, November 6, 1806
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russia and the Ottomans contended for control of Moldavia and Wallachia.
OUTCOME: The war ended indecisively, by means of a British-mediated peace; Moldavia and Wallachia remained under Ottoman control, but Russia gained Bessarabia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Batin (September 7, 1810) Russia fielded 22,000 against 35,000 Turks.
CASUALTIES: At Batin, Russia lost 2,000 killed or wounded, Turkey 5,000 killed or wounded and 5,000 captured.
TREATIES: Armistice of 1807; Treaty of Bucharest, May 28, 1812

France, locked in combat with Russia during the NAPOLEONIC WARS, took every opportunity to weaken its opponent. The French ambassador to the Ottoman Empire encouraged Sultan Selim III (1761–1808) to declare war on Russia because of its interference with Ottoman affairs in Moldavia and Wallachia. The declaration came on November 6, 1806, prompting Russia to invade Moldavia and Wallachia. However, the first major battle—indeed, the most important engagement of the war—came not on land but at sea. The Battle of Lemnos (or Athos) took place on June 30, 1807, when 10 Russian battleships tangled with 10 Ottoman ships of the line, five frigates, and five smaller vessels. Although outgunned, the Russians defeated the Ottoman squadron, sinking three ships of the line and three frigates. This was sufficient to prompt an armistice in August 1807, which endured until October 21, 1809, when a force of 30,000 Turks defeated 15,000 Russians at the Battle of Tataritza in Bulgaria. Despite the victory, the Turks lost 2,000 men versus 1,000 casualties among the Russians. At Bazardjik on June 3, 1810, Russian forces, 23,000 strong, overwhelmed a 5,000-man Turkish garrison, killing or wounding 3,000 and taking the rest captive.

The Ottomans regained the initiative at Schumla on June 23–24, 1810, using 30,000 men to defeat a Russian force of 20,000. On August 2, the Russians replied with a victory at Tachlimechle, inflicting 3,000 casualties on an Ottoman force of 30,000. This was followed by a series of Russian victories in Bulgaria, including a large battle at the Danubian city of Batin on September 7, 1810, when 22,000 Russians decisively defeated 35,000 Turks, inflicting 5,000 Turkish casualties, killed or wounded, and capturing another 5,000 Turks. In the meantime, the Russians laid siege to Turkish-held Rustchuk from July 20 to September 26, 1810, killing or wounding 6,000 of 15,000 Ottoman defenders, but in the process losing 3,000 killed and 5,000 wounded. The Russians fared better at Lovca, Bulgaria, on February 11, 1811, driving out a Turkish garrison of 10,000. A Second Battle of Rustchuk, on July 4, 1811, was a magnificent Russian victory—20,000 Russians decisively defeated 60,000 Turks. The Turks gained a measure of revenge at Giurgevo, Romania, on September 9, 1811, but their victory was short-lived. On September 10, a Russian counterthrust forced the Turks to surrender Giurgevo and compelled the Ottoman government to sue for peace. By the Treaty of Bucharest (May 28, 1812), Bessarabia was ceded to Russia, but Moldavia and Wallachia were returned to Ottoman control.

Further reading: Emory C. Bogle, *Modern Middle East: From Imperialism to Freedom, 1800–1958* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Professional Technical Reference, 1995); Alexander Mikhailovsky-Danilevsky, *Russo-Turkish War of 1806–1812* (West Chester, Ohio: Nafziger Collection, 2002); Gunther E. Rothenberg, *The Napoleonic Wars* (London: Cassell, 1998).

Russo-Turkish War (1828–1829)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia vs. Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Wallachia (part of Romania), Caucasus, and Crimea
DECLARATION: Russian on the Ottoman Empire, April, 26, 1828
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ostensibly, Russia had come to aid the cause of Greek independence; other objectives included territorial gain.
OUTCOME: The Turks were repeatedly defeated, Russia made territorial gains, the Ottomans agree to pay an indemnity, and Greece was granted independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia 113,920; Ottoman Empire, 80,000
CASUALTIES: Russia, 42,515 dead; Ottomans, 80,000 dead; most succumbed to disease.
TREATIES: Treaty of Adrianople, September 16, 1829

Russia declared war on the Ottoman Turks on April 26, 1828, ostensibly in aid of Greece during the GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; however, the Russian czar was moved less by nationalist or republican zeal than by hunger for territory. Besides, the Turks were at an especially low ebb during this time. Militarily weak, they were highly vulnerable.

Russian armies successfully besieged Braila in Wallachia, then crossed the Danube to assault the Turkish fortresses at Ruschuk (Ruse) and Widdin (Vidin). Another Russian force captured the city of Varna after a three-month siege in 1828. Simultaneously, in the Caucasus, the Russians took Kars and penetrated as far as Akhaltsikhe, where, after scoring a victory, they were stopped by Kurds.

The next year, 1829, began badly for the Turks as well. They lost Silistra and suffered defeat at the hands

of Russian general Hans Diebitsch-Zabalkansky (1785–1831) at Tcherkovna (June 11) and at Sliven (August 12). Eight days after the second victory, Diebitsch-Zabalkansky marched into Adrianople (Edirne)—although his army was exhausted and suffering from the effects of plague. Disease was a far more formidable enemy than any opposing army. Of the 42,515 Russians who died in this war, 29,658 succumbed to disease. Likewise, most of the 80,000 Turks who perished were victims of plague and other scourges.

Elsewhere, Russia was also victorious. Erivan (Yerevan) fell to the Russians, though Diebitsch-Zabalkansky had already agreed to the Treaty of Adrianople on September 16, 1829, by which the Danubian Principalities (Moldavia and Wallachia) were made semiautonomous, and by which Russia gained control of the mouth of the Danube. The treaty also granted all peaceful states access to the Turkish straits—and granted Greece its independence. Additionally, the Ottoman Empire agreed to pay heavy war reparations and confirmed (Russian) Orthodox freedom of religion in its territories.

Further reading: Elizabeth Wormeley Latimer, *Russia and Turkey in the Nineteenth Century* (Honolulu: University Press of the Pacific, 2002); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble Books, 1995).

Russo-Turkish War (1877–1878)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russia (with Romanian allies) vs. Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Balkans
DECLARATION: Russia on the Ottoman Empire, April 24, 1877
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Russia wanted to secure religious freedom for Orthodox Serbs oppressed by the Ottomans; Russia also wanted to expand its territory.
OUTCOME: Romania and Serbia became independent; Bulgaria, enlarged at the expense of the Turks, became semi-autonomous under Russian authority.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Russia, 933,726; Ottoman numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Russia, 117,621 killed; Ottoman Empire, 90,000; most deaths were from disease.
TREATIES: Treaty of San Stefano, March 3, 1878

In the name of pan-Slavism, 19th-century Russian czars supported the Balkan states in their bid to gain independence from the Ottoman Empire. This motivated the war that Russia declared on April 24, 1877. It began with mostly desultory naval action as Russian land forces assembled and prepared to cross the Danube. It was not until June 23, 1878, that the first Russian units made the crossing, only to find themselves bogged down in a five-month siege against the fortress of Plevna in Bulgaria. Fanatical defenders hurled back two Russian assaults, inflicting terrible casualties. On July 20, 1878, 3,000 of 6,500 Russian attackers fell. Ten days later, 7,305 Russians were killed or wounded (out of a force of 30,000) in another unsuccessful assault. The third attack, or "Great Assault," came on September 11 and pitted 95,000 Russians against a garrison of 30,000 plus other defenders. Over the next two days, the Russians lost 18,600 killed or wounded, and still Plevna remained in Turkish hands—although the siege remained in place.

The Turks could not hold out forever. On the night of December 9–10, they attempted a breakout but were driven back with the loss of 5,000 killed or wounded and some 43,340 captured. At this, the Turks surrendered, and the 143-day siege ended. Russian losses in this operation topped 50,000 men.

Following the fall of Plevna, Russia concentrated on Ottoman forces south of the Shipka River. At the Battle of Senova on January 8–9, 1878, a 36,000-man Ottoman army collapsed. This was followed on January 17 by the fall of the Ottoman-held fortress town of Plovdiv, a success that allowed Russian forces to advance to the doorstep of Constantinople. This action prompted an armistice on January 31, 1878.

In the meantime, war raged on another front, the Caucasus. Here, the opposing armies were evenly matched at about 70,000 each. At the Battle of Aladja Dagh (October 15–18, 1877), Russian forces killed or wounded 6,000 Turks and captured another 12,000; Russian losses were light,—1,600 killed or wounded. The victory put the Russians in position to invest the great fortress at Kars, which they stormed on November 17, 1877. The attackers inflicted 7,000 casualties on the Turkish garrison of 24,000 before the fort surrendered.

Turkish losses in the Balkans and on the Caucasus front prompted the Ottoman government to agree to the Treaty of San Stefano on March 3, 1878, by which it recognized the independence of Serbia, Montenegro, Romania, and Bulgaria. Even more important, the war had rendered the Ottoman Empire effectively obsolete. It no longer figured as a major power in Eurasian politics; became known as the "sick man of Europe." To achieve this, Russia had mobilized 933,726 troops, of which 117,621 died. As in other wars with the Ottoman Empire, the greatest enemy was disease. More than 80,000 Russian deaths were the result of plague and other maladies. Two-thirds of Turkish losses, which amounted to about 90,000 men, were also due to disease.

Further reading: Emory C. Bogle, *Modern Middle East: From Imperialism to Freedom, 1800–1958* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Professional Technical Reference, 1995); Alexander Mikhailovsky-Danilevsky, *Russo-Turkish War of 1806–1812* (West Chester, Ohio: Nafziger Collection, 2002); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes

and Noble Books, 1995); Gunther E. Rothenberg, *The Napoleonic Wars* (London: Cassell, 1998).

Rwandan Civil War (1959–1961)

See RUANDAN (RWANDAN) CIVIL WAR.

Rwandan Civil War (1990–1994)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Hutus vs. Tutsis in Rwanda
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rwanda
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Rwandan government
OUTCOME: Genocide against the Tutsis, panic among the Hutus; control of the government was ultimately divided between the tribes.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable, with much civilian involvement
CASUALTIES: 10,000 combatants on both sides in guerrilla warfare; 500,000–1,000,000 civilians slain by Hutu troops and death squads
TREATIES: Arusha Accords, August 1993 and July 1994

The African nation of Rwanda (formerly Ruanda) achieved independence from Belgium, then engaged in the bloody RUANDAN (RWANDAN) CIVIL WAR of 1959–61, emerging from it as Rwanda. The 1959–61 conflict pitted the majority Hutu tribe against the Tutsi, who, although a minority, were socially, economically, and politically dominant. Following the first civil war, many Tutsi fled to neighboring Uganda. For more than 30 years, resentment simmered among the exiles, who created the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF) and, beginning in 1990, infiltrated Rwanda. Their goal was to reclaim the nation under Tutsi control.

The Tutsi invasion came at a bad time for the Hutu government of Rwanda. The nation was chronically poor—the departure of the Tutsi having contributed to this poverty—and was beset by drought and famine. Unable to feed its people, let alone resist an invasion, the Hutu government concluded the Arusha Accords in August 1993, ceding considerable power to the Tutsi. Before the accords could be implemented, however, Hutu president Juvénal Habyarimana (c. 1937–94) intervened and sabotaged the peace process. He backed down to some extent, however, as the Tutsi became increasingly menacing. By this time about 10,000 lives had been lost in guerrilla fighting. Habyarimana granted some cabinet posts to Tutsis, and he agreed to fly to Tanzania to participate in a 1994 conference on the Tutsi-Hutu problem. On April 6, 1994, during the flight back to Rwanda, Habyarimana's plane exploded—apparently as a result of Hutu sabotage, a hard-line Hutu element objecting to any rapprochement with the Tutsis.

After the assassination of Habyarimana, chaos reigned in Rwanda. During a period of 14 weeks, the Hutu army and special Hutu death squads rampaged throughout the country, killing hundreds of thousands of civilians (estimates vary from 500,000 to 850,000). Targeted victims of this genocide were mostly Tutsis, but many Hutu moderates were also slain.

The Hutu genocide against the Tutsis prompted some three million Hutus to flee Rwanda for fear of Tutsi reprisals. The reprisals were not forthcoming, but the refugee problem created by the mass exodus was deadly for the region. The Tutsis did capture the Rwandan capital on April 6, 1994—the day of Habyarimana's death—but fighting continued. Government officials were assassinated, and between April 6 and the beginning of July, a genocide of perhaps as many as one million Tutsis and moderate Hutus was perpetrated by organized bands of militia known as the Interahamwe.

The RPF continued to pour into Rwanda, and civil war raged concurrently with the genocide for two months. French forces intervened in June, an action that helped to quell the genocide. However, the RPF quickly defeated the Rwandan army, the surviving members of which fled across the border to Zaire, with some two million civilian refugees in their wake. The civilians sought refuge in Zaire, Tanzania, and Burundi.

On July 4, 1994, the RPF took Kigali. The war officially ended on July 16, 1994, with full implementation of the so-called Arusha Accords. A UN peacekeeping mission remained in Rwanda until March 8, 1996. Genocide and war crimes trials began in 1996 and as of late 2003 were still under way. Low-level fighting continued throughout Rwanda.

Further reading: Alain Destexhe, *Rwanda and Genocide in the Twentieth Century* (New York: New York University Press, 1996); Gerard Prunier, *The Rwanda Crisis: History of a Genocide* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1995).

S

Sacred War, First (c. 590 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Phocian city of Crisa vs. the Greek city-states of the Amphictyonic League
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The area around Delphi at the foot of Mount Parnassus on the Gulf of Corinth
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Crisa, in control of Delphi, was charging Greek pilgrims a toll to visit the shrine of Apollo and its oracle.
OUTCOME: Crisa was destroyed; free access to the shrine was assured; the influence of Thebes increased; the Delphic oracle became a central voice in Panhellenic policy; and the way was smoothed for the growth of the quadrennial Olympic Games.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Delphi, seat of the most important of ancient Greece's temples and home of the oracle of Apollo, lay in Phocis on the steep lower slope of Mount Parnassus near the Gulf of Corinth. Inhabited at least since Mycenaean times (14th century B.C.E.), Delphi was considered by the Greeks to be the center of the world. According to Greek myth, Zeus had released two eagles, one from the east, the other from the west, and commanded them to fly to the center. When they met at Delphi, the spot was marked by a stone, known as the *omphalos* ("navel"), around which the temple was constructed. According to the legend, originally the oracle at Delphi belonged to Gaea, the Earth goddess, and was guarded by her serpent son, Python, but later the sun-god Apollo slew Python and founded his own oracle.

In any case, by the sixth century B.C.E. the temple at Delphi was under the control of the nearby Phocian port city of Crisa, which charged tolls for pilgrims from other Greek cities to visit the shrine. Many considered the tax sacrilegious. When the "dwellers around" Thermopylae formed the Amphictyonic League to administer the temporal affairs of the Greek city-states' religious shrines and conduct the Pythian Games, the religious controversy over the fees became politicized. By 590 B.C.E., Crisa found itself the target of a war launched by the league and supported by Cleisthenes (fl. sixth century), tyrant of Sicyon. Besieged on its landward side by the forces of the Amphictyonic League and its port blockaded by Cleisthenes' fleet, Crisa fell and was destroyed.

The war gave the league control of the shrine, which established free access to the Delphic oracle and opened Phocis to the influence of the Thessalian city-states, especially Thebes, and also advanced the fortunes of Cleisthenes. Delphi joined the league, and by 582 B.C.E. the Pythian Games had been reorganized as the Panhellenic Olympics, which were held at Delphi every four years. As a result, the prestige of the Delphic oracle reached new heights, consulted not only in private matters but also on affairs of state, its utterances often swaying international policy. Because the oracle was always consulted whenever any of the Greek city-states launched a colony, its fame spread to the limits of the Greek-speaking world.

See also SACRED WAR, SECOND; SACRED WAR, THIRD; SACRED WAR, FOURTH.

Further reading: W. Warde Fowler, *The City-State of the Greeks and Romans* (Honolulu: University Press of the Pacific, 2002); Peter John Rhodes, *The Greek City States: A Source Book* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1986); Raphael Sealey, *A History of the Greek City States, 700–338 B.C.* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1977).

Sacred War, Second (c. 449–448 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Athens vs. Sparta; Amphictyonic League vs. Phocis
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Delphi
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At issue was control of the city and shrine of Delphi.
OUTCOME: Athens alienated the Amphictyonic League by making a separate peace with Sparta; Phocis retained control of Delphi.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Presumably a formal treaty between Athens and Sparta, 448 B.C.E.

The Second Sacred War marked Sparta's entry into the affairs of the Amphictyonic League. When Phocians seized control of Delphi, asserting as their right the administration of the city and its shrine, the Amphictyonic League asserted a counterclaim. Sparta sent troops in support of the league, to expel the Phocians from the city of Delphi. Although this operation was apparently bloodless, it incited Pericles of Athens (c. 495–29) to support the reinstatement of the Phocians. However, Athens and Sparta did not come to blows but rather concluded a peace treaty, which in turn outraged the Amphictyonic League. As a member of the league, Athens had no right to conclude a treaty independently of it. Thus Thebes rose up in rebellion against Athens. Although Athenian forces were unable to quell the rebellion, Phocis remained in control of Delphi. Because of Athens's betrayal of the league, Phocis and Athens were no longer allied. Despite the tension and uncertainty that resulted, this situation endured, peacefully, for nearly a century.

See also SACRED WAR, FIRST; SACRED WAR, THIRD; SACRED WAR, FOURTH.

Further reading: Paul Cartledge and Anthony Spawforth, *Hellenistic and Roman Sparta* (London: Routledge, 2001); W. Warde Fowler, *The City-State of the Greeks and Romans* (Honolulu: University Press of the Pacific, 2002); Peter John Rhodes, *The Greek City States: A Source Book* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1986); Raphael Sealey, *A History of the Greek City States, 700–338 B.C.* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1977).

Sacred War, Third (355–346 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Thebes (with Macedon) vs. Phocis
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Delphi and environs
DECLARATION: Thebes on Phocis, 355
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The original cause of war was the Phocian refusal to pay a fine levied by the Amphictyonic League, which led to war between Thebes and Phocis and brought into Greece the ambitious Philip of Macedon.
OUTCOME: Philip made important territorial gains in Greece, and Phocis was severely punished by the Amphictyonic League.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Philocrates, 346 B.C.E.

Thebes and other Thessalonian members of the Amphictyonic League accused Phocis, their longtime enemy, of cultivating lands sacred to Apollo. For this offense, the league levied a fine on Phocis and also against Sparta, which, in 382, had illegally seized Cadmea at Thebes in the THEBAN-SPARTAN WAR of 379–71 B.C.E.

Phocis, led by Philomelus (d. 354), defied the league's demand for payment. Instead, with covert aid from Sparta, a Phocian army captured the shrine of Delphi, as well as its treasury, in 355. In response, Locria unsuccessfully tried to expel Phocis from Delphi. Athens and Sparta concluded a new peace. Thebes, however, declared war on Phocis, and at the Battle of Neon in 354 defeated the Phocians, ultimately forcing their withdrawal in 353.

Into the fray stepped Philip of Macedon (382–36), who saw an opportunity to gain a greater foothold in Greece. Philip came to the aid of Thebes in its war against Phocis. This prompted the allied Athens and Sparta to come reluctantly to the aid of Phocis in order to check the ambitious Philip. Nevertheless, during 351–47 B.C.E., Philip's forces helped Thebes subdue and conquer Phocis. In a show of brilliant diplomacy, Philip negotiated with Athens even as he contributed to the defeat of its ally Phocis. Athens concluded with Macedon the Peace of Philocrates in 346, which gave Philip what he wanted—domination over northern and central Greece, including Thermopylae and Delphi. Phocis, the cause of the war, was punished by the Amphictyonic League.

See also SACRED WAR, FIRST; SACRED WAR, SECOND; SACRED WAR, FOURTH.

Further reading: Alfred S. Bradford, *Philip II of Macedon: A Life From the Ancient Sources* (New York: Praeger, 1992); Paul Cartledge and Anthony Spawforth, *Hellenistic and Roman Sparta* (London: Routledge, 2001); W. Warde Fowler, *The City-State of the Greeks and Romans* (Honolulu: University Press of the Pacific, 2002); Peter John Rhodes, *The Greek City States: A Source Book* (Norman:

University of Oklahoma Press, 1986); Raphael Sealey, *A History of the Greek City States, 700–338 B.C.E.* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1977).

Sacred War, Fourth (Amphissean War) (339–338 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Amphictyonic League vs. Delphi; Macedon vs. Athens and Thebes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Delphi and Thebes
DECLARATION: Amphictyonic League on Delphi, 339 B.C.E.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Amphictyonic League wanted to punish Delphi for refusing to pay a fine levied against it; Philip of Macedon, fighting in support of the league, became aggressive, and the war escalated.
OUTCOME: Philip led Macedon to dominance over the Hellenic world, creating the Panhellenic League to replace the Amphictyonic League.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Demades, 338 B.C.E.

The Fourth Sacred War was fought ostensibly for some of the same reasons as the THIRD SACRED WAR: Delphi's attempts to cultivate sacred lands—this time in the otherwise petty city of Amphissa, a member of the Amphictyonic League—and its refusal to pay the subsequent fines. But since the league relied ultimately on Philip of Macedon (382–336 B.C.E.), the war was clearly intended to serve as the pretext for his final and triumphant involvement in Greece. Designated the leader from the first, Philip entered Greece toward the end of 339. Delphi was quickly defeated, but Philip's aggression terrified Athens—especially after he captured Elatea in Boeotia—prompting Demosthenes (c. 384–322 B.C.E.) of Athens to call for an alliance with the city's traditional enemy, Thebes. The Athenians and Thebans fought Macedon to a standstill in 339, but the following year, Philip won the Battle of Chaeronea in August 338. No good reliable account of the battle exists, though it ended in total victory for Philip and shaped the entire subsequent history of the Hellenic world. Classical accounts credit Philip's son, young Alexander the Great (356–23), with major contributions to the battle, and they describe a feigned retreat by the Macedonians.

Afterward, Athens and Thebes concluded the Peace of Demades, whereby Thebes acceded to occupation by Philip's army. Athens was allowed to retain its great fleet, but Macedon now emerged as the dominant power in the Greek world. In 337, the Amphictyonic League gave way to the Panhellenic League, which was dominated by Macedon and its king Philip.

See also SACRED WAR, FIRST; SACRED WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Nicholas G. Hammond, *Philip of Macedon* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1994); S. Perlman, ed., *Philip and Athens* (Cambridge: Heffer; New York: Barnes and Noble Books, 1973).

Saffarid Revolt (866–876)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Saffarids vs. Tahirids (and, subsequently, Abbasids)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia (Iran) and frontier areas
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Saffarids sought to overthrow the Tahirids.
OUTCOME: The Tahirids were overthrown, and the Saffarids gained control of most of Persia and Khorosan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In Seistan, encompassing southwestern Afghanistan and Baluchistan, the frontier warriors known as the Saffarids rebelled against the Tahirid rulers who had been appointed by the seventh Abbasid caliph al-Ma'mun (786–833). The Saffarid rebels, led by the brilliant Yakub ibn Laith (d. c. 879), rose to dominance, conquering most of Persia and Khorosan and overthrowing the Tahirids by 872. This accomplished, Yakub ibn Laith made an assault on Baghdad, which Abu Ahmad al-Muwaffak, brother of the Abbasid caliph Ahmad al-Mu'tamid, managed to repulse. The Saffarids failed to take the city.

Further reading: Hugh Kennedy, *The Early Abbasid Caliphate: A Political History* (Totowa, N.J.: Barmas and Noble Books, 1981).

Saint George's Day Revolt *See* ESTONIAN REVOLT.

Saka and Andhra Wars (50–51 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sakas vs. Andhras
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central and north-central India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of the region
OUTCOME: The Andhras successfully repulsed the Saka invaders, who withdrew precariously to the Indus Valley.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Sakas were nomads driven out of the Punjab by invading Scythians. Pressed by these invaders, the Sakas, in turn, pushed toward the south and east in search of new land. At first, they were successful in clearing away the Andhras; however, this people rallied under a semilegendary ruler, Vikramaditya, who successfully arrested the progress of the nomadic invaders. Sometime between 50 and 1 B.C.E., Vikramaditya succeeded in pushing the Sakas back into the Punjab. This left the Andhras in control of north-central and central India. The Sakas, in the meantime, held onto the Indus Valley region, but their hegemony was threatened from the northwest.

Further reading: Vishwa Mitra Mohan, *The Sakas in India and Their Impact on Indian Life and Culture* (Varanasa, India: Chaukhambha Orientalia, 1976); A. K. Narain, *The Earliest Sakas of South Asia* (Patna, India: Kashi Prasad Jayaswal Research Institute, 1998).

Sakdal Uprising (1935)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Philippine rebels vs. government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Luzon, in the central Philippines
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Denied access to political office, armed and discontent Filipino peasant rebels of the Sakdal Party rose up and took control of government buildings throughout Luzon.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was suppressed, its leader exiled, and the Sakdal Party outlawed and disbanded.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 100-plus rebels
TREATIES: None

In the 1930s, landless Filipino peasants, many of whom worked under miserable conditions on the large plantations in central Luzon, began to express their frustration and anger by joining the Sakdal movement founded and led by Benigno Ramos (fl. 1930–35). *Sakdal* means "accuse" in Tagalog, and Ramos's movement placed the blame for the troubles of the Filipino masses on the United States and called for immediate Philippine independence, land reform, and lower taxes for the poor. Clearly opposed to the dominant Nationalist Party, which was willing to accept "gradual" independence from the United States, the Sakdalistas drew inspiration from Mahatma Gandhi's (1869–1948) civil disobedience movement in India, which urged nonparticipation in government, boycott of elections, and withholding taxes. By the mid-1930s, the movement had developed into a political party, and the Sakdals garnered a significant number of votes in the Philippines' 1934 fall elections. When this failed to translate into a voice in official Filipino affairs, throngs of armed Sakdals took to the streets on the night of May 2, 1935. By the next morning they had control of the government buildings in 14 towns throughout Luzon. Government troops, backed by the United States, quickly suppressed the rebellion, and before the day was out at least 100 peasants had been slain in brutal violence. Ramos, however, escaped and fled to Japan. The Philippine government declared the Sakdal Party illegal and saw to its disbanding.

Further reading: Theodore Friend, *Between Two Empires: The Ordeal of the Philippines, 1929–1946* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1965); Stanley Karnow, *In Our Image: American's Empire in the Philippines* (New York: Ballantine Books, 1990).

Saladin's Holy War (1187–1189)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslim forces of Saladin vs. various Crusader armies
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Palestine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When crusaders repeatedly broke truces with the Muslims, the new sultan of a united Syria and Egypt, Saladin, flexed his muscle by declaring a jihad (holy war) and invading the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem.
OUTCOME: The crusaders were defeated, Palestine and Jerusalem fell to Saladin, and Europe launched a Third Crusade to recover the Holy City.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Muslims, 20,000; Christians, about the same number
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1169 a new Muslim leader came to power in the Middle East, Saladin (c. 1137–93), whose strong rule united Syria and Egypt and put the new sultan in a position to challenge the crusader control of Palestine. In 1187, after the unscrupulous Reginald of Châtillon (d. 1187), lord of Krak and Montreal in the Kingdom of Jerusalem, had for the second time broken crusader truces with Saladin by plundering a Muslim caravan, Saladin, the chief warrior of Islam, declared a jihad (holy war) on the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem. In June, Saladin invaded Palestine, besieging the town of Tiberias on the Sea of Galilee with an army of about 20,000. Under the generalship of Guy of Lusignan (1129–94), the Christians raised an army of about the same size, then marched straight into the desert, where Reginald, Guy, and Raymond (c. 1140–87), count of Tripoli, were surrounded by the Muslims and then attacked. At the Battle of Hattin on July 4, Saladin separated the crusader infantry from its cavalry, then overwhelmed each separately. Raymond and a small force of

cavalry attempted to cut their way through Saladin's lines, but Raymond was mortally wounded, and the rest of the crusaders were killed or captured. As a prisoner, Reginald—castigated for breaking the truce—refused to renounce Christianity and become a Muslim; Saladin had him beheaded. Guy, on the other hand, was paroled upon his ceding of the port of Ascalon and his promise to fight no more. Saladin continued his conquest of Palestine, taking Jerusalem in October 1187. For more than a year afterward, he cautiously skirmished with Christians around Tyre. In 1189, Saladin's investment of Acre was thwarted first by a small crusader force led by Guy of Lusignan, then by the arrival of reinforcements under England's Richard I (Lion-Heart; 1157–99), who had embarked on the THIRD CRUSADE.

See also CRUSADER-TURKISH WARS.

Further reading: Stanley Lane-Poole, *Saladin: All-Powerful Sultan and the Unifier of Islam* (Lanham, Md.: Cooper Square, 2002); P. H. Newby, *Saladin in His Time* (London: Phoenix, 2001).

Salim's Revolt

See MOGUL CIVIL WAR (1600–1605).

Salvadoran Civil War (1977–1992)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Anti-government left wing vs. pro-government right wing
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): El Salvador
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The installation of a conservative, repressive civilian-military government provoked rebellion from leftist guerrillas.
OUTCOME: The war was politically indecisive, coming to an end, apparently, from sheer exhaustion on all sides.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Most forces unorganized, numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Estimated 80,000 deaths nationwide
TREATIES: Peace accord, January 16, 1992; permanent cease-fire effective as of February 1, 1992

With the installation of a conservative, repressive civilian-military government in El Salvador, unrest spread throughout the small Central American nation as left-wing and pro-government right-wing factions fought a guerrilla war. Instead of set battles, the civil war was conducted as a series of kidnappings, murders, warrantless arrests, and tortures. Amid this anarchic violence, a military coup overthrew the government on October 15, 1979. The military junta attempted to impose a general cease-fire but to no avail. Then, on March 24, 1980, the archbishop of El Salvador, Oscar Arnulfo Romero (1918–80), a champion of human rights, fell victim to a right-wing assassin as he celebrated mass in the capital city of San Salvador. The nation and the world were stunned and outraged, but the violence only escalated. At Romero's funeral, terrorists exploded bombs and fired into the crowd of mourners. Thirty-one persons were killed, and 200 were wounded. On December 4, 1980, the violence of the Salvadoran Civil War touched the United States when the bodies of four U.S. Catholic churchwomen were found in El Salvador. They had been raped and brutally murdered. The U.S. government responded to the atrocity by temporarily cutting off economic and military aid to El Salvador.

There was even worse to come. In December 1981, Salvadoran government forces massacred 750 men, women, and children in El Mozote during a sweep of rebel forces. By this time, the Salvadoran countryside was a killing field; leftist guerrillas, supported by Cuba and Nicaragua, raided the provinces, hitting police stations and military outposts in an often successful effort to harvest guns and ammunition. About one-third of the nation fell into leftist hands. Meanwhile, right-wing "death squads" continued to sweep through rural El Salvador as they had from the beginning, now ostensibly hunting guerrillas as well as those they had long labeled "subversives," but often killing civilians, especially Jesuit priests and nuns as well as labor and political organizers, indiscriminately. Thousands perished.

The U.S. government supported a succession of right-wing as well as more moderate centrist governments. But even with U.S. support, the government was unable to defeat the rebels, most of whom were members of the Farabundo Martí National Liberation Front (FMLN), a hard-line Marxist group. As the bloodletting continued, the FMLN rejected a multinational Central American peace plan in 1987 and failed to respond to a unilateral cease-fire declared by the government. Yet, by this time, although the government had not cleared out the FMLN, the rebels were making little headway, militarily or politically. The FMLN organized a massive offensive during the national elections of March 1989, simultaneously attacking 20 towns. This gained the leftists nothing and, indeed, probably helped to propel the right-wing National Republican Alliance (ARENA) to power. Alfredo Cristiani (b. 1947) was elected president. Yet the electorate was soon disillusioned with the new administration, which was rife with corruption. Sensing weakness, the FMLN launched in November 1989 a new offensive, which prompted Cristiani to meet with the leftists in a series of United Nations–mediated negotiations that consumed 21 months. At last, on January 16, 1992, a peace accord was hammered out. On February 1, a permanent cease-fire was imposed. The FMLN slowly disbanded, and the government reduced its military forces by 50 percent. Pursuant to the peace accords, the government introduced a host of political and economic reforms. The civil war had resulted in the death of perhaps 80,000 Salvadorans and had produced a vast

number of refugees. During the more than decade-long struggle, the Salvadoran economy, always precarious, had entirely collapsed. It may be said that the civil war ended from sheer exhaustion on both sides.

Further reading: Sewell H. Menzel, *Bullets versus Ballots: Political Violence and Revolutionary War in El Salvador, 1979–1991* (Miami: North-South Central Press, 1994); Tommie Sue Montgomery, *Revolution in El Salvador: From Civil Strife to Civil Peace,* 2nd ed. (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1995); William Stanley, *The Protection Racket: Elite Politics, Military Extortion, and Civil War in El Salvador* (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1996).

Salvadoran-Honduran War *See* SOCCER WAR.

Salvadoran Revolt ("The Slaughter"; La Matanza) (1931–1932)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Military vs. coffee barons; right-wing military forces under General Maximiliano Hernández Martínez vs. left-wing followers of Augustín Farabundo Martí
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): El Salvador
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Military leaders sought to stabilize Salvador's government and economy; communists sought to overthrow rule of Martínez and take control.
OUTCOME: The military coup was successful; the peasant revolt failed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 10,000 rebels and civilians were executed.
TREATIES: None

El Salvador was directly controlled by a powerful clique of coffee barons with friendly ties to commercial interests in the United States until the Great Depression, which unsettled the world economy in 1929 and devastated Salvador's major export business, wrecked its economy, and increased the already considerable misery of its people. In response, a group of military leaders staged a coup and installed General Maximiliano Hernández Martínez (1882–1966) as president in December 1931. A month later, in January 1932, Augustín Farabundo Martí (d. 1932), head of the recently formed Salvadoran Communist Party, organized a two-day revolt by farm workers. With as much speed as ease, Hernández and his army suppressed the rebellion, summarily executing some 10,000 of those he suspected of participating in the uprising. The revolt and its brutal ending—called in Salvador *la matanza,* or "the slaughter"—scarred the history of the nation and, in many ways, dictated its future. For the revolt, which not only eliminated the threat from the left but also destroyed most of the lingering vestiges of Indian culture, taught the landed elite the value of a military dictatorship. Afterward, a succession of military governments controlled the nation until 1979.

See also SALVADORAN CIVIL WAR; SALVADORAN REVOLT (1948).

Further reading: Thomas P. Anderson, *Matanza: The Communist Revolt of 1932* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1971); Alistair White, *El Salvador* (Denver, Colo.: Westview, 1973).

Salvadoran Revolt (1948)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Military officers vs. forces of President Salvador Castañeda Castro
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): El Salvador
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Young military officers sought to install a reform government by overthrowing the current president.
OUTCOME: The coup was accomplished quickly and a new leader installed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but not extensive
TREATIES: None

From 1931 to 1944, the impoverished Central American nation of El Salvador was ruled by a military dictator, President Maximiliano Hernández Martínez (1882–1966), who came to power on a wave of repression known bitterly in El Salvador as *la matanza* ("the slaughter") (*see* SALVADORAN REVOLT [1931–1932]). Personally honest and austere, Hernández sought to model himself politically after the fascist dictators of Europe, but he became best known to Salvadorans for his fascination with the occult arts. His regime survived a coup in April 1944, but he resigned from office the following month when a general strike launched by university students brought the nation to a standstill. Despite the unrest, Hernández's lower-level military men remained in control, and there was no real change in government; one of their own, Salvador Castaneda Castro (c. 1880–1965), took up residence in the presidential palace. While continuing its hard line on Salvadoran liberties, Castaneda's government made a few half-hearted concessions—promoting reforms in education and labor and advocating the union of El Salvador and Guatemala.

Instead of saving his presidency, this combination of faint-hearted reform and hard-line repression proved Castaneda's undoing. In 1948, he became the target of an uprising led by young army officers and called by some the "Majors' Revolution." It called for full-scale reform and installed a junta headed by Major Oscar Osorio (1910–69). This coup d'état, which lasted from December 12 to December 14, gave rise to policies and political prac-

tices that would dominate Salvador's government for the next 30 years. Elected to a six-year term as president in 1950, Osorio organized the Revolutionary Party of Democratic Unification (Partido Revolucionario de Unificación Democrática, or PRUD) and launched a variety of true reforms, including such projects as the development of hydroelectric dams and urban housing. He extended collective bargaining rights to urban workers, but in the main his reforms were aimed at encouraging economic growth, and they were of most benefit to the middle class.

Further reading: Patricia Parkman, *Nonviolent Insurrection in El Salvador: The Fall of Maximiliano Hernández Martínez* (Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1988); Alistair White, *El Salvador* (Denver, Colo.: Westview, 1973).

Samil Independence Movement (March First Movement) (1919–1920)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Korean nationalists vs. Japanese soldiers and police
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Korea
DECLARATION: Proclamation of Independence, 1919
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Koreans, chafing under 10 years of Japanese rule, attempted to garner world support for independence.
OUTCOME: Although the movement failed to achieve Korean independence, Japanese reforms allowed Koreans some measure of self-government. The movement also fostered the establishment of the Korean Provisional Government and drew worldwide attention.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Japan, total unknown; 7,000 Koreans killed and 13,000 wounded
TREATIES: None

Long an independent and proud nation, Korea bristled when, in 1910, Japan annexed the country against its will. At the conclusion of World War I, Koreans petitioned the peace commission in Paris to acknowledge them as an oppressed people entitled to self-determination. When the commission ignored them, the Koreans decided to take matters into their own hands.

On March 1 (or *sam-il* in Korean), 1919 (the commemoration day of the Korean emperor), 33 religious and cultural leaders gathered in the capital city of Seoul to sign and read before a huge crowd the Proclamation of Independence. Supporters of Korean independence gathered in towns throughout the country to read the document and to call on international leaders to pressure Japan into ending colonial rule.

Before Japanese soldiers and police suppressed the movement completely a year later, more than 2 million Koreans took part in 1,500 demonstrations. Although the demonstrations were peaceful, Japanese authorities killed or wounded nearly 23,000 Koreans. An additional 46,000 demonstrators were arrested, of whom some 5,000 were imprisoned.

Once the demonstrations were squelched, the Japanese government conceded a few reforms and granted Koreans a voice in their own governance. Some Koreans, however, remained dissatisfied and in 1919 established a Korean Provisional Government in the Chinese city of Shanghai. The provisional government allowed Korea to make some progress toward independence from Japan. It quickly contacted independence groups at home and abroad, and by 1922 all Korean resistance groups in Manchuria had unified under its leadership. Its leaders published a newspaper, the *Independent,* and sent emissaries to the United States and Europe to keep their plight on the world stage. Still, there was not much the provisional government could do at home against the entrenched Japanese occupation. Totalitarian Japan effectively suppressed all nationalistic dissension in Korea, even prohibiting use of the Korean language in the later 1930s. Internationally, the coalition behind the provisional government ultimately fell apart, with some leaders turning to the United States for moral support, while others looked for military aid for the revolution in Manchuria from the Soviets, and still others were drawn to the right-wing anti-Japanese Chinese Nationalists of Chiang Kai-shek (1887–1975).

In the ensuing years, the failure of the Samil Independence Movement enhanced the rise of the Korean Communist Party. When Korea finally regained its independence after Japan's defeat in World War II, the Communists were ready. In spite of the division of Communist North Korea and democratic South Korea at war's end, both countries observe March 1 as a national holiday.

See also Sino-Japanese War (1894–1895).

Further reading: Woo-Keun Han, *History of Korea* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1970); Andrew J. Grad, *Modern Korea* (New York: Octagon Books, 1978).

Samnite War, First (343–341 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Samnites
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Campania region of Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At the behest of the Latin League, Rome sought to stop incursions by the Samnites into the Campania.
OUTCOME: Internal problems in the Roman army prompted a negotiated peace, which displeased the Latin League.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 341

Toward the end of the fifth century B.C.E., Rome began to expand on the Italian Peninsula at the expense of the Etruscans and other Latin states. In the path of Rome's rapid rise to hegemony over Italy south of the Po valley lay the Samnites. This warrior people, a collection of related Oscan-speaking tribes living principally in the southern Apennine Mountains in what is today Abruzzi, Italy, were not politically unified. Rome's expansion was likely responsible for linking these tribes militarily to oppose their common enemy. According to the Romans, this first in a series of three wars with the Samnites began when Campania, allied with the Romans in the Latin League, called on Rome for military assistance to resist Samnite raids. Although Roman historians tended to paint all the city's imperialism in the colors of justified self-defense against outside aggression, it is probably true that the Campanians, fighting with the Samnites over the town of Capua, sought the backing of Roman military might, the first of many times Rome would go to war at the behest of a weaker ally already at war. Once invited in, the Romans usually wanted to stay. Rome tended not only to conquer the adversary but also to absorb the ally.

In any case, troops were dispatched, and in 342 B.C.E. they emerged victorious from the relatively minor Battle of Mount Gaurus. However, dissension within the Roman ranks proved as formidable a foe as the Samnites themselves. After suffering a series of mutinies, Rome decided to appease the Samnites rather than continue fighting them. A treaty of 341 ceded to the tribes several settlements in the Campania. When this aroused anger within the Latin League, Rome embarked on a course of extending its "protection" to the rest of the Campania. In other words, the Campania itself was now suddenly firmly attached to Rome—a major addition to Rome's growing strength and a new source to satisfy its increasing need for manpower. The absorption of Campania provoked the other Latins in the Latin League to take up arms against Rome to maintain their independence in the LATIN WAR (340–338 B.C.E.), which resulted in the abolishment of the league.

See also SAMNITE WAR, SECOND; SAMNITE WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: R. M. Errington, *The Dawn of Empire: Rome's Rise to World Power* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1972); William V. Harris, *War and Imperialism in Republican Rome, 327–70 B.C.* (Oxford: Clarendon, 1985); E. T. Salmon, *Roman Colonization under the Republic* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1969).

Samnite War, Second (Great) (327–304 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Samnites
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Campania region of Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The war began with a struggle over control of Naples and expanded to encompass control of all southern Italy.
OUTCOME: After initial successes, the Samnites and their allies suffered a series of defeats, which ultimately left Rome as the dominant power in Italy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty between Rome and the Samnites, 304 B.C.E.

After the brief First SAMNITE WAR (343–341 B.C.E.), which resulted in Rome's major acquisition of the rich land of Campania and its capital Capua, and the consequent LATIN WAR from 340 to 338 B.C.E., Rome found itself master of central Italy and spent the next decade in further conquest and colonization. Not surprisingly the Romans soon confronted new Samnite tribes—war-toughened, Oscan-speaking peoples from the rugged mountainous terrain of the southern Apennines, though the current tribes lived in the middle Liris (modern Liri) River valley. The encounter sparked the Second, or Great, Samnite War, during the first half of which Rome suffered serious defeats.

The Samnites had lent their support to those Latins in Naples opposed to the sway of Rome, and Rome responded by besieging Naples, the city now garrisoned by Samnites. Under pressure of the siege, the Samnites peacefully evacuated the city, which in typical Roman fashion was made a Roman ally. The alliance, in turn, presented a fresh cause for war, and the Samnites ambushed Roman legions in the Apennines at Caudine Forks in 321 B.C.E. Trapped in a narrow canyon the legions were compelled to surrender. Rome was forced to sign a five-year treaty. Roman historians later tried to deny this humiliation, inventing stories for Roman consumption of Rome's refusal to accept the peace and of the revenge it took against the Samnites, but the truth was that, although Roman legions were without peer in open battle, they were overmatched in the mountains. The Samnites yoked their prisoners like slaves and marched them out of the mountains, an ignominy Rome was not willing to let stand.

Roman military leaders resolved not only to regroup but also to retrain for fighting on the Samnites' mountainous territory. According to the Roman chroniclers, Rome had always used hoplite tactics, borrowed from the Etruscans. Now, faced with the success of the Samnites, the city's legions adopted the mountain tribes' manipular system. From above, the manipular formation looked like a modern checkerboard, with solid squares of soldiers separated by empty squares. Far more flexible than the solid masses of hoplite formation, the system was ideal for maneuvering on rugged terrain, and Rome continued to use it to deploy its legions throughout the history of the republic and into its imperial age.

By 317, the legions were prepared to resume the war, only to suffer a crushing defeat in 316 at the Battle of Lautulae. From this, however, recovery was more rapid, and in 315 it was the Romans, under Caius Maenius, who defeated the Samnites, at the Battle of Ciuna. This victory

returned control of the Campania to Rome and put the Samnites on the defensive.

In typical Roman fashion, fortified colonies were established on the frontier with Samnium, so that the border region was now well defended. Rome laid the first of its many military roads, the famed *Via Appia*—the Appian Way—from Rome to Capua, thereby ensuring rapid transport, supply, and communication with the frontier. In response to these developments, the Samnites roused the Etruscan cities of the north to rise up against Rome. Roman legions suppressed the rebellion at the Battle of Lake Vadimo in 310 and compelled the Etruscans to make peace by 308. With the Etruscan alliance cut off, the Samnites stirred rebellion among neighboring tribes in the central Apennines, but the Romans also put down these uprisings.

In 305, Titus Minucius led the legions in a siege of Bovianum, a Samnite stronghold. When a Samnite force under Statius Gellius attempted to relieve Bovianum, the legions not only repelled the relief columns but also decimated Gellius's forces—though Minucius also fell in battle. Defeat at Bovianum sent the Samnites to the peace table, and a treaty was concluded in 304, leaving Rome the major power in all Italy.

See also SAMNITE WAR, FIRST; SAMNITE WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: R. M. Errington, *The Dawn of Empire: Rome's Rise to World Power* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1972); William V. Harris, *War and Imperialism in Republican Rome, 327–70 B.C.* (Oxford: Clarendon, 1985); E. T. Salmon, *Roman Colonization under the Republic* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1969).

Samnite War, Third (298–290 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the Samnites (in alliance with the Gauls, Etruscans, and Sabines)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Umbria, Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Samnites and their allies sought to check Rome's northerly expansion.
OUTCOME: The Samnites and their allies were thoroughly defeated, but Samnium was admitted to an alliance with Rome rather than rendered subject to Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rome is known to have fielded at least five legions, about 30,000 men.
CASUALTIES: At the decisive Battle of Sentium: Rome, 8,200 casualties; Samnites and Gauls, 25,000 killed and 8,000 made prisoner
TREATIES: Presumably a formal treaty ended the war in 290 B.C.E. and created a Roman-Samnite alliance.

The Great Samnite War (*see* SAMNITE WAR, SECOND [GREAT]) ultimately ended in a Roman victory that helped make Rome master of all Italy, The Third Samnite War was a last and a desperate attempt by the Samnites to escape the inevitable Roman hegemony and to remain independent. They persuaded the Etruscans, the Sabines, and the Gauls to join them in checking the northward expansion of Rome. The allies raided Roman frontier outposts, but when the Gauls and Samnites went up against five Roman legions at Sentinum (Sassoferrato, Umbria) in 295, they were defeated. The Roman generals Quintus Fabius Maximus Rullianus (d. c. 291 B.C.E.) and Publius Decius Mus attacked Samnite and Gallic forces but were threatened when the Gauls' chariots broke the Roman left. Decius was able to rally his legions—though he himself fell in the action—and the Gauls were pushed back. In the meantime, on the Roman right, the Samnites were routed. This exposed the Gauls' flank, which Fabius attacked, breaking the Gallic line. While the running battle was being fought, other Roman units hit the Samnite camp, killing the allied commander, Gellus Equatius. Roman losses were heavy, at 8,200 killed and wounded, but the Gauls and Samnites lost at least 25,000 killed and another 8,000 prisoners.

After Sentinum, the Roman legions laid waste to the countryside, but the Samnites continued to resist, even after they were again defeated at the Battle of Aquilonia in 293. It was 290 B.C.E. before the Samnites finally sought peace. In recognition of their extreme gallantry—and perhaps recognizing the folly of attempting to enforce abject submission—Rome accepted the Samnites as allies rather than subjects. In any event, Rome was now the unquestioned master of Italy.

See also SAMNITE WAR, FIRST; SAMNITE WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: R. M. Errington, *The Dawn of Empire: Rome's Rise to World Power* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1972); William V. Harris, *War and Imperialism in Republican Rome, 327–70 B.C.* (Oxford: Clarendon, 1985); E. T. Salmon, *Roman Colonization under the Republic* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1969).

Samoan Civil War (1880–1881)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Samoan tribal groups
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Samoa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Following the establishment of commercial treaties with the United States, Germany, and Great Britain and the death of "King" Malietoa Talavou, Samoa's traditional tribal warfare developed into civil war among various groups contending for recognition by the imperialist powers.
OUTCOME: The faction led by Malietoa Laupepa won, with the backing of the imperialists, and he became king.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Although historians disagree sharply about the reasons—and the significance, if any—of the so-called new imperialism of the late 19th and early 20th centuries, they do not dispute that some new departure from past policies did occur. This new era was characterized by an acceleration in colonial acquisitions and the entry onto the field of a number of new players, including the United States, Germany, and Japan, all of which were undergoing the kind of rapid industrialization England—and to some extent, France—had experienced earlier. These colonizing efforts disrupted the traditional societies of indigenous peoples around the globe, especially in Africa and the Pacific, and often led to rebellion and civil war, in which the great powers of Europe were often implicated and frequently involved.

As is often common in hunter-gatherer cultures, erratic tribal warfare had long characterized Samoa. By 1879, however, the United States, Germany, and England had all signed treaties that gave them commercial and other rights, and in 1880 all three agreed to recognize Malietoa Talavou (d. 1880) as Samoa's "king." Consequently, when he died a year later a civil war broke out between groups contending for power and the backing of the imperialists. Eight months of sporadic fighting followed, at the end of which Malietoa Laupepa (d. 1898)—having gained the recognition of the foreign powers—ascended to the throne.

See also SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1887–1889); SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1893); SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1898–1899).

Further reading: Paul M. Kennedy, *The Samoan Tangle: A Study in Anglo-German-American Relations, 1878–1900* (St. Lucia: University of Queensland Press, 1974).

Samoan Civil War (1887–1889)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: German-backed Samoan "king" Tamasese vs. rebels under tribal chief Mataafa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Samoa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Germany responded to the unrest in Samoa created by its commercial policies by deposing the current king, Malietoa, and replacing him with the more pliant Tamasese. The new king's unpopularity gave rebel leader Mataafa the opportunity he had been seeking even under the old king, and Mataafa launched a rebellion.
OUTCOME: The rebels won a few victories, leading the Germans to overreact and threaten to bring in marines, at which point the United States and Great Britain began to apply pressure of their own. As a result, Malietoa was restored to power, after agreeing to grant the foreigners further concessions. The civil war ended, but Mataafa remained a threat.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the decade following the SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1880–1881), the imperial powers—the United States, Germany, and Great Britain—who had helped spark the conflict took control more thoroughly, catching up Samoa in their own jockeying for influence and prestige half a world away. Increasingly, the natives of this island chain in the South Pacific chafed under the commercial and political revolutions in their culture created by the arrival of these foreign powers.

They resented, for example, the heavy taxes imposed on them by a German trading company, which insisted that those who could not afford to pay the taxes mortgage their lands to the company. In support of this commercial land piracy, German warships offloaded troops to back a local chief, Tamasese (fl. 1880s), whom the Germans helped to proclaim *tafaifa,* or "king of all Samoa," exiling the old king, Malietoa Laupepa (d. 1898), who had come to power with the backing of all the imperial powers. A popular chief, Mataafa (d. after 1899), rebelled against Tamasese in September 1888.

The German consul at Apia, on the island of Upolu, took charge of the war effort and led Tamasese's tribesmen against the insurgents, with a German gunboat affording the Germans' client king protection from offshore. At Mulinu'u Point, Mataafa's forces routed Tamasese's warriors; in response the gunboat shelled rebel villages. The Germans had overplayed their hand, and both British and U.S. officials lodged protests with the German government. Meanwhile, Mataafa's followers plundered German plantations and destroyed a contingent of German troops who had invaded the islands. An infuriated German consul then declared martial law and requested Berlin to send two companies of marines.

Wilhelm II's (1859–1941) government denied the request, mainly because it feared that sending the marines might cause the United States to intervene. Under the guidance of all three foreign powers, Tamasese was removed and Malietoa reinstated as king. In turn, Malietoa granted the United States, Great Britain, and Germany new administrative rights in addition to their commercial arrangements. Malietoa, more than ever, was a foreign puppet, and Mataafa, the rebel leader, remained at large and a threat.

See also SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1893); SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1898–1899).

Further reading: Paul M. Kennedy, *The Samoan Tangle: A Study in Anglo-German-American Relations, 1878–1900* (St. Lucia: University of Queensland Press, 1974).

Samoan Civil War (1893)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Samoan natives led by Mataafa vs. native forces of King Malietoa Laupepa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Samoa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rebel Mataafa made a bid for power.

OUTCOME: King Malietoa retained his throne after German and British intervention; supporters of rebel leader Mataafa fled to the Marshall Islands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The intervention of Germany, Britain, and the United States in the resolution of the SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1887–1889) restored native leader Malietoa Laupepa (d. 1898) as king of the Samoan Islands while binding him more tightly to the control of the three powers. Testing the monarch's strength, long-time rebel leader Mataafa (d. after 1899) attacked the king's forces in defiance of a royal summons to the capital city of Apia. The king's soldiers, however, repelled the rebels and cornered them on the island of Manono. The arrival of British and German naval vessels brought a cease-fire and Mataafa's surrender. A German ship effected the exile of the defeated rebel to the Marshall Islands. Malietoa thus rebuffed this threat to his throne, but his death in 1898 set off the SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1898–1899).

See also SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1880–1881).

Further reading: Paul M. Kennedy, *The Samoan Tangle: A Study in Anglo-German-American Relations, 1878–1900* (St. Lucia: University of Queensland Press, 1974).

Samoan Civil War (1898–1899)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of long-time rebel leader Mataafa, supported by Germany vs. Samoans loyal to King Malietoa Laupepa's heir, supported by American and British forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Samoa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At the death of Malietoa Laupepa, Mataafa gained the Samoan throne with German backing. British and U.S. forces backed Malietoa's son, and war ensued.
OUTCOME: Samoa's monarchy was abolished; Germany gained possession of the western islands; the United States obtained the islands in the east.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1899

Exiled to the Marshall Islands at the conclusion of the SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1893), longtime rebel Mataafa (d. after 1899) boarded a German ship and sailed in triumph into the capital city of Apia upon the death of Malietoa Laupepa (d. 1898). Backed by German influence in the Samoan Islands, Mataafa secured the throne at the expense of Malietoa's son, Tanumafili. The sovereign's heir enjoyed the support of many natives, as well as the British and U.S. consuls. Fighting broke out between the loyalists of the two leaders, each side buttressed by their imperialist allies. By January 1899, the conflict had reached the streets in the capital. Within weeks, British and U.S. warships offset Mataafa's advantage, but they were unable to pacify the island's interior regions before the arrival of a peace commission on May 13, 1899. Composed of representatives of Germany, Britain, and the United States, the commission secured a cease-fire.

The commission worked out an agreement by which both factions relinquished their firearms in exchange for monetary gains. Both sides also agreed to abolish not only the Samoan monarchy but the unity of the Samoan Islands as well. The western islands, including Savaii and Upolu, and Samoa's capital city, Apia, became the possession of Germany. The United States took over the eastern islands and established the capital at Pago Pago. The British remained content with nothing in Samoa; Germany and the United States agreed to recognize Britain's interests in Tonga and the Solomon Islands, however.

See also SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1880–1881); SAMOAN CIVIL WAR (1887–1889).

Further reading: Paul M. Kennedy, *The Samoan Tangle: A Study in Anglo-German-American Relations, 1878–1900* (St. Lucia: University of Queensland Press, 1974).

Samudragupta's Conquests *See* GUPTA DYNASTY, CONQUESTS OF THE.

Sand Creek Massacre (Chivington Massacre) (1864)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cheyennes and Arapahos vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Colorado Territory
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Territorial governor's attempt to usurp mineral-rich Indian lands
OUTCOME: After the massacre, the Cheyenne and Arapaho went to war as the U.S. Congress held hearings and American public opinion turned against the army.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 700; Indian numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Cheyennes, 137; Arapahos, 26 (110 of the slain Indians were women or children); United States, 14 killed, 39 wounded
TREATIES: None

The Sand Creek Massacre, a surprise attack by the U.S. Army on an unarmed and peaceful Cheyenne camp on November 29, 1864, shocked and outraged many Americans, led to

congressional and military investigations, and went down in history as a shameful blight on the already checkered record of the country's treatment of Native Americans.

In 1864, when Colorado's territorial governor, John Evans (1814–97), failed to secure mineral-rich Cheyenne and Arapaho hunting grounds in exchange for reservations, he called upon Colonel John M. Chivington (1821–94), military commander of the territory, to sweep the Indians out, even though, of all the Plains tribes, the Cheyennes and Arapahos had given the whites the least excuse for a fight and the majority of Cheyennes were inclined toward peace. A militant faction, a group of young warriors known as the Hotamitanio, or Dog Soldier Society, provided Chivington with incidents sufficient for him to declare all Cheyennes to be at war. He launched a number of attacks, which provoked Indian counterattacks. During the crisis, Governor Evans and Colonel Chivington formed the 3rd Colorado Cavalry, composed of short-term, 100-day enlistees drawn mainly from the territory's wide-open, violence-prone mining camps.

By winter, large numbers of Indians, led by Black Kettle (c. 1804–68), an older chief opposed to the youthful and tempestuous Dog Soldiers, were asking for peace. Evans and Chivington met with the Cheyennes and Arapahos and told them that those Indians who wanted peace should submit to military authority by laying down their arms at a local fort. The Indians left the meeting and marched to Sand Creek, 40 miles northeast of Fort Lyon, where they planned to talk with Major Wynkoop, who issued rations to them. The army, however, had little tolerance for Wynkoop's humanitarianism, and on November 5, one of Chivington's officers relieved Wynkoop as commander of the post, cut the Indian rations, and demanded surrender of their weapons. Some of the soldiers, without provocation of any kind, opened fire on a group of unarmed Arapahos who had approached the fort to trade buffalo hides for rations. By the end of November, most of the 3rd Colorado had gathered at Fort Lyon.

Meanwhile Black Kettle and his Cheyennes were still camped peacefully at Sand Creek, believing they had abided by Evans and Chivington's order to submit to military authority and believing, above all, that they were at peace. Chivington deployed his 700-man force, which included four howitzers, around the camp. When some of Chivington's officers protested that an attack on a peaceful village was murder, Chivington could barely restrain himself, shouting that he had come to kill Indians, believed it was his right to kill them, and would use any means at his disposal to kill them.

The presence of a surrounding army alarmed Black Kettle's people. But the chief had faith in Wynkoop. To calm his people—and to signify his loyalty and peaceful intentions—Black Kettle hoisted an American flag and a white flag of truce over his lodge. In response, the troops opened fire and charged. The unarmed Indians—warriors, old men, women, and children—ran in panic. Unconscionable atrocities were committed: Children's heads were shattered with clubs, women were eviscerated, warrior corpses were castrated. Two hundred Cheyennes, two-thirds of them women and children, and nine chiefs were killed. Black Kettle escaped.

Far from disheartening the Indians, as Chivington had hoped, the Sand Creek Massacre galvanized their resolve to fight. Southern Sioux, Northern Arapahos, and Cheyennes united in a spasm of vicious revenge raids during late 1864 and early 1865, called by the U.S. Army the CHEYENNE AND ARAPAHO WAR of 1864–68. Except for Black Kettle, who still desperately hoped for peace, the chiefs gathered more allies as a result of the attack for a quick strike against the military presence in Colorado. On the other hand, news of the massacre and mutilation of men, women, and children shocked and outraged public opinion in the East and caused a wave of condemnation that led to investigations, first by the congressional Committee on the Conduct of the War, then by a joint committee of the Senate and House, then by a three-man military commission. Congress and the army brass denounced Chivington, who—having left the army—escaped discipline. The peace offensive in Washington hampered, but did not halt, General John Pope's (1822–92) conduct of war in the field against the Cheyenne and the Arapaho.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Stan Hoig, *The Sand Creek Massacre* (Norman: University of Oklahoma, 1961); Patrick M. Mendoza, *Song of Sorrow: Massacre at Sand Creek* (Denver: Willow Wind, 1993); Robert M. Utley, *Frontiersmen in Blue: The United States Army and the Indian, 1848–1865* (New York: Macmillan, 1967).

Sandinista Revolution

See NICARAGUAN CIVIL WAR (1978–1979).

Sandino's Revolt

See NICARAGUAN CIVIL WAR (1925–1933).

San Martin's Campaigns

See CHILEAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; PERUVIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Santee Sioux Uprising

See UNITED STATES–SIOUX WAR (1862–1864).

Santo Domingo, Revolution in (1844)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nationalists of Santo Domingo vs. Haitian ruling forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): City of Santo Domingo

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Santo Domingo independence from Haitian rule
OUTCOME: Santo Domingo regained its independence and reestablished the Dominican Republic.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After Christopher Columbus (1451–1506) first landed on Santo Domingo in the 15th century, the eastern two-thirds of the island of Hispaniola enjoyed only a few glorious weeks of complete and total independence. In 1821, Haiti, on the western end of the island, conquered the new republic shortly after it declared itself free of Spanish rule. Nationalists in Santo Domingo chafed under the harsh rule of Haiti, which had its own internal wars and instabilities.

In the 1830s, Santo Domingan revolutionary Juan Pablo Duarte (1813–73) returned after completing his European education and organized La Trinitaria, a secret society determined to regain the country's independence and spread liberalism. Taking advantage of the overthrow of Haitian president Jean-Pierre Boyer's (1776–1850) corrupt and inept regime in 1843, Duarte attempted to free Santo Domingo of Haiti's rule. His first attempts failed, and he fled the country. In the following year, however, Duarte's supporters continued the revolution, and he returned to join them. The rebels succeeded in capturing the city of Santo Domingo and a nearby fortress on February 24, 1844. They proclaimed an independent Dominican Republic and expelled the Haitian rulers.

Haiti continued the struggle, however, by sending 30,000 troops to the region. At Azua on March 19, nearly 300 Haitians were killed or wounded by Dominican forces under Pedro Santana (1801–64). Fighting continued through 1856, when the last of the Haitian army withdrew after a Dominican victory at Savana Larga.

See also HAITIAN CIVIL WAR; HAITIAN RECONQUEST OF SANTO DOMINGO.

Further reading: Ian Bell, *The Dominican Republic* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1981); H. J. Wiarda and M. J. Kryzanek, *The Dominican Republic, a Caribbean Crucible* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1982).

Santo Domingo Revolt

See HAITIAN CIVIL WAR.

Sanusi Revolt (1915–1917)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sanusi rebels vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Libyan Desert (Egypt)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Traditional opponents of Western colonialism, the Sanusis (instigated by the Turks) attempted to drive British forces out of the Libyan Desert.
OUTCOME: The revolt was put down and the Sanusis driven back into Libya proper.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the early 20th century, European (first French and then Italian) colonization of Libya was resisted by a number of native factions, including the Sanusiyah Brotherhood, known to the Europeans as the Sanusis. The brotherhood was founded in 1837 by Muhammad bin Ali al-Sanusi (1791–1859), a Sufi mystic who might (in today's terms) be described as a militant Islamic fundamentalist, opposed to all violations of Muslim purity, including the incursion of Westerners.

During WORLD WAR I, the German-allied Ottoman Turks persuaded the Sanusis to attack British forces occupying the Libyan Desert of Egypt. The first attacks were launched in November 1915 and required the diversion of substantial British reinforcements to counter them. Early in 1916, during February and March, the British mounted a counteroffensive against the Sanusis, driving them in retreat to the Suva Oasis. There they stayed until 1917, when British forces captured the oasis and pushed the remaining Sanusis back into Libya.

The Sanusi Revolt had come to an end, but the power of the Sanusis was by no means neutralized. In Libya, they remained a continual menace to the Italians, and, after Italy's defeat in WORLD WAR II, the Sanusis were there to seize control of Libya. It was a Sanusi, Idris I (1890–1983), who became the first king of independent Libya in 1951. Idris was deposed in a coup led in 1969 by the present dictator of Libya, Muammar al-Qaddafi (b. 1943).

Further reading: Sanusiyah N. A. Ziadeh, *A Study of a Revivalist Movement in Islam* (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1958).

Sardinian Revolution

See PIEDMONTESE REVOLT.

Sargon's Conquests of Sumer (c. 2325 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Akkad vs. Sumer
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sumer and Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Imperial expansion and conquest
OUTCOME: Akkad conquered Sumer and vast realms in Asia Minor.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Sargon of Akkad (r. c. 2334–2279 B.C.E.) came to the throne around 2334 B.C.E. Little is known of him or of the Semitic people he led; however, he was certainly a prodigious empire builder, who pushed his territorial holdings far into the northwest, reaching into Asia Minor and ultimately attaining the coast of the Mediterranean. He defeated the forces of Uruk, which had dominated Sumer, and then took all of the cities along the middle Euphrates. He asserted control of the silver region of Anatolia (Turkey) and captured Susa, the Elamite capital in present-day western Iran. Sargon may even have reached Egypt, Ethiopia, and India. Totally engulfed in his career of conquest was the great ancient realm of Sumer. It is believed that the empire Sargon created lasted at least two centuries after his death.

Further reading: Harriet Crawford, *Sumer and the Sumerians* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1991); Albert Ten Eyck Olmstead, *History of Assyria* (New York: Scribner's, 1923).

Satsuma Revolt (1877)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Samurai of Satsuma vs. Japan's Meiji empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Satsuma, southern Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The samurai rebelled against what was effectively their dissolution by the Meiji emperor.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was put down by a large peasant army after an eight-month struggle.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Samurai, 40,000; forces of the emperor (not the regular army), 65,000
CASUALTIES: 20,000 rebels, killed or wounded; 6,278 Meiji troops killed, 9,523 wounded.
TREATIES: None

In feudal Japan, the samurai were the great hereditary warrior class. They endured from the 12th to the 19th century. In 1867, Japan was formally and finally unified under Mutsuhito (1852–1912), who reigned as Meiji, and the Tokugawa shogunate (military dictatorship), which had ruled Japan since the 17th century, came to an end. Although the daimyos, feudal lords under the shogunate, peacefully relinquished their domains to the emperor and accepted the infusion of the modern age under what was called the MEIJI RESTORATION, the samurai resisted the change and clung to the old ways.

In an effort to placate them, in 1871, the Japanese Crown granted the samurai generous pensions and empowered them to engage in any business or agricultural pursuits they desired. In 1873, the samurai were offered the option of taking their pensions in single lump-sum payments; three years later, this option was declared mandatory. The order bred further discontent among many of the samurai, as did a decree forbidding the wearing of swords except by military officers. To relinquish the wearing of the two swords was a far greater insult than even the commutation of the pension.

The Meiji military had little trouble putting down most of the various samurai groups who rose up in response to these insults, but in southern Japan on the island of Kyushu an aging but proud warrior named Saigo Takamori (1827–77) led the Satsuma clan in a last stand. Using both modern and traditional weapons, the Satsuma warriors posed a genuine military threat to the new regime. Beginning with some 15,000 rebels on January 29, 1877, Saigo besieged the imperial castle at Kumamoto. Over the course of the next few months he built up a force that reached 40,000 and that required Meiji to buttress his imperial army with a peasant draft. When some 50,000 of these new troops arrived to relieve the garrison, they surrounded and defeated the rebels. All in all, the Satsuma samurai would lose some 20,000 killed or wounded compared to the 6,278 killed and 9,523 wounded out of the 65,000 total troops deployed by the emperor. But it was the death of Saigo Takamori in a battle outside of Kagoshima Castle on September 24, 1877, that brought the revolt to an abrupt end. Without a leader, Saigo's inner circle committed *sepuku* (ritual suicide), and the others surrendered.

Further reading: W. G. Beasley, *The Meiji Restoration* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1972); D. Keene, *Emperor of Japan: Meiji and His World, 1852–1912* (New York: Columbia University Press, 2002).

Savoyard Invasion (1602)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Savoyards (with Spanish support) vs. Swiss
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Environs of Geneva, in Switzerland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Savoyards, repulsed outside of Geneva, withdrew from Switzerland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

At the beginning of the 17th century, Switzerland was a loose confederation of contentious cantons, so divided that

warfare was frequent even within the cantons, typically over religious issues. The House of Savoy, always viewing the loose Swiss Confederation as territory ripe for conquest, secured Spanish support for an invasion. The Savoyard invaders made it as far as the outer defenses of Geneva before skilled Swiss troops repulsed them, and they rapidly withdrew from the cantons. This was one of many armed conflicts that presaged the THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Edgar Bonjour, *A Short History of Switzerland* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1985); Toby Osborne, *Dynasty and Diplomacy in the Court of Savoy: Political Culture and the Thirty Years' War* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Stanley Weintraub, ed., *Savoy* (State College: Pennsylvania State University Press, 1966).

Saxon Raids: Early Raids (c. 205–369)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Saxons vs. Britons and Roman legions
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Britain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pillage
OUTCOME: Raiding was very costly; the great raid of 367 resulted in major devastation; order was restored by General (later Emperor) Theodosius.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Although no written historical records of the early Saxon raids of Roman Britain exist, archaeologists believe that raiding began in the early third century. The raiders were a mixture of Germanic tribes, which the Romans collectively labeled "Saxons." Apparently, raids were sporadic until about 250, when they became regular and severe enough to warrant the erection of fixed fortifications along the shore from Kent to the location of modern Portsmouth. Clearly, the first nine forts—those erected by 250—were not sufficient; by 300, there was a chain extending as far west as Cardiff, in Wales. London, by now the major city of the Roman colony, was enclosed by a wall, and the town of York was also heavily fortified.

The Saxons indulged in raids rather than full-scale invasion; their object was not conquest, but pillage—and terror to expedite pillage. As far as can be determined, the staging areas for the raids were in Boulogne and Cherbourg.

In 367 there occurred a battle of sufficient magnitude to merit recording in annals. The Saxons exploited the withdrawal of Roman troops, who had been recalled to Rome to resist barbarian attack. Unimpeded by the legions, the Saxons dealt a major blow to the Britons, who lost their "count of the Saxon shore"—essentially the chief military leader—and the duke in command of the "northern army." These blows laid England open to massively destructive raids, which caused many settlements to be abandoned. It was not until Theodosius (c. 346–95), a Roman general who later became emperor, took command that the Saxons were driven out and some semblance of peace and order restored.

See also SAXON RAIDS: INVASION OF BRITAIN BY ANGLES, SAXONS, AND JUTES; ARTHUR'S DEFENSIVE WARS; SAXON CAMPAIGNS IN SOUTH-CENTRAL BRITAIN.

Further reading: Geoffrey Ashe, *From Caesar to Arthur* (London: Collins, 1960).

Saxon Raids: Invasion of Britain by Angles, Saxons, and Jutes (c. 407–500)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britons vs. Saxons and Picts, then Britons vs. Jutes (Saxons, Angles, Frisians, Franks, and Jutes)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Britain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pillage and conquest
OUTCOME: The Saxons established kingdoms in Wessex and Sussex; the Britons united in Armorica ("Little Britain").
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No documents survive

The first disastrous period of Saxon raids against Britain was ended in 369 by forces under General (later Emperor) Theodosius (c. 346–95) (*see* SAXON RAIDS: EARLY RAIDS). When Roman legions were again withdrawn from Britain to defend Rome itself against barbarian invasion, the Saxon raids resumed. This was about the year 407.

In contrast to the earlier raids, those of this second period often penetrated far inland. Up to 429, combat followed the usual pattern of raids—pillaging—without discrete battles. However, in 429, Verulamium (St. Albans) was attacked by Saxons allied with Picts. This developed into a major battle, in which the Britons collapsed; British rule disintegrated under the combined onslaught of Saxons, Picts, and Scots. An appeal was made to Rome for military assistance in 446, but to no avail.

In the power vacuum created by the raiding, various warlords took charge of whatever territory they could control. One of these, a Briton named Vortigern (d. c. 461), employed mercenary Jute barbarians to fight the Picts. The Jutes, who included an admixture of Saxons, Angles, Frisians, and Franks as well as Jutes proper, rebelled against Vortigern over an issue of payment. The mercenaries secured reinforcements from relatives and other tribes, then attacked Aylesford in 455 and Crayford in 457, both of which fell to them. By 475, they had established the

kingdom of Kent—and thus the Saxons (along with others) created a lasting presence in Britain.

The chaos drove many Britons westward to Armorica, or Little Britain, leaving Sussex and Wessex to the Saxons, who established kingdoms in these places by 477 and 495, respectively. Over the next decade, the Britons became increasingly united and well prepared to war with the Saxons (*see* SAXON RAIDS: ARTHUR'S DEFENSIVE WARS; SAXON CAMPAIGNS IN SOUTH-CENTRAL BRITAIN).

Further reading: David A. E. Pelteret, *Anglo-Saxon History: Basic Readings* (New York: Garland, 2000); M. J. Whittock, *The Origins of England, 410–600* (Totowa, N.J.: Barnes and Noble Books, 1986).

Saxon Raids: Arthur's Defensive Wars
(c. 500–537)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britons vs. Saxons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Britain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rallying behind King Arthur, the Britons sought to recover territory lost to the Saxons.
OUTCOME: Defeating the Saxons with a cavalry attack, Arthur confined the Saxons to territory east of the Fosse Way and firmly established Briton hegemony west of that road.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Beginning about 400 C.E., Britain suffered invasion by various Norse tribes (*see* SAXON RAIDS: INVASION OF BRITAIN BY ANGLES, SAXONS, AND JUTES). The Saxons had established kingdoms in Sussex and Wessex (495), whereas the Britons had, by 500, become united in Armorica ("Little Britain"). Sometime before 516 they rallied behind a chief known to history as Artorius, presumably the King Arthur of legend. By 537 Arthur had engaged the Saxons in a major battle at a place called Badon Hill, which historians believe corresponds to the modern Liddington Badbury. Arthur used cavalry in a swift offensive against the Saxons, to whom battle on horseback was entirely unknown. Overwhelmed, the Saxons suffered a decisive defeat, and withdrew east of the Fosse Way, a long-established Roman road. The Britons now became preeminent in the west.

See also SAXON RAIDS: EARLY RAIDS; SAXON CAMPAIGNS IN SOUTH-CENTRAL BRITAIN.

Further reading: Geoffrey Ashe, *From Caesar to Arthur* (London: Collins, 1960); W. A. Cummins, *King Arthur's Place in Prehistory: The Great Age of Stonehenge* (Wolfeboro Falls, N.H.: A. Sutton, 1992).

Saxon Raids: Saxon Campaigns in South-Central Britain (534–600)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Internecine conflict among the Saxons; then, Saxons vs. Britons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Britain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pillage and expansion
OUTCOME: The Britons were defeated and weakened, but internecine conflict among the Saxons prevented the Saxons from fully exploiting the Briton's defeat.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable during this long period
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but very heavy among the Britons
TREATIES: None

By the middle third of the sixth century, the Saxons who had come to Britain as invaders had set up the separate kingdoms of Kent, Sussex, Wessex, East Anglia, Essex, Northumbria (Bernicia and Deira), and Mercia—the so-called Saxon Heptarchy. Among these kingdoms, raiding was frequent, as were conflicts to acquire territory and political dominance. The Britons, confined primarily to the west, looked on until 552, when they launched an offensive across the Fosse Way at Searoburh (Old Sarum). The Saxon defenders repulsed the attack, then mounted a counteroffensive, which drove the Britons back and put the Saxons in a favorable position for seizing the initiative from the Britons. This they did in 556. Saxon forces crossed the Fosse Way and won important victories, then held fast. They did not renew the offensive until 571, again emerging generally victorious. The crowning disaster for the Britons came in 577, at the Battle of Deorham (Dyrham, near Bath). The Britons of Dumnonia were decimated here.

Despite decisive victories, the Saxons did not press their advantage, failing to occupy Dumnonia. Until the beginning of the seventh century, they continued to prey upon the Britons in sporadic raids, but, so far as out-and-out war was concerned, they fought mainly among themselves.

See also AETHELFRITH'S WARS; SAXON RAIDS: EARLY RAIDS; INVASION OF BRITAIN BY ANGLES, SAXONS, AND JUTES; ARTHUR'S DEFENSIVE WARS.

Further reading: D. J. V. Fisher, *The Anglo-Saxon Age, 400–1042* (London: Longman, 1973).

Scandinavian Revolt (1433–1439)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Swedish, Danish, and Norwegian rebels vs. Kalmar Union
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sweden
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Swedes rebelled against the oppressive rule of Erik of Pomerania, ruler of the Kalmar Union of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway.
OUTCOME: As Erik became increasingly tyrannical, Denmark and then Norway joined Sweden in revolt, and Erik was deposed as king of Denmark and as ruler of the Kalmar Union.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Kalmar Union, which comprised Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, was ruled by a Dane, Erik of Pomerania (1382–1459)—Erik VII—who appointed Danes and Germans to administrative posts in Sweden and interfered in the affairs of the church. His bellicose foreign policy forced him to impose heavy taxes and troop levies on Sweden, which especially burdened and angered Sweden's peasantry. Finally his war with Holstein (*see* KALMAR WAR WITH THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE) prompted a Hanseatic blockade of the Scandinavian states in 1426 and cut off the import of salt and other necessities and the export of ore from Sweden. This, along with the oppressive taxation, the disruptive troop drafts, and the onerous "foreign" officialdom, led to a revolt by Bergslagen peasants and miners in 1434, while the war still raged. The rebel leader, Engelbrekt Engelbrektsson (d. 1436), marched his ragtag and impromptu army against the Danish governor, successfully attacking castles and evicting many of the hated Danish bailiffs and German officials.

Around the nucleus of Engelbrektsson's grassroots force, people from the Swedish provinces of Upland, Vermland, and Södermanland joined the revolt, which soon extended to parts of Norway and certain towns of the powerful Hanseatic League. Propelled by popular force, the rebellion formed a coalition with the national council, which at the 1435 national meeting in Arboga named Engelbrekt "administrator" of Sweden.

With the rebellion under way, Erik of Pomerania negotiated with the nobility of Sweden—which opposed the uprising of the peasantry—to create a new alliance of Denmark and Sweden with the object of reestablishing Erik on the throne. In an effort to end Engelbrektsson's power, the Swedish nobility forced the council to abolish the post of administrator, but then it went beyond this by allowing Erik to turn his army loose upon the Swedish coast. The troops caused great destruction; the council rebelled by reestablishing the administrator post and naming to it nobleman Karl Knutsson (c. 1408–70) along with Engelbrekt. Soon after, Engelbrekt was murdered by a nobleman, and Karl Knutsson became the sole Swedish regent.

Meanwhile, Erik defied the Swedish council, the new administrator, and his own people, the Danes, who now demanded constitutional reforms to limit his absolute sovereignty. In Denmark and Sweden, Erik of Pomerania was officially deposed in 1439, and Norway followed suit three years later.

A new Kalmar Union was formed, along constitutional lines, and the Danish council elected Erik's nephew, Christopher of Bavaria (1418–48), as king in 1440. Karl Knutsson gave up his regency, receiving, in return, Finland as a fief, whereupon the Swedish council also accepted Christopher as their new king.

Further reading: Ingvar Andersson, *A History of Sweden,* trans. Carolyn Hannay (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1975); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2002); Franklin D. Scott, *Sweden: The Nation's History* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1977).

Scandinavian War (1026–1030)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Norway and Sweden vs. Denmark
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Norway and Denmark
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Olaf II of Norway wanted to end Danish hegemony in his country.
OUTCOME: Despite an alliance with Sweden, Norway, twice defeated at sea, failed to end Danish hegemony.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Descended from Norway's pagan royalty, Olaf Haraldson (c. 995–1030) was a Viking whose exploits in the Baltic as a young man brought him to England in 1009, where he joined English ruler Ethelred II ("the Unready"; c. 968–1016) against the Danes in 1013 (*see* VIKING RAIDS IN ENGLAND, LATER). When the Danes began to again gain the upper hand in England, Olaf sailed off, first to France, then to Spain. It was in France, in 1013, that he accepted Christianity and was baptized.

Returning to Norway two years later, Olaf launched a series of conquests of territory previously held by Denmark, Sweden, and some of the Norwegian nobility. By 1016 he had consolidated his hold over all Norway. Over the next 12 years he not only built a base of support among the aristocracy in the interior opposed to Denmark's hegemony in the Baltic but tirelessly pushed on them his Christian faith, using missionaries he brought back from England. In fact, the Church of Norway dates from 1024, when Olaf and his ecclesiastical advisers established a religious code at Moster, considered by many to be Norway's first national legislation.

In 1026, after a 10-year respite from Danish domination, Canute II (the Great; c. 995–1030) king of England and Denmark, threatened to conquer Norway and restore Danish territorial rights. To resist this, Olaf II struck an alliance with Anund (d. 1051) of Sweden and launched a naval attack against the Danes. The attack was repulsed with the defeat of the Swedish fleet at the Battle of Strangebjerg in 1026. However, while Canute was leading this battle, Olaf and Anund invaded Denmark by land.

In 1028, after Canute's return, a new naval battle was launched, which resulted in an even worse defeat for the combined Swedish and Norwegian fleets at the Battle of Helgeaa. Beaten, Anund returned to Sweden. Olaf continued to resist. Canute—who, on the one hand, controlled the trade routes to the west of Norway and, on the other, was likely to rule more indirectly than the Christianizing Olaf—now won the support of leading Norwegian chieftains and forced Olaf to flee to Russia in 1028. At Kiev he took refuge with the relatives of his Swedish wife.

In 1030, Olaf attempted to reconquer Norway after recruiting a new army from Sweden with the help of Anund. But he was defeated and killed by a superior force, consisting of Norwegian peasants and Danish warriors, in the Battle of Stiklestad, one of the more celebrated battles in Viking lore. As a result, long afterward a legendary aura surrounded his death.

Indeed, talk of various miracles accompanying his death, along with his missionary work, led the Christian church to canonize him in 1031, after which his popularity spread rapidly. Soon churches and shrines in his honor cropped up in England, in Sweden, and in Rome for this new saint, ultimately the last to be accepted both by the Roman Catholic and by the Eastern Orthodox churches.

Further reading: T. K. Dern, *A History of Scandinavia* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1991); Laurence Marcellus Larson, *Canute the Great, 995–1035, and the Rise of Danish Imperialism during the Viking Age* (New York: AMS, 1970).

Scandinavian War (1448–1471)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sweden and Norway vs. Denmark
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sweden
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: At issue was Danish hegemony in Sweden.
OUTCOME: After a long struggle among many factions, Denmark's King Christian I was decisively defeated at the Battle of Brukeberg, near Stockholm, and the Danish hegemony over Sweden ended permanently.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

When the Danish council elected Christopher of Bavaria (1418–48) King Christopher III in 1440, it was in hopes of forming a new Kalmar Union along constitutional lines that might prove more acceptable to Swedes who had mounted the SCANDINAVIAN REVOLT of 1433–39. In the event Swedish regent (or administrator) Karl Knutsson (c. 1408–70) gave up his control in exchange for Finland as a fiefdom, and the Swedish council also officially accepted the new king. But when Christopher died without heirs, the Swedes elected Knutsson as King Charles VIII, hoping the Danes too would accept him as head of the union. Instead the Danes elected Christian of Oldenburg (1426–81) their new King Christian I. For its part, Norway chose Charles, not Christian, as king, but at a meeting of the Danish and Swedish councils in 1450 the Norwegians agreed to give up Charles's claims on Norway in order to help settle the conflicting claims. Parties to the councils' meeting also agreed that whichever king lived longest would inherit the union or that a new joint king would be elected when both were dead.

Charles refused to have any part of these compromises, and war broke out between the two countries. But Charles's obstinacy cost him. Already under pressure from the Swedish clergy, which hated him, he lost the support of the nobles and the people. In February 1457, he fled the country, and Christian was popularly acclaimed "king of Scandinavia."

It did not take long before Christian's oppressive tactics of domestic government, including burdensome taxation and the use of a government police force, made him unpopular. When Christian added to this a dispute with the church over funds, the Swedish bishop of Linkoping nullified all obligations of allegiance to Christian and mustered military forces for a rebellion. Thousands soon joined in the uprising, and the king's armies were forced into headlong retreat all the way to Stockholm. After taking a brief stand, the Danes capitulated, and Christian returned to Copenhagen. Charles VIII was recalled to the Swedish throne in 1464.

In 1465, Christian, still occupying the Danish throne, reached out to the archbishop of Uppsala, Sweden, who agreed to organize a Swedish force opposed to Charles. Later in the year, Charles was defeated in battle and, once again, departed the throne and fled the country. Christian, however, did not step in but allowed the archbishop of Uppsala to assume the reins of government. Partisans of the departed Charles plotted against the archbishop, who called on Christian for military aid in 1466. In the meantime, Charles's supporters formally renounced Danish rule and again called for the return of their king. Now Sweden was divided between supporters of Charles and supporters of Denmark and Christian. Charles, however, returned to Sweden with a sizable army and defeated the Danes and their supporters.

Peace negotiations were under way when Charles died in 1470, leaving the government in the hands of Sten

Sture (c. 1440–1503), "administrator" of Sweden. Sten organized a new military force, which he led against Christian at the Battle of Brukeberg, outside of Stockholm, on October 10, 1471. Sten dealt Christian a decisive defeat, which ended the Danish hegemony in Sweden.

Further reading: Ingvar Andersson, *A History of Sweden,* trans. by Carolyn Hannay (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1975); T. K. Derry, *A History of Scandinavia* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1991); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2002); Franklin D. Scott, *Sweden: The Nation's History* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1977).

Schleswig-Holstein Revolt (1848–1849)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Denmark (with Swedish aid and diplomatic aid from England, Austria, and Russia) vs. Prussia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Schleswig-Holstein
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Prussia sought to expand into the region by aiding German-speaking locals in rebellion against Denmark, which controlled Schleswig-Holstein.
OUTCOME: Denmark prevailed, with military and diplomatic aid from several countries.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Denmark, 3,500 killed; Prussia, 2,500 killed
TREATIES: Convention of Malmö, August 26, 1848; Treaty of Berlin, 1850

The German-speaking Danish provinces of Schleswig and Holstein revolted against their Danish overlords in 1848, partially at the instigation of Prussia, which sent military aid in the form of an army of occupation under General Friedrich Heinrich von Wrangel (1784–1877).

Sweden responded with military aid to Denmark; England also supported the Danes, threatening naval action against Prussia. When both Austria and Russia threw their support behind Denmark, the Prussians withdrew, leaving the "Schleswig-Holstein Question" unsettled.

The war consisted of two distinct rounds of combat—the first spanning April 10 to August 26, 1848, and the second, March 25 to July 10, 1849. The second round of fighting came after the Convention of Malmö (August 26, 1848), and peace was not fully and formally established until the Treaty of Berlin in 1850. That treaty restored Danish rights to the provinces, but a second war (the DANISH-PRUSSIAN WAR of 1864) would erupt over rival claims.

See also SEVEN WEEKS' WAR.

Further reading: Palle Laurins, *A History of Denmark,* 7th ed. (Nordic Books, 1986); Stewart Oakley, *A Short History of Denmark* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Schleswig-Holstein War *See* DANISH-PRUSSIAN WAR.

Schmalkaldic War (1546–1547)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Schmalkaldic League (nine Protestant German states) vs. the Holy Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany
DECLARATION: Holy Roman Empire on the Schmalkaldic League, 1546
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Holy Roman Emperor, Charles V, wanted to destroy the power of the Protestant Schmalkaldic League.
OUTCOME: The Schmalkaldic League was decisively defeated and broken at the Battle of Mühlberg.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the culminating Battle of Mühlberg, the Schmalkaldic League fielded 9,000 men against 13,500 papal and imperial troops.
CASUALTIES: Schmalkaldic League casualties at Mühlberg were very heavy; papal and imperial forces lost only 50 men.
TREATIES: None

Feeling menaced by the Holy Roman Empire, nine Protestant German states (Hesse, Saxony, Brunswick, Anhalt, Mansfeld, Magdeburg, Bremen, Strassburg, Ulm) formed the Schmalkaldic League in 1531 as a defensive alliance. The Holy Roman Emperor, Charles V (1500–58), took no action against the league and, in fact, did not so much as deign to recognize its existence until 1544. Two years later, in 1546, he decided to act against it.

Using as a pretext the Protestants' refusal to attend the Council of Trent convened by the church, Charles declared war on the Schmalkaldic League. It was an ill-timed declaration, because he had not bothered to marshal the forces to back it. For its part, however, the league failed to act quickly, when it could easily have defeated unprepared imperial forces. The first battle did not take place until April 24, 1547, at Mühlberg (near Leipzig). By this time, imperial forces, under Don Fernando Álvarez de Toledo, Duke of Alba (1508–82), were well prepared, whereas the dilatory league had not gathered all of its strength; in fact, it had even lost some forces that defected to the Holy Roman Empire. Thirty-five hundred imperial troops allied with a papal army of 10,000—13,500 troops in all—engaged 9,000 German Protestants under John Frederick (1503–54), elector of Saxony, and Philip (1504–67), landgrave of Hesse. The result was disaster for the forces of the league, which suffered heavy losses, compared to only 50 casualties on the Catholic side. Both Protestant commanders, John Frederick and Philip, were taken prisoner, and the war abruptly ended. In 1548, the Protestant leaders were ignominiously exhibited at the Diet of Augsburg, which, despite triumph

over the German Protestants, failed to resolve dissension within the Holy Roman Empire.

See also HAPSBURG-VALOIS WAR; ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V AND FRANCIS I, FIRST; ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V AND FRANCIS I, SECOND; ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V AND FRANCIS I, THIRD; ITALIAN WAR BETWEEN CHARLES V AND FRANCIS I, FOURTH; ITALIAN WAR OF CHARLES VIII.

Further reading: William Maltby, *The Reign of Charles V* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2002); M. J. Rodriguez-Salgado, *The Changing Face of Empire: Charles V, Philip II, and Hapsburg Authority, 1551–1559* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1988).

Scottish Barons' Revolt (1488)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: James III vs. his dissident nobles
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Always a weak monarch, James nevertheless regained control of his crown after being deposed in the Anglo-Scottish War of 1482, only to face another revolt from his discontented barons.
OUTCOME: After the conspirators captured his son, James was captured and killed at the Battle of Sauchieburn; his son was crowned king, and the leading dissident became regent.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1482), James III (1452–88) of Scotland had been removed from the throne by his own brother, Alexander (c. 1454–85), duke of Albany, in league with a dissident Scottish baron, Archibald "Red" Douglas (1449–1514), and England's Edward IV (1442–83). Captured by Albany at Lauder, James was forced to watch as Douglas hanged his favorites. Afterward, given the fact that James had never been popular with the Scots, Albany arrogantly dismissed his elder sibling back to Edinburgh as he set up his own rule. By March 1483, however, James had regained some ground and was sufficiently powerful to expel Albany from Scotland. Still, even without England to support the discontented among his subjects, James was unable to ward off revolts. In 1488, two powerful border families, the Homes and the Hepburns, once again backed by "Red" Douglas, raised a rebellion and captured James's 15-year-old son, the future king James IV (1473–1513). The king tried in vain to come to terms with the conspirators, then fled to Stirling Castle. The keep treasonably refused him entrance, and he was forced to turn and face the rebels at Sauchieburn. Thrown from his horse and captured, James III was stabbed to death by one of his assailants, whose name remained anonymous. James IV was crowned king, and Douglas became his regent.

Further reading: Norman Macdougall, *James III, A Political Study* (Edinburgh: J. Donald, 1982).

Scottish-English Wars *See* ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1079–1080); ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1214–1216); ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1482); ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1513); ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1542–1549); ANGLO-SCOTTISH WAR (1559–1560); SCOTTISH WAR (1295–1296); SCOTTISH WAR (1314–1328).

Scottish Invasion of Ireland (1315–1318)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scots invaders under Edward and Robert Bruce vs. Anglo-Irish defenders of Ireland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ireland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Bruces wanted to conquer Ireland, with Edward as king.
OUTCOME: Despite initial success, the invaders were ejected by an Anglo-Irish army under Roger de Mortimer.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Edward Bruce (d. 1318) was the brother of the famed Scots nationalist leader Robert Bruce (1274–1329), known as Robert the Bruce. Edward pressed his hereditary claim to the earldom of Ulster by invading Ireland with some 6,000 men in 1315. At the Battle of Connor, he engaged and defeated the forces of the then-earl of Ulster, then went on to recruit the allegiance of the people of Connaught and West Meath, who gave him more than an earldom. By acclamation, Edward was crowned king of Ireland in 1316, and many rallied to Edward's side.

In 1317, Edward invaded southern Ireland (as far as Limerick) with his brother Robert but began to lose the support of the people as the cost and brutality of the invasion escalated. The Bruces invaded in hit-and-run fashion and failed to establish strongholds, so once a sizable Anglo-Irish force was mustered by the English lord lieutenant of Ireland, Roger de Mortimer (c. 1287–1330), the Scottish invaders were pushed back to Ulster. Discouraged, Robert the Bruce returned to Scotland, leaving his brother Edward to face Mortimer alone. Edward fell at the Battle of Faughard, near Dunkirk, in 1318.

See also SCOTTISH WAR (1314–1328).

Further reading: Caroline Bingham, *Robert the Bruce* (London: Constable, 1998).

Scottish Revival *See* Bruce's Revolt.

Scottish Uprising *See* Cromwell's Scottish Campaign.

Scottish Uprising against Mary, Queen of Scots (1567–1568)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mary, Queen of Scots vs. the Protestant lords of Scotland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After the mysterious death of Mary, Queen of Scots' husband, Lord Darnley, the Protestant lords sought to capture her and neutralize her power as well as that of her new husband, the earl of Bothwell.
OUTCOME: Mary's forces were defeated. Bothwell escaped, but Mary was captured, escaped, and was subsequently held by Elizabeth I of England, who, many years later, ordered her execution.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mary's forces numbered about 6,000; the forces of the Protestant lords were superior in number.
CASUALTIES: Protestant lords, 300 killed; losses among Mary's army are unknown, but were doubtless higher.
TREATIES: None, save the abdication of Mary, Queen of Scots

Mary, Queen of Scots (1542–87), was raised Catholic by her grandmother's family in France. After the death of her husband, French king Francis II, she returned in 1561 to a Scotland become newly Protestant following the uprising against the regency of her mother, Mary of Guise (1515–60) (*see* Scottish Uprising against Mary of Guise). Not only was the young queen Roman Catholic, she was also next in line to the throne of England's resolutely Protestant monarch, Elizabeth I (1533–1603). Not surprisingly Mary had many enemies, both in her own court and Elizabeth's, at home and in England, though she remained the hope of the Scottish (and, secretly, English) Catholics. Much to Elizabeth's chagrin Mary soon married Henry Stuart, earl Darnley (1545–67), whom she had met in France after her first husband's death, and soon the two had produced a son, James (1566–1625), who would indeed ascend to both the Scottish throne and, after Elizabeth's death, the English.

Even before the birth of James, however, it became evident to Mary what everyone else already knew—that, despite his superficial charm, Darnley was a lazy, arrogant, thoroughly disreputable, probably syphilitic drunk. Demented by jealousy of Mary's secretary, David Riccio, Darnley had him murdered in 1566, then betrayed his accomplices, who in turn showed Mary her husband's written agreement to the murder.

Unable to clear himself with her, Darnley remained an embarrassment to all. Three months after the birth of their son on June 19, 1566, Darnley's strangled body was discovered in a garden near the couple's temporary residence in Edinburgh, which itself had that very night been destroyed by a mysterious explosion, all while the queen was conveniently away.

Not surprisingly, Mary was suspected of having conspired to murder her husband, a crime that turned both Catholics and Protestants against her. She added insult to injury by suddenly marrying James Hepburn (c. 1536–78), fourth earl of Bothwell, just three months after Darnley's violent demise. It was generally believed that Bothwell was Mary's co-conspirator in the death of Darnley, and the Protestant lords, claiming that they had to "save" Mary from Bothwell, mounted a military campaign to apprehend her as well as her new husband.

Bothwell and troops loyal to him ran into the Protestant forces led by Mary's illegitimate half brother, James Stewart (1531–70), earl of Moray, at Cranberry Hill on June 15, 1567. Bothwell's men broke and ran. Moray's troops seized Mary, but Bothwell escaped, fled, and eventually found refuge in Scandinavia. Mary was compelled to abdicate in favor of her infant son, now proclaimed James VI.

Mary subsequently escaped from prison at Lochleven Castle and mustered a loyal force of 6,000. This small army was defeated by Moray's superior force at the Battle of Langdide on May 13, 1568. The fighting was intense, however, and Moray lost at least 300 men. Mary fled to England, where she foolishly sought the protection of her cousin, Elizabeth I. Recognizing that Mary was a Catholic rival for the English throne but unwilling to execute a fellow sovereign, Elizabeth held Mary more or less a prisoner for the next 18 years, until her implication in an assassination plot against Elizabeth prompted the English queen to order Mary's execution.

Further reading: Antonia Fraser, *Mary Queen of Scots* (New York: Hyperion, 1998); John Guy, *Queen of Scots: The True Life of Mary Stuart* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 2004); Carol Schaefer, *Mary Queen of Scots* (New York: Crossroad, 2002).

Scottish Uprising against Mary of Guise (1559–1560)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Protestant Scots (and English military forces) vs. Catholic Scots (and French military forces)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Aided by the English, the Scots Protestants fought to overcome Catholic resistance to the Reformation in Scotland; the Catholic cause was championed by the Scots regent, Mary of Guise, with French military aid.
OUTCOME: The intervention of the English and the death of Mary brought about the collapse of the Catholic resistance and the creation of a Protestant national church for Scotland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Edinburgh, 1560

With the death of Scotland's James V (1512–42) in 1542, his widow, Mary of Guise (1515–60), assumed power as regent for their daughter Mary (later Mary, Queen of Scots [1542–87]) and continued to promote Catholicism as the state religion. However, she was confronted by a rapidly growing reform movement, which culminated in 1559 in the First Covenant. Promulgated by some among the Scots nobility, the First Covenant called for a reformed national church, which both the Scottish clergy and Scotland's parliament rejected. This in turn provoked Protestant theologian John Knox (1505–72) to preach a provocative sermon that unleashed rioting throughout Scotland. Meanwhile, Mary of Guise, preoccupied with the machinations between the English and the French in their competition to marry off her daughter the queen favorably for their respective sides, had finally seen Mary Stewart (Stuart) betrothed to the French dauphin (heir to the throne) in 1558. Thus, Mary of Guise turned to the French for military aid as Protestant mobs attacked and plundered Scotland's churches, and the Protestant reformers took up arms to forestall her actions against them. The rioting was anti-French as well as anti-Catholic, and the decisive issues of the revolt were ultimately as much political and military as strictly religious.

England's Elizabeth I (1533–1603), seeking to defend Protestantism but more surely to check any French presence in the British Isles, dispatched a fleet and an army to Scotland. The English forces laid siege to the French at Leith, Scotland, for six months without resolution until Mary died in 1560. With that, Catholic resistance to the Protestant Reformation in Scotland dimmed, and the Treaty of Edinburgh (1560) effected the withdrawal of all foreign troops from Scotland and established, under the leadership of John Knox, the Kirk of Scotland, the Scottish national church. More immediately to the point, though Scotland had been neutralized by the withdrawal of French and English troops, it nevertheless lay nearer England than France. This gave Elizabeth and England a great advantage over the Catholic Mary, Queen of Scots, when she left France, where she had been raised and wedded, for the land of her birth (after her husband's death in 1560).

Further reading: Antonia Fraser, *Mary Queen of Scots* (New York: Hyperion, 1998); Rosalind Kay Marshall, *Mary of Guise* (London: Collins, 1977).

Scottish War (1295–1296)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scotland vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland and Scots-English borderlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: England's Edward I sought hegemony over Scotland. John Balliol led the Scots in resistance.
OUTCOME: The forces of Balliol were brutally suppressed, and Edward I conquered Scotland, deeming it a forfeited fief.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Berwick, thousands of Scots civilians were slaughtered.
TREATIES: Scots homage to Edward I, 1296

The reign of King Alexander III (1241–86), who effectively resisted the constant English claims to hegemony over Scotland, came to be regarded by the Scots as a golden age of peace and prosperity. Trouble appeared on the horizon, however, when his death left his granddaughter, the infant Margaret (d. 1290), Maid of Norway, heir to the throne and Scotland's interim government in the hands of noble "guardians."

Seizing the opportunity to realize an ancient English dream, the union of England and Scotland, the English king Edward I (1239–1307) negotiated the Treaty of Brigham with Norway's Erik II (fl. 1280–99), which called for the marriage of Margaret to Edward's son, Edward of Caernarvon (1284–1327), who would later reign in England as Edward II. The Scottish assembly approved the arrangement, but four years after her grandfather, young Margaret herself died, and, with her, almost two centuries of more or less amicable relations between Scotland and England.

The uncertainty her passing created regarding the proper succession to the Scottish throne further whetted the appetites of Edward and his successors to assimilate Scotland. When 13 well-grounded claims were made to the Scottish throne, Edward announced he would be the judge of their merits, and the Scots had initially no reason to object. But when it emerged that, instead of playing the role of independent outside arbiter, he saw himself instead as any Scottish king's feudal overlord who could dispose of Scotland as a fief, dissatisfaction began to brew.

The claimants themselves, who had more to lose by antagonizing Edward than by courting the Scots, generally

acknowledged his overlordship, and the nobility by and large followed their lead. However, the group of prominent laymen and church officials known as "the community of the realm" declined to commit itself beforehand to whomever Edward chose. In any event, contenders were Robert Bruce (1274–1329) and John Balliol (1249–1315); Edward I chose Balliol in 1291, who was duly crowned king of Scotland the following year.

When Edward, assuming Balliol's compliance, sought to assert his overlordship by accepting appeals from law suits adjudicated in Scottish courts and by calling up Balliol to go fight for England in France, the Scots took up arms instead against Edward. Balliol girded for war against England and concluded an alliance with France in 1295. By 1296, Scots troops were mobilized and deployed along the borderlands, poised to invade northern England. Edward, however, counterattacked. On May 28, 1296, Edward hit the Scottish-held town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, overran and sacked the town, then slaughtered Scots by the thousand. Balliol was taken prisoner, and Edward's forces went on to penetrate deeply into Scotland, capturing the mighty castles of the realm, including Edinburgh, Stirling, Perth, and Elgin.

To the victorious Edward, the Scots now paid homage. He did not bother to occupy the country, however. Instead, he stole the Stone of Scone, legendary symbol of Scots power and legitimacy—any king crowned on the stone is considered to be the rightful ruler of the Scots. (The Stone of Scone become part of the royal coronation chair of Britain; currently, however, the stone is on loan to Scotland and is housed in Edinburgh Castle.) Scotland was now without a king of its own choosing and was deemed a "forefeited fief" of England—effectively, an annexed land under government by a committee of three English commissioners and guarded by military garrisons deployed throughout the realm.

See also Bruce's Revolt; Scottish War (1314–1328); Wallace's Revolt.

Further reading: Caroline Bingham, *Robert the Bruce* (London: Constable, 1998); Rosalind Mitchison, *A History of Scotland,* 2nd ed. (London: Methuen, 1982); W. Croft Dickinson, *Scotland from the Earliest Times to 1603,* 3rd rev. ed., edited by Archibald M. Duncan (Oxford: Clarendon, 1977).

Scottish War (1314–1328)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Scotland vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scots borderlands and northern England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Under Robert the Bruce, the Scots sought full and legal independence from England.
OUTCOME: After Robert defeated England's Edward II at the Battle of Byland, the war settled into low-level skirmishing until it was definitively concluded by the Treaty of Northampton, which gave Scotland independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Northampton, 1328

In 1314, Robert the Bruce (1274–1329) led his Scots forces on raids into northern England. Beginning the following year and continuing into 1318, James Douglas ("Black Douglas"; c. 1286–1330) took up the raiding activity while Robert the Bruce joined his brother Edward (d. 1318) in an Irish campaign (*see* Scottish Invasion of Ireland). In 1318, the Scots retook the stronghold of Berwick-upon-Tweed, which the English had captured in 1296 (*see* Scottish War [1295–1296]). The year after this, Douglas led a diversionary force into a raid on Yorkshire, where they emerged victorious in the minor Battle of Myton. As for Robert the Bruce, he studiously avoided engaging the English until 1322, when Edward II (1284–1327) of England mounted an invasion of Scotland, which Robert checked at the Battle of Byland, north of York, on October 14. Edward's army was routed, and the king narrowly escaped capture by fleeing the field and hiding in Yorkshire. A truce was officially declared in 1323, but it was frequently violated, with border incursions on both sides. In 1328, the Treaty of Northampton finally granted Scotland full and legal independence from England.

See also Bruce's Revolt; Wallace's Revolt.

Further reading: Caroline Bingham, *Robert the Bruce* (London: Constable, 1998); Rosalind Mitchison, *A History of Scotland,* 2nd ed. (London: Methuen, 1982); W. Croft Dickinson, *Scotland from the Earliest Times to 1603,* 3rd rev. ed., edited by Archibald M. Duncan (Oxford: Clarendon, 1977).

Second Triumvirate, Wars of the

See Roman Civil War (43–31 b.c.e.); Roman-Parthian War (55–36 b.c.e.).

Selangor Civil War (1867–1873)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rival chiefs of Selangor, Malaysia, with Chinese immigrant alliances and British intervention
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Selangor, Malaysia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The chiefs of the upper Klang River disputed with those of the lower Klang (and the sultan of Selangor), principally over economic matters, especially the division of lucrative tin tariffs.

OUTCOME: With British aid, the lower-river chiefs prevailed; the intervention set the stage for the establishment of a British protectorate over Selangor in 1874.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Selangor was a state in southwest Malaya, which was governed by several chiefs, who were divided into two opposing groups. The dispute began over whether to recognize Abdul Samad as sultan in 1860, but it soon centered on economic matters, in particular on the lucrative collection of duties on tin-ore exports. By the late 1860s, the dispute had escalated into war, with the chiefs of the upper Klang River fighting the chiefs of the lower Klang as well as the sultan of Selangor. The situation was complicated during the early 1870s by Chinese immigrant tin miners. The miners belonged to two rival Chinese secret societies, the Ghee Hin and the Hai San. The Ghee Hin was allied with the upper Klang faction, whereas the Hai San was united with the lower Klang group. The involvement of the Chinese miners shifted the principal theater of the war to the miners' camps, which lay deep in the Selangor jungles.

In 1873, British authorities intervened, giving military aid to the chiefs of the lower river, and in 1874, Selangor became a British protectorate.

Further reading: C. N. Parkinson, *British Intervention in Malaysia, 1867–1877* (Singapore: University of Malaysia Press, 1969).

Seleucid War

See Syrian-Egyptian War, First.

Seljuk Turk-Byzantine Wars

See Byzantine-Seljuk Turk War (1048–1049); Byzantine-Seljuk Turk War (1064–1081); Byzantine-Seljuk Turk War (1110–1117); Byzantine-Seljuk Turk War (1158–1176).

Seminole War, First (1817–1818)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Seminole and Creek Indians vs. the United States (with friendly Creek allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Florida
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Land disputes between white settlers and Seminole and Creek Indians led the Indians to fight for their land and the United States to protect settlers against Indian attack and to annex Indian lands.
OUTCOME: Inconclusive; Spain ceded Florida to the United States.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 800 regulars, 900 Georgia militia and Creek allies; Seminoles and hostile Creeks, unknown
CASUALTIES: 300 blacks, 30 Seminoles at Negro Fort; others, significant but totals unknown
TREATIES: None

As the War of 1812 drew to a close, the British built a fort in Spanish Florida at Prospect Bluff along the Apalachicola River. In the summer of 1815, the garrison abandoned the fort, leaving it to Seminoles and a band of fugitive slaves. It came to be called "Negro Fort." The existence of the outpost outraged southern slaveholders, because it served as a refuge for their fugitive "property."

Major General Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) ordered an attack on Negro Fort, largely aimed at recovering as many fugitive slaves as possible. Unfortunately, the skipper of a gunboat involved in the assault, on July 27, 1816, decided to heat a cannonball red hot, fired it with an extra-heavy charge, and scored a direct hit on Negro Fort's powder magazine. The tremendous explosion that followed killed 300 blacks and 30 Seminoles, bringing the Seminole tribe to the brink of war.

General Duncan Lamont Clinch (1787–1849) exacerbated the already critical situation by distributing arms captured from the fort to the Coweta Indians, who were his allies. Friction between whites and Seminoles increased until November 1817, when a Seminole chief named Neamathla, who lived in a village called Fowl Town, warned Brigadier General Edmund Pendleton Gaines (1777–1849) that he would kill anyone who trespassed on his land. Gaines responded by attempting to arrest Neamathla. The chief evaded the force sent after him, but troopers destroyed Fowl Town and killed four warriors and a woman.

The villagers, including a half-breed Seminole-Creek leader named Peter McQueen, retaliated nine days later by attacking Fort Scott, killing about 40 people, including soldiers, their wives, and children.

Jackson was dispatched to Fort Scott, where he organized a force of 800 regulars, 900 Georgia volunteers, and a large number of friendly Creeks (led by William MacIntosh [c. 1775–1825]). In March 1818, they rebuilt Negro Fort as Fort Gadsden and, from it, launched an all-out offensive against the Seminoles, driving through the Mikasuki Seminole towns in the vicinity of present-day Tallahassee and pursuing the Indians to St. Marks, a Spanish town where the fugitives sought refuge. The Indians vacated it before Jackson and his army arrived, but Jackson took possession of St. Marks anyway on April 7, 1818, despite Spanish sovereignty.

On April 12, Jackson attacked Peter McQueen's camp in a swamp near the Econfina River, killing 37 warriors and taking captive almost 100 women and children, including the future Seminole leader Osceola (c. 1800–39), aged 14 at the time.

Jackson advanced to Suwannee Town, which had been deserted by the time he reached it, then took Spanish Pensacola on May 26, 1818, an act that prompted Spain to abandon Florida and ultimately cede its territory to the United States.

After the cession, Jackson left Florida, and the First Seminole War came to an inconclusive end.

See also SEMINOLE WAR, SECOND; SEMINOLE WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); James W. Covington, *The Seminoles of Florida* (Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1993); David S. Heidler, *Old Hickory's War: Andrew Jackson and the Quest for Empire* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 2003); Edwin C. McReynolds, *Seminoles* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1985); Sean Michael O'Brien, *In Bitterness and Tears: Andrew Jackson's Destruction of the Creeks and Seminoles* (Westport, Conn.: Praeger, 2003).

Seminole War, Second (1835–1842)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Seminole and Creek Indians vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Florida and Georgia
DECLARATION: No formal declaration
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Seminole resistance to U.S. policy of removal to Indian Territory
OUTCOME: Inconclusive, though about 3,000 Seminoles agreed to removal; the United States simply stopped pursuing the Indians who refused to leave Florida and Georgia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 250 warriors; United States, thousands
CASUALTIES: United States, 1,500; Seminoles, thousands died; about 4,000 Indians were removed from Florida.
TREATIES: None

The First SEMINOLE WAR of 1817–18 ended inconclusively. From the period of that war to 1830, when the U.S. Congress passed the Indian Removal Act, providing for the "removal" of eastern tribes to "Indian Territory" reserved for them west of the Mississippi River, the Creeks and Seminoles of Georgia and Florida were subject to harassment, discrimination, and abuse officially sanctioned by the states involved. As if these depredations were not bad enough, a devastating drought in 1831 brought great hardship to the tribe, prompting Seminole leaders to sign a provisional removal treaty on May 9, 1832, which stipulated that removal was conditional on tribal approval of the site selected for resettlement.

Seven Seminole representatives were sent to examine the proposed site. Before they returned, however, other tribal representatives were coerced into signing a final treaty binding the Seminoles to leave Florida by 1837. The tribe at large repudiated this treaty as fraudulent, but President Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) himself ignored their challenge and passed the treaty on to the Senate for ratification. In the meantime, the seven Seminoles returned from their expedition with a negative report on the site. Secretary of War Lewis Cass (1782–1866) made the repugnant proposition even more distasteful by decreeing that all tribes removed to Indian Territory would be lumped into a single political unit.

During this period of anxiety and outrage, Osceola (c. 1800–1839), a Seminole (some say Creek) known to the whites as Billy Powell, emerged as the central leader of the Seminole resistance. Early in the winter of 1835, an infantry company at Fort King, near the present city of Ocala, Florida, was reinforced by four companies of mixed artillery and infantry. Fort Brooke (at Tampa) was also reinforced at this time with three artillery companies. Twenty miles north of Fort King, General Duncan Lamont Clinch (1787–1849), now in command of all Florida troops, owned a plantation he called Auld Lang Syne, which was now occupied by his troops. It was clear to Osceola that the whites were preparing for war. Osceola likewise organized his own forces.

In October 1835, the Seminoles held a secret council of war. Six chiefs remained in favor of accepting removal. Osceola vowed to kill any who failed to come around to his point of view, and in November he made good on his threat by murdering Charley Emathla, the most prominent among those who had decided to move west.

Following the murder, Indian agent General Wiley Thompson (d. 1835) and General Clinch girded for war. The Seminoles named Osceola war chief, with Jumper and Alligator as his lieutenants. With Philip (called King Philip), leader of the Seminoles east of St. John's River, he coordinated attacks on plantations, then led his people deep into the impenetrable swamp lands near the Withlacoochee River, southwest of Fort King. Beginning in December 1835, Osceola launched a number of raids on farms and settlements, always careful to destroy vital bridges and roads in order to make military response difficult.

The first formal battle of the war—the Battle of Black Point—took place on December 18, 1835, west of the town of Micanopy. After plundering a wagon train, Osceola defeated a force of 30 mounted militiamen who happened on the scene.

Osceola's reconnaissance was uncannily accurate, and he was able to launch a devastating ambush of a relief column sent to Fort King. On December 28, 1835, Osceola and a small band of warriors raided a sutler's store outside of the fort, killing the owner and three others. When Wiley Thompson showed up, Osceola killed him as well. Simultaneously, Alligator and Jumper ambushed a relief column of 110 men, killing 107.

When they learned that General Clinch intended to attack Seminole villages near the Withlacoochee River,

Osceola and Alligator set out with 250 warriors to ambush a force Osceola knew to be more than 700 strong. He sprung his trap at noon on New Year's Eve, killing four men and wounding 52 (one mortally), and causing Clinch to break off his offensive.

These clashes, which came at the beginning of the war, were the only decisive battles in what became seven years of guerrilla resistance. No fewer than nine U.S. Army commanders tried and failed to evict the Seminoles from Florida and Georgia. One, General Thomas Jesup (1788–1860), succeeded in capturing Osceola, on October 21, 1837, but not through a feat of military genius. He simply requested a conference and, under a flag of truce, took Osceola captive. The leader fell ill in his prison cell at Fort Moultrie, South Carolina, and died on January 30, 1838.

Alligator and an Indian called Billy Bowlegs (c. 1810–c. 1864) continued to lead the resistance, but the unity of the Seminoles began to dissolve. Between 1835 and 1842, about 3,000 consented to "removal."

The war ended in 1842—not as the result of any battle or victory or treaty but because the government simply stopped trying to locate and remove any more Seminoles. The cost had been too high. For every two Seminoles sent west, one soldier died—1,500 in all. In terms of cash, the war had cost the U.S. government $20 million.

See also SEMINOLE WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); James W. Covington, *The Seminoles of Florida* (Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1993); Edwin C. McReynolds, *Seminoles* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1985); Milton Meltzer, *Hunted like a Wolf: The Story of the Seminole War* (New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 1972); Sean Michael O'Brien, *In Bitterness and Tears: Andrew Jackson's Destruction of the Creeks and Seminoles* (Westport, Conn.: Praeger, 2003); George H. Walton, *Fearless and Free: The Seminole Indian War, 1835–1842* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1997).

Seminole War, Third (1855–1858)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Seminole followers of Billy Bowlegs vs. the United States and Florida officials
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Florida
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: An insult and the Indians' refusal to accept removal to Indian Territory
OUTCOME: Seminoles removed to Indian Territory in exchange for a cash settlement; a final peace made in 1943.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No treaty but an 1858 cash settlement

In 1855, a party of surveyors working in the Great Cypress Swamp stole or destroyed crops belonging to followers of Billy Bowlegs, one of the Seminole die-hards who had not accepted removal to Indian Territory during the Second SEMINOLE WAR. The Indians demanded compensation or—at the very least—an apology. Securing neither, the Seminoles sporadically attacked settlers, traders, and trappers in Florida from 1855 to 1858.

Outraged citizens called on the army and the militia, but these forces were largely useless against Indians thoroughly familiar with the dense swamplands, where they were virtually invisible.

The Third Seminole War was a fitful conflict that came to an end when Seminoles who had earlier moved to Indian Territory were brought back to Florida to negotiate on behalf of the whites. At length Billy Bowlegs and his followers were persuaded to accept a cash settlement in return for immigrating to Indian Territory.

See also SEMINOLE WAR, FIRST.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); James W. Covington, *Billy Bowlegs' War, 1855–1858* (Cluluota, Fla.: Mickler House, 1982) and *The Seminoles of Florida* (Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1993); Edwin C. McReynolds, *Seminoles* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1985); Raymond C. Lantz, *Seminole Indians of Florida, 1850–1874* (Bowie, Md.: Heritage Books, 1994).

Sepoy Rebellion *See* INDIAN MUTINY.

Serbian Uprising, First (1804–1813)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Serbia (with Russian assistance) vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Serbia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Serbia sought autonomy within or full independence from the Ottoman Empire.
OUTCOME: The war for independence made excellent initial progress, but when Russia was forced to withdraw its support from Serbia under pressure from the demands of the Napoleonic Wars, the Ottoman Empire retook the nation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Serbia, 2,000; Russia, 2,500; Ottomans, unknown
CASUALTIES: 1,800 Serbs sold into slavery; 200 prominent Serbs beheaded in 1814
TREATIES: Treaty of Bucharest, 1812

Toward the end of the 18th century, a tide of nationalism rose in Serbia, which was a part of the Ottoman Empire. By the beginning of the 19th century, the oppressive adminis-

tration of the Janissaries—an elite Turkish mercenary corps, barely under the control of the Ottoman sultan—in the province (or *pashalik*) of Belgrade pushed the Serbs to outright rebellion under the brilliant peasant leader George Petrovich (1762–1817), known as Karageorge ("Black George") because of his swarthy appearance.

In 1805, the Sublime Porte (the Ottoman government) rejected Karageorge's demand for Serbian autonomy, but by December 1806, Karageorge had driven the Janissaries out of Belgrade and Serbia itself. In the meantime, Karageorge formed an alliance with Russia, which was fighting one of its many wars against the Turks at the time (*see* Russo-Turkish War [1806–1812]). Russia sent a token force in 1807, which nevertheless helped the Serbs win a major victory at Stubik. Then, in 1810, the czar dispatched an additional 2,500 troops, and the combined Serbo-Russian forces defeated the Ottoman army at the Battle of Varvarin and at Loznica in 1810. This effectively liberated Serbia.

Independence proved short-lived. In 1812, during Napoleon Bonaparte's (1769–1821) great invasion of Russia, the czar concluded a treaty with the Sublime Porte at Bucharest. With the Russian threat neutralized, the Turks turned their full attention against Serbia, with the object of reannexing the country. The Ottoman armies invaded and brushed aside Serb resistance. Karageorge fled to Austria, and Ottoman soldiers overran Belgrade where they carried out orders to kill Serbian males over the age of 15 and to enslave women and children. Serbia was wholly under Ottoman control once again.

See also Serbian Uprising, Second.

Further reading: Paul Coles, *The Ottoman Impact on Europe* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1968); John K. Cox, *The History of Serbia* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2002); Dimitrize Djordjevic, *The Balkan Revolutionary Tradition,* trans. Stephen Fischer-Galatai (New York: Columbia University Press, 1981).

Serbian Uprising, Second (1815–1817)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Serbia vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Serbia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This was a second bid for Serbian independence, under a new leader, Milosh Obrenovich.
OUTCOME: Serbia was granted a significant degree of autonomy as an "autonomous principality" within the Ottoman Empire, but with Russia serving as a guarantor of protection.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

One of the rivals of Karageorge (1762–1817, "Black George") (*see* Serbian Uprising, First), Milosh Obrenovich (1780–1860), organized a new uprising against the Ottoman overlords of Serbia in 1815. The action was swift and sweeping, and the Turks rapidly agreed to grant Serbia a significant measure of autonomy. When Karageorge returned to Serbia in 1817, Milosh had him assassinated and was subsequently proclaimed prince of Serbia by the Serbian national assembly. The assassination sparked a feud between the followers of Karageorge and those of Milosh that lasted 100 years and undermined Serbia's efforts to seek full independence. It was not until 1827 that Milosh was able to extract from the Sublime Porte (the Ottoman government) recognition of his title as hereditary, an important step toward expanded autonomy. International recognition of Serbia as an "autonomous principality" came in 1830. The country existed under an uneasy arrangement between the Ottoman Empire and Russia, in which the Sublime Porte held suzerainty over Serbia, which, however, enjoyed the protection of Russia.

Further reading: Paul Coles, *The Ottoman Impact on Europe* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1968); John K. Cox, *The History of Serbia* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2002); Dimitrize Djordjevic, *The Balkan Revolutionary Tradition,* trans. Stephen Fischer-Galatai (New York: Columbia University Press, 1981).

Serbo-Bulgarian War (1885–1886)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Serbia vs. Bulgaria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bulgaria
DECLARATION: Serbia against Bulgaria, 1885
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bulgaria sought annexation of Eastern Rumelia, which prompted Serbia to demand certain territories from Bulgaria and further to demand a halt to Bulgarian expansion.
OUTCOME: Bulgaria gained the initiative against Serbia; however, Austrian intervention on the side of Serbia brought Bulgaria's Prince Alexander to the bargaining table. A border between Serbia and Bulgaria was established, and Bulgaria's annexation of Eastern Rumelia was affirmed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the culminating Battle of Pirot, Serbia fielded 40,000 men against 45,000 Bulgarians.
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Slivnitza, Serbs, 2,000 killed or wounded; Bulgarians, 3,000 killed or wounded. At Pirot, Serbs, 2,000 killed or wounded; Bulgarians, 2,500 killed or wounded.
TREATIES: Treaty of Bucharest, 1886

The 1878 Conference of Berlin brought an end to two Balkan wars, the Russo-Turkish War (1877–78) and the

SERBO-TURKISH WAR of 1876–78. In 1885, however, the peace was shattered by a Bulgarian invasion (led by Prince Alexander Joseph of Battenberg [1857–93]) of Eastern Rumelia (the southern portion of Bulgaria). This prompted Serbia, starved for territory, to demand that Alexander cede to it Bulgarian lands. A new international conference was convened in an effort to negotiate controls on Bulgarian expansion and resolve Serbia's new demands. The conference quickly broke down, and Serbia declared war on Bulgaria, beginning the conflict with an invasion.

Alexander responded swiftly. The Bulgarians forced a battle at Slivnitza, near Sofia, during November 17–19, 1885. Although Serbia's Milan I (1854–1901) personally led 25,000 troops against only 15,000 Bulgarian defenders, Alexander and his general, Stefan Nikolov Stambolov (1854–95), not only stood their ground but also counterattacked with devastating effect. The Serbs countered the counterattack, but in the end the Bulgarian lines held and the Serbs withdrew. Serb losses were 2,000 troops to the Bulgarians' 3,000. After the Bulgarian victory at Slivnitza, Alexander's 45,000-man force engaged 40,000 Serbs at Pirot during November 26–27, with 2,500 and 2,000 casualties to the respective forces.

The defeat of Serbia greatly alarmed Austria, which was Serbia's protector. What had begun as a Serbian invasion of Bulgaria now seemed likely to become a Bulgarian takeover of Serbia. Austria therefore intervened. Faced with the overwhelming military resources of Austria, Alexander agreed to an armistice in 1886, then concluded the Treaty of Bucharest, which reestablished the former border separating Bulgaria from Serbia and affirmed Alexander's annexation of Eastern Rumelia. At the war's conclusion, Bulgaria remained the most powerful nation in the Balkans until WORLD WAR I.

See also BALKAN WAR, FIRST; BALKAN WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Barbara Jelavich, *History of the Balkans,* 2 vols. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983); Charles Jelavich and Barbara Jelavich, *The Establishment of the Balkan National States 1805–1920* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1977, reissued 1986); Richard Crampton, *Bulgaria, 1878–1918* (Boulder, Colo.: East European Monographs, 1983).

Serbo-Turkish War (1876–1878)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Serbia and Montenegro vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Herzegovina and Serbia
DECLARATION: Serbia against the Ottoman Empire, June 30, 1876
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Serbia sought full independence from the Ottoman Empire not only for itself but for Herzegovina, Bosnia, and Montenegro as well.
OUTCOME: Serbia and Montenegro (as well as Romania) gained independence; Herzegovina and Bosnia were separated from the Ottoman Empire, only to be annexed to Austria-Hungary.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Serbs, 98,000; Montenegro, 24,000; Ottoman Empire, 126,000
CASUALTIES: Serbs, 5,000 killed, 9,500 wounded, 7,000 missing or captured; Ottomans, unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of San Stefano, 1878; Treaty of Berlin, 1878

Much of the conflict between the Ottoman Empire and the Balkan states was not strictly political but religious. Christian Serbs often chafed under the rule of Muslim Turks. In 1875, Christians in Herzegovina and Bosnia rose up against their Muslim overlords. The rebels appealed to Serbia, now an autonomous entity within the Ottoman Empire, for aid. This appeal prompted Serbia, which was emboldened by promises of support from Russia, to declare war on the Ottoman Empire on June 30, 1876. On July 1, Montenegro followed suit. That nation defeated the Ottoman Turks in Herzegovina and occupied the country throughout the war. The Serbs, however, bore the brunt of an Ottoman counterattack and, when the promised Russian help failed to materialize, found themselves in serious difficulty.

After invading Serbian territory, the Ottoman forces defeated the Serbs at the first Battle of Aleksinac on August 9, 1876. So costly was this defeat that the Serbs appealed to the great powers of Europe for mediation. In the meantime, however, the Turks fought the second Battle of Aleksinac on September 1, 1876, prompting the Serbs to sue for peace. An armistice was declared; however, Serbia violated the truce within three weeks. Russia demanded an end to Ottoman aggression but did nothing to back up that demand. Themselves emboldened, the Turks pressed their offensive, bringing all of Serbia under their control. In 1877, a new armistice was declared and a peace, mediated by the great powers, was hammered out.

While Serbia had been beaten into submission, the conflict between Russia and the Ottoman Empire grew hot and resulted in the RUSSO-TURKISH WAR (1877–78). That conflict was ended by the 1878 Treaty of San Stefano, which also formally ended Serbia and Montenegro's war against the Ottoman Empire. Britain, however, was dissatisfied with the terms of the treaty and called for the Conference of Berlin (*see* SERBO-BULGARIAN WAR), which resulted in a treaty that gave Serbia, Montenegro, and Romania full independence, but awarded Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria-Hungary.

Further reading: Paul Coles, *The Ottoman Impact on Europe* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1968); John K. Cox, *The History of Serbia* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2002); Dimitrize Djordjevic, *The Balkan Revolutionary Tradition,* trans. Stephen Fischer-Galatai (New York: Columbia University Press, 1981); Barbara Jelavich, *History of the Balkans,* 2 vols. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983); Charles Jelavich and Barbara Jelavich, *The*

Establishment of the Balkan National States 1805–1920 (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1977, reissued 1986).

Serb Rebellion (1150–1152)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Serbia vs. Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Serbia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Serbia sought independence from Byzantine rule.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was extinguished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1143, Manuel I Comnenus (c. 1120–1180) assumed the Byzantine throne. It was a time of chaos, as the Turks contested for control of the empire and much of the empire was in rebellion. Manuel was successful against the Turks, driving them out of their strongholds in Isauria by 1145. He also established a productive alliance with Venice to hold off Norman incursions. During this struggle, which spanned 1147 to 1158, the Serbs, long under Byzantine domination, rebelled. A desultory war began in 1150 and did not end until 1152, when Manuel was able to divert sufficient resources to the Serbian front to subdue the rebellion. From this victory, he went on to an invasion of Hungary.

See also SICILIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (1147–1158).

Further reading: John K. Cox, *The History of Serbia* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2002).

Serb War of Independence (1180–1196)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Serbia vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Serbia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Serbian independence
OUTCOME: After a long war against a failing empire, Serbia achieved independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The SERB REBELLION of 1150–52 ended with the defeat of the rebels and the reassertion of Byzantine control over the Serbs. The death of the highly capable Byzantine emperor and military commander Manuel I Comnenus (c. 1120–80) brought renewed chaos to the empire as the regent Andronicus I Comnenus (c. 1110–85) seized power from the child emperor Alexius II (c. 1168–83), then had him murdered. With the imperial government in disarray, Serb forces under Stephen Nemanja (fl. 1159–1217) commenced a new rebellion against Byzantine rule. In contrast to the first rebellion, this war was sustained over a long period, and the weakened Byzantine government proved unable to suppress the rebels. Nemanja declared independence in 1196.

Further reading: John K. Cox, *The History of Serbia* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2002).

Sertorian War (80–72 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Lusitanian rebels (led by Sertorius) vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Lusitania (Portugal and a portion of Spain)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rome struggled to suppress a rebellion led by Sertorius.
OUTCOME: After many successes, Sertorius was defeated by a combination of superior numbers mounted against him and by the mutiny of his own forces.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Lucius Cornelius Sulla (138–72 B.C.E.) became dictator of Rome in 82 B.C.E., following the ROMAN CIVIL WAR (88–82 B.C.E.), he embarked on a campaign of vengeance on all who had opposed him, including the recently appointed governor of Lusitania (Portugal and a portion of Spain), Quintus Sertorius (d. 72 B.C.E.). In 81, hunted by Sulla, Sertorius fled to North Africa, but in 80 the people of Lusitania asked him to return and lead them in a revolt against Rome. Sertorius decided to do so, and he met the forces of the new governor at the Battle of the Baetis River (Guadalquivir) before the year was out. Sulla dispatched an army under the command of Quintus Metellus Pius (d. c. 64 B.C.E.) to end the revolt, but the skillful Sertorius defeated him as well. Sertorius came to control all of Portugal and almost all of Spain by 77 B.C.E.

Pompey the Great (106–48 B.C.E.) led a new Roman army from Italy over the Pyrenees to reinforce Metellus. Sertorius defeated them both in a daring series of campaigns between 76 and 73. Rome's answer to these defeats was to pour in additional troops, which gradually began to turn the tide against Sertorius and his limited resources. Under pressure, Sertorius became tyrannical in the treatment of his army, which stirred his forces to mutiny. Marcus Perperna (d. 72 B.C.E.), his chief lieutenant, conspired to murder Sertorius, then took command of the army—which he promptly led to defeat at the hands of Pompey. Marcus was captured and executed.

Further reading: George Phillip Baker, *Sulla the Fortunate: Roman General and Dictator* (New York: Cooper Square, 2001).

Servile War, First (First Slave War) (135–132 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Slaves laboring in Sicily vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Some 70,000 slaves rebelled against their masters and the Roman legions sent to suppress them.
OUTCOME: After three years of combat, the legions suppressed the rebellion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Approximately 70,000 slaves rebelled; the legions sent against them were smaller in number but better armed and organized.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Also known to history as the First Slave War in Sicily, the conflict was the direct result of the inhuman treatment to which Sicilian plantation operators subjected the slave labor furnished by the many conquests of the Roman legions, which imported not only entire foreign communities but also their native leaders. In addition, the Romans gave free reign to slave shepherds, whom they armed and allowed to roam about the countryside. These shepherds served as communication links among slave plantations.

The First Servile War began in 135 B.C.E. when Eunus (d. c. 132 B.C.E.), a Syrian slave, led approximately 70,000 of his fellows against the plantation owners. The slaves defeated the first Roman force sent against them in 135, and it took two more tries before the Roman legions could restore order. In the end, defeating the slaves was a straightforward but costly matter of applying the brute force of the legions over a period of three years. At the final defeat, Eunus was captured and executed.

The revolt indicated the stress that Rome's growing conquests were placing on the social fabric of Italy.

See also SERVILE WAR, SECOND; SERVILE WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: P. A. Brunt, *Italian Manpower, 225 B.C.–A.D. 24* (Oxford: Clarendon, 1971, reissued 1987), and *Social Conflicts in the Roman Republic* (London: Chatto and Windus, 1971); Keith Hopkins, *Conquerors and Slaves* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981).

Servile War, Second (Second Slave War) (104–99 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Slaves laboring in Sicily vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Slaves rebelled against their masters.
OUTCOME: The slaves enjoyed many successes before the rebellion was finally and brutally crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Also known as the Second Slave War in Sicily, this conflict, like the First SERVILE WAR, was triggered by the extremely harsh treatment to which Roman slaves were subjected. History records the names of three slaves—Salvius, Tryphon, and Athenion—as the leaders of the rebellion, which was initially very successful. After overrunning the rural areas and gaining control of most of them, the rebels besieged the cities, bringing them to the point of starvation. The first army Rome sent against them was defeated, but a second suppressed the revolt.

See also SERVILE WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: P. A. Brunt, *Italian Manpower, 225 B.C.–A.D. 24* (Oxford: Clarendon, 1971, reissued 1987), and *Social Conflicts in the Roman Republic* (London: Chatto and Windus, 1971); Keith Hopkins, *Conquerors and Slaves* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981).

Servile War, Third (Gladiators' War; Spartacus's Revolt) (73–71 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Roman slaves vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spartacus, the leader of the revolt, planned to lead his followers to freedom in Thrace.
OUTCOME: Spartacus enjoyed many early successes, but when his army twice divided, the slaves were defeated by Roman armies.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spartacus had an army as large as 90,000.
CASUALTIES: Almost all of the slaves were eventually captured and executed, at least 6,000 by mass crucifixion.
TREATIES: None

The most famous of slave rebellions, this one engulfed all of southern Italy. Spartacus (d. 71 B.C.E.), a Thracian who served in the Roman army, and probably deserted, who led bandit raids, and who was caught and sold as a slave, had been selected to perform as a gladiator. In 73, he and about 70 other slave-gladiators broke out of a gladiator training school in Capua and hid on Mount Vesuvius. With remarkable speed, they recruited other slave-gladiators, fugitive

slaves, and others, amassing a force of at least 90,000 men. Engaged against two Roman armies sent to suppress them, the slaves were victorious and raided Italy south of the Apennines.

In 72, Spartacus divided his forces, allowing German and Gallic slaves to follow another leader while he retained leadership of the rest. The Gauls and Germans were defeated in battle in Apulia during 72 B.C.E., but Spartacus and his followers pressed northward, hoping to flee to Thrace. When his men, at the last minute, refused to leave Italy, preferring plunder to safety, Spartacus returned to southern Italy. There a Roman army led by Marcus Licinius Crassus (c. 115–53 B.C.E.) fought him at the Battle of Brundisium (Brindisi, Italy). There, hemmed in by Crassus's eight legions, Spartacus divided his army. The Gauls and the Germans were the first to suffer defeat. When subsequently Spartacus fell in battle, his remaining followers were easily beaten. Six thousand of those who surrendered were crucified by Crassus along the Appian Way. Others who escaped were mercilessly hunted and pursued by forces under Pompey the Great (106–48 B.C.E.). They were executed wherever they were caught.

Both militarily competent and humane, Spartacus was compelled to lead an uprising that not only inspired terror throughout Italy but also made him an icon for rebellion down through the ages. Although his revolt was not aimed at social revolution, beginning especially in the late 18th century, radicals frequently invoked his name—as did, most famously, Karl Liebknecht, Rosa Luxemburg, and the other members of the German Spartacus League, who launched their own uprising in 1919 (*see* SPARTACUS [LEAGUE] REVOLT).

See also SERVILE WAR, FIRST; SERVILE WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: P. A. Brunt, *Italian Manpower, 225 B.C.–A.D. 24* (Oxford: Clarendon, 1971, reissued 1987), and *Social Conflicts in the Roman Republic* (London: Chatto and Windus, 1971); Keith Hopkins, *Conquerors and Slaves* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981); Brent D. Shaw, trans. and ed., *Spartacus and the Slave Wars: A Brief History with Documents* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2001).

Seven Reductions, War of the (1754–1756)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain and Portugal vs. the Jesuit-led Guaraní Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Banda Oriental (southern Uruguay, South America)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Jesuits incited an Indian rebellion in an effort to block a swap with Portugal of seven Spanish "reductions" (missions) in exchange for the Portuguese river port of Colonia.
OUTCOME: The uprising was suppressed, the Jesuits were removed from Portuguese colonial government, and, after much delay, the exchange of the reductions for Colonia took place.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 1,600 Spaniards and 1,200 Portuguese; 3,000–4,000 Guaraní
CASUALTIES: In second expedition: 3 Spaniards killed, 2 Portuguese killed, 30 from both armies captured; 1,511 Guaraní killed, 154 captured; out of 30,000 Indians in the missions, more than half died or fled into the forests.
TREATIES: None

By the middle of the 18th century, the great Jesuit "reductions"—the name the church gave to its missions in South America—had grown so powerful as to operate with something of the autonomy of a sovereign state. In 1750, after years of fighting over possession of the Banda Oriental along the Rio de la Plata in southern Uruguay, Spain and Portugal came to a modus vivendi that established new boundaries, basically exchanging seven Spanish reductions along the Uruguay River for a Portuguese trading settlement on the Rio de la Plata. Not incidentally, the agreement, which placed Jesuit reductions under two separate jurisdictions, was an assault on Jesuit hegemony and was opposed both by the order itself and by the British, who conducted a healthy trade with the missions.

Once it became clear that Spain and Portugal were prepared to cooperate against the missions, the British backed away from confrontation, but the Jesuits incited rebellion among the Guaraní Indians, and in July 1754, 2,000 Spanish and 1,000 Portuguese troops marched on the reductions. The Jesuits could recruit from an Indian population of nearly 100,000, and the Guaraní effectively harassed the allied troops, who bogged down in the local swamps and lost control of their supply lines. A November truce, which left the problems unresolved, ended the fighting for a while. In late 1755 a second expedition of 1,600 Spaniards and 1,200 Portuguese marched against the heart of the resistance movement, the Seven Reductions. They met a force of Guaraní defenders numbering nearly 1,680, later reinforced to almost double that strength. The deciding battle came on February 10, 1756, at Caaibate. It ended disastrously for the Jesuits and the Indians, with 1,511 killed and 154 taken prisoner, as compared to token Spanish-Portuguese casualties. By May all seven reductions had fallen, and of the nearly 30,000 Indians living in the towns attached to those missions, around 16,000 had died or fled into the forests. The Guaraní as a people were forced to immigrate to Brazil, and the Jesuit ringleaders of the rebellion were tried and executed in Lisbon, Portugal. In 1759, Sebastião José de Carvalho e Mello (1699–1782), marquês de Pombal and prime minister of Portugal, engineered the removal of all Jesuits from key governmental offices, including colonial offices. It was not until 1777, however, that Spain formally acquired Colonia.

Further reading: G. Pendle, *Uruguay,* 3rd. ed. (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1985).

Seven Weeks' War (Austro-Prussian War) (1866)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Prussia (with Italy) vs. Austria (with Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, Hesse, Württemberg, and Baden)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany, Bohemia, Italy
DECLARATION: Prussia on Austria, June 14, 1866
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Prussia sought to unite and dominate the German states.
OUTCOME: Prussia's victory over its major rival Austria was an essential step toward unifying Germany under Prussian rule.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Prussia, 437,262; Italy, 200,000; Austria, 407,223; Austria's German allies, 137,000
CASUALTIES: Prussia, 4,454 killed, 16,217 wounded, 910 prisoners, 785 missing; Italy, 1,633 killed, 3,926 wounded, 5,085 prisoners, 553 missing; Austria, 9,123 killed; 35,236 wounded, 12,365 missing, prisoner numbers unrecorded; Austria's German allies, 1,147 killed, 5,430 wounded
TREATIES: Armistice, July 26, 1866; Treaty of Prague on August 23, 1866

Also called the Austro-Prussian War, this brief conflict was a key step in Chancellor Otto von Bismarck's (1815–98) campaign to establish Prussia as the preeminent German power, the nucleus around which a genuine German nation would coalesce. Prussia's archrival for dominance was Austria, and Prussia attacked it vigorously. Aside from the war's crucial political significance, it would prove a tactical milestone as well, as the first European war in which railroads played a major role. Prussia used its extensive rail network to maneuver and advance quickly. This immediately gained Prussia the advantage, and the general in chief, the brilliant Helmuth von Moltke (1800–91), never let the advantage slip. Second only to the Prussian railroads in tactical significance was firepower. Prussia had advanced artillery and breechloading small arms. The Austrians had older artillery and still labored with slow, muzzle-loaded rifled muskets.

Of the war's eight major battles, the Prussians suffered a reversal only at the first, Langensalza (June 27–29, 1866), and this at the hands of the Hanoverians, not the Austrians. Even so, the Hanoverian victory was a hollow one; that state's king was forced to surrender in the face of an overwhelming Prussian concentration.

In all other exchanges, the Prussians were victorious. The decisive campaign took place in Bohemia, where three Prussian armies fought the allied Austrian and Saxon army. The Battle of Trautenau (June 27, 1866) resulted in a four-to-one ratio of Austrian casualties versus Prussian. Additional skirmishes culminated in the decisive battle of the war, Königgrätz (also called the Battle of Sadowa), on July 3. The greatest battle fought since Waterloo in 1815, it resulted in more than 13,000 Austrian and Saxon casualties (killed and wounded) versus some 9,000 Prussian losses (killed and wounded).

Only against Prussia's Italian allies did Austria prevail, at Custozza (June 24) and, in the war's one major sea battle, off Lissa, on July 20, 1866. Only the great Italian nationalist Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807–82) won Italian victories against Austria, in small exchanges in the Tyrol fought during the course of the brief war.

Austria sued for peace and concluded an armistice on July 26, 1866. By the Treaty of Prague (August 23, 1866), Austria ceded Venetia to Italy, and far more important, Austrian emperor Franz Josef I (1830–1916) agreed to Austrian exclusion from German affairs. Thus the way was paved for the unification of Germany under Prussian rule in 1871.

See also DANISH-PRUSSIAN WAR; FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR.

Further reading: Geoffrey Wawro, *The Austro-Prussian War: Austria's War with Prussia and Italy in 1866* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996).

Seven Years' War (1756–1763)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain and Prussia vs. Austria, France, Russia, Saxony, Sweden, and—after 1762—Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany and Central Europe; the British and French colonies in North America, the Caribbean, and India
DECLARATION: Frederick II of Prussia launched a surprise, preemptive attack on Austria on August 29, 1756.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The war may be viewed in most measures as a larger-scale continuation of the issues that had ignited the War of the Austrian Succession, 1740–1748: the contest between Prussia and Austria for possession of Silesia and for political dominance in central Europe, and the struggle between Britain and France for military and naval supremacy and for colonial dominance.
OUTCOME: The conclusion of the war—and its North American phase, called the French and Indian War—not only brought an interval of peace to Europe, it also reshaped the colonial world. France lost to Britain all of its North American possessions, except Louisiana, which it had earlier ceded to Spain; French troops were excluded from Bengal, thereby ending the French imperial drive in India and laying the foundation for British domination of India; in Africa, France yielded Senegal to the British. France retained a few colonies: Saint Pierre and Miquelon (in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence); Saint Lucia, Haiti, Guadeloupe, and Martinique (in the West Indies); and Pondichéry and Chandernagor (in India). Spain recovered Cuba and the Philippines, which it had lost in the course of the

war, but ceded Florida to Britain. As a result, Britain developed its colonies and became a major sea power, whereas France grew to prominence on the Continent of Europe.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Prussia, 143; Hanoverians, Hessians, and Brunswickers, 50,000; Great Britain, 215,000; Austria, 150,000; France, 125,000; Germans loyal to Marie-Therese—60,000; Russia, 170,000; Sweden, 50,000

CASUALTIES: Estimates vary widely up to 868,000, including 260,000 fighting for the Hapsburgs and 180,000 Prussians; for French and English figures see the French and Indian War.

TREATIES: Treaty of Paris, February 10, 1763, for Great Britain, France, Spain and Portugal; Treaty of Hubertusburg, February 15, 1763, for Prussia and Austria (encompassing Hungary and Bohemia)

As historians have frequently pointed out, the Seven Years' War and the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR grew directly out of earlier conflicts: the War of the League of Augsburg (in North America, KING WILLIAM'S WAR), the War of the SPANISH SUCCESSION (in North America, QUEEN ANNE'S WAR), and the War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION (in North America, KING GEORGE'S WAR).

The Seven Years' War was a world war, in reality two conflicts—one fought in central Europe between Prussia and the coalition led by Austria, the other overseas in India and North America between Great Britain and France—linked by France's involvement in much the same way as American involvement linked the European and Pacific fronts in WORLD WAR II. With more than 30 battles around the world, it was the last time all the old regimes of Europe's great powers engaged in combat before the FRENCH REVOLUTION (1789–1799) changed not only the ways wars were fought but also the reasons for fighting them.

An intense if ambiguous prelude to the war came in North America, where British and French interests had begun sporadic fighting in 1754, but in Europe, clear-cut hostilities commenced on August 29, 1756, when Frederick II (the Great; 1712–86) of Prussia, seeking to preempt an attack from Maria Theresa of Austria (1717–80) and Elizabeth of Russia (1709–61), launched a surprise offensive through the electorate of Saxony, a minor Austrian ally. Frederick's strategy was to defeat Austria and Russia with a quick war, but despite some early victories, Frederick was unable to achieve the kind of success that would have checked the political consequences of his act. Frederick had launched his attack because he was certain that Austria and Russia had plans for a campaign in the following spring aimed at reclaiming Silesia, the former Hapsburg province seized by Prussia during the War of the Austrian Succession.

At first, Frederick's gamble seemed to pay off. From the start his worry had been Saxony, an ostensibly neutral principality actually under Hapsburg sway. The Elbe River formed the border between Saxony and Brandenburg, the core of the Hohenzollern monarchy. Indeed the Saxon frontier was only some 50 miles from Frederick's Berlin capital and thus a good gateway into the heart of his holdings. The threat grew more real when a Saxon princess married the heir to the French throne. In Frederick's eyes, this freed Austria and Russia to collude against him, since they could now assume French support. Whereas, before the outbreak of the war, Frederick—fearful that further conflict in Europe would threaten his rich holdings in prosperous Silesia—had been careful to conduct a pacific foreign policy, he now sought by force of arms to neutralize the threat of Saxony.

Frederick quickly defeated the Saxon army, allowing the Saxon leadership to go into exile, but drafting the rank and file into the Prussian army (most of them eventually deserted). He easily rebuffed a counterattack by the Austrian military, but in the long run, instead of staving off a joint Austrian-Russian invasion, he ensured only that France would fight actively beside Austria to defeat Prussia. Soon he found himself involved in a desperate struggle that embroiled nation after nation. Even second-rate Sweden aligned itself against Prussia. Meanwhile, Frederick, pleased with his success in Saxony, was still anxious to keep the war short, since he had limited resources and unlimited enemies. Frederick's advance into Bohemia, despite a hard-fought victory at Prague on May 6, 1757, led to a devastating Prussian defeat at Kolin in June. Russian forces marched into East Prussia in August, and Austrian troops overran Berlin, occupying it for several days in October. Frederick came back with massive victories at Rossbach on November 5 and at Leuthen the next month, thereby saving his kingdom from conquest. Moreover, these victories bought him the time he needed to orchestrate the major campaigns of the next four years.

The nations aligned against Prussia failed to coordinate their forces adequately. Great Britain provided some finance and maintained an army in northwestern Germany to defend Hanover (a British royal possession) from French attack. Although Frederick won the day at Zorndorf in 1758 and again at Leignitz and Torgau in 1760, the victories were costly, draining his resources and causing a steady decline in his military fortunes. When he met the Russians at Kunersdorf on August 12, 1759, his forces were soundly defeated, and by the start of 1762 the Austrians had moved into Saxony and Silesia, and Russians held Prussian Pomerania. Although Frederick's position appeared hopeless, he was rescued by the death of the Russian empress Elizabeth in January 1762, for she was succeeded by Peter III (1728–62), who was a great admirer of Frederick. Peter summarily withdrew from the war, leaving Austria to face Prussia alone. This prompted an Austrian treaty

with Prussia, the Treaty of Hubertusburg, on February 15, 1763, which affirmed Prussian sovereignty over Silesia.

Meanwhile, Britain and France fought the bulk of their war on the soil of their contested colonial possessions, especially those in North America and India. In May 1756, about two years after the outbreak of hostilities on the Virginia frontier, Britain declared war on France. Both sides called upon colonial militias and Indian allies to do much of the fighting, but the British, who had treated the native peoples poorly, had fewer Indian allies than the French. Moreover, the British regular army officers who had been sent to take charge of the war regarded colonial troops with contempt. Both of these factors contributed to early English defeats at the hands of the brilliant French commander, General Louis-Joseph, marquis de Montcalm (1712–59). The British fort at Oswego on Lake Ontario fell in 1756, and in 1757 Fort William Henry at the south end of Lake George was taken. With British colonial fortunes at their nadir, William Pitt the Elder (1708–78) became Britain's new prime minister and instituted new policies of increased aid to the American colonies, which included a reformed attitude toward the Indians as well as colonial troops. At the same time, France was finding it increasingly difficult to support its colonies. The tide of the French and Indian War began to turn in favor of the English in 1758, and 1759 brought victory after victory, culminating in the fall of Quebec to the British during September 12–13, 1759. In 1760, Jeffrey, Lord Amherst (1717–1797) completed the conquest of Canada by taking Montreal, and by the end of the year, the French hegemony in North America had come to an end.

This did not mean an immediate end to the war, however. Except for a handful of "traditional" military engagements, the French and Indian War was largely a guerrilla war, fought more by settlers against Indians (allied with French or British interests) than by one army against another. Combat continued between the British and the Cherokee Indians in the south until 1761, and between settlers and Indians throughout the Ohio country.

In 1762, Spain entered the conflict late on the side of France and was quickly neutralized by British sea power. On February 15, 1762, Martinique fell to the English, followed by St. Lucia and Grenada. On August 12, 1762, Havana yielded to a two-month siege, and Manila fell on October 5. On November 3, France concluded the secret Treaty of San Ildefonso with Spain, in which it ceded to that country all of its territory west of the Mississippi and the Isle of Orleans in Louisiana. By the Treaty of Paris, concluded on February 10, 1763, France ceded all of Louisiana to Spain and the rest of its North American holdings to Great Britain. The king of France had abandoned his Indian allies—and the New World—entirely. The English, after seven bitter and often inept years of combat, had at last forced the surrender of New France. Yet this proved less a boon to Great Britain than it did to her colonists, who were free to turn the full force of their rapacity against the Indians. With the French and Spanish removed from the frontiers, the Indians were left without foreign support for their resistance to British expansion. As colonists migrated inland, connections with the mother country grew increasingly tenuous, and, for their part, even coastal colonials no longer felt as dependent on Britain for defense. Thus the Treaty of Paris provided some of the conditions under which an increasing number of colonists began to think of independence. The close of the Seven Years' War may therefore be read as an opening chord in the prelude to the AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

The document that ended the Seven Years' War on the Continent framed the conflict in terms of a dispute between monarchs rather than nations. Clearly, both sides were highly motivated to end the war quickly. Frederick recognized that his resources were exhausted, whereas Maria Theresa understood that further prosecuting the war without Russia and Sweden was hopeless. The settlement between them was direct and personal, and out of such bonds was the fabric of European diplomacy created at the time.

Thus, where the Treaty of Paris, among Britain, France, and Spain, reshaped the world, the Treaty of Hubertusburg, between Prussia and Austria, restored the status quo ante bellum, but most significantly confirmed Prussia's retention of Silesia, the disputed area that had largely provoked the present conflict as well as the earlier War of the Austrian Succession.

See also CARNATIC WAR, FIRST; CARNATIC WAR, SECOND; MYSORE WAR, FIRST; MYSORE WAR, SECOND; MYSORE WAR, THIRD; MYSORE WAR, FOURTH; SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1762).

Further reading: Fred Anderson, *Crucible of War: The Seven Years' Wars and the Fate of Empire in British North America (1754–1766)* (New York: Random House, 2000); W. L. Dorn, *Competition for Empire, 1740–1763* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940); Christopher Duffy, Richard Middleton, *The Bells of Victory: The Pitt-Newcastle Ministry and the Conduct of the Seven Years' War, 1757–1762* (Cambridge, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1985); Dennis E. Showalter, *The Wars of Frederick the Great* (London and New York: Longman, 1996).

Shah Jahan's Revolt (1622–1626)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Khurram (Shah Jahan) vs. his father, Jahangir
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India, chiefly the Deccan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Khurram (Shah Jahan) disobeyed his father's command to fight in Afghanistan; the disobedience was treated as rebellion.
OUTCOME: Khurram finally submitted to his father and was forgiven.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Shah Abbas I (the Great; 1557–c. 1628) launched his second attempt to seize Kandahar from the Mogul Empire, the Mogul ruler Jahangir (1569–1627) commanded his son, Khurram (1592–1666, later known as Shah Jahan, builder of the Taj Mahal) to lead an army from the Deccan to Afghanistan to fight Abbas. Khurram did not want to leave India at what he felt was a critical time, with his father ailing, close to death, and his own succession to the throne near, but subject to the dangerous intrigues of the empress, Nur Jahan (d. 1645). He therefore disobeyed his father, sending him a message that he needed to wait for the end of the rainy season. Nur Jahan decided to interpret this delay as an act of rebellion, and she persuaded Jahangir of this, inducing him to reprimand his son severely. Khurram did decide to advance, in 1623, but he marched toward Agra, not far-off Kandahar. He attempted to take the old court city of Fatehpur Sikri, failed, then retreated into the Deccan.

Khurram and his forces were pursued by an army under Mahabat Khan (d. 1634), who pushed him into Bengal, then pursued him back again into the Deccan. In the course of evading Mahabat Khan, Khurram acquired additional followers, but he was worn out by the pursuit. By 1626, he surrendered to his father, who, to the consternation of Nur Jahan, forgave him and appointed him governor of the Deccan state of Balaghat.

See also MAHABAT KHAN'S INSURRECTION.

Further reading: Muni Lal, *Jahangir* (New Delhi: Vikas, 1983); Beni Prasad, *History of Jahangir,* 3d ed. (Allahabad: Indian Press, 1940).

Shaka Zulu's Wars of Expansion (1819–1828)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Shaka Zulu vs. clans and tribes adjacent to the Zulus
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Zululand and Natal, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tribal expansion
OUTCOME: Shaka Zulu spread Zulu dominance across an area encompassing modern Zululand and much of Natal.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Shaka Zulu's army, 30,000; opposition numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Shaka Zulu (1785/87–1828), who had risen to rule the Zulu people of modern Zululand in 1816–19 (*see* ZULU CIVIL WAR [1817–1819]), led the largest and most formidable native army in Africa—30,000 men—in a ruthlessly aggressive campaign to conquer neighboring clans. Shaka compelled all those conquered to absorption within the Zulu tribe. In this manner, all of the region now encompassed by Zululand and a portion of what is now Natal came under the dominion of Shaka Zulu.

Shaka was a brilliant military strategist and tactician but a gratuitously cruel ruler. The death of his brother Nandi (d. 1827) seemed to remove the only curb on his tyranny. After 1827, Shaka's rule became irrationally destructive, and he was assassinated on September 22, 1828, by his half brothers.

Further reading: Donald R. Morris, *The Washing of the Spears: A History of the Rise of the Zulu Nation under Shaka and Its Fall in the Zulu War of 1879* (New York: Da Capo, 1998).

Shang-Zhou Dynastic Wars (c. 1027 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Zhou (Chou) vs. the Shang
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China, principally southern Henan (Honan)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Shang domains
OUTCOME: The Shang were defeated by the Zhou, which commenced an 800-year dynasty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Unknown

Little is known about the military means by which Wu Wang (fl. 12th century B.C.E.)—the "martial king" of the Zhou—established his authority over the former Shang domains of China, but about the year 1027 B.C.E. he displaced the Shang by winning the Battle of Mu Yu and established in the region the Zhou dynasty, which was destined to last 800 years. As for Wu Wang himself, he died very soon after conquering the Shang and establishing the Zhou dynasty. Zhou Kung (fl. 12th century B.C.E.) served as regent for seven years after Wu Wang's death. Zhou Kung apparently created a governmental structure so durable that it served the dynasty throughout its 800-year reign.

Further reading: Ji Li, *The Formation of the Chinese People* (New York: Russell and Russell, 1967).

Shays's Rebellion (1786–1787)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Paramilitary "Regulators" vs. Massachusetts volunteer force
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Massachusetts

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Economically oppressed frontiersmen menaced the Continental Arsenal at Springfield, Massachusetts.
OUTCOME: The "rebellion" was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Regulators, variable; at Springfield, 1,500; Massachusetts volunteers at Springfield, 4,400
CASUALTIES: Two executions; three Regulators killed at the Springfield Arsenal
TREATIES: None

The United States was not kind to the veterans of the AMERICAN REVOLUTION who had created the new nation. Demobilized troops of the Continental Army received little, if any, of the back pay due them. What payment they did collect was typically in so-called Continental notes, which were of such little value that the phrase "not worth a Continental" entered popular speech. Even the states that had approved the issue of these notes now refused to accept them in payment of taxes. The lot of former officers improved when they were compensated mainly with land in the Ohio country, but enlisted veterans were left in the lurch. In rural Massachusetts, the veterans were especially hard pressed. They had not been paid, their crops brought dismal prices in a postwar depression economy, and they were subject to heavy taxation endorsed by the state's conservative governor, James Bowdoin (1726–90). The situation was most acute in western Massachusetts, where citizens felt themselves cheated of equitable representation by the provisions of the state constitution of 1780. Finding no relief from the government, these westerners began banding together in a paramilitary movement called "the Regulation." "Regulators" were groups of 500 to 2,000 men who, armed with clubs and muskets, marched on circuit court sessions with the object of intimidating the magistrates and postponing pending property seizures until the next gubernatorial election, which, they hoped, would replace the conservative Bowdoin with a more liberal governor.

For some five months, Regulators were active in Northampton, Springfield, and Worcester, as well as smaller towns. Strictly by means of intimidation, they succeeded in keeping the courts closed; no shots were fired, and there were no casualties. However, members of the new national government who favored a strong concentration of federal authority saw the "rebellion" in western Massachusetts as an opportunity to demonstrate the urgency of their position. George Washington's (1732–99) future secretary of war, Henry Knox (1750–1806), personally investigated conditions at Springfield, where, he believed, the Continental arsenal was vulnerable. Knox reported to the national government that the Regulation was indeed a full-scale rebellion, led by one Daniel Shays (c. 1745–1825), a former captain in the Continental army. Knox, who advocated not only a strong central government but also a strong standing army, portrayed "Shays's Rebellion" as the work of radicals and anarchists who wanted to abolish private property, to erase all debts, and generally to incite a civil war. Knox knew that neither Massachusetts nor the federal government was in a position to finance an army to oppose the Shaysites, so he collaborated with Governor Bowdoin in appealing to Boston merchants to finance a force of 4,400 volunteers under General Benjamin Lincoln (1733–1810), a Revolution veteran.

Lincoln led his force to the Springfield Arsenal and there, during January 24–25, 1787, confronted 1,500 Regulators under Shays, Luke Day (fl. 18th century), and Eli Parsons (fl. 18th century). Lincoln fired a cannon into the assembled Regulators, killing three and sending the others into flight. Lincoln pursued and captured a number of "ringleaders." Several were tried for treason, two were hanged, and the Regulator movement came to an end. As for the namesake of the "rebellion," Shays fled to Vermont and later was granted a pardon.

Except for the final encounter, Shays's Rebellion consisted of a series of peaceful demonstrations against a catastrophic taxation policy during a postwar depression. Knox and other Federalists, however, stirred fears that Shays's Rebellion was a civil war in the making and would soon spread to all 13 states. This fear provided a large portion of the impetus to convene, in Philadelphia in May 1787, a constitutional convention, which scrapped the weak Articles of Confederation and drew up a constitution mandating a strong central government to which the states were ultimately subordinate.

Further reading: Robert A. Gross, ed., *In Debt to Shays: A Bicentennial of an Agrarian Rebellion* (Charlottesville: University of Virginia Press, 1993); Leonard L. Richards, *Shays's Rebellion: The American Revolution's Final Battle* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2002); David P. Szatmary, *Shays's Rebellion: The Making of an Agrarian Insurrection* (Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press, 1980).

Sheepeater War (1879)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sheepeater Indians of Idaho vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Idaho
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Retribution for an Indian attack upon a mining camp
OUTCOME: Sheepeaters surrendered and were removed to Fort Hall Reservation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sheepeaters, 35 warriors; United States, 50 men

CASUALTIES: Five Chinese miners; others unrecorded
TREATIES: None

At the conclusion of the BANNOCK WAR, General Oliver O. Howard (1830–1909) reported that hostilities had been entirely concluded in Idaho. However, a number of Bannocks who did not surrender took refuge among the so-called Sheepeaters in the Salmon River Mountains. The Sheepeaters were renegade Shoshonis and Bannocks, who were neither friendly nor entirely hostile to whites until the fugitive Bannocks incited them to raid a prospectors' camp on Loon Creek, killing five Chinese miners in May 1879.

General Howard sent a small detachment of troops to locate the murderers. The result was the "Sheepeater War," which was waged against no more than 35 warriors, yet forced soldiers to pursue the enemy over some of the most rugged wilderness in the nation.

Lieutenant Henry Catley's (fl. late 19th century) command was ambushed on July 29 by 15 warriors, who bottled up his troopers in the canyon of the Big Creek. Abandoning all his baggage and supplies, Catley retreated with his 50 men and was subjected to court-martial by General Howard for having fled before a substantially inferior force.

On August 13, 1879, Captain Reuben F. Bernard's (1832–1903) cavalry joined Catley's infantry and Indian scouts. The Sheepeaters eluded the force but on August 20 attacked an army supply train. They were driven off, but soldiers were too exhausted to pursue. Howard called off the campaign as fruitless.

In September, Lieutenant Edward S. Farrow (1855–1926) set out against the Sheepeaters again and succeeded in capturing two women and two children on September 21. One of the prisoners told them that the warriors were tired and could not withstand much more pursuit. Farrow, his own command exhausted, kept up the pursuit through the end of the month. After a four-day snowstorm, 51 Sheepeaters and a few Bannocks surrendered on October 1 and 2. Most of the fugitive Bannocks, however, were never located. The Sheepeaters were sent to the Fort Hall Reservation.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); John Carney, *The Middle Fork and the Sheepeater War* (Cambridge, Idaho: Backeddy Books, 1980).

Sheridan's Campaign (Southern Plains War) (1868–1869)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cheyenne Indians and allied tribes vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Kansas and eastern Colorado
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The United States was trying to force the Indians of the American West onto reservations; the Cheyenne "Dog Soldiers" and warriors from other tribes launched a resistance to concentration on reservations.
OUTCOME: The Cheyenne were defeated and reported to the reservations.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Cheyenne and allies, 1,000; United States, 1,050; Pawnee scouts, 50
CASUALTIES: Indians, 200–300 killed, included 100 or more women and children; U.S. civilians, 94 killed, 9 wounded, 5 raped; U.S. troops, 22 killed, 14 wounded
TREATIES: None; the Cheyenne were forced to honor the terms of the Fort Laramie Treaty of April 28, 1868.

After the American Civil War (*see* United States CIVIL WAR), the United States moved aggressively to confine its western Native American tribes to a series of reservations, a campaign that a number of the tribes openly resisted, often breaking into war and peace factions. In charge of handling the Indian "problem" was former Civil War general William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91), in command of all the western forces of the U.S. Army. His favorite field commander was another Civil War officer, a cavalryman, General Philip H. Sheridan (1831–88). Together they would deploy a strategy against the Indians of the American West that Sherman developed during the Civil War. It was what he called "total war"—combat directed not against military objectives alone but at the civilian population as well, in order to destroy a people's very will to fight. Sheridan would take Sherman's concept of total war to an effective extreme by conducting against the Native Americans a series of winter campaigns, aimed at hitting the Indians when they were most vulnerable. Sheridan's officers were soon to learn that such ruthless campaigns were almost as hard on the American soldiers as they were on the Indians.

The first of the tribes to experience Sherman's total war were the Cheyenne of the central and southern Great Plains, who had so recently handed General Winfield Scott Hancock (1824–86) a costly defeat (*see* HANCOCK'S CAMPAIGN). Despite an ambitious treaty signed at Fort Laramie on April 29, 1868, the Cheyennes were still sharply divided into a peace faction and the implacable, warlike "Dog Soldiers," who refused confinement to any reservation. Joining with various members of the Brule and Oglala Sioux and Arapahos, the Dog Soldiers continued to raid throughout 1868 in western Kansas and eastern Colorado, killing a total of 79 settlers, wounding nine, and appropriating a great deal of livestock. While the Dog Soldier faction was engaged in raiding, the Cheyennes at large agitated for the guns and ammunition they had been

promised by another treaty. The Indian Bureau fearfully delayed issuing the promised weapons until repeated threats of war convinced officials to begin distribution.

As usual, communication was poor, and 200 Cheyenne, who had not heard about the bureau's decision, launched raids against settlements on the Saline and Solomon rivers, killing 15 men, raping five women, burning ranches, and running off stock. Even as the peace factions of the Cheyenne as well as the Arapaho marched off toward the reservations, the Dog Soldiers and other warlike factions stepped up raids throughout western Kansas and eastern Colorado.

General Sherman declared that these Indians needed to be soundly whipped, the ringleaders hanged, their ponies killed, and enough of their property destroyed to impoverish them. Sherman instructed Sheridan to proceed with such an all-out offensive. Sheridan's innovative plan was to mount his unprecedented winter campaign, when the Indians, occupied with surviving the harsh elements, were least prepared—or able—to fight.

Sheridan began in the early autumn of 1868, sending Major George A. Forsyth with 50 handpicked men to patrol settlements and travel routes. On September 17, the small company was set upon by 600–700 Dog Soldiers and Oglala Sioux in western Kansas. Forsyth's party took refuge on an island in the all but dried-up Arikara Fork of the Republican River, using their repeating carbines to hold off the Indians. When one of their most prominent warriors, Roman Nose (d. 1868), was slain, the dispirited Cheyennes broke off the fight and laid siege to the island. Two of Forsyth's men managed to slip through the Indian lines and summon reinforcements, who relieved the besieged troopers after eight days.

As to the winter campaign proper, Sheridan decided on a three-pronged strategy. One column would approach from Fort Bascom, New Mexico, another from Fort Lyon, Colorado, and the third, under Sheridan's favorite cavalry officer, Colonel George Armstrong Custer (1839–76), from Fort Dodge, Kansas. They would converge on the Indians' winter camps on the Canadian and Washita rivers, in Indian Territory.

It was Custer who found the first encampment, at the Washita River on November 27, 1868. His 7th Cavalry charged into the slumbering Indian village, killing warriors, women, and children indiscriminately. Worse, the village he had attacked was led by Black Kettle (c. 1804–68), a staunch champion of peace. Among the 103 Indians killed, 93 were women, old men, and children—and Black Kettle, who was cut down with his wife.

The brutality of Washita sent large numbers of Cheyennes marching off to the reservation. After the battle, Major (later Brigadier General) Eugene Carr (1830–1910) and Major Andrew Evans scoured the plains north and west of the Washita, flushing out stragglers. On Christmas Day of 1868, Evans discovered a Comanche village consisting of 60 lodges at Soldier Spring, on the north fork of the Red River, and a Kiowa camp a short distance downstream. He launched a devastating attack on both settlements. Two hundred Comanches and Kiowas returned to counterattack but withdrew after a day-long battle. Although some of the Indians who had been engaged at Soldier Spring sought refuge among the Kwahadi Comanches, most, exhausted, surrendered to Forts Cobb and Bascom.

Washita and Soldier Spring seemed to vindicate Sheridan's winter strategy, but since winter campaigning was almost as hard on the troops as it was on the Indians, the army was unable to capitalize on its victories.

It was not until March 1869 that Custer was again able to move, this time marching into the Texas Panhandle. On March 15, he discovered the villages of Medicine Arrows and Little Robe at Sweetwater Creek. Aware that the Indians held two white women hostage, Custer called for a parley; during the talks he seized three chiefs. He sent one back with surrender terms, threatening to hang the other two if the terms were unmet. The Cheyennes, weary of war, surrendered and promised to retire to the reservation.

The Cheyennes failed to report to the reservation, and the Dog Soldiers, led by Tall Bull (d. 1869), renewed their attacks, joining forces with the Northern Cheyennes in the Powder River country. On July 11, 1869, the 5th Cavalry, commanded by Major Carr, surprised the Dog Soldiers' camp at Summit Springs, Colorado. Tall Bull was killed, and the Dog Soldiers were finished in western Kansas. The balance of the Cheyennes trudged off to the reservation.

Further reading: Donald J. Berthrong, *The Southern Cheyennes* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1963); George B. Grinnell, *The Fighting Cheyennes* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1956); Paul A. Hutton, *Phil Sheridan and His Army* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1985), and (ed.) *The Custer Reader* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1992); William H. Leckie, *Military Conquest of the Southern Plains* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1963); Robert Utley, *Frontier Regulars: The United States Army and the Indian, 1866–1890* (New York: Macmillan, 1973) and *Cavalier in Buckskin: George Armstrong Custer and the Western Military Frontier* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1988).

Shi'ite Rebellion (762)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Abbasid Caliphate vs. Shi'ite rebels
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Abbasid Caliphate (Iraq)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Rebellion of one Islamic faction against another
OUTCOME: The Abbasids ended the rebellion in a single decisive battle.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Al-Mansur (fl. 754–75) succeeded Abu'l Abbas (fl. 750–54) as caliph of the Abbasid Caliphate (Iraq). This touched off a period of turbulence as other Abbasids rebelled against the succession; however, during 762–66, Al-Mansur gained a firm hold on the realm and established a new capital at Baghdad. No sooner had he completed this, however, than the rival Islamic sect, the Shi'ites, rebelled against him. He quickly crushed the rebellion by triumphing over Shi'ite forces at the Battle of Bakhamra in 762.

Further reading: Hugh Kennedy, *The Prophet and the Age of the Caliphates* (London; New York: Longman, 1986).

Shi'ite Rebellion (814–819)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Shi'ite Alid rebels vs. Abbasid caliph Allah al-Ma'mun; subsequently, alienated Sunni subjects vs. Allah al-Ma'mun
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mecca, Medina, and Baghdad
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Alids wanted to replace the Sunni caliph with a Shi'ite; when the caliph acted to pacify the Shi'ites, the Sunnis deposed him.
OUTCOME: Allah al-Ma'mun was able to region control of the caliphate.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 814 the Abbasid caliph Allah al-Ma'mun (785–833) attempted to bring about an end to the conflict between the Shi'ite Muslims, who believed in the divine right to rule of Ali ibn Abi Talib (c. 600–661) and his descendants, and the Sunni Muslims, who accepted the three caliphs who had preceded Ali. This attempt at reconciliation triggered a rebellion by Shi'ites known as the Alids, who overran and occupied the holy cities of Mecca and Medina, then captured all of southern Mesopotamia. From this position of power, they threatened Baghdad, the Islamic capital.

Under al-Ma'mun's orders, his greatest commander, Harthma ibn 'Ayan, led the imperial forces against the Alid rebels and defeated them. Abu'l Saraya (d. 818), their leader, was taken captive and executed. This done, al-Ma'mun decided that a conciliatory gesture was in order, and so he named Ali ar-Rida (d. 818), a Shi'ite, as his successor. Although this may have pacified the Shi'ites, it outraged the Sunnis, who overthrew al-Ma'mun and drove him out of Baghdad. They elevated his uncle, Ibrahim (779–839), descended from the third caliph, to the throne. Subsequently, ar-Rida died from poisoning—no one knows who poisoned him. However, in August 819, al-Ma'mun returned to Baghdad from exile in Merv, leading a large army. He regained control of the caliphate, retook the throne, and launched a new and successful offensive against the Alids. With ar-Rida out of the way, the Sunnis had nothing further to protest.

See also MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (657–661).

Further reading: Hugh Kennedy, *The Early Abbasid Caliphate: A Political History* (London: Croom Helm; Totowa, N.J.: Barnes and Noble Books, 1981).

Shimabara Revolt (1637–1638)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Converted Japanese and foreign Christians vs. military troops of the Iemitsu, third Tokugawa shogun
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Japan, especially Nyushu Island
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The shogun attempted to wipe out Christianity, which he saw as a challenge to Japan's traditional society.
OUTCOME: Christianity was abolished in Japan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 40,000 Christians; 100,000 Tokugawa shogun troops
CASUALTIES: All but 105 Christians; shogun troops, unknown
TREATIES: None

A lone Portuguese priest first introduced Catholicism to the isolated islands of Japan in 1549. More missionaries followed, and they succeeded in converting vast numbers of Japanese to the Christian faith. Christianity spread in Japan for seven decades, in spite of the ruling shogun's (military dictator's) frequent banning of the religion, expulsion of its clergy, and enforcement of *sakoku* ("closed country"). Catholicism had spread widely and deeply in Japan's southern regions, taking root most strongly on the Shimabara Peninsula of Kyushu Island and on the Amakusa Islands.

In 1623, Iemitsu (1604–51), third ruler of the Tokugawa shogunate (military dictatorship), came to power. New prohibitions on the practice of Christianity were accompanied by the unspeakable torture and execution of the foreign and Japanese faithful. Japanese citizens were required to sign up as parishioners at Buddhist temples, which guaranteed annually that their members were not Christian. Suffering years of such violence, thousands of converts staged an open revolt against the shogun. In addition to religious persecutions, the rebels protested the

shogun's oppressive land policies, heavy taxation, and a ban on travel and contact with the world beyond Japan's shores.

Fighting continued until early 1638, when nearly 20,000 rebels converged on an abandoned castle on the Shimabara coast. There, they gathered their families (numbering another 20,000) and took a stand against 100,000 of the shogun's troops. The Christians withstood attacks against the castle for four months, even surviving the shelling of the castle by a Dutch warship conscripted into the shogun's cause. By mid-April, however, the rebels had depleted their food and ammunition. The shogun's army stormed the castle, killing all but 105 Christians.

The Christians' struggle against persecution was part of greater battles in the Tokugawa shogun's efforts to consolidate control over the islands. In the short term, after the massacre at Shimabara, there were no known Christians in Japan, but for a few Dutch merchants. In the long term, the Tokugawa dynasty ruled Japan for the next 250 years.

Further reading: Conrad Totman, *Politics in the Tokugawa Bakufu, 1600–1843* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1967).

Shimonoseki War (1863–1864)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Choshu daimyo (warlord) vs. the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Straits of Shimonoseki, Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Choshu daimyo sought to prevent foreign vessels from trading with Japan.
OUTCOME: United States, Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands successfully joined in a naval effort to neutralize the daimyo's resistance and to ensure open trade with Japan. The conflict greatly facilitated the opening of Japan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Western allies, 17 warships, crewed by some 5,000 men who put ashore a loading force of 1,400 British, 350 French, 250 Dutch, and one squad of American troops; strength of daimyo's forces, unknown
CASUALTIES: Few among the allies but including at least 5 Americans killed, 6 wounded and 13 British killed, 50 wounded; daimyo casualties unknown, but probably heavy in proportion to the numbers engaged.
TREATIES: Treaty of 1864 with the daimyo of the Choshu clan

In the mid-19th century, the northern shore of Japan's Straits of Shimonoseki was controlled by the Choshu clan, whose daimyo threw his support behind the Japanese political faction that advocated the expulsion of all foreigners from the country. In accordance with this view, two of the daimyo's ships attacked an American vessel anchored at the entrance to the strait, on June 26, 1863. This attack was followed the next month with assaults on French and Dutch ships from shore-based artillery. The U.S. Navy responded by sinking two of the daimyo's vessels, and a French warship bombarded a village, razing it, and destroyed a shore battery. These actions did not deter the Choshu daimyo, whose batteries continued to fire on any foreign vessel that approached within range.

In March 1864, the British consul at Edo (Tokyo) organized other Western powers to make a concerted armed response to the daimyo's actions, the object being to force Japan to abide by existing trade treaties. On September 5, 1864, a coalition flotilla of 17 warships from Great Britain, the United States, France, and the Netherlands advanced into the Straits of Shimonoseki and methodically pounded shore batteries along the Choshu coast. After three days of bombardment, all the artillery positions had been destroyed. Having neutralized the daimyo's ability to resist, the allied naval commanders, at the mouths of their cannon, negotiated a treaty with the daimyo, whereby he guaranteed the safe and free passage of foreign trading vessels and agreed not to fortify the straits and to allow open trade at the port of Shimonoseki. The treaty also levied a large indemnity on the Choshu government.

The brief "war," resolved by a small flotilla, had a profound effect on Japan. It ended the last resistance to foreign trade and foreign influence; indeed, it triggered an opposite trend: the embrace of many aspects of foreign culture, particularly where technology and weaponry were concerned. From this point on, Japan became an industrial and military force to be reckoned with.

See also MEIJI RESTORATION.

Further reading: W. G. Beasley, trans. and ed., *Select Documents on Japanese Foreign Policy, 1853–1868* (London; New York: Oxford University Press, 1955); Grace Fox, *Britain and Japan, 1858–1883* (Oxford: Clarendon, 1969).

Shining Path Uprising in Peru

See PERUVIAN GUERRILLA WAR.

Shoshoni War

See BEAR RIVER CAMPAIGN.

Siam (Thai)-Chiengamai War (c. 1500–1530)

See THAI WAR (C. 1500–1529).

Siamese-Burmese War (1548)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burmese troops of the Toungoo regime vs. Siamese forces of the Ayutthaya dynasty

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Burma (Myanmar) to Central South Siam (Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ayutthaya made a preemptive strike against Burma's expansionist maneuvers.
OUTCOME: Siam repelled Burma's advances.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: The Siamese queen and her daughter died in the fighting.
TREATIES: None

Toungoo king Tabinshwehti (1512–51) came to power in 1531 and spent much of the next two decades consolidating various Burmese kingdoms under his rule. By 1546, he had moved from Toungoo (northeastern Lower Burma) north to take Upper Burma from the Shans. He then headed south to capture the Mon kingdom of Pegu in Lower Burma, including territory along the eastern coastal plains—land once held by the powerful Ayutthaya regime of Siam. When he claimed the central Irrawaddy River valley, he declared himself "king of all of Burma." He had ambitions to next take the Arakan kingdom in the west.

His troops moved to the western coast to lay siege to the Arakan capital of Mrohaung. Meanwhile, the Ayutthaya king, Maha Chakkraphat (fl. 16th century) expected Tabinshwehti to extend his expansion into Siam. Ayutthaya forces made a preemptive strike on the Burmese town of Tavoy, once part of the Siamese empire. Tabinshwehti turned his troops from Mrohaung, gathered some Portuguese mercenaries, and headed east, chasing the Siamese all the way from Tavoy to their capital city in central Siam, which the Burmese besieged.

During the siege, the Siamese king found himself in difficulties and was rescued by his wife, Suriyodaya (d. 1548), disguised as a soldier. Her efforts were successful—her husband was freed—but the adventure cost her her life. The queen's daughter also died in the fighting. Burmese forces captured the king's son, Rameshvara (d. 1564), and son-in-law too.

Despite the decimation of the Siamese royal family, the war turned badly for Tabinshwehti. After the four-month siege of the capital city, the Burmese king had depleted his supplies of war materials. Defeated, he was forced to free his royal captives in exchange for his troops' safe passage home.

See also BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1535–1546).

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *A History of Burma* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Burmese War (1563–1569)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of the Toungoo dynasty of Burma vs. the Ayutthaya armies of Siam
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siam (Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Fearing an alliance between the Shan provinces of the Burmese empire with the neighboring Siamese dynasty, Bayinnaung contrived an attack on Siam.
OUTCOME: Burma defeated Siam, which remained under Burmese rule for 15 years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the decades preceding the SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1548), the Toungoo king of Burma, Tabinshwehti (1512–51), expended much of his own energies and his kingdom's resources in a series of military maneuvers designed to unite the independent realms of Burma (Myanmar). He succeeded, for a time, in conquering the Shan of Upper Burma and the Mon of Lower Burma. But when he tried in 1548 to add parts of the Ayutthaya kingdom (Thailand) to his domain, he met with a defeat that cost him his wife, Suriyodaya (d. 1548), his daughter, and his will to continue. He turned to drink and neglected the business of state.

Perhaps seeing an opportunity in 1551, the Mon people of the Burmese kingdom took up arms against the king, whom they assassinated in 1551. But Tabinshweti's brother-in-law, Bayinnaung (1515–81), quickly smashed the revolt and ascended the throne.

Bayinnaung could control the Toungoo dynasty no better than his kin. Fearing that the Shan might align with the Ayutthaya kingdom against him, in 1563 he contrived a cause to invade Siam: he had demanded that the Siamese king, Mahachakrabarti (d. 1569), send a sacred white elephant to the Burmese capital. When no elephant arrived, Bayinnaung went to war. Employing Portuguese mercenaries and buying Portuguese cannon, Bayinnaung headed south and east with the cannon mounted atop wooden towers. In 1564, his forces overran the Ayutthaya capital.

The Siamese people had no taste for a war, and Mahachakrabarti knew it. He negotiated a peace that called for him to turn over resistance leaders, including one of his sons, to the Burmese king. In response to this betrayal, the Siamese nobility rebelled, and another of Mahachakrabarti's sons, Mahindra (d. 1569), took control of Siam. He failed to recapture lands recently lost to Burma, and his father was able to regain the throne in 1568. The treachery within Mahachakrabarti's family, however, continued to bedevil the Siamese king. His son-in-law Maha Dhammaraja

(d. 1590) allied with Bayinnaung against him, and Mahachakrabarti seized his own granddaughter as hostage. Bayinnaung used the kidnapping as a reason to send another, this time massive, attack against Siam, crushing the city of Ayutthaya in a 10-month siege.

On August 30, 1569, shortly after Mahachakrabarti's death, the Burmese entered the city with the aid of traitors. His son Mahindra died in captivity; his son-in-law Maha Dhammaraja ascended the Siamese throne as the vassal and lackey of his benefactor, Bayinnaung. For the next 15 years, Siam remained under Burmese rule, but if Bayinnaung had succeeded in conquering the entire Chao Phraya Valley, he had exhausted Burma's resources doing so. After his death, the kingdom would break to pieces. Not only would the Mon revolt and the Siamese regain their independence, but also the Portuguese, whom Bayinnaung used as hirelings but was careful to keep at arm's length, managed to carve out a kingdom of their own at Syriam.

See also BURMESE-LAOTIAN WAR (1564–1565).

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *A History of Burma* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Burmese War (1584–1592)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam vs. Burma
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siam (Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After 15 years of Burmese domination, Siam renounced its allegiance to Burma's king.
OUTCOME: Siam threw off Burmese subjugation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: The crown prince of Burma died at the Battle of Nong Sa Rai.
TREATIES: None

Following its defeat in the SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1563–1569), the Siamese kingdom remained subjugated to the king of Burma (Myanmar), Bayinnaung (1515–81), who had bankrupted Burma with his conquests. Nevertheless, upon his death in 1581, his son, Nanda Bayin (d. 1599), held Siam for a few years. Troubles began, however, in 1584 when Phra Naret (c. 1555–1605), governor of Siam's northern provinces, renounced his allegiance to the Burmese king. The king mounted a two-pronged attack against Siam but was rebuffed.

Strengthening his forces, Nanda Bayin forged ahead with three armies in late 1586, all converging on Siam's capital of Ayutthaya. For the first five months of the following year, the Burmese armies bombarded the city but were forced again to retreat—as much by disease and a shortage of supplies as by Phra Naret's resistance.

The Burmese ruler retreated, only to return in 1590, when he failed again to reconquer the Siamese. Nanda Bayin's nemesis, Phra Naret, in the meantime became King Naresuan, ruler of all Siamese lands in rebellion. Nanda Bayin mounted a final assault in 1592, headed by Crown Prince Minkyizwa (d. 1592). A large Burmese army faced Phra Naret's forces at the Battle of Nong Sa Rai; the two leaders faced off in hand-to-hand combat, each aboard an elephant. When the Burmese crown prince was killed, his troops retreated. Siam's subjugation by Burma had ended, and the man who had won this independence for the Siamese, King Naresuan, came to be regarded as a national hero by Thailand.

See also SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1587).

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *A History of Burma* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); Victor B. Lieberman, *Burmese Administrative Cycles: Anarchy and Conquest, c. 1580–1760* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1985); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Burmese War (1593–1600)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam vs. Burma
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma (Myanmar)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Having thrown off the shackles of Burmese rule, Siam went on the offensive.
OUTCOME: Siam failed to conquer Burma, but the war left Burma disunited.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Emboldened by his success in driving the Burmese from his homelands, King Naresuan (c. 1555–1605, formerly known as Phra Naret) went on the offensive. Having felled Burma's (Myanmar) Crown Prince Minkyizwa in 1592 at the Battle of Nong Sa Rai (*see* SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR [1584–1592]) and liberated Siam (Thailand) from 15 years of subjugation, the king of Siam ventured into Burmese territory on the Malay Peninsula.

Naresuan took the peninsular town of Tavoy and the surrounding Tenasserim provinces in 1593. Traveling northward, his forces captured Moulmiem and Martaban in the next year.

The king's pursuit of the Burmese was not much delayed by his strikes into nearby Cambodia and Chiengmai (northwest Thailand). In 1594, Naresuan captured the Cambodian capital city, Lovek, and put the country under his suzerainty. After aiding Chiengmai in resisting a Laotian attack in 1595, he made the ruler of that province a vassal to the Siamese throne. These victories made Naresuan stronger in his relentless push into Burma.

By 1596, Naresuan's forces pushed Burmese troops back from the Malay Peninsula to the capital city of Pegu, where civil war broke out. Naresuan took advantage of the unrest, attacking the city and occupying it for a time. The rebels of Pegu then took matters into their own hands. After assassinating Burma's King Nanda Bayin (d. 1599), they reorganized and managed to drive the Siamese out of Burma. The effort, however, was costly. Burma reverted back to a disorganized group of petty states.

See also SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1593–1594).

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *A History of Burma* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); Victor B. Lieberman, *Burmese Administrative Cycles: Anarchy and Conquest, c. 1580–1760* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1985); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Burmese War (1607–1618)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma vs. Siam (Thailand) (with Portuguese aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma (Myanmar) and Chiengmai (northwest Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Burma sought control of Siamese-held provinces.
OUTCOME: The war was resolved by a 1618 treaty, which gave Chiengmai to Burma and Tavoy to Siam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Burmese-Siamese treaty, 1618

As a result of the BURMESE CIVIL WAR (1599), Pegu was destroyed and Burma descended into anarchy. Into this situation stepped Anaukpetlun (d. 1628), monarch of Ava, an Upper Burmese province. He saw an opportunity to bring new unity to Burma by taking control of major towns. In 1607, Prome (Pye) fell to him. Three years later he captured Toungoo, and Syriam in 1613. After these conquests, Anaukpetlun advanced into Tavoy and Tenasserim, areas of southeastern Lower Burma held by Siam. During 1613–14, Tavoy fell to Anaukpetlun, although it was later retaken. Portuguese and Siamese forces successfully defended Tenasserim against the invaders. This restored the western border of Siam.

While fighting in Burma, Anaukpetlun dispatched another force to invade Chiengmai, a Siamese kingdom in what is today northwest Thailand. The Burmese laid siege to the city of Lampang, but the contest remained a draw through 1618, when Burma and Siam concluded a peace by which Burma regained control over Chiengmai in exchange for conceding control of Tavoy to Siam.

See also BURMESE-PORTUGUESE WAR.

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *A History of Burma* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); Victor B. Lieberman, *Burmese Administrative Cycles: Anarchy and Conquest, c. 1580–1760* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1985); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Burmese War (1760)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma (Myanmar) vs. Siam (Thailand)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siam
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Perennial rivalry between Burma and Siam.
OUTCOME: Burma invaded Siam but retreated when the Burmese leader fell ill and died.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 20,000 Siamese; probably a like number of Burmese
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1760, Siam sent 20,000 men into the narrow Tenasserim province of its longtime rival Burma to seize the city of Tavoy. But Burma, which had seen its fortunes flag in Southeast Asia over the previous century, was now under the rule of a new dynasty, founded by Alaungpaya (1714–60), the greatest military leader in Burmese history, who had revived the empire with victories over the Mons of southern Burma (*see* BURMESE CIVIL WAR [1753–1757]) and Manipur (*see* BURMESE-MANIPURIAN WAR [1755–1758]).

Not only did Burma counterattack, but also in April Alaungpaya marched against the Siamese capital, Ayutthaya (north of Bangkok). But when Alaungpaya fell sick and died at the age of 46 during the siege, the Burmese abandoned the expedition and retreated across the frontier to deal with an internal struggle over the succession.

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *A History of Burma* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); William J. Koenig, *The Burmese Polity, 1752–1819* (Ann Arbor: Center for South and Southeast Asian Studies, University of Michigan, 1990); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Burmese War (1764–1769)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Burma (Myanmar) vs. Siam (Thailand) and Laos
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siam and Laos
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Burmese expansion and Siamese response
OUTCOME: Burma invaded Siam and Laos but was driven out by Phya Taksin, who assumed the Siamese throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Alaungpaya (1714–1760), who founded a new Burmese dynasty, died during the retreat from a failed invasion of Siam, which further embittered Burma against its archrival, the very autonomy of which seemed to make the imperialistic Alaungpayas both more insecure and more bellicose.

Alaungpaya's death was followed by an internal power struggle that left his second son, the ambitious and expansionist Hsinbyushin (d. 1776), king of Burma. He renewed the war against Siam in 1764. Stopping first to invade the repeatedly contested Chiengmai, Hsinbyushin overan this northwest region of Thailand, then invaded Laos.

With the Chiengmai and Laotian conquests completed, Hsinbyushin turned south and marched on Ayutthaya, capital of Siam. Some 50,000 Burmese troops surrounded the city. On January 20, 1766, a similar force of Siamese soldiers went out to meet the invaders. In the battle, outside the walls of the city, a fusillade of musketry panicked the Siamese advance force, which stampeded back into the ranks of its own army. Thousands of Siamese died as the Burmese pressed their advantage.

Now Burma maintained a siege, its covering force of 3,000 battering the year round, even during Thailand's usually debilitating monsoons, when the series of redoubts built by the besiegers on high ground became a string of islands surrounding Ayutthaya. Siam sent 10,000 more men to relieve the town, but the besiegers held them off. In December Siam made one last effort to break the siege with a gunboat attack on the redoubts; the attack proved a costly failure.

Finally, in April 1767, the Burmese filled tunnels they had dug under the city walls with straw and firewood and set them ablaze. The walls buckled and collapsed, and the Burmese stormed the city. They killed several thousand, including the Siamese king, Ekat'at (d. 1767), and took 30,000 prisoners, whom they enslaved. The Burmese invaders looted and vandalized the capital, so severely damaging the city that later the Siamese capital was moved to Thon Buri, and afterward to Bangkok.

The Burmese commander, General Maha Nawraha, died just before the surrender, but Phya Taksin (1734–83), the Siamese general defeated by the forces of Hsinbyushin, escaped capture. He personally mustered a new army, and managed to drive the Burmese from Siam in 1769. The triumphant Phya Taksin assumed the Siamese throne and turned his attention to rivals for his crown. These he defeated in 1769, effectively bringing a measure of unity to Siam. He would reconquer all of Chiengmai in the SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1775–1776).

See also BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1765–1769); SIAMESE-VIETNAMESE WAR (1769–1773).

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *A History of Burma* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); William J. Koenig, *The Burmese Polity, 1752–1819* (Ann Arbor: Center for South and Southeast Asian Studies, University of Michigan, 1990); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Burmese War (1775–1776)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam (Thailand) vs. Burma (Myanmar)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chiengmai (northwest Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Siamese king Phya Taksin sought control of Chiengmai, held by Burma.
OUTCOME: The Siamese forces took and held Chiengmai.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By his triumph in the SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1764–1769), Phya Taksin (1734–82) obtained for himself the throne of Siam. However, the often-contested Chiengmai province was now in Burmese hands, and he decided to invade and retake it. He invaded and triumphed in 1775, then repulsed a Burmese counterattack in 1776.

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *A History of Burma* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); William J. Koenig, *The Burmese Polity, 1752–1819* (Ann Arbor: Center for South and Southeast Asian Studies, University of Michigan, 1990); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Burmese War (1785–1792)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam vs. Burma
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siam (Thailand) and Burma (Myanmar), especially regions of Tavoy and Tenasserim
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Burmese expansion
OUTCOME: Burma failed in its bid to invade and conquer Siam, but it did retake two Siamese-controlled regions it had formerly held.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Under King Bodawpaya (d. 1819), Burmese forces invaded Arakan, a kingdom on the western border of Burma. Bodawpaya annexed his coastal conquest in 1784 and took 20,000 prisoners, who became slaves.

Fresh from this triumph, Bodawpaya resolved to defeat Burma's archrival, Siam. He led his army east in a headlong invasion, which was quickly repulsed with heavy losses. Despite this decisive defeat, Bodawpaya persisted in fighting what became a sporadic war of attrition. The Siamese loosened their grip on Tavoy and Tenasserim, two former Burmese possessions.

Further reading: G. E. Harvey, *A History of Burma* (London: Frank Cass, 1967); William J. Koenig, *The Burmese Polity, 1752–1819* (Ann Arbor: Center for South and Southeast Asian Studies, University of Michigan, 1990); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Cambodian War (1587)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam (Thailand) vs. Cambodia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Burma (Myanmar), Siam (Thailand), and Cambodia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Outraged by the conduct of Siam's Prince Phra Naret, Cambodia's King Sattha severed an anti-Burmese alliance with Siam and attacked his erstwhile ally.
OUTCOME: At first on the defensive, Siam counterattacked and invaded Cambodia, withdrawing only because of supply difficulties.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1587, King Sattha (c. 1576–96) of Cambodia threw his kingdom's support behind Prince Phra Naret (c. 1555–1605) of Siam, who declared his realm's independence from Burma. Sattha sent troops under the command of his brother to aid Phra Naret in his war of independence, specifically to reinforce an attack on Burmese forces in Chiengmai (northwest Thailand) in April 1586. A dispute between Sattha's brother and Phra Naret, apparently over some breach of etiquette or other slight, prompted the Siamese prince to impale the Laotian captives he held. Appalled, Sattha abruptly abrogated Cambodia's alliance with Phra Naret and invaded southern Siam in 1587. His troops captured the city of Prachim (Prachin Buri).

At this point, Sattha sought an alliance with colonial and trading interests, the Spanish based in Manila and the Portuguese. When no help was forthcoming, Sattha broke off his pursuit of the retreating Siamese, and Phra Naret, sensing weakness, counterattacked. The Siamese now seized the initiative and forced the Cambodians into retreat. Phra Naret retook Prachim, then invaded Cambodia, overrunning and occupying the cities of Battambang and Pursat. His troops marched all the way to the Cambodian capital of Lovek before overstretched lines of supply and communication forced his withdrawal. The war ended inconclusively but with Phra Naret's pledge to return to Cambodia in order to punish King Sattha for having betrayed the alliance.

See also SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1584–1592); SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1593–1594).

Further reading: L. P. Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (1951); David P. Chandler, *A History of Cambodia* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1996); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Cambodian War (1593–1594)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam (Thailand) vs. Cambodia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cambodia
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King Naresuan of Siam sought vengeance on King Sattha of Cambodia, who had abrogated an alliance against Burma in the Siamese-Cambodian War of 1587.
OUTCOME: Naresuan conquered Cambodia and annexed it under a Siamese military government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Siam, more than 100,000; Cambodian forces, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1584–1592), Phra Naret (c. 1555–1605)—now Naresuan of Siam—turned his attention to Sattha (d. 1596) of Cambodia, who had abrogated an alliance against Burma in the SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1587). Naresuan was bent on revenge.

In May 1593 Naresuan led a 100,000-man army into Cambodia, easily taking Battambang and Pursat (Pouthisat). From here, he advanced on the Cambodian capital city of Lovek, which he had failed to take in the earlier war. Reinforcing armies took Siemreab, Bassac (Champassak, Laos), and other northern Cambodian settlements, then linked up with the main force under Naresuan.

In response to the invasion, Sattha sought aid from Spanish colonial officials in Manila, but it arrived too late. Determined to fight to the finish, he launched counterattacks against siege forces around Lovek. Despite this effort, the capital fell to the Siamese in July 1594. Sattha took flight, finding refuge at Luang Prabang. A broken man, he died two years later in exile. Left behind was Sattha's brother, Prince Srisuphanma (d. 1618), who was held captive while Naresuan annexed Cambodia, putting it under the rule of a Siamese military governor.

In 1596, a Spanish expedition arrived in Cambodia intending to give aid to the new deposed king. When the Spaniards found a usurper in his place, they sacked the Chinese quarter of Phnom Penh, then attacked the palace. Ultimately, in 1597, they found one of Sattha's sons in Laos, and placed him on the Cambodian throne as Baron Reachea II (d. 1599).

See also SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1603).

Further reading: L. P. Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (1951); David P. Chandler, *A History of Cambodia* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1996); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Cambodian War (1603)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siamese army in support of Srisuphanma, brother of Sattha vs. Cambodian resisters
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cambodia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: King Naresuan wanted to install a vassal ruler on the Cambodian throne.
OUTCOME: Srisuphanma was enthroned.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Siamese troops, 6,000; Cambodian resisters, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As a result of the SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1593–94), King Sattha (d. 1596) of Cambodia was overthrown by King Naresuan (c. 1555–1605, Phra Naret) of Siam (Thailand) in revenge for a breached alliance (*see* SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR [1587]). However, in 1597, Spanish forces came belatedly to Sattha's aid. The king had died in 1596, but the Spanish killed a usurper and installed one of Sattha's sons on the throne as Baron Reachea (d. 1599). This action did not sit well with most Cambodians, who resented the imposition of a king by a foreign power. In 1599, the Cambodians rose against Spanish troops occupying Phnom Penh, killed them, overthrew the Spanish-sponsored monarch, and then suffered through a succession of three incompetent and corrupt princes. At last, the queen mother pleaded with Naresuan to bring Prince Srisuphanma (d. 1618), the brother of Sattha, to the throne. With Naresuan's support, Srisuphanma led 6,000 Siamese troops into Cambodia, brushed aside resistance, and assumed the throne as Baron Reachea IV, a vassal nevertheless to Naresuan. The brief Spanish interlude in Cambodia marked the last significant European contact with the Cambodian court until France began colonizing Southeast Asia in the mid-19th century.

Further reading: L. P. Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (1951); David P. Chandler, *A History of Cambodia* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1996); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Cambodian War (1622)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam vs. Cambodia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cambodia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After Cambodia declared independence from Siamese domination, the Siamese king invaded in an attempt to regain dominion over its vassal.
OUTCOME: The invasion failed, and Cambodia gained its independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As a result of the SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1603), Prince Srisuphanma (d. 1618), assumed the Cambodian throne—calling himself Baron Reachea IV Srey Sauryopor—as the vassal of Siam's (Thailand's) King Naresuan (c. 1555–1605). In 1618, Srey Sauryopor died, whereupon his son, Chettha II (d. 1625), succeeded to the throne, proclaimed an end to Cambodia's vassalage to Siam, and declared the kingdom independent. In order to strengthen his position, Chetta took the careful step of seeking aid from the Nguyen lords of south Vietnam.

The successor to Naresuan, Songtham the Just (also called Intharaja II [d. 1628]), sent an amphibious force to restore Siamese dominion over Cambodia in 1622. The sea component of the force never engaged in combat, and the land army, deceived by guides, was led into a Cambodian ambush. After suffering serious losses, the Siamese retreated. Songtham the Just attempted to recruit the aid of British and Dutch trading interests to support a renewed invasion. The Europeans did not furnish aid, however, and Songtham was unable to regain control of Cambodia.

Meanwhile, Chetta had married a Vietnamese princess, which led to a demand from the Nguyens to allow Vietnamese settlement in Cambodian territory farther south in their kingdom, around modern Ho Chi Minh City. As a result, whenever challengers made rival claims to the Khmer throne, they always sought the backing of either the Vietnamese or the Thais, inevitably at a cost to the Cambodians in land or sovereignty.

See also SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1593–1594).

Further reading: L. P. Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (1951); David P. Chandler, *A History of Cambodia* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1996); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Cambodian War (1714–1717)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam (Thailand) vs. Cambodia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cambodia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Siam invaded Cambodia to counteract growing Vietnamese power there.
OUTCOME: The invasion was successful, and Cambodia's king became a vassal of the Siamese throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1714, the newly crowned king, Prea Srey Thomea (fl. 1710s), was overthrown by his uncle, former king Keo Fa (d. c. 1720). The coup d'état was aided by troops from Vietnam and Laos. Prea Srey Thomea escaped to Siam, where he appealed to King Bhumindaraja (Phra Chao Thai Sa [1681–1733]) for aid in regaining his throne. Bhumindaraja was willing to help, if only to block the buildup of Vietnamese influence in Cambodia. In 1715 and 1716, Bhumindaraja sent two small armies into Cambodia in attempts to overthrow Keo Fa but failed both times. At last, in 1717, Bhumindaraja mounted a major invasion, sending a large force through Siemréab in the north and a smaller force, with naval support, by way of the Gulf of Siam in the south.

The southerly force was engaged at the Battle of Banteay Meas by a Cambodian army allied with a Vietnamese force. Overawed, the Siamese fleet hurriedly withdrew, and was destroyed by a storm. In the north, however, the larger force prevailed against lesser resistance and marched on the Cambodian capital, Udong. At this point, however, Bhumindaraja betrayed Prea Srey Thomea by agreeing to allow Keo Fa to remain on the throne in return for his vassalage. Prea Srey Thomea never regained the throne.

Further reading: L. P. Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (1951); David P. Chandler, *A History of Cambodia* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1996); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Cambodian War (1831–1834)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam (Thailand) vs. Cambodia and Vietnam
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cambodia, southern Vietnam, eastern Laos
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Siam sought to gain control of Cambodia during a period of Cambodian unrest.
OUTCOME: With Vietnamese aid, the Cambodian king, Ang Chan II, was restored to his throne and the Siamese were driven out of the kingdom; however, Cambodia now became a vassal state of Vietnam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Totals unknown; Vietnamese forces, at least 15,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Since Cambodia's Chetta II (d. 1625) invited the Vietnamese to help him against his traditional Siamese foes in the SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1622), Thailand and Vietnam had increasingly vied for influence over the Khmer. By the early 19th century the two were fighting for outright control of Cambodia.

Before the CAMBODIAN REBELLION of 1811–12, Ang Chan II (1791–1835) had followed the traditional practice of paying tribute to both the Siamese and the Vietnamese,

but it had not helped him when his brother sought Siamese help to usurp the throne. With the backing of the Vietnamese, who had offered him sanctuary, Ang Chan regained the Cambodian throne. Vassalage to Vietnam then became his fate until 1831, when he was again confronted by an invasion from Siam. The Siamese made incursions into the north, penetrated south, and scored a major victory at the Battle of Kompong Chang, which sent Ang Chan once more fleeing from his throne to seek refuge again in Vietnam in 1832. The Siamese forces in pursuit invaded southern Vietnam, taking the towns of Chau-doc and Vinh-long. However, they were confronted by a larger Vietnamese army, which forced them into retreat. In the meantime, in Cambodia and part of Laos (the Siamese-controlled east), a popular uprising was mounted against the Siamese overlords. Thus beleaguered, the Siamese were also challenged, in 1833, by a 15,000-man Vietnamese army, which restored Ang Chan to the Cambodian capital of Udong and, ultimately, the throne. The price was one with which Ang Chan was already quite familiar—vassalage to Vietnam.

See also SIAMESE-VIETNAMESE WAR (1841–1845).

Further reading: L. P. Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (1951); David P. Chandler, *A History of Cambodia* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1996); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese Civil War (1610–1612)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Siamese king Songtham the Just vs. Japanese palace guards and Laotian allies of the guards
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siam (Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Japanese guards rebelled against Songtham the Just in support of another candidate for the throne.
OUTCOME: Songtham defeated the Japanese guards' allies, a contingent of Laotian troops, and quelled the rebellion among the guards themselves, thereby retaining the throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

At the beginning of the 17th century, many Japanese refugees fled their nation and the tyranny of the Tokugawa shogunate (military dictatorship). They settled in Siam and became, under Yamada Nagmasa (d. 1632), members of the palace guard at the capital city of Ayutthaya. In this service, the refugees grew rapidly in prestige.

In 1619, Songtham the Just (Intharaja II [d. 1628]) succeeded to the Siamese throne. The Japanese palace guard rebelled in support of a pretender. As the rebellion got under way, Laotian troops invaded from the north. They claimed to support the Japanese palace guards but clearly had their own designs on Siam. They took the village of Lop Buri, adjacent to Ayutthaya, the Siamese capital. Songtham the Just called out his troops to evict the Laotian forces. This succeeded but touched off a revolt among the Japanese guards. Songtham responded wisely—he put down the revolt but recognized the existence of a long-term problem. Accordingly, he allowed the guards to maintain their military position and status in exchange for their cession of the important citadel at Phetchabun. Stability thus returned to the Siamese capital and to Siam.

See also THAI WAR (C. 1500–1529); THAI WAR (1660–1662).

Further reading: David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese Civil War (1630–1636)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Usurper king Phra Chao Prasatthong vs. forces of the legitimate royal family, Japanese palace guards, various other rivals, and the province of Pattani
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siam (Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Phra Chao Prasatthong was ruthless in securing the throne for himself.
OUTCOME: Phra Chao Prasatthong held the throne but at a terrible cost to his country; the province of Pattani broke free and maintained throughout his reign almost total autonomy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Totals unknown; typical of Phra Chao Prasatthong's ruthlessness was his execution of at least 3,000 prominent persons, including many in the legitimate royal family.
TREATIES: None

Phra Chao Prasatthong (d. 1656) dethroned the sons of Siam's former king, Songtham the Just (Intharaja II [d. 1628]), whom he poisoned. With these actions, Phra Chao Prasatthong became king of Siam but touched off an especially violent civil war. Many factions were opposed to him. He attempted to eliminate each rival, beginning with

Yamada Nagamasa (d. 1632), the leader of the Japanese palace guard in the capital city of Ayutthaya. (For an explanation of the role of the Japanese palace guard, *see* SIAMESE CIVIL WAR [1610–1612]). Like Songtham the Just, Yamada was assassinated by poisoning. The refusal of the Tokugawa shogun in Japan to acknowledge Phra Chao Prasatthong as king prompted him to turn on the Japanese palace guard, which he attempted to slaughter to a man; most, however, escaped by sea. In all, however, Phra Chao Prasatthong managed to execute 3,000 persons prominent in the Siamese government, including many of the original royal family.

The tyranny and violence of Phra Chao Prasatthong's reign incited continual rebellion. The most successful was that in the province of Pattani. Despite an army Phra Chao Prasatthong sent there, the rebels prevailed, and Pattani became an autonomous, if not truly independent, province.

Further reading: David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese Civil War (1733)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rivals to the Siamese throne, Prince Aphai and Boromokot
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siam (Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Siamese throne following the death of King Bhumindaraja
OUTCOME: Boromokot defeated and killed Prince Aphai and all other potential rivals.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As often happened in Siamese government, the death of the king brought a dispute over succession, which resulted in civil war. King Bhumindaraja (Phra Chao Thai Sa [1681–1733]) died in 1733, igniting a struggle for power between his son, Prince Aphai (d. 1733), and Bhumindaraja's brother, Boromokot (d. 1758). Boromokot indeed held a royal title, *uparat,* which carried with it the status of heir apparent; however, the wish of Bhumindaraja was clearly that Prince Aphai should succeed him. Unfortunately, Bhumindaraja had been unable to effect an unambiguous change in his brother's status as *uparat*. Thus the succession was in dispute.

Aphai led an army against forces loyal to Boromokot. Aphai's army was at first confident of victory, then suddenly deserted the prince as Boromokot's forces advanced upon the palace. Aphai had no choice but to flee, and Boromokot seized control of the palace as well as of the capital city, Ayutthaya. He ordered troops to pursue Aphai and Aphai's brother, both of whom were run to ground in a swamp and executed on the spot. This accomplished, Boromokot presided over the slaughter of all of his enemies, wherever they were found. Approximately 300 Chinese residents in Ayutthaya rose up in rebellion and stormed the palace, but Boromokot's troops killed them all. Thus, before the year was out, Boromokot had killed or neutralized all of his rivals and was secure on the throne. Until his death in 1758, his reign was without further challenge.

Further reading: David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Laotian War (1826–1829)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam vs. Laos
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Siam (Thailand) and Laos
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Laotian king Chao Anou invaded Siam, seeking conquest.
OUTCOME: Chao Anou was defeated and killed, and Laos became subject to Siamese hegemony.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the 18th century, the three Laotian city-states, always at loggerheads among themselves, also tried to maintain their independence from Burma (Myanmar) and Siam, the dominant (and rival) powers in western Indochina. Weak to begin with and made weaker by their internecine squabbles, the Laotian city-states—Vien Chan, Luang Prabang, and Champassak—had all fallen to Siamese invasion in 1778. Siam placed each in the hands of a Siamese commissioner. The three kings of Champassak, Vien Chan, and Luang Prabang might rule in their respective kingdoms, but they had to pay tribute to Bangkok, and appointments to their respective thrones were made in Bangkok.

In 1826, the (as it turned out) last king of Vien Chan, Chao Anou (1767–1835), attempted to shake off the Siamese yoke. First, he strengthened ties between Vien Chan and the Vietnamese, whose influence in Indochina had been growing steadily since the early 1600s (*see* SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR [1622]) till it rivaled that of Siam. After making an alliance with Viet emperor Minh

Mang (1792–1841), Chao Anou secured from Bangkok itself governorship of Champassak for his son, extending his sway over most of the region constituting modern Laos. Chao Anou was therefore poised for war when he responded to intelligence—faulty, as it turned out—that a British fleet was about to attack Bangkok, capital of Siam. Chao Anou saw his opportunity to invade Siam. Under pretext of defending that country against the British, who had only recently defeated Burma, he marched three armies—from Vien Chang, Roi Et, and Ubon—in a converging campaign into Siam. The Siamese refused to accept Chao Anou's "defense" and effectively rallied to repulse the invasion forces. The armies were pushed back to Korat and Ubon.

In 1827, the Siamese mounted a major counterattack against the Laotians at the Battle of Nong-Bua-Lamphu. Spanning seven days, the battle pushed the Laotian forces northward across the Mekong River. The Siamese doggedly pursued, devastating Vien Chang. Desperate, Chao Anou hid in the jungle, leaving his people to a hard fate of slaughter and slavery.

In 1828, Chao Anou obtained from the emperor of Vietnam troops with which he hoped to retake Laos. On the march toward Vien Chang, the Vietnamese deserted Chao Anou, whose greatly diminished remaining forces were defeated. Once again the king fled for his life, this time to Tran Ninh, north of Laos. Unfortunately for Chao Anou, Siam was threatening to invade Tran Ninh, and the king offered them Chao Anou in exchange for peace. The Laotian king was transported back to Bangkok in a cage and there was put to death by torture. Siam annexed Vien Chan, the first step toward the creation of a great empire.

See also SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1831–1834).

Further reading: E. H. G. Dobby, *Southeast Asia,* 11th ed. (London: University of London Press, 1973); Hugh Toye, *Laos: Buffer State or Battleground* (London: Oxford University Press, 1968); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Vietnamese War (1769–1773)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam vs. Vietnam
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cambodia and Siam (Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Vietnam wanted to gain control of Siam's vassal, Cambodia.
OUTCOME: After a long, seesaw campaign, Siam succeeded in reestablishing its vassal king on the Cambodian throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By the mid-18th century, Cambodia had long been dominated by Siam. In the east, however, Vietnam had made incursions into Cambodia and had effectively taken control of the eastern provinces of the country. In 1769, Vietnam made a major play for power in Cambodia by helping to depose Ang Non (d. 1779) and placing his brother on the Cambodian throne. Instigated by Vietnam, the new king discontinued tribute payments to Siam. In response, Siamese king Phya Taksin (1734–82), having recovered and defended Siam's fortunes in the SIAMESE-BURMESE WAR (1775–1776), now led an army into the Cambodian provinces of Siemréab and Battambang. The following year, 1770, Vietnamese forces attacked Trat and Chanthaburi in Siam by way of retaliation. Phya Taksin, in turn, invaded Cambodia with ground and sea forces, taking Banteay Meas, Phnom Penh, and lesser objectives in rapid succession. The Siamese army marched toward the Cambodian capital at Banteay Pech, forcing the Vietnamese-backed king to flee for his life. The Siamese then restored Ang Non to the Cambodian throne, and the vassalage to Siam was reestablished.

Almost immediately after the invasion, Vietnam sent new armies against Siam. One force invaded and occupied Rach Gia on the Siam Gulf, while another sailed up the Mekong River to Phnom Penh, Cambodia, defeated the small Siamese occupying force, and once again evicted Ang Non from the throne, restoring his brother. Siamese forces regrouped and responded, however, and steadily pounded away at the new Vietnamese army. By 1773 the Vietnamese force had melted away, and by 1775 Ang Non had been yet again restored to the throne.

Further reading: E. H. G. Dobby, *Southeast Asia,* 11th ed. (London: University of London Press, 1973); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese-Vietnamese War (1841–1845)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Siam (Thailand) and Cambodian popular insurgents vs. Vietnam
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cambodia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Siam supported a popular uprising against Vietnamese overlords in Cambodia.
OUTCOME: Vietnam was defeated, but a compromise peace was reached, dividing rule of Cambodia between Vietnam and Siam, with Siam predominating and its candidate installed on the Cambodian throne.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1845

As a result of the SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1831–1834), Ang Chan II (1791–1835) had, with the help of Vietnam, regained his throne from a Siam-sponsored usurper. As the Cambodians were soon to discover, however, they had simply slipped from Siamese suzerainty into Vietnamese vassalage. After Chan's death, the Vietnamese ruled even more directly through a puppet queen whom the king had married, in part, to secure Vietnamese backing in the war. As Vietnam's hegemony grew increasingly oppressive, the Cambodian people grew increasingly restive, and in 1841 they staged a violent uprising and slaughtered many of their overlords. But without help they could not expel the Vietnamese, who held 50 garrisons; they turned to Bangkok, where Chan's youngest son, Duong (1796–1860), lived in exile. Siamese king Rama III (d. 1851) was only too happy to help against the Vietnamese, and he sent an army of invasion under the same general P'ya Bodin who had deposed the father to install the son. In late 1841, Duong returned under Siamese military escort from exile to assume the Cambodian throne.

Vietnam did not take the Siamese intervention lightly. From its many garrisons throughout Cambodia, it waged war against both Cambodian guerrillas and the Siamese army. Outnumbered, the Vietnamese garrisons were cut off and defeated—yet they refused to withdraw and relinquish Cambodia, but kept fighting. Vietnamese persistence wore down the Siamese will to achieve absolute victory, and in 1845 a treaty was concluded sharing rule of Cambodia between Siam and Vietnam, with Siam predominating. Duong was formally recognized by both sides as king, and he was crowned Ang ("king") Duong in 1848.

Further reading: L. P. Briggs, *The Ancient Khmer Empire* (1951); David P. Chandler, *A History of Cambodia* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1996); E. H. G. Dobby, *Southeast Asia,* 11th ed. (London: University of London Press, 1973); Hugh Toye, *Laos: Buffer State or Battleground* (London: Oxford University Press, 1968); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984); W. A. R. Wood, *A History of Siam: From the Earliest Times to the Year A.D. 1781, with a Supplement Dealing with More Recent Events* (New York: AMS, 1974).

Siamese Wars

See THAI WAR (1371–1378); THAI WAR (1387–1390); THAI WAR (1411); THAI WAR (1442–1448); THAI WAR (1451–1456); THAI WAR (1461–1464); THAI WAR (1474–1475); THAI WAR (1492); THAI WAR (C. 1500–1529); THAI WAR (1660–1662).

Sicilian-Byzantine War (1147–1158)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sicily vs. the Byzantine Empire, papacy, and Holy Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dominance over much of Italy
OUTCOME: Sicily emerged as the most powerful of the Italian powers.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace between Sicily and the pope, 1157; peace between Sicily and the Holy Roman Empire, 1158

Roger II (1095–1154), the Norman king of Sicily, was bent on conquest and aggressively pushed Sicily to dominance over Apulia, Calabria, and Capua, thereby threatening the power of the papacy, curbing the Holy Roman Empire, and even challenging the Byzantine Empire by menacing its territories in the West. The price Roger paid for his aggression was the enmity of all these powers: the pope, Eugenius III (or Eugene; d. 1151), the Holy Roman Emperor, Frederick I Barbarossa (c. 1125–90), and—most of all—the Byzantine emperor, Manuel I Comnenus (c. 1120–80).

While Roger II warred, he also practiced skilled diplomacy, throwing his support behind factions within the papal power structure who opposed the pope, and backing rebels within the Holy Roman Empire. His goal was always to drive a wedge between the Holy Roman Empire and the Byzantine Empire to prevent an alliance that would have been disastrous for him. While he manipulated these powers, Roger invaded Corfu and Neapolis, devastated Euboea, and raided Thebes. He did this with relative impunity, as the Holy Roman Empire and the Byzantines failed to act. The death of Conrad III (1093–1152) of Germany also aided Roger II, by forestalling a planned Byzantine–Holy Roman Empire campaign against Sicily.

At last, however, the papacy and the Holy Roman Empire struck an alliance under which Eugenius promised Frederick Barbarossa the imperial crown Rome had so far withheld and that the rights of the empire would be maintained. The successor of Eugenius III, Pope Adrian IV (c. 1100–59), honored the Treaty of Constance and crowned Frederick emperor on June 18, 1155, in Rome. Emperor Frederick I then prepared to invade Sicily, but with the sudden death of Roger II the year before, many of the German princes saw no reason to attack a no longer aggressive Italy, which was passing through a crisis as Roger's son William I (d. 1166) secured his succession in the face of Byzantine aggression against various Norman holdings. In any case, the vassal princes evidently took a wait-and-see attitude and refused to give Frederick the support necessary to

attack the Sicilian kingdom. But then William I resumed his father's combination of military aggression and crafty diplomacy. William attempted to conclude a treaty with Manuel I Comnenus but was refused, so he made peace with Venice, thereby neutralizing the war fleet upon which the Byzantines depended. Unwilling to stand idly by, however, Manuel I Comnenus cooperated with papal forces in an invasion of Italy. He took Capua from the Sicilians in 1155 but was in turn defeated at the Battle of Brindisi the following year. The defeat was so stunning that the pope backed out of his alliance with Manuel and made a separate peace with William in 1157. Capua was returned to William, and he was additionally confirmed in his rule of Sicily, Apulia, Naples, Amalfi, Salerno, and the Marsi. This hardly sated his appetite for conquest, however, and in 1158 he raided the coastal regions of the Greek empire, compelling Manuel I Comnenus to make peace and pulling the papacy into an alliance directed against Frederick I Barbarossa, who retained his own ambitions for conquest in Italy.

See also LOMBARD LEAGUE, WARS OF THE; NORMAN-BYZANTINE WAR, FIRST; NORMAN-BYZANTINE WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Michael Angold, *A Byzantine Empire, 1025–1204: A Political History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975); Robert Folz, *The Concept of Empire in Western Europe from the Fifth to the Fourteenth Century,* translated by Sheila Ann Ogilvie (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1980); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1995).

Sicilian-Byzantine War (1170–1177)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sicily and Venice vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy and the Aegean
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Norman Sicily's continuing program of aggressive expansion in Italy
OUTCOME: The war ended in a draw, with Venice and Sicily still allied.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The SICILIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (1147–1158) initiated the aggressive expansion of Norman-ruled Sicily under Roger II (1095–1154) and his son William I (d. 1166). The last Norman king of Sicily, William II (1154–89), continued to push a program of dominance and squared off against Norman Sicily's traditional adversary, the Byzantine Empire, under Manuel I Comnenus (c. 1120–80). William II allied Sicily with the Venetians, who, in 1170, found themselves driven from the Aegean, and with the Genoese, who possessed a formidable navy that William was determined to keep out of Byzantine hands.

Manuel I Comnenus, his many campaigns straining the empire's resources, initially sought to mend fences with William II by offering a dynastic marriage with his daughter, but he withdrew the offer in 1172, presenting her to a prince of the Holy Roman Empire instead. At this, William II threw his military backing behind the Venetians, who—engaged in a decade of war against the Byzantines—had already won victories at the Battles of Ragusa (Dubrovnik) and Chios in 1171. William supported an 1173 Venetian campaign against Ancona, but this proved indecisive. For all practical purposes, the war ended with the Battle of Ancona—or rather petered out; however, a state of hostility continued between Sicily and Venice on the one hand and the Byzantine Empire on the other through 1177, when even sporadic combat finally ceased. Warfare would not resume for another eight years.

See also SICILIAN-BYZANTINE WAR (1185).

Further reading: Michael Angold, *A Byzantine Empire, 1025–1204: A Political History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1995).

Sicilian-Byzantine War (1185)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Norman-ruled Sicily vs. the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Balkans and the region around Constantinople (Istanbul)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The last of Sicily's Norman kings, William II, decided to exploit unrest in the Byzantine Empire by invading it.
OUTCOME: Initially very successful, the Sicilian forces were finally driven out of the empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sicily, 80,000; Byzantine forces, smaller
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The militarily aggressive Byzantine emperor Manuel I Comnenus (c. 1120–80) had not only failed to fulfill his dream of restoring the Roman Empire, he had also undermined Byzantium's ability to survive. His death threw Constantinople into a crisis over succession. Alexius II Comnenus (c. 1168–83) ascended the throne, only to be deposed and assassinated in 1183 by his uncle, Andronicus I Comnenus (c. 1110–85). Observing the state of extreme

instability in the Byzantine government, William II (1154–89) of Sicily, whose previous war with the Byzantine Empire had ended in an unsatisfactory draw (*see* SICILIAN-BYZANTINE WAR [1170–1177]), decided to attack. He sent a force of 80,000 troops through the Balkans and into Albania, overrunning and taking Durazzo (Durrës) and then Salonika (Thessaloníki). These conquests brought him to within striking distance of the Byzantine capital, Constantinople (Istanbul). As his army waited in the outskirts of Constantinople, Andronicus I Comnenus agreed to negotiate a peace. During talks, the Sicilians violated the truce by attacking. Unfortunately for the Sicilian forces, the attack proved indecisive and served only to enrage and unify the Byzantines, who counterattacked, driving the invaders west. They fell back on Salonika, where the Byzantine army forced a battle, defeating the invaders.

William II resolved to mount a new invasion, but he died before it could get under way, and his successors failed to take up the project again.

See also SICILIAN VESPERS, WAR OF THE.

Further reading: Michael Angold, *A Byzantine Empire, 1025–1204: A Political History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975); Cyril A. Mango, ed., *Oxford History of Byzantium* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1995).

Sicilian Vespers, War of the (1282–1302)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sicilian rebels and Aragon vs. Angevin and French forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sicilian rebels wanted freedom from oppressive Angevin rule and proclaimed Pedro III of Aragon king of Sicily.
OUTCOME: After 20 years of war, and despite a separate peace concluded between Aragon and the Angevin Empire, Sicily won an end to Angevin rule.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Anagni, 1295, and Peace of Caltabellotta, 1302

King Pedro III (1239–85) of Aragon, rival to the throne of Sicily occupied by the Angevin king, Charles I (1226–85), responded to the plea of Sicilians following the SICILIAN VESPERS REBELLION AND MASSACRE by invading Sicily in 1282. The Sicilian rebels eagerly proclaimed Pedro their king. For his part, Charles had been caught unawares. He was absent in Calabria, where he was devising an assault against Constantinople (Istanbul) as part of his plan to expand the Angevin Empire into the East. Forced to drop these plans, he rushed forces into Sicily and was met there by Pedro's Aragonese and Sicilian rebels. Meanwhile, Charles's friend, Pope Martin IV (c. 1215–85), excommunicated Pedro and offered the declared-vacant throne to Philip III (the Bold) (1245–85), king of France, or one of his sons. Thus Charles was indirectly aided by his nephew, the king of France, as well as the papacy.

Roger de Loria (c. 1245–1304) won two naval engagements against the Angevins off the coast of Messina in 1283 and off Naples the following year, then went on to defeat the fleet of France's Philip III (1245–85), who sent military support to Charles. These early naval battles were among the few truly decisive engagements in a war that ground on for two decades. Sicily became a battleground between the Angevin rulers and those of Aragon. Peace seemed at hand with the Treaty of Anagni of 1295, by which Aragon's James II (c. 1260–1327, son and heir of Pedro III) ceded control of Sicily to the Angevins in return for the throne of Sardinia and Corsica. However, this arrangement hardly satisfied the determined Sicilian rebels, who wanted nothing less than liberation from oppressive Angevin rule. The rebels proclaimed Frederick II (1272–1337), brother of James II, their king in 1295 and continued to fight the Angevins to exhaustion. In 1302, the Peace of Caltabellotta secured the removal of the Angevin king, the formal enthronement of Frederick II, and the blessing of a new pope, Boniface VIII (c. 1235–1303), in both of these acts.

Ultimately, after 20 years of intermittent war, the mainland of southern Italy remained in the hands of Charles's successors, but the island of Sicily ultimately fell under the control of Pedro's house of Aragon.

Further reading: Steven Runciman, *The Sicilian Vespers: A History of the Mediterranean World in the Later Thirteenth Century* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982).

Sicilian Vespers Rebellion and Massacre (1282)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sicilian militants vs. Angevin overlords
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A spontaneous uprising quickly became a massacre and cause for war.
OUTCOME: The rebellion and massacre ignited the War of the Sicilian Vespers, 1282–1302.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 2,000 Angevin French living in Sicily were massacred in the uprising.
TREATIES: None

After years of Norman rule, Sicily fell under the domination of the Angevin Empire and Charles I (1226–85), king of the Two Sicilies (Naples and Sicily). The reign of Charles was oppressive and tyrannical, creating great resentment among his Sicilian subjects. An explosion was inevitable. It came on Easter Monday, March 30, 1282, when Sicilians attending vespers at the church of Santo Spirito outside of Palermo were taunted and insulted by a group of Angevin French soldiers. Tempers flared, and the Sicilians attacked and killed a number of the troops. This ignited a general uprising in Palermo and, from Palermo, throughout Sicily. The speed of the rebellion was dazzling and terrible. During the night of March 30–31, Sicilian mobs massacred Angevin French living in Sicily; some 2,000 died in that single night. Realizing that reprisals were inevitable, the Sicilians appealed to the Aragonese and their king, Pedro III (1239–85)—the rival of Charles I for the Sicilian throne—to come to their aid. Thus began the lengthy WAR OF THE SICILIAN VESPERS, which lasted until 1302.

Further reading: Steven Runciman, *The Sicilian Vespers: A History of the Mediterranean World in the Later Thirteenth Century* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982).

Sikh Golden Temple, Siege of the (1984)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Indian government troops vs. Sikh separatist extremists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Amritsar, Punjab, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The army sought to suppress an uprising by Sikh extremists who sought autonomy from the Indian government.
OUTCOME: The principal Sikh extremist stronghold, the Golden Temple in Amritsar, was captured.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Indian army, 12,000; Sikh extremists, more than 3,000
CASUALTIES: Indian army, 84 killed, 262 wounded; Sikh extremists, 492 killed, 86 wounded, 1,500 captured
TREATIES: None

During 1984, Sikh extremists embarked on a war of terror throughout India's Punjab. In this region, Sikhs represented the majority of the population. Most Sikhs sought greater political autonomy within India, but an extremist fringe staged an outright revolt. In early June 1984, when protests and civil disobedience became widespread in the Punjab city of Amritsar, 12,000 troops of the Indian army were dispatched to restore order. The Golden Temple (the Harmandir) at the heart of Amritsar, the holiest place of the Sikhs, was identified as a refuge and stronghold of the militant extremists. The Indian army laid siege to the temple and then, on June 6, stormed it. A major firefight broke out, the temple's 3,000 defenders responding to the attack with machine guns, anti-tank missiles, and other weapons. Nevertheless, the army outgunned and outnumbered them. Sixty-four Indian soldiers were killed, nearly 500 Sikhs perished, and 1,500 Sikhs were taken prisoner.

The attack on the Golden Temple was followed by other Indian army operations against additional Sikh places of worship identified as extremist havens. During the week after the Golden Temple siege, 1,000 Indians were killed in violence that raged through the Punjab. Indian prime minister Indira Gandhi (1917–84) herself became a casualty of the violence when, on October 31, 1984, she was assassinated by two of her Sikh guards. Rioting that followed the assassination resulted in the killing of 2,717 people, mostly Sikhs.

Further reading: Paul R. Brass, *The Politics of India since Independence* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994); Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002)

Sikh War, First (1845–1846)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain vs. Punjab Sikhs
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Punjab region of India
DECLARATION: None, but the Sikhs invaded British India on December 11, 1845.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: British colonial forces exploited a weakness in the Punjab government to invade the region and seize territory.
OUTCOME: After the British captured Lahore, the Punjab government made important territorial cessions.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Punjab "Khalsas," 100,000; British forces were smaller, 12,000-15,000 men.
CASUALTIES: Sikhs, 7,000 killed; British, 934 killed, 2,660 wounded, 86 missing
TREATIES: 1846 treaty ceding certain Punjab territories

By the close of the second decade of the 19th century, British hegemony in India was complete, save for the Punjab, where the 100,000-man Sikh army of Khalsas—the "soldier-saints"—held sway. None of the fighting forces on the subcontinent were better armed and trained or so well organized as the turbaned soldiers of the Sikhs, and British colonial officials considered this army too formidable to attempt to suppress. Therefore, the British did not disturb the Punjab government of Ranjit Singh (1781–1839) for many years. In 1839, when the First AFGHAN WAR broke out between the British and the Afghans, Ranjit Singh not only refused to contribute troops to the conflict but also barred British soldiers from traversing his territory. This

planted seeds of enmity that grew when Ranjit Singh died later in 1839, leaving the Punjab government weak and factionalized. Seizing the opportunity, the British provoked a war. It worked. A 20,000-man Sikh army crossed the Sutlej River into British India on December 11, 1845. Sir Hugh Gough (1779–1869) led an Anglo-Indian army of some 12,000 out to meet them at Mukdi on December 18. The stiff encounter cost the Sikhs more dearly, at 2,000 casualties, than the British, at 872, but it also saw the death of General Robert Sale, hero of the first Afghan War, before the Sikhs retired from the field.

At the battle of Ferozeshah on December 21–22, the second of the four major battles of the war, the British casualties (694 dead, 1,721 wounded) were the heaviest ever suffered by the empire in a single battle in its colonial wars in India. Most of the damage to the British had come from the Khalsa artillery; and Sikh losses too were heavy, at some 2,000 dead and 3,000 wounded. The third battle came on January 28, 1846, at Ailwal, when 20,000 men under Sikh commander Runjoor Singh were intercepted and defeated by General Harry Smith's (1787–1860) 12,000 troops. Smith suffered 600 casualties, Singh 3,000. Thus the toll mounted, On February 10, Gough crossed into Sikh territory and sent his 15,000 men against entrenched Khalsas at Sobraon, prying the Sikhs loose and chasing them into the nearby Sutlej. Eight thousand Sikhs were killed or wounded, while the British casualties barely topped 2,300, 300 of those dead, 177 of them British rather than Indian troops.

Gough then captured the Sikh capital of Lahore after a three-month campaign, on March 9, 1846. Without a strong leader and despite the presence of the Khalsas, the new Punjab government concluded a treaty with the British in 1846, retaining autonomy but relinquishing the Punjab Kashmir and the territory lying between the River Beas and the River Sutlej. It had been a brief but costly war, however, during which the Sikhs had given the British more trouble than any other of their Indian colonials. And the Sikhs, looking for revenge, were not done yet.

See also SIKH WAR, SECOND.

Further reading: Khushwant Singh, *A History of the Sikhs,* 2 vols. (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1963–66); Tarlochan Gill Singh, *History of the Sikhs* (Toronto: Canada Centre, 1989).

Sikh War, Second (1848–1849)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sikhs vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Punjab, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sikhs sought independence from British dominion.
OUTCOME: At first, British colonial forces lost ground, but, reinforced, they staged a series of offensives that put the entire Punjab definitively under British control.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Anglo-Indian forces, 24,000; Sikhs, 34,000
CASUALTIES: Anglo-Indian forces, 1,500 killed; Sikhs, 5,000-plus killed
TREATIES: None

The treaty that ended the First SIKH WAR ceded much valuable Punjab territory to the British and fueled anew a Sikh independence movement. Two years after the first war ended, a Sikh revolt broke out on April 20, 1848, led by Mulraj, governor of Multan in the Punjab, which killed two British agents and then swept the Punjab. Outnumbered British colonial forces were badly beaten in 1848 and, early in 1849, barely eked out a victory at the Battle of Chilianwala. There Sir Hugh Gough (1779–1869), the victor of the first Sikh War, lost 238 killed or missing and 277 wounded out of the 1,096-man 24th Regiment, though the Sikhs may have lost as many as 8,000 killed or wounded. However, the British, regrouped and reinforced, staged a series of sustained counterattacks. Gough won the war at Gujarat on February 21, 1849, when his 24,000 men stormed the Sikhs' fortified camp of 34,000, pushing them from their positions and gaining final control of the entire Punjab. The British accepted the Sikhs' surrender on March 12, 1849.

British colonial authorities set up colonial government in the region, and annexed the Punjab to British India.

Further reading: Khushwant Singh, *A History of the Sikhs,* 2 vols. (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1963–66); Tarlochan Gill Singh, *History of the Sikhs* (Toronto: Canada Centre, 1989).

Silesian War, First (1740–1742)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Prussia vs. Austria
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Silesia (region between modern Poland and the Czech Republic)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Frederick the Great of Prussia wanted to acquire Silesia; Maria Theresa of Austria opposed him.
OUTCOME: Prussian forces defeated the Austrian army, and Prussia acquired Silesia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Prussia, 40,000; Austria, 20,000
CASUALTIES: At Mollwitz, the war's only major battle, Prussians, 2,500 killed and wounded; Austrians, 5,000 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner
TREATIES: Treaty of Breslau, 1742

Following the death of her father, Holy Roman Emperor Charles VI (1684–1740), Maria Theresa (1710–80) found

herself assailed by several claimants challenging the Pragmatic Sanction of 1713, which guaranteed her possession of Austria and the other Hapsburg domains (among them Hungary and Bohemia) in Europe. European powers were poised to carve up the loose empire. Frederick II (the Great; 1712–86) of Prussia asserted a dubious claim to sovereignty over Silesia, part of the lands attached to the Bohemian Crown, then offered Maria Theresa a military alliance with Prussia in exchange. He further pledged his vote to achieve for her husband, Francis I (fl. 1745–65), election to Holy Roman Emperor. When Maria Theresa declined Frederick's offer, he led an army of 40,000 in an invasion of Silesia in 1740, confronting an Austrian army of perhaps 4,000. After a campaign lasting less than than two months, Frederick had seized Silesia. France, Spain, Bavaria, and Saxony rallied to Frederick's casuse. Great Britain, which had come to blows with Spain over colonial and trade issues in North and Central America in the War of JENKINS' EAR in 1739, sided with Maria Theresa.

In 1741, Maria Theresa sent an army of 20,000 to evict Frederick, but his superbly trained infantry—about 30,000 men—met the Austrians at the Battle of Mollwitz on April 8, 1741. In a brilliant stroke, Frederick took the Austrians by surprise, and a fierce battle ensued. The Austrians struggled valiantly to regain the initiative, making five counterattacks, all-out cavalry charges, from their entrenchments. Although the Austrian charges routed Frederick's cavalry, his infantry held its position and ultimately drove the Austrians from their entrenchments. Austrian losses were 5,000 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner. Prussian losses, in killed and wounded, numbered 2,500.

Mollwitz was the only major battle of the First Silesian War, but it may also be viewed as an early opening battle in the much greater War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, which for eight years engulfed Central Europe and spread to North America (as King George's War) and colonial India (as the First CARNATIC WAR). Meanwhile, the First Silesian War was ended by the Treaty of Breslau, mediated by Britain. This treaty may also be viewed as Austria's separate peace with Prussia in the War of the Austrian Succession. As a result of the Treaty of Breslau, Frederick the Great acquired virtually all of Silesia.

See also SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Christopher Duffy, *Frederick the Great: A Military Life* (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1985); Nancy Mitford, *Frederick the Great* (London and New York: Penguin Books, 1995).

Silesian War, Second (1744–1745)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Prussia vs. Austria and Saxony (in coalition with Britain, Holland, and Sardinia, which were not involved in combat in this war)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Silesia and Bohemia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Frederick sought to check an attempt to deprive him of Silesia, which he had gained in the First Silesian War.
OUTCOME: Frederick defeated Austria and Saxony and was confirmed in his possession of Silesia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Prussia, 80,000; combined Austrian and Saxon forces were similar in number
CASUALTIES: At the war's biggest battle, Hohenfriedeberg, Saxons and Austrians, 4,000 killed or wounded, 7,000 taken prisoner; Prussians, 2,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Dresden, 1745

After having started the War of the AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, 1740–48, by invading Silesia (*see* SILESIAN WAR, FIRST), Frederick II (the Great; 1712–86) of Prussia signed a separate peace with Hapsburg empress Maria Theresa of Austria (1717–80) when she lost her first encounter with him. Prague fell to his allies the French and Bavarians that same year. She ceded Silesia to Prussia in 1742, hoping thereby to secure Frederick's neutrality as she moved to retake Prague and secretly allied herself to Great Britain, Holland, Sardinia, and Saxony. Her victories at Prague and Naples reassured her allies and worried Frederick, who grew more vexed as, thus bolstered, the Austrians drove the French toward the Rhine, where they were met and defeated by the British in June 1743. Using Maria Theresa's no longer quite secret coalition as a pretext, Frederick reentered the conflict on the side of France and Spain in 1744, preemptively invading Bohemia (part of Maria Theresa's Holy Roman Empire) in 1744, using a massive force of 80,000 troops, twice the number he had successfully employed in the First Silesian War.

In September 1744, Frederick took the Bohemian capital of Prague, but he suffered a crippling counterattack by Austrian forces, which sent him into a 100-mile retreat back to Silesia. Frederick regrouped and resumed the offensive in 1745, fighting the Battle of Hohenfriedeberg on June 3. Here he attacked the Saxons in their camp at Strigau and defeated them before the Austrians could arrive to reinforce. Once the Austrians did approach, Frederick wheeled about and routed them. The Prussians suffered 2,000 casualties versus combined Saxon and Austrian losses of 4,000 killed or wounded and 7,000 taken prisoner.

Hohenfriedeberg was followed by the Battle of Hennersdorf on November 24, in which Frederick intercepted an Austrian army en route to Berlin as part of a two-pronged Austro-Saxon attack on the heart of Prussia. Frederick attacked the Austrians and scattered them. Frederick's ally, Leopold I (1676–1747) of Anhalt-Dessau, checked the advance of the Saxon column at the Battle of Kesseldorf, near Dresden, on December 15.

The defeat of the forces of Austria and its coalition brought about the Treaty of Dresden in 1745, by which Frederick was confirmed in his acquisition of Silesia. Although Frederick's victory in this war importantly influenced the larger and overlapping War of the Austrian Succession, these victories did not bring an end to that war.

See also CARNATIC WAR, FIRST; CARNATIC WAR, SECOND; KING GEORGE'S WAR; SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

Simnel's Rebellion (1486–1487)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Yorkist rebels vs. royalist troops of Henry VII
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Stoke, England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A Yorkist band attempted to seize the English throne in this coda to the Wars of the Roses.
OUTCOME: The rebels were crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This bizarre episode may be regarded as a kind of coda to the Wars of the ROSES (1455–85). Elizabeth of York (1465–1503), daughter of Edward IV (1442–83), was both the queen of the Lancastrian king of England, Henry VII (1457–1509), and often one of his bitterest Yorkist enemies. In 1486, she conspired with her sister, Margaret of Burgundy (1446–1503), and John de la Pole (1464–87), the earl of Lincoln, to recruit one Lambert Simnel (c. 1475–1525) and train him to impersonate Edward V, who was imprisoned in the Tower of London and was the son of Edward IV. (It is now believed that Edward was murdered while imprisoned.) The original idea was to rally popular support for Edward's claim to the throne. However, the plan was changed, and in 1486, Richard Simon (or Symonds), the Oxford priest who first came up with the impersonation plot, took Simnel to Ireland, claiming that he was Edward, earl of Warwick, who as the son of Richard III's (1452–85) elder brother George was yet another Yorkist claimant to the throne. As a result, a number of Yorkists did rally to the false Warwick's cause, and in May 1487, Simnel—as Warwick—and a band of supporters (who proclaimed him king), led by John de la Pole, invaded England, where they were met by Henry VII's troops at the Battle of Stoke on June 16, 1487. At first, Henry's troops fared poorly under the combined assault of Pole's English and Irish soldiers, who were augmented by German mercenary crossbow archers. However, royalist reinforcements arrived and sent the Irish into retreat. The English and Germans continued to fight for about three hours before they too were overwhelmed. Although most of the rebels were killed, Simnel was taken prisoner. Henry magnanimously pardoned him; a possibly credible legend holds that he became a scullion in the royal kitchens.

Further reading: Michael J. Bennett, *Lambert Simnel and the Battle of Stoke* (New York: St. Martin's, 1987); R. L. Storey, *The Reign of Henry VII* (New York: Walker, 1968).

Sinai War *See* ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1956).

Sino-Burmese Wars *See* BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1438–1446); BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1658–1661); BURMESE-CHINESE WAR (1765–1769).

Sino-French War (1883–1885)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China and Tonkin (northern Vietnam) vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tonkin and Formosa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: France pushed for colonial possessions in Southeast Asia.
OUTCOME: France gained a protectorate over Annam and its client, Tonkin (central and northern Vietnam).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: French, 17,000; Chinese and Vietnamese, 30,000
CASUALTIES: French, 4,500 killed in battles with the Vietnamese, 4,200 killed in battles after Chinese entered the war, 5,200 died of disease; Chinese and Vietnamese troops, at least 10,000 killed
TREATIES: Treaty of Tientsin, June 9, 1885

By the late 19th century, French colonial interests had expanded into Southeast Asia, encompassing Cochin China (southern Vietnam), Annam (central Vietnam), and Cambodia. At the time, these were possessions of the steadily weakening Chinese empire. As French interests increasingly penetrated these areas, the king of Annam, nominal vassal of the Chinese, called upon the Chinese government for military aid in stopping the French. In 1873, an incursion of some 171 French soldiers captured the Hanoi citadel in Tonkin (northern Vietnam), then went on to conquer much of the Red River Delta before they were killed by Black Flag Chinese guerrillas (so called because of the color of their banners). A pogrom against Vietnamese Christians swept the countryside in 1874, resulting in some 20,000 deaths; the French withdrew from Tonkin completely for a decade.

Then in April 1883, French troops overran and captured Hanoi in Tonkin, which was under the nominal control of the Annamese king. In the absence of immediate

Chinese aid, the king of Annam had no choice but to conclude with the French a treaty granting that nation a protectorate over Tonkin as well as Annam itself. Belatedly, Chinese troops arrived in Tonkin to aid native armies in repelling the French. However, French naval forces acted preemptively against the Chinese port of Foochow, causing extensive destruction there in 1884. Chinese forts on Formosa (Taiwan) resisted French incursions, but these collapsed in 1885.

In the meantime, the French did not fare as well in Tonkin, where Chinese soldiers and Black Flag guerrillas once again drove them out. Yet the prospect of continued war seemed too costly to China, to the native troops, and, for that matter, to France. Therefore, the French concluded the Treaty of Tientsin with China on June 9, 1885. By it China agreed to recognize the French protectorate over Annam and withdrew its troops from Tonkin. France returned Formosa and the Pescadores Islands to China.

See also FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1882–1885).

Further reading: E. H. G. Dobby, *Southeast Asia,* 11th ed. (London: University of London Press, 1973); Immanuel C. Y. Hsu, *The Rise of Modern China,* 6th ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000).

Sino-Indian Border Dispute (1959–1962)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aksai-Chin plateau, Chinese-Indian border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dispute over the Chinese-Indian border following Indian independence from Britain
OUTCOME: After chronic warfare and a single decisive engagement (in which the Chinese were victorious), both sides withdrew several miles from the disputed region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

After India won its independence from Great Britain in 1947, it asserted its border with China as that established by the British. The Chinese position was that the border, established by an imperialist power, was de facto illegal and therefore open to negotiation. Specifically, China asserted a claim to the Aksai-Chin plateau and the so-called McMahon Line in the Northwest Frontier Agency.

The dispute was not an open conflict until 1959, when India sent troops into the Aksai-Chin region only to discover that the Chinese—entirely without Indian knowledge—had built a road through the region from China to western Tibet and had erected entrenched fortifications manned by Chinese troops. From 1959 to 1962, fighting, much of it serious, was chronic between Chinese and Indian troops. Full-scale war always loomed as a possibility in what became an extremely volatile region. Negotiations repeatedly failed. At last, the Indian government defiantly ordered its troops to cross the line controlled by the Chinese. China made formal diplomatic protest, which the Indians ignored, refusing to return to their side of the line. In response, a large Chinese army attacked on October 20, 1962, both in Ladakh, east of Kashmir, where they quickly overran some 43 Indian posts, and in the Northeast Frontier Agency, where the fighting was most intense. Trained and equipped for mountain warfare (this Himalayan war was fought probably at the highest altitude of any war in history), the Chinese simply overwhelmed the Indian defenses in two surges, which practically wiped out the smaller and less well equipped Indian force. The Indians withdrew, and China, having proven its point, declared a cease-fire on November 21, 1962. It then withdrew its forces a number of miles behind its lines.

Further reading: Neville Maxwell, *India's China War* (Garden City, N.Y.: Anchor Books, 1972); Barbara Daly Metcalf and Thomas R. Metcalf, *Concise History of India* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2002).

Sino-Indian War (648–649)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China (and Nepal) vs. Indian kingdom of Kanauj
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kanauj, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chinese ambassador Wang Xuanzi (Wang Hsuan Tze) led a Nepalese-Chinese army to punish the usurper of the Kanauj throne for acting against a Chinese diplomatic embassy.
OUTCOME: The usurper, Arjuna, was defeated, captured, and returned to China as a prisoner.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By the early 640s, the Indian kingdom of Kanauj had established cordial relations with the Chinese government, and in 647, China's emperor, Taizong (T'ai Tsung; 598–649), sent a delegation to make a state visit to the king of Kanauj. At the Indian court, the delegation soon discovered that the king who had established good relations with China had died and had been replaced by a usurper, Arjuna (fl. mid-seventh century). He quickly appropriated the valuable gifts the Chinese officials had brought with them and ordered their execution. The Chinese ambassador, Wang Xuanzi (fl. mid-seventh century),

and another official managed to evade Arjuna's henchmen and escaped India via Nepal. Here they took it upon themselves to recruit an army, which was reinforced by Chinese cavalry. Wang personally led this force in an invasion of Kanauj, where he laid siege against the capital, which soon fell to him. He captured Arjuna, who was returned to China a prisoner.

Further reading: Yihong Pan, *Son of Heaven and Heavenly Qaghan: Sui-Tang China and Its Neighbors* (Bellingham, Wash.: Center for East Asian Studies, Western Washington University, 1997).

Sino-Japanese War (1894–1895)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. Japan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Korea and Liadong (Liaotung) Peninsula (China) and Shantung province (China)
DECLARATION: August 1, 1894, Japan and China made mutual declarations
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: China and Japan fought over control of Korea.
OUTCOME: China was very decisively defeated and forced to make many territorial, political, and economic concessions.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Japan moblilized 353,000 men, of whom 100,000 served in combat; Chinese numbers are unknown, but certainly less than those for Japan.
CASUALTIES: Japan, 1,177 battle deaths; 15,860 died from disease and other causes; China, unknown, but estimated at twice the Japanese losses. Woounded numbers unknown, but 5,400 Chinese became casualties at Pyongyang, September 16, 1894.
TREATIES: Treaty of Shimonoseki, April 17, 1895

For centuries a pawn in the power struggles between Japan and China, Korea had remained independent mainly because neither of the two Asian giants was ever strong enough to take the Hermit Kingdom from the other. That changed in the late 19th century, when both Korea and China were wracked by internal rebellions fomented by warlords and political figures. As they had grown weaker and more fragmented, Japan's long-established militarism was being honed by its absorption of modern technology; which inclined the Japanese toward confrontation. Then, in 1894, the Tonghak Society rebelled against the Korean government. Reeling under attack, it called on China and Japan for aid. The Korean government understood that it was putting itself very much at risk, but it had little choice. In the event both China and Japan responded avidly and quickly, quelling the rebellion but then, predictably, refusing to recall their armies after the rebellion had been ended.

In July 1894, Japanese forces attacked the royal palace at Seoul and took the royal family captive. The Japanese proclaimed a new puppet government, which instantly repudiated all Korean treaties with China. The puppet government then formally requested that the Japanese expel all Chinese troops from Korea. War between Japan and China broke out on July 25, 1894, when Japanese ships sank the *Kowshing*, a transport ship ferrying reinforcements to the Chinese garrison in Korea. Nearly a thousand Chinese were killed, either going down with the ship or being machine-gunned in the water by the Japanese. On August 1, 1894, China and Japan declared war on one another.

On land, the Japanese hit the Chinese hard at the northern capital of Pyongyang on September 16. There some 12,000 Chinese troops learned what it meant to fight a modern army equipped with weapons a century old and with even more ancient tactics. The 14,000 Japanese easily drove them from their entrenchments before killing or maiming some 5,400 of them, not quite half the army. After this defeat, the Chinese rapidly withdrew and were soon driven off the Korean peninsula. While the land war proceeded apace, the Japanese and Chinese fleets clashed at the Battle of Yalu River on September 17, 1894. The Chinese fleet was crippled, although at significant cost to the Japanese. Despite losses, the Japanese navy exploited its victory on the Yalu by capturing Port Arthur (at the tip of the Liaotung Peninsula in northeastern China) on November 21, 1894. On February 12, 1895, Japanese land and naval forces defeated the Chinese at the Battle of Weihaiwei in Shantung province.

With the one-sided war a complete disaster for China, the Chinese government sued for peace in March 1895 and concluded the Treaty of Shimonoseki on April 17, 1895, by which China ceded Formosa (Taiwan) and the Pescadores Islands to Japan and recognized the independence of Korea (which, in fact, was now a Japanese puppet state). China was furthermore compelled to open four new ports to Japanese traders and to pay a crushing indemnity to Japan. For its part, Japan bowed to the wishes of European intermediaries (Russia, France, and Germany) in giving up a demand for territory on the Chinese mainland.

Further reading: K. Y. Chang, *Modern China and Japan, 1879–1952* (Hong Kong: Goofman, 1977); John K. Fairbank, ed., *Cambridge History of China,* vol. 11, *Late Ch'ing, 1800–1911,* part 2 (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1980).

Sino-Japanese War (1937–1945)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Japan vs. China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China and French Indochina
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Japan sought conquest of China and the installation of a Japanese-controlled puppet government.
OUTCOME: Through most of the period 1937–45, Japanese forces occupied much of China; the nation's liberation came only with the defeat of Japan on all other fronts in World War II.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Chinese army at the beginning of hostilities, nearly 1.8 million; Japanese military, 462,000 regulars, 1.5 million reservists, and 150,000 Mongolian and Manchurian troops.
CASUALTIES: Chinese, 1.3 million killed, 1.7 million wounded, 130,000 missing (official Chinese figures); Japanese, 388,000 killed
TREATIES: See World War II: Pacific

Japan had been pursuing an aggressive policy of imperial expansion at the expense of China since 1931, and in 1932 annexed Manchuria as Manchukuo. The ongoing conflict erupted into a full-scale war, which merged with World War II in 1941.

On July 7, 1937, Japanese troops stationed in North China fought with Chinese troops near the Marco Polo Bridge at Luguogiao (Lukouchiao), just outside of Beijing (Peking). The Japanese troops were ostensibly on night maneuvers, but the resulting "China Incident" had clearly been provoked by Japan as a pretext for a massive invasion. This, the start of the Sino-Japanese War, might also be deemed the true beginning of World War II.

The National Government Army of China, led by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek (Jiang Jieshi; 1886–1975), numbered some 2 million troops; however, his troops were poorly equipped and poorly trained. They were supported by a Communist guerrilla army of 150,000, which suspended its struggle against the Nationalists in order to fight the common enemy, the Japanese invaders. Chinese forces faced a Japanese force of about 462,000 augmented by 150,000 Manchurians and Mongolians. The Japanese troops were well trained, equipped with the most modern weapons, and had superb leadership. The Manchurian and Mongolian auxiliaries, although not as well equipped or as well led, were nevertheless still superior to the Nationalist Chinese forces. The Japanese army had a large reserve to call upon, and the nation was an industrial giant, its industries already geared for a major war of conquest.

On July 28, 1937, Japanese forces made short work of Beijing and the city fell quickly. Tianjin (Tientsin) fell the next day, and from this point Japanese forces steadily marched west and south, brushing aside almost wholly ineffectual Chinese resistance. The westward-marching forces soon took the province of Chahar and part of Suiyuan. The force advancing southward closed in on Nanjing (Nanking), Hankou (Hankow; Wuhan), and Xi'an (Sian), but also met stiffer resistance from the Chinese regular army as well as from partisan forces. The Japanese advance was also hampered by stretched supply lines. Nevertheless, by December 27, 1937, Japanese troops had taken Jinan (Tsinan), capital of Shandong (Shantung) Province, which gave Japan control of the area north of the Yellow River.

While Japanese forces fought for the territory north of the Yellow River, an amphibious Japanese assault landed at Shanghai on August 8. Here Chinese defenders resisted with great tenacity, forcing Japan to pour in more and more reinforcements. The Japanese air force unleashed heavy raids against the city, but the defenders kept the invaders pinned down on the beaches for a full two months. However, the pressure of yet more reinforcements began to wear down the defenders, and on November 8, 1937, Shanghai fell to the Japanese.

The only bright spot for the Chinese during 1937 was the Battle of Ping-xin-guan (P'ing-hsin-kuan) on September 25, in which the Japanese 5th Division was surprised and defeated in the Wutai Mountains (northern Shanxi [Shansi]) by the Chinese 115th Division—a communist unit of the Eighth Route Army. An important victory in itself, the triumph had significant propaganda impact, and it allowed the Communists to take control of northwest China. Important Communist Chinese guerrilla bases were established *behind* Japanese lines. Despite this defeat, Japanese forces captured Nanjing on December 13 and launched an appalling orgy of murder, rape, and senseless destruction. If anything, the rape of Nanjing instilled in the Chinese a will to resist that was fiercer than at any time earlier in the terrible year.

A side event of the brutal invasion was the *Panay* Incident on December 12, in which Japanese aircraft attacked British and U.S. gunboats moored near Nanjing. The USS *Panay* was sunk and a British boat severely damaged. Not wishing to provoke war with the United States, the Japanese subsequently apologized and paid an indemnity for the loss.

The year 1938 began with Japan renewing its offensive in northern China. The conquest of Shandong was complete before the end of January. The Japanese continued to advance toward Nanjing and Hankou but were delayed by attacks from the regular Chinese army and by guerrilla forces. By April, the Japanese had control of the rail lines but little else leading to Nanjing and Hankou.

In April 1938, at Taierzhuang (Taierchwang), General Li Zongren (Li Tsung-jen) led regular and guerrilla forces exceeding 200,000 in an envelopment of a Japanese army of 60,000. After much fighting, the Japanese broke out, but at the cost of one-third of their force. Although the victory was a cause for Chinese jubilation, the Japanese invaders quickly recovered and renewed the assault from the north in May and June. Suzhou (Suchow) fell on May 20, followed by Kaifeng on June 6. By the end of the month, the vital Beijing-Nanjing railroad was in Japanese hands. In the meantime, Nationalist leader Chiang Kai-

shek made another bargain with the Communists, agreeing to support another Communist force, the New Fourth Army, which was led in battle through east-central China by Yeh Ting (Yeh T'ing; 1897–1946).

From Kaifeng, Japanese forces marched west to capture the rail junction at Zhengzhou (Chengchow) to enable an advance down the railroad to Hankou. To forestall this action, the Chinese purposely destroyed the dikes holding back the waters of the Yellow River during June and July, flooding the countryside, drowning many Japanese troops, destroying great quantities of equipment, and bringing the advance to a halt. Almost immediately, however, the Japanese army shifted southward and recommenced the advance on Hankou. Although resistance by Chinese ground forces was bloody and determined, Japanese air support forced the surrender of Hankou, temporary capital of Chiang's Nationalist government. Chiang Kai-shek evacuated the city and reestablished his capital and headquarters at Chongqing (Chungking) in the rugged Sichuan (Szechwan) Province. While this was taking place, a new Japanese amphibious force landed near Hong Kong on October 12 and quickly marched inland to take Guangzhou (Canton), which fell on October 21. China's two major seaports were now controlled by Japanese forces.

Although the Japanese army had inflicted devastating losses on the Chinese, by the beginning of 1939 the war was proving inconclusive. Vast tracts of China were occupied, but popular resistance took a heavy toll on the invaders. At this point, doubtless with an eye toward the much larger war that loomed ahead elsewhere, the Japanese high command modified its strategy, shifting from a program of rapid conquest to one of attrition. Before the end of 1939, Japanese forces captured all of China's remaining seaports in an effort to strangle the nation. By the beginning of 1940, only two tenuous supply routes fed into China: the tortuous Burma Road, winding up from British Burma (Myanmar) to Kunming, and a narrow-gauge railroad running from Haiphong, French Indochina, to Kunming.

Although Chiang Kai-shek and his strange-bedfellow allies, the Chinese communists, continued resistance, the Japanese established a puppet government at Nanjing for occupied China. It was presided over by a well-respected Chinese politician, Wang Jingwei (Wang Ching-wei; 1883–1944), who never succeeded in bringing about the defection of any of Chiang's supporters.

With much of China occupied, the Japanese moved against Indochina in June of 1940. France, having surrendered to Germany (*see* WORLD WAR II: OUTBREAK AND EARLY GERMAN CONQUESTS), was in no position to resist Germany's ally Japan, and the Vichy administrators of French Indochina yielded permission to the Japanese to land forces. This closed the supply route from Haiphong to Kunming.

Next to close was the Burma Road. At this point, Japan and Great Britain were not yet at war, and the British, under threat of invasion from Germany, had no desire to begin warfare against Japan. When the Japanese demanded that the British in Burma close the Burma Road, Prime Minister Winston Churchill (1874–1965) reluctantly acceded. China was thus cut off from the world.

Yet Chiang Kai-shek and communist leader Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung; 1893–1976) refused to give up. Between August 20 and November 30, 1940, Mao led an intensive series of guerrilla raids in the provinces of Shanxi, Chahar, Hebei (Hopeh), and Henan (Honan), doing substantial damage to Japanese rear echelons. Japan, in the meantime, occupied Indochina during September and established bases from which it could make additional air attacks on Chinese territory and pour in more land forces. Shortly after the occupation, on September 26, U.S. president Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945) embargoed scrap iron and steel shipments to Japan, precipitating a sharp decline in U.S.-Japanese relations, even as Japan formally concluded the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis with Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy on September 27.

Beginning in 1941, Japanese forces conducted periodic punitive raids against Chinese Communist forces. Over the next three years, these raids would keep the Chinese Communist Eighth Route Army continually on the defensive and would cost it some 100,000 casualties. To make matters worse, the Nationalist-Communist alliance, never very secure, began to break down. When the New Fourth Army, operating south of the Yangtze River in Anhui (Anhwei), refused to cross the river to attack Japanese troops, Chiang Kai-shek moved Nationalist forces into the region. In response, in late December 1940 the New Fourth Army began to cross the river, leaving only 10,000 troops and its headquarters on the south bank. Nationalist forces attacked this element, destroying it and creating a crisis in relations with Mao Zedong.

On the diplomatic front, the Japanese concluded a neutrality treaty with the Soviet Union on April 13, 1941, and the U.S. government froze Japanese assets in the United States on July 26. In a climate of increasingly hostile relations, Washington quietly approved the formation of the American Volunteer Group, better known as the Flying Tigers, a mercenary air force of about 100 U.S. fliers led by retired U.S. Army captain Claire L. Chennault (1890–1958). The deployment of the Flying Tigers was complete by December 1941. In the meantime, in October, Hideki Tojo (1885–1948) became Japan's premier, completing the delivery of that nation's government into military hands. The stage for a world war was now fully set. For the remainder of the Sino-Japanese War of 1937–1945, *see* WORLD WAR II: CHINA-BURMA-INDIA THEATER.

Further reading: K. Y. Chang, *Modern China and Japan, 1879–1952* (Hong Kong: Goofman, 1977); John K. Fairbank, ed., *Cambridge History of China,* vol. 11, *Late*

Ch'ing, 1800–1911, part 2 (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1980); Edward L. Dreyer, *China at War, 1901–1949* (London: Longman, 1995).

Sino-Korean War (610–614)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. Korea
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Korea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The emperor of China wanted to reestablish northern Korea as a vassal state.
OUTCOME: A combination of Korean resistance and an uprising at home ruined the Chinese invasion of Korea.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the period corresponding to the early Middle Ages in Europe, Korea was divided into three separate kingdoms. The two northern kingdoms, Koguryo and Paekche, had been vassals of China, and by the seventh century, although now independent, they still retained close ties with that larger realm. Sui-dynasty Chinese emperor Yangdi (Yang-ti; 569–618) attempted to reestablish the former relation of vassalage, demanding that the Korean king of Koguryo acknowledge Yangdi as overlord. When the Korean king refused, the Chinese emperor ordered an invasion.

Twice the Chinese invaded, only to be repulsed by fierce Korean resistance. The emperor personally led a third invasion force, which made excellent progress. However, at the point of consummating his conquest, Yangdi was informed of a rebellion in China, at Loyang, his capital city. He had no choice but to break off the invasion and raise the siege against his capital. He lost control of the situation, however, and was forced to flee for his life to southern China. All thought of Korean conquest fled with him. The emperor was subsequently killed in exile.

Further reading: Woodbridge Bingham, *The Founding of the T'ang Dynasty: The Fall of Sui and Rise of T'ang* (New York: Octagon Books, 1970); Yihong Pan, *Son of Heaven and Heavenly Qaghan: Sui-Tang China and Its Neighbors* (Bellingham, Wash.: Center for East Asian Studies, Western Washington University, 1997).

Sino-Korean War (645–647)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. Koguryo (kingdom of northern Korea)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Koguryo
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Tang (T'ang) emperor wanted to expand China into Korea.
OUTCOME: China invaded twice and was twice repulsed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Three decades after Emperor Yangdi (Yang-ti; 569–618) attempted to reestablish northern Korea as a vassal of China in the SINO-KOREAN WAR (610–614), Emperor Taizong (T'ai Tsung; 598–649) of the Tang dynasty invaded the Korean Peninsula, again in an effort to expand the Chinese empire. Like Yangdi, Taizong concentrated on the northern kingdom of Koguryo. His armies succeeded in capturing several cities, but unyielding Korean resistance, combined with the harsh winter of the north, sent Taizong packing in 645. He did not renew his campaign of invasion in earnest until 647 but once again was driven out of Koguryo.

Further reading: Woodbridge Bingham, *The Founding of the T'ang Dynasty: The Fall of Sui and Rise of T'ang* (New York: Octagon Books, 1970); Yihong Pan, *Son of Heaven and Heavenly Qaghan: Sui-Tang China and Its Neighbors* (Bellingham, Wash.: Center for East Asian Studies, Western Washington University, 1997).

Sino-Korean War (660–668)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China and Silla (kingdom in south Korea) vs. Koguryo and Paekche (in northern Korea), with Japanese alliance
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Korea
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The northern kingdoms attacked Silla, which appealed to China for aid.
OUTCOME: The northern kingdoms were conquered, resulting in the enlargement of Silla and the acquisition by China of most of Koguryo, a long-sought-after prize.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Koguryo and Paekche, the two kingdoms making up the northern part of the Korean Peninsula, entered into an alliance to attack Silla, the kingdom of south Korea. In response, Silla called on Gao Zong (Kao Tsung; 628–683), emperor of China, for military aid. China had repeatedly attempted conquest in Korea (*see* SINO-KOREAN WAR [610–614] and SINO-KOREAN WAR [645–647]), without success, so the appeal for aid seemed to Gao Zong a great opportunity.

The emperor dispatched a large Chinese army via Manchuria into Koguryo, while a Chinese fleet struck Paekche along its coast. Japan entered the war during 662–63 on behalf of Paekche, but its land and sea forces proved inadequate and were defeated. The Japanese navy incurred the greatest losses; it was almost totally destroyed.

As a result of Chinese intervention, Paekche was conquered and incorporated into Silla, which became a Chinese vassal state. Farther north, however, Koguryo continued to resist. At last, in 668, combined Chinese and Sillan forces captured the north's capital city, and Koguryo yielded. Silla acquired all of the area south of the Taedong River, whereas the greater part of Koguryo was annexed to China.

Further reading: Woodbridge Bingham, *The Founding of the T'ang Dynasty: The Fall of Sui and Rise of T'ang* (New York: Octagon Books, 1970); Yihong Pan, *Son of Heaven and Heavenly Qaghan: Sui-Tang China and Its Neighbors* (Bellingham, Wash.: Center for East Asian Studies, Western Washington University, 1997).

Sino-Tibetan War (641)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. Tibet
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chinese-Tibetan frontier
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Believing China weak, Tibet's ruler attempted an invasion.
OUTCOME: The invasion was decisively repulsed, but China's emperor immediately reestablished cordial relations by sending the Tibetan ruler an imperial bride.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Marriage agreement of 641

This war was the result of a diplomatic misunderstanding. Srong-brtsan-sgam-po (c. 608–50), king of Tibet, established cordial relations with China's emperor Taizong (T'ai Tsung; 598–649) in 634 by sending an ambassador. In 638, Taizong returned the courtesy by sending a delegation to Tibet. This action Srong-brtsan-sgam-po mistook not as an act of friendship between equals but as a sign of Chinese weakness, signifying either China's fear of Tibet or an ignominious appeal for aid from it. Seeking to exploit that seeming weakness, Srong-brtsan-sgam-po demanded that the Chinese emperor deliver to him an imperial princess as a bride. This Taizong indignantly refused to do, and in 641 Srong-brtsan-sgam-po led an invasion force into China. He had underestimated the numbers and skill of China's frontier infantry, which quickly defeated the invaders and drove them back into Tibet. Although Taizong had won a decisive victory, he wanted to avoid a multifront war; China was already involved in combat with the Eastern and Western Turks. Accordingly, he now complied with the Tibetan monarch's original request and sent Srong-brtsan-sgam-po an imperial wife. This cemented an alliance between the two monarchs and their kingdoms.

Further reading: Christopher I. Beckwith, *The Tibetan Empire in Central Asia: A History of the Struggle for Great Power among Tibetans, Turks, Arabs, and Chinese during the Early Middle Ages* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1993); Henk Blezer, ed., *Tibet, Past and Present* (Leiden, Neth.: Brill Academic, 2001); Alex McKay, ed., *History of Tibet* (London: Taylor & Francis, 2003).

Sino-Tibetan War (763–821)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. Tibet
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chinese-Tibetan frontier
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tibetans sought immediate gain by raiding the Chinese frontier.
OUTCOME: Raiding was chronic over many years; only after China concluded two important alliances were the Tibetans decisively defeated and an enduring peace enforced.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Extremely variable over many years
CASUALTIES: Extremely variable over many years, mainly affecting Chinese civilians in the border regions.
TREATIES: Treaty signed in 821

Civil war in China during the eighth and ninth centuries rendered the country vulnerable to outside attack, which Tibetan king Khirisong Detsen (r. 755–97) skillfully exploited to stage repeated invasions over a long period of time. Later Tibetan monarchs continued these incursions, which were mostly hit-and-run raids. Some invasions penetrated deeply and did considerable damage. Khirisong Detsen's raid on Xi'an (Ch'ang-an), a government capital, in 763 resulted in widespread death and destruction in that city. Worse, the Chinese-Tibetan borderlands were in a continual state of terror and turmoil. Tibetan troops were especially prodigal in their attacks, destroying property and murdering people with reckless abandon.

On many occasions, the Chinese mounted effective defenses against the Tibetan incursions, but because the raids were not full-scale invasions—attempts to occupy the country—Tibetan forces simply withdrew under attack, only to return later from their mountain strongholds. In an effort to mount a more permanently effective resistance to the raiding, the Chinese Tang emperor Dezong (Te Tsung; 768–804) struck an alliance with Muslims in the west and made a looser alliance with Nanchao, a Thai kingdom, both directed against Tibet. Only with the overwhelming

force mobilized as a result of these alliances was China able to score a decisive victory against Tibet, the ruler of which, Tri-tsug Detsen (r. 815–38), concluded a treaty with China in 821. The peace proved enduring.

Further reading: Christopher I. Beckwith, *The Tibetan Empire in Central Asia: A History of the Struggle for Great Power among Tibetans, Turks, Arabs, and Chinese during the Early Middle Ages* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1993); Henk Blezer, ed., *Tibet, Past and Present* (Leiden, Neth.: Brill Academic, 2001); Alex McKay, ed., *History of Tibet* (London: Taylor and Francis, 2003).

Sino-Tibetan War (1750–1751)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. Tibet
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tibet
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: China, seeking to control Tibetan affairs, suppressed a popular uprising in Tibet against Chinese influence.
OUTCOME: The uprising was suppressed, and China reasserted its control.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Tibet was at least nominally under Chinese control since 1662, but frequently revolted. One way in which the Chinese endeavored to preserve peace with Tibet along its western borderlands was by giving official sanction to the Dalai Lamas, the spiritual leaders of Tibet. The tradition spanned centuries and was carried out in part by two Chinese ministers, or *ambans,* stationed in Tibet in the capital city of Lhasa. Over the years, however, the *ambans* became increasingly involved in covert manipulation of the Tibetan government, and in 1750 the *ambans* contracted for the assassination of the Tibetan regent. Discovery of the plot triggered a fresh popular uprising. Tibetans in Lhasa targeted all Chinese living in the capital and there was a general massacre. This outrage prompted China's emperor Quianlong (Chien Lung; 1711–99) to send an army into Tibet. The expeditionary force had to traverse the difficult mountainous terrain of Tibet, but once that natural obstacle was overcome, the army took control of Lhasa and quickly suppressed the uprising. Nor did Chien Lung withdraw his troops after order was restored. Instead, he used them to enforce stricter Chinese dominion over Tibetan government. The *ambans* were now given overt control over the Dalai Lama's political actions, and China even claimed a controlling voice in choosing a successor to the Dalai Lama. As if this were not enough, the Chinese sought to diminish the influence of the Dalai Lama by enhancing the prestige and authority of Blobzang-dpal-Idan-ye-shes (1737–80), the Panchen Lama of Tashilumop, traditionally the number-two religious figure in Tibet. The Panchen Lama would become an office entirely subject to Chinese control. In effect, the Chinese had created a puppet administrator.

Further reading: Henk Blezer, ed., *Tibet, Past and Present* (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill Academic, 2001); Alex McKay, ed., *History of Tibet* (London: Taylor and Francis, 2003); Luciano Petech, *China and Tibet in the Early Eighteenth Century: History of the Establishment of the Chinese Protectorate in Tibet* (New York: Hyperion, 1973).

Sino-Vietnamese War (1979)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: China vs. Vietnam
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vietnam, near the Chinese border; also Yunnan Province, China
DECLARATION: China invaded Vietnam, February 17, 1979
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: China invaded in retaliation for the expulsion of Chinese nationals from Vietnam, in response to Vietnamese invasions of Laos and Cambodia, and in reaction to Vietnam's increasing ties with the USSR, China's rival.
OUTCOME: At considerable cost and against stiff resistance, the Chinese conducted a reasonably effective punitive campaign but established no enduring presence on Vietnamese soil.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: China, 180,000; Vietnam, 120,000
CASUALTIES: Neutral observers estimate 10,000 battle deaths on each side; casualties, killed and wounded, probably exceeded 75,000
TREATIES: Despite negotiations in the Chinese-Vietnamese Reconciliation talks of April 19, 1979–March 6, 1980, no treaty was concluded; China unilaterally broke off hostilities.

China had been an important ally of North Vietnam during the VIETNAM WAR against South Vietnam and its principal ally and prop, the United States. Nevertheless, the Chinese–North Vietnamese alliance had always been an uneasy one, based exclusively on China's desire to foster communism in Southeast Asia. Ideology aside, China and Vietnam had been enemies for centuries. As the war with South Vietnam and the United States ground on, North Vietnam had increasingly turned from China to the Soviet Union for support. At the time, tension between China and the USSR ran high, and this served to alienate China from North Vietnam. Late in 1978, well after the Vietnam War had ended, Vietnam, now unified under communist rule, invaded Laos and Cambodia (Kampuchea), then expelled all Chinese living in Vietnam. This was sufficient to provoke war.

War between China and Vietnam began on February 17, 1979, with an invasion by 75,000 Chinese troops (out of 180,000 mobilized) at 26 points along the northern border. Although the Chinese managed to take several towns and villages, they were generally halted about 25 miles into Vietnamese territory. Resistance by Vietnamese army regulars and militia troops was fierce; the Chinese received a taste of what the American forces had experienced over many years.

Despite the reinforcement of Vietnamese troops by forces that had been occupying Cambodia, the Chinese held firm and, on February 20, captured the provincial capital of Lao Cai, followed on March 3, 1979, by Lang Son, another provincial capital and site of a great victory against the French in 1950. At about the time Lang Son fell, Chinese units reached Quang Yen, on the northern coast, about 100 miles from Hanoi, despite determined Vietnamese resistance.

The Chinese gains came at great cost. As in the Vietnam War, the Vietnamese forces displayed a seemingly inexhaustible capacity for self-sacrifice. However, Vietnamese strategy did not consist entirely of defense. While Chinese forces invaded, Vietnamese army forces staged a counteroffensive into China's Yünnan province. Chinese defensive forces responded quickly and drove this incursion back, but there was widespread shock over the temerity of the invasion.

Although China was generally successful against the Vietnamese, the cost of the war was high, and the Chinese summarily cut the war short, in effect declaring victory and departing the field on March 6, 1979, having, Chinese lenders declared, dealt sufficient punishment to the Vietnamese. Although all Chinese troops had evacuated Vietnamese territory before the end of March, border clashes continued on a chronic basis. Chinese and Vietnamese officials conducted sporadic peace talks but failed to conclude a formal and final treaty.

Further reading: Henry J. Kenny, *Shadow of the Dragon: Vietnam's Continuing Struggle with China and the Implications for U.S. Foreign Policy* (London: Brassey's, 2002); Qiang Zhai, *China and the Vietnam Wars, 1950–1975* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 2000).

Sioux War (1862–1864) *See* UNITED STATES–SIOUX WAR (1862–1864).

Sioux War (1865–1868) *See* BOZEMAN TRAIL, WAR FOR THE.

Sioux War (1876–1877) *See* UNITED STATES–SIOUX WAR (1876–1877).

Sioux War (1890–1891) *See* GHOST DANCE UPRISING.

Six Day War *See* ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1967).

Slave Rebellions, United States *See* GABRIEL'S REBELLION; MURREL'S UPRISING; TURNER'S REBELLION; VESEY'S REBELLION.

Slave Wars *See* SERVILE WAR, FIRST; SERVILE WAR, SECOND; SERVILE WAR, THIRD .

Smaland Uprising *See* DACKE'S WAR.

Smolensk, War of *See* RUSSO-POLISH WAR (1632–1634).

Snake War (1866–1868)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Snake (Northern Paiute) Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Oregon and Idaho
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Snakes attacked settlers and miners, whom they saw as invaders; the United States sought to pacify the Indians and place them on reservations.
OUTCOME: The Snakes were defeated and retired to reservations.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: About 1,500, including regulars and unorganized militia
CASUALTIES: Snakes, 329 killed, 20 wounded, 225 captured; United States, unknown
TREATIES: Unratified treaty of 1868 with seven Northern Paiute tribes

During the years of the UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR, the Yahuskin and Walpapi bands of the Northern Paiutes, popularly known as the Snakes, who inhabited southeastern Oregon and southwestern Idaho, periodically attacked miners in the region and became the focus of ineffectual campaigns conducted by Oregon and Nevada volunteers. When the Civil War came to a close, the campaign against the Snakes fell to the cavalry and infantry units of the regular army. Like the local volunteer groups, they enjoyed little success in neutralizing the chronic raids. The public raised an outcry against the U.S. Army, which in response reorganized its command in the area and placed General George Crook (1829–90) in charge.

Unlike many regular army commanders, Crook disdained pomp and ceremony as well as orthodox field methods. He studied Indian combat practices carefully and did not hesitate to use them himself. He also made extensive use of Shoshoni auxiliaries. Where cavalry commanders would not deign to trade their horses for lowly mules, Crook recognized that, as a pack animal in rough terrain, the mule was far superior to the horse. He used mules instead of the cumbersome wagon trains that always slowed columns in pursuit of Indians. This tactic suited the Snake War, which was not a series of formal battles but a nearly constant pursuit punctuated by guerrilla attacks. During the two-year war, Crook and his officers engaged the Snakes at least 40 times and, more important, kept them on the run. By the middle of 1868, with 329 killed, 20 wounded, 225 captured, and their most revered chief, Pauline (or Paulina; d. 1867), dead, the Snakes indicated their willingness to make peace. Another hitherto hostile chief, Old Weawea (fl. 1860s), led 800 Indians to Fort Harney on July 1, 1868, to talk to Crook.

Crook adopted the kind of hard line he deemed most effective in dealing with Indians. He threatened to pursue war to the point of exterminating the Snakes. Perhaps intimidated, certainly exhausted, all but a die-hard minority of Snakes submitted to life under the watchful eye of Fort Harney (from which they drew their rations) or retired to the Klamath and Malheur River reservations. A handful, however, remained at large, lying low until they joined the Bannocks and Cayuses in the so-called BANNOCK WAR of 1878.

Crook had effectively neutralized the Snakes just as the new U.S. president, Ulysses S. Grant (1822–85), put his "Peace Policy" into effect, a policy designed to produce "conquest through kindness" and to concentrate various tribes on reservations under civilian control, where the Indians could learn to be "civilized"—that is, to become self-supporting, educated, Christian farmers.

Further reading: Peter Cozzens, *Eyewitnesses to the Indian Wars, 1865–1890: The Wars for the Pacific Northwest,* vol. 2 (Mechanicsburg, Pa.: Stackpole Books, 2002); David Lavender, *Land of Giants: The Drive to the Pacific Northwest, 1750–1950* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1958).

Soccer War (Football War) (1969)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: El Salvador vs. Honduras
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Honduras
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ostensibly El Salvador wished to retaliate for insults to its national pride during a World Cup soccer playoff; in reality it fought to relieve pressure on its government from Salvadoran refugees expelled from an increasingly xenophobic Honduras.
OUTCOME: The war lasted four days, poisoned relations between the two countries, and settled few if any of the problems between the two.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: El Salvador: 5,000; Honduras: 5,000
CASUALTIES: El Salvador: 700 casualties, 107 killed in action; Honduras: officially 99 killed in action and 66 wounded, but in fact some 2,000 Honduran soldiers and civilians died
TREATIES: Organization of American States' sponsored cease-fire, July 18, 1969

Known outside the United States as the "Football War," 1969's Soccer War between El Salvador and Honduras took its name from its outbreak during a three-game elimination match between the Salvadoran and Honduran national teams during the prelims of that year's World Cup. But the roots of the conflict lay in the economic disparity between the two countries and the long shadow of international development and U.S. foreign policy. A small country, El Salvador had one of the region's more developed economies and boasted a large and rapidly growing population. Like Guatemala, a major U.S. client state, El Salvador prospered under the Central American Common Market while next-door Honduras, larger but more sparsely populated and less developed, faltered. Thus by 1969 Hondurans had grown to despise the 300,000 or so Salvadorans who had drifted across the border and taken up residence in the roomier country as both an economic threat and an insult to national sovereignty.

The tense situation was made worse by Honduran president Oswaldo López Arellano (b. 1929), whose regime was in serious trouble. Mounting economic difficulties had spawned labor disputes and strikes, drawing criticism from both left and right, and violence-ridden, fraudulent municipal elections caught the eye of the U.S. embassy. As the political situation deteriorated, the desperate president López (and some private groups backing him) increasingly placed the blame for the country's economic woes on the Salvadoran squatters. Invoking an old and long-dormant agrarian-reform law as a pretext, he evicted the immigrants from their homesteads and expelled them from his country. Images of displaced refugees filled El Salvador's airwaves, and tales of their hardships its newspapers. Soon rumors of violence visited upon the displaced Salvadorans by the Honduran military spread throughout the countryside.

As Salvadorans continued to stream out of Honduras back to their crowded homeland, the two countries prepared to meet in soccer's World Cup playoffs. There were disturbances at the first game in Tegucigalpa, Honduras, but they were relatively tame, by World Cup standards, compared to the second match in San Salvador, where Honduran fans got beaten up and the Honduran flag and national

anthem were openly insulted. Emotions were already raw for both sides, and when Honduras lost to El Salvador in the third game, rioting broke out everywhere. Rioters attacked Salvadoran residents in their country, including several vice consuls, killing and brutalizing dozens as tens of thousands Salvadorans joined the 17,000 or so who had already returned to the country of their birth.

Not only did the more-or-less state-sanctioned riot insult El Salvador's national pride and excite its jingoists, but also the growing influx of refugees put a strain on social services and threatened to provoke social unrest. With El Salvador's Christian Democrats, led by José Napoleón Duarte (1925–90), looming on the edge of the political stage, the Salvadoran president, Colonel Fidel Sánchez Hernández (1917–2003), found retaliation—war—against Honduras his most expedient option. On July 14 El Salvador's air force attacked targets inside Honduras, and its army invaded. The war was a brief one; despite Salvador's early air strike, Honduras's larger, more modern air force eventually dominated the skies. Salvador's 5,000-strong army, however, clearly bested Honduras's similarly sized force on the ground, pushing it back 24 miles and taking the town of Nueva Octepeque before bogging down when it ran out of fuel—thanks to Honduras's bombing of El Salvador's oil storage facilities—and ammunition.

Meanwhile the Organization of American States (OAS) had met in emergency sessions and now called for an immediate cease-fire followed by a prompt withdrawal of El Salvador's ground troops. El Salvador ignored the OAS dictum for a few days while it demanded reparations for Salvadorans already evicted from Honduras and guarantees of safety for those who remained. At length, a cease-fire was set for July 18, talking full effect on July 20, but El Salvador's forces lingered until the OAS began threatening economic sanctions. The Salvadorans pulled out as OAS observers arrived to monitor the security of the remaining squatters. It took decades to repair the damage done by the four days of war. Though 2,000, mostly Hondurans, died, Honduras in general evinced a new sense of national pride—which, however, did not extend to the army, the poor performance of which led to a drop in public support. Trade between the two countries was disrupted completely, exacerbating their economic woes. Also, importantly, El Salvador had lost the economic safety valve Honduras had once provided its burgeoning population, a fact that fed civil unrest in the years to come.

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Social War (357–355 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Athens vs. the city-states of the Delian League
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Mediterranean
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The city-states in the Delian League sought social and political equality with Athens.
OUTCOME: Athens allowed the city-states to become independent in return for the right to maintain trade routes in the Aegean.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 357 B.C.E., the city-state Euboea (the modern Greek island of Évvoia) revolted against Athens and the Delian League, a confederacy of Greek city states, headquartered at Delos and dominated by Athens. Athens retaliated by raiding Euboea and generally tightening control over the other allies in the league. Instead of intimidating the other league members, their action served to provoke Chios, Rhodes, and Byzantium to follow the lead of Euboea and rebel against Athens's control. They demanded political and social parity with Athens. Unyielding, in 356 Athens laid siege to Samos, and the Athenian fleet sailed to Byzantium. At the Battle of Embata, off the Byzantine coast, the fleet was defeated. Yielding at last, Athens agreed to allow the allies independence in 355. Additionally, Athens gave up several harbors in the north but maintained trade routes in the Aegean. More significantly, the Delian League had been compromised, and Macedonia was thereby enabled to continue annexing territory.

Further reading: Richard A. Billows, *Kings and Colonists: Aspects of Macedonian Imperialism* (Leiden, Neth.: Brill Academic, 1994); Victor Davis Hanson, *History of Warfare: The Wars of the Ancient Greeks* (London: Cassell, 2002); Victor Davis Hanson, *Warfare and Agriculture in Classical Greece* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1998).

Social War (219–217 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Macedonia vs. Aetolia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Mediterranean
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Philip V of Macedonia sought to bar Aetolia from allowing its citizens to practice piracy.
OUTCOME: Philip V was victorious in suppressing the revolt of Aetolia and thereby delayed the invasion of Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Naupactus (217 B.C.E.)

In 220 B.C.E., the Achaeans—people living on the Greek mainland and western Greek isles, as well as Rhodes and Crete—asked newly crowned king Philip V (238–179 B.C.E.) of Macedon to arbitrate a dispute with Aetolia, a fellow member of the Achaean, or Hellenic, League. Aetolia (a territory north of the Corinthian Gulf and bounded on the north by Epirus, on the east by Locris, and the west by Acarnania) had been sanctioning privateers—pirates. Philip ruled against Aetolia, which thereafter prepared for war. In 219, Aetolia attacked Macedonia, prompting Philip to undertake a string of decisive actions. He invaded the Peloponnese, punished Elis (an ally of Aetolia), and attacked Aetolia itself.

Materially, Philip gained nothing from the war; however, he was heralded as a great leader throughout most of Greece. Rome, recognizing the popularity of Philip and the Peace of Naupactus he negotiated in 217, delayed a contemplated invasion of the region for five years.

Further reading: Richard A. Billows, *Kings and Colonists: Aspects of Macedonian Imperialism* (Leiden, Neth.: Brill Academic, 1994); Joseph B. Scholten, *The Politics of Plunder: Aitolians and Their* Koinon *in the Early Hellenistic Era, 279–217* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1999).

Social War (91–88 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rome vs. the people of southern and central Italy (a confederation called Italia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The people of southern and central Italy wanted Roman citizenship.
OUTCOME: By 88 B.C.E., most people of southern and central Italy were given full citizenship in Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Italia, 100,000; Roman numbers unknown, but certainly fewer
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Also called the Italic or Marsic War, the Social War was a rebellion of Rome's Italian allies (called the *socii*) who, denied the right to vote as Roman citizens, sought outright independence from the republic. The war was triggered when Marcus Livius Druses (d. 91 B.C.E.) introduced a bill in the Roman Senate in 91 B.C.E. to extend citizenship to everyone living on the Italian peninsula, including the *socii*. When Marcus was assassinated with no action having been taken on his bill, the Marsians of southern and central Italy revolted. Establishing a federation called Italia, the rebels made Corfinium (Corfu) their capital.

They were soon joined in rebellion by the Samnites, people of the south. Rome's initial response was to offer citizenship to those people who had not revolted—Umbrians, Etruscans, and Latins—and to others who abandoned the revolt immediately. This pacified some and certainly helped to contain the scope of the revolt; however, the war continued, and the hardcore rebels defeated forces under Lucius Porcius Cato (d. 89 B.C.E.) at Fucine Lake in 89 B.C.E. The slain Cato was succeeded by Gnaeus Pompeius Strabo (d. 87 B.C.E.), who was victorious against the rebels at Asculum later that year. The Roman Senate continued to work for a peaceful solution and in 89 offered citizenship to all who registered in two months' time. With the back of the revolt broken by Strabo's victory, nearly all people living in Italy accepted Roman citizenship and sovereignty by 88 B.C.E. This resulted in the political unification of Italy south of the Po River and transformed the Roman alliance with the *socii* into a genuine, unified nation.

Further reading: Jean-Michel David, *Roman Conquest of Italy* (London: Blackwell, 1996); Jane F. Gardner, *Being a Roman Citizen* (London: Routledge, 1993); Ray Laurence and Joanne Berry, *Cultural Identity in the Roman Empire* (London: Routledge, 2001); Claude Nicolet, *World of the Citizen in Republican Rome* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1988).

Somalian Civil War (1988–ongoing)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Feuding clans led by rival warlords
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Somalia, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Seizure of power and authority in an anarchic political context
OUTCOME: Low-level civil war continued in a nation without viable government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Forces of the warlords, unknown; UN peacekeeping forces (including U.S. troops), 28,000
CASUALTIES: Thousands, mostly civilian, including 1.5 to 2 million at or near starvation
TREATIES: None

Somalia, on the easternmost projection of the African continent (the "Horn of Africa"), is one of many African

nations once under the colonial control of Europe and now independent but plagued by such poverty that independence hardly set its people free. In 1960, the independent Republic of Somalia was created, but after its president, Cabdirashiid Cali Sherma'arke, was assassinated in 1969, a military coup led by Major General Maxamed Siyaad Barre (1919–95) replaced parliamentary government with a dictatorial Supreme Revolutionary Council. The new military dictatorship allied itself with the Soviet Union and invaded the Ogaden region of Ethiopia in an attempt to annex the territory. The Soviets rapidly shifted support to Ethiopia, defeating Siyaad's armies and creating chaos in already strife-torn and famine-ridden Somalia.

In the spring of 1988, Somali "government" was dominated by feuding clans. The Somali National Movement (SNM) rose up and began taking towns and military facilities in the north of the country. In these brutal campaigns, aimed at civilians, thousands were killed, and many thousands more were made refugees, fleeing to neighboring Ethiopia. Even as more and more of the country fell under the control of the SNM, Mogadishu, the Somali capital, remained in the hands of Siyaad Barre. However, in March 1989 government troops belonging to the Ogadeni clan mutinied in Kismayo. That rebellion was not put down until July. In the meantime, the SNM continued to seize control of more of the country. The violence became so intense that United Nations and other aid workers evacuated in May 1989. When Salvatore Colombo (1922–89), the Catholic bishop of Mogadishu, fell victim to an assassin's bullet on July 9, 1989, violence became universal within the capital, forcing Siyaad Barre to announce that he would hold multiparty elections. This did not satisfy the various rebel factions, which temporarily united to thwart the elections and then stage a coup against Siyaad Barre, who clung desperately to his title as 1990 came to a close.

The promise of free elections brought a brief intermission in the civil war, but rival clans, led by warlords, began the war anew. Although the warring factions were numerous and the relations among them complex, the major rivals by late 1990 were General Muhammad Farrah Aydid (1934–96), of the Hawiye clan and leader of the Somali National Alliance (SNA), and Ali Mahdi Muhammad (president, 1991–97), of a different subclan of the Hawiye clan and leader of the Somali Salvation Alliance (SSA). In January 1991, Siyaad Barre was at last dislodged from office (he subsequently fled the country) and was immediately replaced by Ali Mahdi. In September, however, Aydid, now chairman of the United Somali Congress (USC), challenged Ali Mahdi for the presidency. The result was renewed fighting in Mogadishu and, essentially, the end of organized government for Somalia; no one faction had sufficient support to established unambiguous rule.

As southern Somalia disintegrated, Muhammad Ibrahim Egal (d. 2002) led the secession, in May 1991, of northeastern Somalia, creating the breakaway Somaliland. For a brief time, Egal achieved a certain amount of stability in the breakaway region, but fighting, led by factions opposed to secession, broke out in the regional capital of Hargeysa. The international community also generally refused to recognize the legitimacy of Somaliland.

The anarchic civil war devastated an already desperately poor nation and people. The delicate economy of Somalia was quickly destroyed. Organized farming was disrupted, then halted, by the war. Somalia's misery was compounded by a severe drought, and by the early 1990s, some 1.5 to 2 million Somalis were starving or close to starvation.

Beginning in 1992, U.S. president Bill Clinton (b. 1946) announced the U.S.-led and UN-sanctioned Operation Restore Hope to bring humanitarian aid and order to Somalia. In December 1992, the first of a contingent of 28,000 UN troops, including Americans, arrived to transport and distribute food and attempt to bring an end to the violence. By the end of March 1993, much food had been delivered, but U.S. and UN troops had not succeeded in disarming the militias of the various warlords. In June and July 1993, Aydid stepped up the violence, resulting in the deaths of many Somalis and some of the UN peacekeepers. The Clinton administration pushed to broaden the UN mandate to encompass concerted action against Aydid—up to and including killing him. This resulted in dissension among the nations participating in the UN action. In 1994, amid confusion of objectives, Aydid acted directly against U.S. forces in Somalia; 18 American soldiers were killed. Others were taken prisoner. American television beamed grisly images of a dead American soldier being dragged through the streets of Mogadishu. With that, the popular pressure to withdraw U.S. forces from Somalia increased. No one argued against the humanitarian purpose of Operation Restore Hope, but who could win a war in which there was no order to restore—only well-meaning UN peacekeepers operating at cross-purposes in a nation that offered nothing more than a choice among warlords and various versions of chaos? By March 1994, most U.S. and European troops had been withdrawn from Somalia. At this time too, Aydid and Mahdi had met in Kenya to hammer out a coalition government for Somalia.

Their meeting produced nothing but further discord, and fighting again flared in Mogadishu during May and December 1994. The next March, the 19,000 UN troops (all from African member nations) withdrew from Somalia, leaving Aydid and Mahdi both claiming leadership of the country and both occupying Mogadishu while their partisans fought one another. At this point, the Somali Salvation Democratic Front (SSDF) controlled the northeast. The rest of the nation was divided among three lesser factions. Aydid was dealt a severe blow when his chief lieutenant, Osman Hassan Ali (fl. 1990s), switched his allegiance to Mahdi. In a 1996 exchange of gunfire during

one of the innumerable skirmishes, Aydid was severely wounded. He died on August 1, 1996, and was succeeded by Hussein Aydid (b. 1965), his son.

The death of Aydid brought a lull in the chronic fighting, but Somalia remained fragmented, without even the semblance of central government. In 1998, factionalism within the SSDF led to formation of a new independent state in the northeast, Puntland, which has yet to be recognized by the international community. As of the end of 2004, a low-level civil war continues in a nation without a functioning government.

Further reading: Kenneth Allard, *Somalia Operations: Lessons Learned* (Washington, D.C.: National Defense University Press, 1997); Mark Bowden, *Black Hawk Down: A Story of Modern War* (New York: Grove/Atlantic, 1999); Jamil Abdalla Mubarak, *From Bad Policy to Chaos in Somalia: How an Economy Fell Apart* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1996); Scott Peterson, *Me against My Brother: At War in Somalia, Sudan, and Rwanda—A Journalist Reports from the Battlefields of Africa* (London: Routledge, 2000); Jonathan Stevenson, *Losing Mogadishu: Testing U.S. Policy in Somalia* (Annapolis, Md.: Naval Institute Press, 1995).

Sonderbund, War of the (1847)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sonderbund (seven Catholic Swiss cantons) vs. Swiss federal government ("loyal" cantons)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Switzerland
DECLARATION: Sonderbund against the government, November 4, 1847
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Sonderbund opposed liberal Protestant reform in Switzerland.
OUTCOME: The Sonderbund "war" was quickly ended by Swiss federal troops in significantly superior numbers.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sonderbund, 79,000; federal forces, 100,000
CASUALTIES: Sonderbund, 33 killed, 124 wounded; federal forces, 60 killed, 386 wounded
TREATIES: None

The Sonderbund (the "Separatist League") was an alliance of seven Catholic cantons of Switzerland—Lucern, Uri, Unterwalden, Zug, Shwyz, Valais, and Fribourg—formed in 1845 against the forces of Protestant Swiss liberalism, which sought freedom of worship, a strong national government, and secular education (including the expulsion of the Jesuits from public education). Fighting in 1845 claimed 100 lives.

In 1847, the Swiss Diet (parliament) was controlled by a liberal majority, which voted legislation ordering the dissolution of the Sonderbund. This action moved the Sonderbund cantons to civil war on November 4, 1847. However, the cantons' appeal for outside aid fell on deaf ears, and the "war" collapsed (on November 24, 1847), almost as soon as it had begun. Swiss federal troops, under the command of Guillaume Henri Dufour (1787–1875), quickly overawed the outnumbered Sonderbund forces. The only significant battle was fought at Gislikon on November 23, 1847. Federal forces drove the Sonderbund from the field. Federal losses were 34 killed and 83 wounded, whereas the Sonderbund lost 12 killed and 45 wounded. Lucerne, center of Sonderbund strength, fell to federal forces within three weeks of the commencement of hostilities.

By way of reparations, the Sonderbund cantons were compelled to reimburse the federal government for the cost of the war, and the abortive rebellion served only to propel Switzerland to adopt the measures advocated by the liberals. Although a strong central government was adopted, local government on the canton level was preserved. This was the last armed conflict in which Switzerland engaged.

Further reading: Joachim Remak, *Very Civil War: The Swiss Sonderbund War of 1847* (Denver: Westview, 1993); William E. Rappard, *Collective Security in Swiss Experience, 1291–1948* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1984).

Song (Sung) Dynastic Wars (959–976)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Later Zhou (Chou) general Zhao Kuangyin (Chao K'uang-Yin) vs. the "Five Dynasties"
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Unification of China under a single emperor.
OUTCOME: Zhao Kuangyin prevailed against the Five Dynasties, becoming Emperor Taizu (Tai Tsu), first of the Song emperors.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Tang (T'ang) dynasty came to an end in 907 when Zhu Wen (Chu Wen; 852–912), a military commander, murdered Li Zhu (Li Chu; r. 904–07), the last Tang emperor, and assumed nominal control of China. The abrupt end of the Tang dynasty ushered in the Era of Five Dynasties, which amounted to 50 years of anarchy. It ended in 959, when Zhao Kuangyin (939–97), a general of the Later Zhou dynasty, waged war against one dynastic family after another until by 976 he had gained sufficient military advantage to earn proclamation as emperor by his troops. From 976 to 997, he reigned as Emperor Taizu.

Further reading: John W. Chaffee, *Branches of Heaven: A History of the Imperial Clan of Sung China,* Harvard East Asian Monographs, 183 (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999).

South African Frontier Wars *See* KAFFIR WAR, FOURTH; KAFFIR WAR, FIFTH.

South African War *See* BOER WAR, SECOND.

Southampton Insurrection *See* TURNER'S REBELLION.

Southern Plains War *See* SHERIDAN'S CAMPAIGN.

Soviet Invasion of Afghanistan *See* AFGHAN CIVIL WAR (1979–1992).

Spanish-Algerine War (1775)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. Morocco and Algiers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Algiers
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After unsuccessfully attempting to maintain peace between Spain and Muslim North Africa, Charles III sought to suppress the Muslim threat once and for all.
OUTCOME: Charles's army was decisively defeated in a single battle, and Muslim opposition to Spanish influence in North Africa increased significantly.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 18,000; Algiers and Morocco, unknown
CASUALTIES: Spain, several thousand; Algiers and Morocco, losses minimal
TREATIES: At issue was the Moroccan violation of a 1767 treaty between Morocco and Spain; no treaty ended the 1775 war.

Relations between Catholic Spain and the Muslim states of North Africa were always troubled. In 1767, Charles III (1716–88), king of Spain, concluded a treaty with Morocco, which settled long-held disputes, but in 1774 the sultan of Morocco, Mohammed II (r. 1757–90), suddenly broke the treaty by ordering all Christians out of the country and laying siege to Melilla. Spanish forces broke the siege and blamed the British for inciting the sultan to abrogate the treaty. In fact, the British were not at fault, and Charles III soon gave up looking for a scapegoat. Instead, he abandoned all attempts at conciliation with the Muslim world and resolved to take decisive military action.

Charles dispatched an army of 18,000 men against the dey of Algiers, the key ally of Morocco. The Spanish forces were led by an Irish general, the fiery Alexander O'Reilly (1722–94), who commanded great confidence on account of his aggressive approach. To the stupefaction of Charles III, however, O'Reilly's forces were overwhelmed by Muslim defenders before they had even reached their objective, Algiers. The Spanish forces were total defeated. After losing thousands of men, O'Reilly withdrew, and instead of suppressing Muslim opposition to Spain, the single-battle 1775 war increased it many times.

Further reading: Ellen G. Friedman, *Spanish Captives in North Africa in the Early Modern Age* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1983); Phillip Chiviges Naylor and Alf Andrew Heggoy, *The Historical Dictionary of Algeria* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1994); Thomas Kerlin Park, *Historical Dictionary of Morocco* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1996).

Spanish-American War (1898)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The United States and nationalist forces in Cuba and the Philippines vs. Spain.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cuba, the Philippines, and Puerto Rico
DECLARATION: By the U.S. Congress on April 11, 1898; by Spain on April 24, 1898.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: American imperialists, using the excuse of Spanish atrocities in Cuba to whip up war fever among the American public and an explosion that destroyed the USS *Maine* as a spurious casus belli, launched a war of expansion against Spain in order to seize its holdings in the Caribbean and the Pacific.
OUTCOME: Spain was defeated; Cuba became a de facto U.S. protectorate; Guam, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines were annexed by the United States; Philippine nationalists launched a four-year insurrection against U.S. occupation; and the United States began to emerge from its tradition of isolation from world affairs and launch itself on a course of informal world empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 196,000; U.S., 72,339
CASUALTIES: Spain, 1,108 killed, 690 wounded; U.S., 385 killed, 1,662 wounded; 5,403 U.S. troops died of disease
TREATIES: Treaty of Paris, December 10, 1898

As a Spanish colony, Cuba—an island no more than 90 miles off the coast of Florida—had long been rebellious. When Cuban nationalists staged a major revolt against the repressive Spanish colonial government in 1895, Spain

sent General Valeriano Weyler (1838–1930) in February 1896 to put down the rebellion and restore order. Serving as military governor, Weyler's first act was to establish "reconcentration camps" for the incarceration of rebels as well as those accused of supporting or even sympathizing with them. Weyler began by rounding up Cuban citizens and putting them in the camps in order to keep them from covertly supplying the rebels. Many died of diseases contracted in the wretched environment, and Weyler's tyranny only bolstered the rebels' resolve. It also gave U.S. imperialists a means by which to turn American public opinion against Spain and permit the United States to embark on the road to world power.

On the threshold of the 20th century, the American public was generally isolationist, whereas elite businessmen and opinion makers were expansionists. President Grover Cleveland (1837–1908), whatever his personal sympathies may have been, did not want his country to become involved in a conflict between Spain and its Cuban colony, and William McKinley (1843–1901), who succeeded him in 1897, publicly expressed the same sentiments. Yet as the months of Spanish abuses continued, many in the United States agitated for intervention. Not only were the Spanish atrocities considered intolerable by American opinion makers, but American business interests and citizens, both plentiful on the island, were at hazard. Into the growing national debate jumped two rival newspaper giants, Joseph Pulitzer (1847–1911) and William Randolph Hearst (1863–1951), whose papers (the *New York World* and *New York Journal,* respectively) were engaged in a bitter war of their own—a circulation war—in which coverage of the situation in Cuba was a highly desirable spoil. The papers outdid each other in publishing sensational stories of valiant rebels fighting cruel Spanish overloads. Hearst called for the outright annexation of the island.

In the end, the war that grew out of these events had less to do with Cuba's desire for independence or with Spanish atrocities or the competition between the *World* and the *Globe* than with domestic developments within the United States in the decades leading up to it.

ECONOMY OF EXPANSION

For decades after the UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR, the American colossus had been preoccupied with expanding across the continent and developing in the West what many historians have called the country's "internal colony." Late in the century, with the subjugation of the American Indians, the United States found its internal colonizing of the West coming to an end. The 1890 census announced that sometime after 1880 the "frontier line" in the West had disappeared. (Not accidentally, 1890 was also the year of the massacre at Wounded Knee [*see* GHOST DANCE UPRISING], when federal troops machine-gunned 300 Sioux in the last major U.S. confrontation with Native Americans.) It was becoming increasingly clear to the managers of the American economy, and the financial markets behind it, that the time had come for new colonies, and they began to look beyond the American continent.

This was especially the case after the Panic of 1893, which began when the bankruptcy of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad shook the New York Stock Exchange into the biggest selling spree on record up to that point. In the severe depression that followed, banks called their loans; credit dried up; the Erie, the Northern Pacific, the Union Pacific, and the Santa Fe railroads all failed; and mills, factories, furnaces, and mines everywhere shut down. By the time the Panic of 1893 was over, 500 banks and 1,500 firms had fallen into bankcruptcy, and a series of industrial strikes around the country had grown so violent that the country's municipalities began building local national guard armories to arm federal strike breakers. These events merely fired a fever already growing in the elite political and financial circles of American society. To the moneyed class it seemed that overseas markets for American goods might relieve the problem of underconsumption at home and that overseas sources of raw materials might weaken the position of an increasingly hostile labor force. In short, overseas colonies might prevent the kind of economic crisis that in the 1890s was bringing something approaching class war to America.

Young expansionists like Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919) could be fairly explicit in their private views that foreign adventures should divert farmers and laborers from their preoccupation with economic ills, although in their public statements they dressed those views in the racist and "manly" terminology that had been the heritage of the American West since John O'Sullivan (1813–95) coined the phrase *manifest destiny.* But even McKinley, one of the still numerous, cautious old "stand patters" in the Republican Party, had stated some years before he became president that America wanted foreign markets for their surplus products. In Congress too the consensus was growing. In 1897, Indiana's Senator Albert Beveridge (1862–1927) declared that American factories were making more than the American people could use and that American soil was producing more than they could consume. Fate, he declared, had written the policy—the trade of the world must be and would be American.

Economically, such men were right. The United States outstripped all other imperialist nations with industrialized economies in its careful nurturing of business, throwing open its doors to European immigrants who flooded its cities after the Civil War in unprecedented numbers even as it erected high protective-tariff walls around its new markets. An economy already expanding before the war exploded into massive growth in the decades following Appomattox, and what in 1860 had been a second-rate industrial country—lagging behind England, Germany, and even France—had by 1890 taken the lead. The United

States had become the greatest free-trade market in the world—the value of its manufactured goods all but equaled the combined production of the three previous leaders. Farm products, especially tobacco, cotton, and wheat, had long depended on international markets for prosperity, and by then U.S. trade exceeded every country in the world but that of England. In the two previous decades, new investments by American capitalists overseas had reached a billion dollars. Oil, too, had become a major export. By 1891, John D. Rockefeller's (1839–1937) Standard Oil Company produced 90 percent of America's kerosene export and controlled 70 percent of the world market, and oil had grown second only to cotton as the leading export product.

Both industrialists and large commercial farmers—including some Populist leaders—were demanding expansion into foreign markets for their huge agriculture surpluses. What they had in mind was not necessarily foreign conquest but an open-door trade policy, such as the United States was then helping to impose on China—in other words, what historian William Appleman Williams called an "informal empire." But even informal empires sometimes fed real expansion, as the filibusters and merchant seamen who had drifted into the occupation of Texas and California back in the middle of the 19th century could attest. In Cuba, American policy makers and newspapers claimed, it was necessary to rescue freedom-fighting rebels intent on overthrowing an abusive Spanish rule. The Spanish-American War, fought on that pretext, in reality announced the U.S. entry into the contest for world markets.

DOMESTIC DEBATE AND DECLARATIONS OF WAR

Not all Americans supported the war being whipped up by the circulation contest between Pulitzer's *World* and Hearst's *Journal*. Anti-imperialists, led by William Jennings Bryan (1860–1925) and Carl Schurz (1829–1906), rallied their forces in Congress against the warmongers, led by Roosevelt and Henry Cabot Lodge (1850–1924). Those arguing against intervention persuaded Congress to pass the Teller Amendment, which prohibited annexation of Cuba as the result of any U.S. action. Meanwhile, the business community had begun to rally. Newspapers and trade journals of the day were chock full of the bellicose sentiments of businessmen: Pittsburgh's iron industrialists claimed that the possibility of war had stimulated the iron trade; shipping merchants announced that an actual war would decidedly enlarge the business of transportation; banker Russell Sage (1816–1906) told the press that there was no question where the rich men stood; John Jacob Astor (1864–1912) and William Rockefeller (1841–1922) admitted they were feeling militant; and J. P. Morgan (1837–1913) believed further talk with Spain would lead nowhere.

One Washington newspaper talked about a "belligerent spirit" inhabiting the Navy Department, which was being egged on toward war by arms manufacturers and supply contractors. That spirit was Teddy Roosevelt, McKinley's under secretary of the navy. From deep within the administration, Roosevelt kept up a steady pressure on the president for intervention in Cuba, turning his famous frontier theories (expounded in his multivolume history *The Winning of the West*) to the cause of Cuba. Basically, he argued that foreign adventure could renew the virility of the ruling Anglo-Saxon class just as the frontier once had done. He began forming a unit to fight under his command when the war came, consisting of the cowboys, hunters, sheriffs, Texas Rangers, a few outlaws, and a large number of former vigilantes he had met in his youthful travel about the American West. He called them the "Rough Riders," which was the name of a segment of Buffalo Bill Cody's immensely popular Wild West Show, then touring the country.

At last, in January 1898, with the belligerent expansionists like Roosevelt pushing for war at home and with fighting and rioting general in Cuba, President McKinley dispatched the battleship *Maine* to Havana Harbor in order to protect U.S. citizens. On February 9, 1898, Hearst scored a journalistic coup by publishing a purloined private letter in which Enrique Dupuy de Lome (1851–1904), the Spanish minister to the United States, made insulting and derogatory reference to President McKinley. With the powder keg duly packed, all that was wanting was a match. That came on February 15, 1898: The *Maine* exploded in Havana, killing 266 sailors. A rapidly convened naval court of inquiry concluded that the ship had hit a Spanish mine (modern analysts believe that it was spontaneous ignition of the ship's magazine that caused the disaster). Hearst and Pulitzer papers vied with one another to demonize Spain. Americans soon raised the cry of "Remember the *Maine* . . . to hell with Spain!" It was a self-conscious echo of the battle cry of the TEXAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE—"Remember the Alamo!"—and it proved highly effective. Spain tried to avert war by accelerating its withdrawal from Cuba, and President McKinley continued to temporize throughout the early spring.

The turning point came on March 21, 1898, when Boston's Henry Cabot Lodge informed McKinley that he had talked with bankers, brokers, businessmen, editors, clergymen, and other members of the city's elite, and that all of them, including the most conservative, wanted the Cuban question—which was, in reality, what to do about the succession of rebellious spasms that were disrupting American commerce—solved. Certainly these men were not motivated by a humanitarian concern for the suffering Cubans. Their eyes were on the large U.S. business concerns that had made major investments in the island, especially in sugar plantations. Although revolutionary unrest posed a threat to those investments, they understood that a successful revolution, if properly supported, could create an independent Cuban government that, beholden to the

United States, would be pliant and willing to make provisions favorable to business. Some, like Hearst, imagined that Cuba might even be annexed to the United States.

On March 25 an adviser in Cuba wired the White House a telegram informing McKinley that the large U.S. corporations on the island believed a war was coming and, what was more, welcomed it as a relief from the suspense and uncertainty of the current situation. Two days later, McKinley presented Spain with an ultimatum demanding an armistice with the rebels. When Spain did not reply, McKinley asked Congress for a declaration of war on April 11, but he made no mention of recognition for Cuba or of its independence, which had initially been given as the reasons for American intervention. Congress by joint resolution not only gave McKinley the power to intervene nine days later but also voted a resolution to recognize Cuban independence from Spain. It was an authorization for war and, in response, Spain declared war on the United States on April 24, 1898.

UNPREPAREDNESS

The bellicose aspirations of the United States were not proportionate to the nation's state of preparedness for war. Although the navy had benefited from Roosevelt's push for a program of expansion, which included the construction of modern battleships and the creation of an excellent officer corps, the post–Civil War army was tiny, at about 26,000 officers and men, spread over far-flung posts. A National Guard program enrolled about 100,000 more, but many of them were poorly trained. Although the army was equipped with up-to-date weapons, the National Guard made do with outmoded black-powder Springfield rifles. Perhaps even more critical was the army's lack of a coherent mobilization plan. No overseas deployment had ever been contemplated, and it was questionable whether National Guard units could be legally employed beyond the nation's borders.

In belated preparation for war, Congress passed a Mobilization Act on April 22, 1898, that enabled the use of National Guard units. The act initially provided for the recruitment of 125,000 volunteers, to which an additional 75,000 were soon added. A special 10,000-man force, christened "the Immunes" and consisting of persons "possessing immunity from diseases incident to tropical climates," was also authorized. The act more than doubled the authorized strength of the regular army as well, to about 65,000. By the end of the 10-week war, in August 1898, the regular army numbered 59,000 and the volunteer forces 216,000.

INITIAL STRATEGY

Amassing the required manpower was only part of the problem of prosecuting the war against Spain; indeed, enthusiastic men volunteered in ample numbers. The initial U.S. strategy, however, called not for committing ground troops to Cuba, at least not before October and the end of the sickly rainy season, but for establishing a naval blockade of the island. This patient strategy, planners believed, would itself win the war; when the Spanish decamped, ground forces could occupy Cuba. Against the advice of senior planners, however, and bending to the public outcry for immediate, glorious action, Secretary of War Russell M. Alger (1836–1907) ordered regular infantry regiments to be transported to New Orleans, Tampa, and Mobile, ports from which they could be immediately dispatched to Cuba.

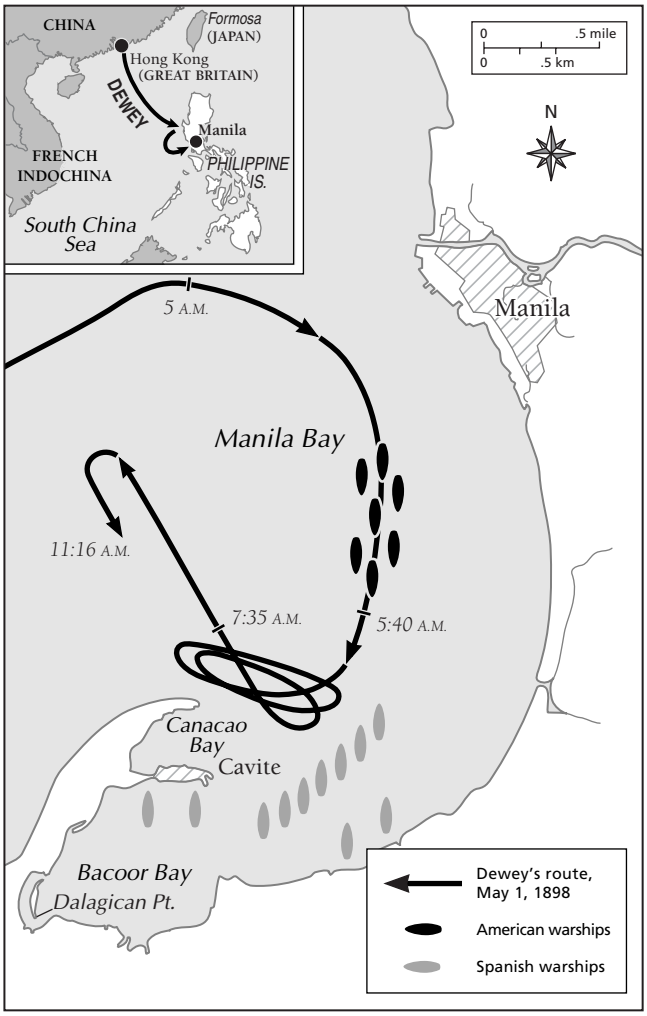
The disruption of the initial strategy strained logistics to the breaking point. Transportation, supply, and clothing all created tremendous problems, and inadequate sanitation and improperly prepared food, including tainted tinned meat, created severe crises. Corruption among contractors and red tape in the War Department were rife.

THE BATTLE OF MANILA BAY

The fact that the navy was far better prepared for a large-scale deployment averted disaster. Almost immediately after the war began, the United States was flooded by rumors of the approach of a Spanish fleet under Admiral Pascual Cervera y Topete (1839–1909), headed for the Atlantic coast. Although Rear Admiral William T. Sampson (1840–1902) had hoped to institute his Cuban blockade with every ship in the North Atlantic Squadron, several were detached under Commodore Winfield S. Schley (1839–1911) to stand guard against the approach of Cervera.

If the navy's Caribbean plans were thus attenuated, its war plan for the Pacific campaign, formulated as early as 1895–97, remained intact. Anticipating a conflict with Spain, the navy had resolved to attack whatever Spanish ships were stationed in the Philippines. The object was to destroy those ships, take Manila, and blockade the Philippine ports to cut off a vital source of revenue to Spain; moreover, U.S. possession of the Philippines would put the nation in a strong negotiating position to compel Spain to agree to the liberation of Cuba. In January 1898, well before the army even began planning for war, Roosevelt sent war-preparation instructions to naval commanders, including Commodore George Dewey (1837–1917). His Asiatic Squadron (five cruisers and two gunboats) was ordered to assemble in Hong Kong, coal, and prepare to sail directly to the Philippines.

The order to attack the Philippines came on April 24, and Dewey, fully prepared, made Manila Bay during the night of April 30. On May 1, he located the Spanish fleet at Cavite and launched a spectacular attack against the vessels of Admiral Patricio Montojo (1839–1917): four cruisers, three gunboats, and three decrepit auxiliary vessels. Although it was superior in numbers, the Spanish fleet was outgunned—and poorly managed. Dewey completely destroyed the fleet within a few hours, inflicting on



Admiral Dewey's operations at the Battle of Manila and Manila Bay, May–August 1898

the Spanish 381 casualties (killed and wounded), whereas not a single American sailor was lost (eight were wounded). With the Spanish ships out of the way, Dewey neutralized the Spanish shore batteries, took possession of Cavite, and blockaded Manila in anticipation of the arrival of land forces to occupy the city. On June 30, 10,000 troops, a mix of regulars and volunteers under General Wesley Merritt (1834–1910), reached Manila Bay and began debarkation. Acting in concert with Filipino guerrillas led by Emilio Aguinaldo (1869–1964), who was leading an indigenous fight for independence from Spain (*see* PHILIPPINE INSURRECTION [1899–1902]), and supported by Dewey's naval batteries, Merritt took the city of Manila on August 13.

NAVAL OPERATIONS AT SANTIAGO DE CUBA

By May 1898, General Nelson A. Miles (1839–1925) was prepared to lead army units from Tampa against Cuba, but the whereabouts of Cervera's fleet could not be ascertained. Until this information was discovered, the attack would not be launched. U.S. naval vessels searched for Cervera, finally discovering, at the end of May, that he had slipped through the Cuban blockade and had put in at the bay of Santiago de Cuba. Admiral Sampson reconnoitered and determined that the Spanish fleet—its best ships, four modern cruisers and three destroyers—had indeed attained the safety of the heavily fortified bay. Sampson decided to blockade the fleet in the harbor, which he accomplished during May–July. In a daring operation, Lieutenant Richmond P. Hobson (1870–1937) sailed an obsolescent collier, the *Merrimac,* into the harbor mouth and scuttled it, hoping the hulk would effectively block the narrow channel. The gallant effort failed.

Unable to silence the Spanish forts with naval bombardment alone, Sampson called for army land forces to move against the batteries. Simultaneously, Sampson landed the marines carried by his squadron of five battleships, two armored cruisers, and assorted lesser vessels. They quickly overran the Spanish defenders of Guantanamo Bay and established a base of operations there. It was the first land skirmish of the war—and the marine base at Guantanamo exists to this day, the sole bastion of U.S. sovereignty on the island and place of confinement, in the early 21st century, for prisoners taken during the U.S. WAR ON TERRORISM.

THE ARMY EMBARKS

On June 14, V Corps, consisting of three divisions, 17,000 men, mostly regular army, under Major General William R. Shafter (1835–1906), left Tampa after many logistical delays. The loading of transports was especially haphazard. The concept of "combat loading"—including on each vessel the men together with their necessary supplies and equipment, in such a way that all could be unloaded in the order needed—was largely ignored, a fact that put the troops in great jeopardy should their landing encounter substantial resistance.

It was June 20 before the transport convoy arrived near Santiago, the troops having suffered under brutal tropical heat and in overcrowded, unsanitary conditions. Admiral Sampson wanted General Shafter to land at Santiago Bay and immediately storm the fort on the east side of the entrance to the bay to drive the Spanish from their guns. This accomplished, Sampson could clear the bay of mines and enter it to fight Cervera's fleet. Shafter, however, had not transported heavy artillery and therefore doubted that his troops could take the fort. He decided instead on a less direct approach. He landed at Daiquirí, east of Santiago Bay. Disembarkation began on June 22 and was not concluded until June 25, amid great confusion and the reluctance of civilians in vessels chartered for the landings to make shore approaches. Cavalry mounts were tossed overboard, left to swim ashore on their own. Many horses swam out to sea and were lost. Had the

Spanish commanders responded appropriately, they might have taken advantage of the chaos to wipe out the landing force. Spain had at least 200,000 troops in Cuba, of which 36,000 were stationed in Santiago. Combined with about 5,000 local insurgents (under General Calixto Garcia [1838–98]), the U.S. forces numbered only 22,000. Fortunately for the Americans, the Spanish did nothing to resist the inept landings.

BATTLE OF SANTIAGO

Elements of V Corps advanced west toward the high ground of San Juan, a series of ridges east of Santiago. The topography was ideal for the defenders, who were well entrenched. On June 23, Brigadier General Henry W. Lawton (1843–99) led the American vanguard along the coast from Daiquirí to take and hold Siboney, which became the principal base of operations. On June 24, Brigadier General Joseph Wheeler (1836–1906) took his dismounted cavalry units inland along the road to Santiago and captured Las Guasimas, engaging briefly the rear guard of a retreating Spanish force. Units of V Corps, now just five miles outside of San Juan Heights, paused to await the arrival of the rest of Shafter's divisions. But time suddenly seemed of the essence; Shafter observed how rapidly the tropical conditions debilitated his troops, and he also feared the onslaught of hurricanes. In view of these dangers, the general resolved on an immediate frontal attack against San Juan Heights. Shafter assigned an infantry division under Brigadier General Jacob F. Kent (1835–1918) to attack on the left and Wheeler's dismounted cavalry on the right. These 8,000 troops would be supported by Lawton's infantry and artillery, 6,500 men, who, simultaneously with the assault on San Juan Heights, would attack and take El Caney, a well-fortified village. This would cut off supplies to Santiago, including fresh water, and would block any possible Spanish reinforcements. Once El Caney was secured, Lawton was to join in on the main assault against San Juan. Finally, to deceive the enemy, Shafter detailed a freshly landed brigade to advance along the coast from Siboney as a diversionary feint.

The attack started at dawn on July 1 and immediately began to fall apart because of the merciless tropical heat and difficult terrain. Shafter, felled by heat stroke, was unable to direct the battle. As troops became bottled up along the congested main trail to San Juan Heights, Spanish gunners took devastating aim, sighting their guns on giant tethered Signal Corps balloons. To compound these problems, Lawton experienced a lengthy delay in taking El Caney, which was much more stoutly defended than had been anticipated. Nevertheless, Kent and Wheeler were able to make a vigorous assault on San Juan Heights by the middle of the day. Among the units participating were the 9th and 10th Cavalry—both African-American regiments—and the Rough Riders of the dashing Theodore Roosevelt, now a lieutenant colonel. These three cavalry regiments, all dismounted, seized and occupied Kettle Hill, as Kent's infantry, under cover of continuous Gatling-gun fire, charged up San Juan Hill and overwhelmed the defenders, pushing them from their blockhouse and trenches. The Spanish retreated to a more strongly fortified inner line.

Despite a shaky beginning, Shafter had achieved his initial objectives, but at the higher-than-expected cost of 1,700 killed and wounded. Even more troublesome than the heavy battle casualties was the toll taken by illness, especially now that V Corps had to tackle the best-organized and most heavily fortified line of Spanish defense. Shafter notified Secretary of War Alger that he was contemplating a strategic withdrawal, five miles to higher ground. This would put his forces in a position both easier to supply and to defend; the additional elevation, Shafter hoped, would also bring a healthier environment. Alger understood but replied that the "effect upon the country would be much better" if Shafter avoided any retreat, even a strategic one. In view of this, Shafter appealed to the navy to enter Santiago Bay at once and attack the city. Naval commanders refused, and the American forces were thus temporarily stalled.

Just as the crisis of command seemed most acute, the will of the Spanish defenders of Santiago began to buckle. Short of food, water, and ammunition, the Spaniards resolved to abandon the city, and, without land support, Cervera felt he had no choice but to make a run out of port. On July 3, he began to move out. At the time, Admiral Sampson was ashore in a tactical debate with General Shafter. In his absence, Commodore Schley initiated the pursuit and, in the space of two hours, disposed of Cervera's fleet. The four cruisers, the pride of the Spanish navy, were severely damaged and run aground. A destroyer was also beached, and another sunk in deeper water. Although Schley diligently set about rescuing Spanish survivors, Cervera's losses were 474 killed or wounded; 1,750 sailors were taken prisoner. American losses were one killed and one wounded. The glory of the victory was subsequently marred by Sampson's unseemly attempt to claim credit for Schley's achievement.

Shortly after the defeat of Cervera, General Shafter persuaded the Spanish officials at Santiago to surrender unconditionally. The papers were signed on July 16, and 23,500 Spanish troops gave themselves up. Had General José Toral (fl. 1890s) been aware that the American troops surrounding Santiago were withering under the effects of heat and yellow fever, he surely would not have capitulated so eagerly.

LANDING ON PUERTO RICO

General Miles, leading more than 3,000 troops, sailed from Guantánamo on July 21 and landed at Guanica on the southeastern coast of Puerto Rico on July 25. He met almost no resistance and quickly advanced to the port town of Ponce. He secured this for a base of operations,

installing 10,000 troops who had arrived from the U.S. mainland during the first week of August. Miles then marched four columns toward San Juan and easily brushed aside the inconsequential resistance he encountered. Many Puerto Ricans enthusiastically greeted the American troops as liberators, but the campaign was suspended on August 13, when news reached Miles that Spain had signed a peace protocol.

HEALTH CRISIS

The overwhelming nature of the U.S. military victory in the Caribbean was being increasingly vitiated by the deteriorating health of Shafter's soldiers. As far more succumbed to yellow fever than to enemy bullets, a number of senior officers circulated a letter proposing evacuation of the army for sanitary and medical reasons. When the letter was made public, American officials worried that it would compromise the ongoing peace negotiations with Spain. Fortunately, it did not, but the army was moved to devote unprecedented resources to its Medical Corps in a concerted effort to understand the causes of yellow fever and to develop means of effectively combating it.

THE FALL OF MANILA

While U.S. soldiers triumphed and languished in Cuba, Dewey, during May and June, awaiting the arrival of land forces to occupy Manila, struggled to maintain cordial relations with Aguinaldo and the Filipino insurgents. It became increasingly apparent that the U.S. and Filipino agendas were far from identical. The United States wanted to annex the Philippines, while Aguinaldo wanted to achieve immediate independence. Fortunately, by the end of July, before a full-blown crisis developed, the VIII Corps, about 13,000 volunteers and 2,000 regulars under Major General Merritt, began landing near Manila. The army had learned valuable lessons from the Cuban landings, and those at Manila were far more efficient. By the beginning of August, 11,000 U.S. troops were arrayed to the rear of the Filipino insurgents just outside the city. Within Manila, as many as 15,000 Spanish troops were ready to make a defensive stand. Both Dewey and Merritt appealed to Madrid for a bloodless surrender, but the cause of Spanish honor seemed to demand at least a show of resistance. Thus, on August 13, the VIII Corps attacked, supported by Dewey's naval bombardment. Poor coordination between the U.S. troops and the insurgents threatened to incite the Spaniards to make more than a token resistance; the insurgents suddenly opened up on the barely resisting Spanish with unbridled violence. American officers intervened, persuaded the insurgents to cease fire, and the Spanish garrison surrendered. On August 14, the surrender was formalized—though, in fact, Madrid had signed a general peace protocol on August 12. Because Dewey had cut the submarine telegraph cable to Manila, word of the armistice had reached neither attackers nor defenders.

THE TREATY OF PARIS

Following the armistice, negotiations in Paris produced the Treaty of Paris, which was signed on December 10, 1898. Because moral objections to U.S. imperialism had produced the Teller Amendment to the declaration of war, forbidding the annexation of Cuba, U.S. negotiators at Paris did not seek to acquire the island but instead secured Spain's grant of independence for Cuba. The Teller Amendment did not extend to other Spanish possessions, however, and President McKinley pressed his negotiators to obtain Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippine Islands, for which the United States paid Spain $20 million.

Imperialism so blatant did not sit well with many in the United States, and the Senate fight over ratification of the treaty was intense. Those who favored the treaty argued that annexation was an expression of America's duty to serve the world as an agent of civilization. On a less bombastic level, the acquisitions in the Pacific would give the United States a crucial advantage in trade with China. In the end, the treaty was ratified by a margin of 57 to 27—just two votes more than the two-thirds majority required.

If the strictures of the Teller Amendment prevented the annexation of Cuba, they did not prevent de facto U.S. occupation of the island. Fast on the heels of the army came American capital. Then came American-built railroads, American-operated mines, American-operated plantations. United Fruit moved into the Cuban sugar industry, the American Tobacco Company onto its tobacco lands. By 1901, an additional $30 million had been invested, and 80 percent of Cuba's mineral exports were in American hands, mostly those of Bethlehem Steel. The army remained to protect such interests, and a series of strikes in 1899 and 1900 were brutally suppressed.

The newly independent nation drew up a constitution in 1900, but it neglected to incorporate provisions for the continuation of Cuban-U.S. relations. The United States made such provisions a necessary condition for withdrawal from the island. Secretary of State Elihu Root (1845–1937) drew up the provisions and attached them to the army appropriations bill of 1901. Sponsored by Senator Orville H. Platt (1827–1905), the amendment made Cuba, in effect, a U.S. protectorate by limiting the new nation's treaty-making capacity, curtailing its right to contract public debt, and securing Cuban land for U.S. naval bases. Most important, it reserved to the United States the right to intervene in Cuban affairs in order to preserve Cuba's independence and to protect "life, property, and individual liberty." Cubans might have asked if that meant their liberty or the liberty of American businessmen. When the Cuban constitutional convention met in 1901, the United States informed the new government that its army would stay unless and until the document included the Platt Amendment. The provisions of the Platt Amendment were incorporated into the Cuban constitution in 1901, and the United States withdrew its forces the following

year. Relations as defined in the Platt Amendment and the Cuban constitution were further formalized by treaty in 1903. In the end, there was no need to annex Cuba; the American army could return legally any time the United States wished.

Thus did the American empire, however informal, grow. In addition to the Cuba protectorate and the series of outright annexations of those countries not covered under the Teller Amendment—Puerto Rico, Guam, the Philippines—there were the Hawaiian Islands. These were not "won" in the war, but the imperialist momentum created by the war drove their acquisition. Already penetrated by American missionaries and pineapple plantation owners, who were now able to oust Queen Liliuokalani, only recently restored, Hawaii cost nothing; it was taken in time-honored traditions of the American West from the indigenous peoples themselves. Dubbed by John Hay (1838–1905) a "splendid little war," the Spanish-American War had established the United States as a major power in the Far East and the dominant power in the Caribbean. It also triggered a four-year-long guerrilla insurrection in the Philippines, as Aguinaldo's nationalists—once allied with the United States against Spanish domination—now fought the new American occupiers.

The insurrection became an issue in McKinley's reelection. Roosevelt, now on McKinley's ticket as vice president, took up the issue of putting down the Philippine rebellion and used it as a cudgel against the perennial Democratic candidate, the pacifist and populist hero William Jennings Bryan. McKinley won, but he did not have long to savor his victory. On September 6, 1901, McKinley was shot by an anarchist, Leon Czolgosz, while attending the Pan-American Exposition in Buffalo, New York, and died eight days later. Roosevelt assumed office and pursued the new imperialism with gusto. He was elected president in his own right in 1904, whereupon, on the basis of the experience in Cuba, he established a policy toward the Caribbean islands and Latin America that came to be known as the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine.

The Roosevelt Corollary effectively made the United States an international police force for the region, a role that was destined to expand. Meanwhile, Roosevelt enthusiastically supported such initiatives as the construction of the Panama Canal, for which he not only practiced a subtle diplomacy with Britain and France but also engineered the creation of the new Republic of Panama (*see* PANAMANIAN REVOLUTION), expressly to provide the United States a canal zone. American muckrakers would come to call America's imperial policies developed under Roosevelt "dollar diplomacy"; American businesses like United Fruit would prove every bit as effective as the British in taking control of foreign countries, especially in Central America, which the "yellow press" soon labeled "Banana republics."

Before his two terms in office were over, Roosevelt—whose navy was growing (as was Japan's and Germany's) into a threat for the British—would come to relish his role as "policeman" not just to the Caribbean but also to the world, especially following the RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR. It was a role once played by the British Empire, and it remained a controversial one in America's domestic politics. Not until the great world wars of the 20th century had shattered the hold of isolationism would America truly assume the British mantle during the long cold war, and even then covertly and often behind the front of the United Nations.

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Spanish-Chilean War

See SPANISH-PERUVIAN WAR.

Spanish Christian-Muslim War (912–928)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Muslim Arabs, Berbers, Muwallads fought with each other; all of these groups fought against the forces of Spain's Christian kings.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Spain
OUTCOME: The war established Abd-ar-Rahman III as caliph of Córdoba, the principal power in southern Spain.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Abd-ar-Rahman's army, 40,000; strength of other forces unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During much of the Middle Ages, southern Spain was hotly contested among Muslim groups and between Muslims and Christians. Early in the 10th century, Muslim Arabs, Berbers, and Muwallads—Spanish converts to Islam—fought over control of the al-Andalus region. In nominal control of the region was Abd-ar-Rahman III (891–961), the Ummayyad emir, a Muslim and the most powerful of the Ummayyads in Spain. He first attempted to suppress rebellion in al-Andalus by granting a blanket amnesty to the rebels. When this failed, he marched a 40,000-man army against Toledo, effectively the capital of Moorish Spain. Prevailing against rebel Arabs under Umar ibn Hafsun (c. 840–917), Abd-ar-Rahman gained control of southern as well as eastern Spain. Nevertheless, his forces still faced persistent guerrilla warfare.

While Abd-ar-Rahman continued to fight the Arab rebels in the southeast, Galicia (northwest Spain) was also engulfed in a war, which focused on the kingdom of León. Under Ordoño II (d. 923), Spanish Christians defeated the Moors and successfully resisted repeated Moorish incursions from the south. However, in 921, Moorish forces defeated Ordoño, who was allied with the king of Navarre, Sancho I Garcés (r. 905–926), at the Battle of Val-de-Junquera.

Ibn Hafsun's sons carried on the resistance against Abd-ar-Rahman as well as the Spanish Christian kings until 928, when these rebels finally surrendered. This did not bring an end to the struggle between Christians and Muslims, however, as Abd-ar-Rahman, who now declared himself caliph of Córdoba, engaged in frequent fighting with Christians at the frontier of his realm. Despite the ongoing border combat, Abd-ar-Rahman forced the Christian kings of León and Navarre to pay an extortionary tribute.

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Spanish Christian-Muslim War (977–997)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Principally Spanish Moors vs. Christians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Spain
OUTCOME: By the end of this long complex of wars, the Moors came to dominate most of the Iberian Peninsula.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Various alliances were made and broken.

The victory of Abd-ar-Rahman III (891–961) in the SPANISH CHRISTIAN-MUSLIM WAR (912–928) established Ummayyad rule over most of southern Spain. However, Hisham II (d. c. 1013), caliph of Córdoba, proved such a weak ruler that he was quickly overthrown by the palace chamberlain and power behind the scenes, Muhammad ibn-Abi-Amir (939–1002), with military assistance from his father-in-law, General Kalib (d. 981). Not long after he had helped to install him in power, however, Kalib began to fear his son-in-law and decided to checkmate him by striking an alliance with Ramiro III (r. 967–84), Sancho II Garcés (r. 970–94), and Garcia I Fernandez (r. 970–95), the Christian rulers of León, Navarre, and Castile. Ibn-Abi-Amir responded to this with a preemptive invasion of Galicia (northwest Spain) in 977, defeating Kalib's forces and killing Kalib himself.

With Kalib out of the way, ibn-Abi-Amir established a full military dictatorship, then turned against the Christians, engaging the forces of León under Ramiro III at the Battle of Zamora in 981 and again at the Battle of Simancas. From both of these battles, ibn-Abi-Amir emerged with decisive victories that enabled him to assume the title al-Mansur bi-Allah ("victorious through Allah"). He assumed absolute rule over all Muslim Spain as regent and true power under Hisham II.

While it made him powerful, the victory of al-Mansur (Ibn-abi-Amir) did not bring stability to Spain. In 982, León was torn by civil war when Vermudo II (d. 999) usurped the throne with the assistance of al-Mansur's troops and troops sent by Sancho II Garcés, the Christian king of Navarre. Three years later, al-Mansur overran Barcelona, which he razed. In 987, Vermudo II banished the Córdoban mercenaries from his kingdom, fearing that they would turn against him. This action, however, cleared the way for al-Mansur to turn against his former ally, and, in 988, he ravaged León, which he then occupied.

From his newly established base at León, al-Mansur raided and invaded Castile. In 989, he leveraged popular discontent by fomenting an uprising. Once that was under way, al-Mansur used it as a pretext for invasion. He defeated Christian forces at Medinaceli, then imposed heavy tribute payments on the Christians in return for his "protection." Having extorted what he could from Castile, al-Mansur turned his troops loose upon Galicia, allowing them to raid and pillage freely. By the end of this long complex of wars, the Moors had succeeded in conquering most of Iberia, including the regions encompassed by modern Spain and Portugal.

Further reading: Olivia Remie Constable, ed., *Medieval Iberia: Readings from Christian, Muslim, and Jewish Sources* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press,

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Spanish Christian-Muslim War (1001–1031)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish Christians vs. Muslims; Ummayyad Muslims vs. Hammudid Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Spain
OUTCOME: Against the background of the ongoing struggle between Christians and Muslims in Spain, this period saw intensified internecine warfare within Muslim Spain, ultimately leading to the collapse of Moorish influence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This war marked a turning point in the gradual Christian reconquest of Muslim Spain by bringing about a sharp decline in Moorish influence. The third of the long wars between Muslims and Christians in Spain, it began in 1001 when Muhammad ibn-Abi-Amir al-Mansur (939–1002) (*see* SPANISH CHRISTIAN-MUSLIM WAR [977–997]) led a large Muslim army up the Duero River against Christian rebels in Castile. At Caltanazar, he was attacked by a superior Christian force and had to retreat and then withdraw from the area. Al-Mansur died without having regained full control over Castile, and he was succeeded as regent of Córdoba by his son Abdulmalik-al-Mazaffar (d. c. 1004) under Caliph Hisham II (d. c. 1013).

Abdulmalik-al-Mazaffar assumed the regency in a climate of increasing dissension, but he nevertheless vigorously prosecuted military campaigns against the Christians and scored several victories before he died, apparently of natural causes, about 1004. His death came at a most inopportune time and triggered a full-scale civil war, during which Abdulmalik-al-Mazaffar's younger brother Sanjul (d. 1009) seized power. Not content with assuming the regency, Sanjul forced Hisham II to proclaim him his heir. This incited a rebellion at Córdoba, which forced the abdication of Hisham II in favor of Muhammad II Mahdi (d. 1010). Mahdi, however, did not assume the throne unopposed. Berber mercenaries supported their own candidate, Sülayman al-Mustain (d. 1016), and they conspired to bring about the assassination of Sanjul in 1009; then, with military aid from the Christian count Sancho Garcés of Castile (d. 1021), the Berber mercenaries carried off a coup d'état against Muhammad II in November 1009. Allied with Christian troops, the Berbers installed their candidate, Sulayman, as caliph of Córdoba—after thoroughly looting the city.

The civil war greatly eroded the central authority emanating from Córdoba, and various Muslim emirates and kingdoms were established throughout Spain. Thus Muslim control over Iberia became increasingly fragmented. This prompted the deposed Muhammad II to strike an alliance with the Christian count Ramón Borrell (d. 1018) of Barcelona, who, together with his brother, Count Berenguer Ramon I (1018–35), helped lead a joint Christian-Muslim army against Córdoba. This force defeated the Berbers, but instead of retaking the city intact, the Christian-Muslim coalition put it to the torch.

The destruction of Córdoba created great instability, and as soon as the Christian-Muslim army pulled out of the city, Muhammad II was assassinated, and Hisham II rushed in to fill the vacuum. He did not hold the throne long, however. In May 1013, Hisham was again forced to abdicate in a struggle between the Ummayyad and Hammudid dynasties. His abdication left no clear successor, and anarchy ensued. The violence came to an end in 1031 with the total collapse of the Córdoban caliphate when Hisham III (d. 1036), nominal ruler at the time, resigned. Thus, as a result of internecine war, Moorish influence in Spain suddenly declined, and the Christians became the beneficiaries of Muslim dynastic war.

Further reading: Olivia Remie Constable, ed., *Medieval Iberia: Readings from Christian, Muslim, and Jewish Sources* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1997); Bernard F. Reilly, *Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Bernard F. Reilly, *Contest of Christian and Muslim Spain: 1031–1157* (London: Blackwell, 1995); Janina M. Safran, *The Second Umayyad Caliphate: The Articulation of Caliphal Legitimacy in Al-Andalus* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2000).

Spanish Christian-Muslim War (1172–1212)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Principally, Castile and other Christian kingdoms of Iberia, vs. the Almohad Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Spain
OUTCOME: The long struggle between Christians and the Almohad Muslims in Spain was fought out in a series of battles, culminating in the Castilian victory at the Battle of Las Navas de Tolosa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Christian numbers at Las Navas de Tolosa are unknown; Almohad troops reportedly numbered 600,000
CASUALTIES: Christian casualties at Las Navas de Tolosa are unknown; Almohad casualties reportedly numbered 160,000 killed.
TREATIES: None

Alfonso VIII (1155–1214), Christian king of Castile, ascended the throne as an infant. The nobles were reluctant to acknowledge his authority after he came of age, and Alfonso had to fight them. Emerging victorious from the internecine struggle against the other Christian nobles, Alfonso then moved against the Almohad invaders, a Muslim group that had assumed dominance over much of Muslim Spain. To defeat the Almohads would not only be a victory for Christianity, but would also consolidate and ratify Alfonso's authority to rule.

By 1177, Alfonso had pushed the Almohads out of Cuenca and, from this triumph, went on to a series of others until the fateful Battle of Alarcos in south-central Spain on July 18 or 19, 1195. Troops under the Almohad caliph, Abu-Yusef Ya'qub al-Mansur (d. 1199), decisively defeated Alfonso's army, taking (they claimed) 30,000 prisoners, most of whom were subsequently slaughtered.

Alfonso and a core of followers survived the battle and fled to the northeast, transiting the Ciudad Real and taking refuge in the fortress of Calatrova. This necessary retreat laid Castile open to invasion by Christian troops from León and Navarre. Moors (Spanish Muslims) also attacked. Worse, in 1197, Calatrova fell to the Moors, and Alfonso made a humiliating peace. Nevertheless, in subsequent years, although beleaguered, Alfonso repulsed each new invasion attempt, buying Castile time to receive reinforcements from Pope Innocent III (1161–1216). With these troops, Alfonso seized the initiative and counterattacked against the Almohads and Moors. A series of Christian victories culminated in the Battle of Las Navas de Tolosa on July 16, 1212. The strength of Alfonso's coalition force of troops from Castile, León, Navarre, and Portugal must have been great, but it is said that the army under Muhammad al Nasin was even greater, reportedly numbering 600,000 men. Alfonso's coalition defeated the Muslims, inflicting a reported 160,000 deaths.

As a result of Las Navas de Tolosa, Alfonso won for Castile control of all central Spain and broke the back of Almohad hegemony in Iberia. It was one of the great reversals of power in all military history.

Further reading: Olivia Remie Constable, ed., *Medieval Iberia: Readings from Christian, Muslim, and Jewish Sources* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1997); Bernard F. Reilly, *Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Bernard F. Reilly, *Contest of Christian and Muslim Spain: 1031–1157* (London: Blackwell, 1995).

Spanish Christian-Muslim War (1230–1248)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Castile and León vs. the Moors
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Spain (al-Andalus)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Spain
OUTCOME: Ferdinand III succeeded in reconquering Spain for Christianity.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Ferdinand III (1199–1252), king of Castile and León, fresh from victories in a dynastic dispute, led a military crusade aimed at stamping out Moorish hegemony in southern Spain. He began with an invasion of the Guadalquivir River valley, which harbored many Moorish strongholds. Ferdinand enjoyed success in several battles, culminating in the capture of Córdoba in 1236. This city had been the capital of Moorish Spain since the eighth century, and its capture was a great milestone in the Christian reconquest of Spain. Jaén, east of Córdoba, was taken 10 years later, and Seville, Moorish capital of al-Andalus, fell to him in 1248.

In his zeal to purge southern Spain of Islam, Ferdinand evicted Moors from their homes—and thereby created economic devastation throughout the realm. Nevertheless, Murcia came directly under Castilian control and occupation, whereas Granada remained nominally Moorish, but existed in vassalage to Castile as the Emirate of Granada. For all practical purposes, Spain had been reconquered from the Moors, although low-level guerrilla warfare, mainly with Granada, persisted for many years, until Alfonso X (1221–84), Ferdinand's son and heir, took Cadiz in 1262.

Further reading: Olivia Remie Constable, ed., *Medieval Iberia: Readings from Christian, Muslim, and Jewish Sources* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1997); Stanley Lane-Poole, *Moors in Spain* (London: Darf, 1984); David Nicolle, *Moors: Islamic Spain 711–1492* (London: Osprey, 2001); Bernard F. Reilly, *Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Colin Smith, ed., *Christians and Moors in Spain (1195–1614),* vol. 2 (Oakville, Conn.: David Brown Books, 1989).

Spanish Christian-Muslim War (1481–1492)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish Christians vs. Muslim Moors
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Spain
OUTCOME: Ferdinand V's defeat of the Moors at Granada ended Muslim rule in Spain.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Granada, Ferdinand had 50,000 men; this was doubtless the largest army he fielded. Moorish numbers are unknown.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This was the culminating war in the Christian-Muslim struggle for possession and control of Spain. On December 26, 1481, Muley Abdul-Hassan (d. 1485), the Muslim king of Granada, made a surprise attack on the Christian Zahara fortress near the village of Ronda. His forces abducted the Christians and cast them into slavery. The action provoked retaliation in the form of a Christian counterraid on February 28, 1482, led by Rodrigo Ponce de León (1443–92), the Christian marquis of Cadiz, against Alhama, a Moorish town 25 miles from Granada. The Christians occupied Alhama on February 28, 1482, but were soon set upon by forces of Abdul-Hassan, who ordered a siege. At news of the approach of an army under Ferdinand V (1452–1516), king of Castile and Aragon, Abdul-Hassan raised the siege and departed the field. Ferdinand rode into Alhama on May 14, 1482. War would continue without remission for the next decade.

Ferdinand and his consort, Queen Isabella I (1451–1504), planned a siege of Loja, another Moorish stronghold. The operation was amphibious; land elements were assigned to lay siege to the town while a fleet blockaded the sea lanes to prevent Moorish reinforcement. The defeat of Ferdinand at the Battle of Loja on July 4 (some sources report July 1), 1482, was severe, precipitated by the king's loss of nerve before his objective. He withdrew from Loja and, in withdrawing, was attacked by the Loja garrison, which managed to inflict serious losses, not the least of which was the forced abandonment of Ferdinand's supplies and artillery.

In the wake of Ferdinand's defeat, the son of Abdul-Hassan, Boabdil (d. 1527), laid siege to Lucerna in April 1483, but as he withdrew from the siege he was taken captive by Christian forces. While held, he acknowledged the suzerainty of Ferdinand V over all Granada. This secured his release, whereupon his father, Abdul-Hassan, denounced the acknowledgment.

In the meantime, Ferdinand conducted a sweeping reorganization of his army, modeling it on French forces and adding contingents of highly capable Swiss mercenaries. Now Granada became the focus of an intensified Christian siege, both by land and sea. Isabella took active interest in the war, which she elevated to the stature of a religious crusade. In large part inspired by her, Castilian Christian forces took Ronda in May 1485 and Loja one year later. After Loja fell, the Spanish laid siege to Málaga, which was overrun and captured by Christian forces in August 1487, after a siege of four months. The Moors regrouped and consolidated their position in the fortresses of Baza and Almería. They held out in these strongholds for two years, but both finally succumbed to protracted Christian siege in 1489.

By 1490, all of southeastern Spain was under Castilian Christian control. Now Ferdinand focused all of his military effort against Boabdil, who was holed up with his Moorish forces in Granada. Ferdinand appealed to Boabdil to abide by his early acknowledgment of Christian suzerainty over Granada. When he refused, Ferdinand, with 50,000 troops, commenced a siege of the city on April 26, 1491. The Moors sortied out for an attack only once, then, starving, surrendered on November 25, 1491 (some sources put this at January 2, 1492). This victory ended Muslim rule in Spain.

Further reading: Olivia Remie Constable, ed., *Medieval Iberia: Readings from Christian, Muslim, and Jewish Sources* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1997); Stanley Lane-Poole, *Moors in Spain* (London: Darf, 1984); David Nicolle, *Moors: Islamic Spain 711–1492* (London: Osprey, 2001); Bernard F. Reilly, *Medieval Spains* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Colin Smith, ed., *Christians and Moors in Spain (1195–1614),* vol. 2 (Oakville, Conn.: David Brown Books, 1989).

Spanish Civil War (1820–1823)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Liberal forces (under Rafael del Riego y Núñez) vs. royalists (with French aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Spanish government
OUTCOME: The intervention of the French in 1823 turned the tide of this civil war against the forces of liberalism, and Ferdinand V was restored to his throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Riego's forces, 20,000; royalist numbers unknown, but French forces numbered 100,000.
CASUALTIES: Riego's forces, 600 killed, 2,900 wounded; royalist and French forces, 400 killed, 3,600 wounded
TREATIES: None

Ferdinand VII (1784–1833), reactionary, brutal, clumsy, and unpopular, rejected the reformist constitution of 1812, thereby provoking a simmering unrest throughout the nation and, in particular, within the ranks of the army. When Ferdinand decided to launch a campaign to retake the South American colonies Spain had lost to revolution—Argentina, Chile, Colombia, and Venezuela—he mustered an expeditionary force at Cadiz in January 1820. This proved a spectacular mistake. The troops were already discontented, and, at Cadiz, grew enraged by overcrowded camps, poor food, and withheld pay. Under Colonel Rafael del Riego y Núñez (1785–1823), they mutinied in the name of the Constitution of 1812. (The war is sometimes called the Riego Rebellion.) Abducting their commanding officer, the mutineers marched on the village of San Fernando, where they set up headquarters, then prepared to advance against the Spanish capital city of Madrid. Even before they began their march, however, Ferdinand VII relented and, on March 9, 1820, accepted the liberal 1812 constitution.

Thus far, the rebellion or civil war had been virtually bloodless; however, the king's embrace of the Constitution of 1812 and his consequent relinquishment of much of his power provoked a period of intrigue and conspiracy among royalists and liberals alike. During this time, leftist revolutionaries invaded the royal palace and held Ferdinand under house arrest for three years. Chaos intensified in Spain. Within the Madrid garrison there was a general mutiny, and Castile, Toledo, and Andalusia erupted into violent civil war.

Ferdinand VII, a prisoner, appealed to the Holy Alliance (Prussia, Russia, and Austria) for military assistance, but the alliance refused to intervene in a civil war. In October 1822, however, the Quadruple Alliance (France, Britain, Austria, and Holland) convened at the Congress of Verona, conferred upon France a mandate to invade Spain, crush the anti-royalist forces, and restore Ferdinand fully to his throne. France, no longer a revolutionary republic but now a reactionary monarchy, conducted the invasion with gusto, eager to restore an anointed monarch to his throne. The invasion (*see* FRANCO-SPANISH WAR [1823]) very quickly put Madrid in royalist hands and threw the insurgents southward, to Cadiz and Seville. The French made a concerted attack on Cadiz, entirely routing the anti-royalists. Ferdinand—whom the rebels had removed from Madrid—was rescued and restored to the throne. He decided to put an end to all reform. Unconditionally revoking the Constitution of 1812, he brought an end to constitutional government in Spain and reasserted absolute rule.

Further reading: Raymond Carr, *Spain, 1808–1975* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1990); Charles J. Esdaile, *Spain in the Liberal Age: From Constitution to Civil War, 1808–1939* (London: Blackwell, 2000); Christopher J. Ross, *Spain, 1812–1996* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000).

Spanish Civil War (1840–1843)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish royalists vs. Spanish liberals and anti-royalists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The war began in the cities, after Maria Cristina, regent to Isabella II, encroached upon local autonomy. The war soon became a full-scale civil conflict.
OUTCOME: Operating from exile, Maria Cristina managed to engineer the overthrow of the liberal government and the reinstatement of Isabella II.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but limited in this entr'acte between the First and Second Carlist Wars.
TREATIES: None

Following the First CARLIST WAR (1834–39), Maria Cristina, regent to the child-queen Isabella II (1830–1904), attempted to abrogate the Constitution of 1837 and bring the Spanish cities, which, under the constitution, enjoyed a degree of sovereignty and autonomy, under full royal control. This action touched off urban riots and full-scale rebellion, and ultimately compelled Maria Cristina to accept the even more liberal earlier Constitution of 1812. Even this was not sufficient, however, to quell the uprisings when Maria Cristina's government attempted to install its candidates into local city offices. When Maria Cristina ordered General Baldomero Espartero (1792–1879) to lead the army against the rebels, he refused and thereby gained election as ministerial president (effectively prime minister). Under his leadership, a series of reforms greatly constrained royal authority, prompting Maria Cristina to take young Queen Isabella with her and into French exile in October 1840. From this remove, Maria Cristina fomented a rebellion against Espartero, who, in the meantime, had rendered himself unpopular by assuming arbitrary and dictatorial powers.

Espartero's forces quelled uprisings at Pamplona in October 1841 and at Barcelona in December of the following year. Despite these defeats for the regent, her agents in Spain gave aid and support to Colonel Juan Prim y Prats (1814–70), who fomented an uprising in southern Spain during 1843.

Under ever-increasing pressure, Espartero lost political ground. Late in 1843, General Ramón María Narváez (1800–68) led an army from Valencia and marched against Madrid, carrying out a coup d'état against Espartero. He fled to England, and forces loyal to the regent and the young queen occupied the capital. In November 1843, 13-year-old Isabella was handed the reins of the Spanish government, with General Narváez as ministerial president. Little was permanently settled, however, and Spain would erupt into the highly destructive Second CARLIST WAR just three years later.

Further reading: Raymond Carr, *Spain, 1808–1975* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1990); Charles J. Esdaile, *Spain in the Liberal Age: From Constitution to Civil War, 1808–1939* (London: Blackwell, 2000); Jeremy MacClancy, *The Decline of Carlism* (Reno: University of Nevada Press, 2000); Christopher J. Ross, *Spain, 1812–1996* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000).

Spanish Civil War (1936–1939)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Fascist insurgents under Francisco Franco (backed by Germany and Italy) vs. the "Loyalist" government (backed by the Soviet Union and volunteers from Britain, France, and the United States, and including anti-fascist Italians and Germans)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: On July 18, 1936, General Francisco Franco entered into a conspiracy of military men and right-wing political conservatives to overthrow the ruling left-wing Popular Front, leading a mutiny against the government and touching off the Spanish civil war.
OUTCOME: The Loyalist government was crushed, Franco became dictator of Spain, and the major combatants in World War II had staged a "trial run" of the combat to come.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Franco, 775,000; Loyalists, 500,000; in addition, numerous foreign volunteers and regular forces participated
CASUALTIES: Difficult to calculate, but estimated at 110,000 killed in Franco's forces and 175,000 killed among the Loyalists; perhaps as many as 400,000 civilians died, most by execution, although some 15,000 were killed in air raids.
TREATIES: None

Constant bickering between the political extremes in Spain during the mid-1930s, exacerbated by the economic suffering during the worldwide Great Depression, doomed the centrist republic the Spanish had established in 1931. When the left-wing Popular Front won the elections in 1936, the new government insisted on radical social reforms that set the stage for a coup by the right-wing Falange, a fascist political party headed by General Francisco Franco.

THE RISE OF FRANCO

Francisco Paulino Hermenegildo Teodulo Franco-Bahamonde (1892–1975) was born on December 4, 1892. From an early age, he was destined for a military career, enrolling in the Toledo Academia de Infanteria in 1907 and graduating as a second lieutenant in 1910. Franco served with distinction in a 1912 war against Morocco, which led to his very rapid promotion. By 1920 he was deputy commander of the Spanish Foreign Legion in Morocco, serving with these forces during the Rif rebellion of Abd-el-Krim (1882–1963) during 1921–26. In 1923, he was promoted to full commander of the Foreign Legion, and in 1925 he was responsible for a brilliant assault on Alhucemas Bay that ultimately brought Spanish victory in the Rif War (1919–1926).

Franco's spectacular performance earned him the distinction of becoming Spain's youngest brigadier general in 1926, and two years later he took over as director of the Academia General Militar at Saragossa during the dictatorship of General Miguel Primo de Rivera (1870–1930). However, in 1931, after Republican forces overthrew the Spanish monarchy, Franco was accused of monarchist sympathies and was transferred to duty in the Balearic Islands. His reassignment effectively removed him until 1934 from participation in the military's many conspiracies against the new republic. That year, the government summoned him back to Spain to suppress a miners' revolt in Asturias, a mission that earned Franco the respect of the conservative right wing and the hatred of the left. With the conservative faction now on the rise, he was named chief of the general staff in 1935. But—such were the Spanish politics of a turbulent period—the following year the left-wing Popular Front gained a majority in the elections, and Franco was once again "exiled," this time to a command in the Canary Islands. Nevertheless, Franco was able to play a leading role in the military and conservative conspiracy that erupted, on July 18, 1936, into the Spanish civil war.

COURSE OF THE WAR

The war began when Franco flew to Morocco, took over the Spanish Foreign Legion garrison, and staged a revolt of army officers at Melilla. This revolt set off a series of others in army garrisons at Cadiz, Seville, Nourgos, Saragossa, Huesca, and elsewhere, and Franco airlifted a large contingent of the Foreign Legion to Spain in late July. These and other rebel troops, joined by insurgent "Nationalists," overwhelmed government forces to take control of Spain's south and west. During July and August, Franco led a motorized advance on Madrid but was repulsed by government forces during September and October. By then, the country was divided into government and Nationalist territories, and on September 29, 1936, the Nationalists established their own government, with Franco as head of state. In April 1937, Franco became head of the fascist Falange Party.

The Spanish civil war drew outside parties into a struggle between the political right and the political left, between fascism on the one hand and a range of left-wing political ideologies (from democracy to communism) on the other. The Falange gained support from Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany—40,000 to 60,000 Italian troops and some 20,000 Germans—whereas the government (or Loyalists, as they were often called) found support in thousands of volunteers from all over the world, including those from the United States who joined the famous Lincoln Brigade—perhaps 50,000 Soviet and communist-inspired "volunteers." They came to fight in a "just war" against the seemingly inexorable forces of fascism. Among the volunteers was Ernest Hemingway (1899–1961), whose novel *For Whom the Bell Tolls*—centered around a Lincoln Brigade protagonist and published in 1940—portrayed the bitter ironies and high idealism of the war.

It was these international brigades, supporting the Loyalists, that stymied Franco at Madrid. (The city would withstand a 28-month siege before capitulating). Meanwhile, Franco imposed a centralized, autocratic rule on those portions of Spain under his control, and Britain and

France initiated an official policy of nonintervention, which their own citizens, as well as those of the other powers, continued to violate. In addition to "volunteers" and troops, other countries sent weapons and supplies, especially Germany, Italy, and the Soviet Union, in support of the sides they favored. With the help of the Italians, the insurgents captured Malaga in February 1937. German aerial bombing infamously secured their occupation of Guernica and Durango in April, and the terror from the skies became the subject of one of Pablo Picasso's (1881–1973) best-known paintings. The Loyalists had other problems, many of them associated with sectarian strife in their own ranks and on the left. In May, they barely quelled an anarchist uprising in Barcelona, with much bloodshed and lingering ill will. The struggle forced the formation of a new Loyalist government, more under communist (read Stalinist) influence than ever.

Following an 80-day siege, on June 18, 1937, Bilbao fell to the rebels. A Loyalist counteroffensive captured Teruel late in the year, only to have it fall again to the insurgents in mid-February 1938. Then Joseph Stalin (1879–1953), his eyes steadily fixed on the USSR and its place in a dangerous world, halted Soviet aid to the communists fighting in Spain and, in fact, encouraged those under the influence of Moscow to betray their Popular Front comrades in any number of ways. Without support from the Soviets, leftist idealism proved no match against military aid to the right from Italy and Germany, and the Republican cause became hopeless. The fascists, holding much of Spain already, prepared a major offensive to capture Barcelona, seat of the Loyalist government since October 1937, and Franco's troops, assisted by the Italians, took the city on January 26, 1939. Loyalist resistance throughout Spain collapsed.

With the fall of Madrid on March 28, 1939, the Spanish civil war ended, the Falangists were established in power, and Franco became de facto dictator of Spain. Although he did not formally ally himself with his benefactors, Mussolini and Hitler, maintaining instead an official policy of neutrality, it was always clear where Franco's allegiance lay. He not only sent workers to Germany but created a volunteer Blue Division to fight for the Germans on the Russian front. It was not until the tide of the war manifestly turned against Germany that the ever-pragmatic Franco enforced a more genuine neutrality.

As to the Spanish civil war, for thousands of American, British, and other idealistic young men, it was the defining event of their generation—their opportunity to get into the fight against oppression and intolerance, in the form of fascism. For Italy and Germany, the conflict in Spain was not only an opportunity to secure a new ally, but also a convenient stage on which to rehearse for the much greater world war to come.

Despite pleas from the Western democracies, principally Britain and France, for moderation, a vengeful Falange set up fascist tribunals that summarily tried, convicted, and executed scores of Loyalists. Nevertheless, the United States recognized Franco's regime on April 1, 1939, mere days after the fall of Madrid.

Further reading: Antony Beevor, *The Spanish Civil War* (New York: Peter Bedrick Books, 1983); Burnett Bolloten, *The Spanish Civil War: Revolution and Counterrevolution* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1991); Ken Bradley, *The International Brigades in Spain, 1936–39* (London: Osprey, 1994); Vincent Brome, *The International Brigades: Spain, 1936–1939* (London: Heinemann, 1965); James Cortada, *Historical Dictionary of the Spanish Civil War, 1936–1939* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1982); Gabriel Jackson, *The Spanish Republic and the Civil War, 1931–1939* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1965); Arthur H. Landis, *The Abraham Lincoln Brigade* (New York: Citadel, 1967); David J. Mitchell, *The Spanish Civil War* (New York: Franklin Watts, 1982); Robert Payne, *The Civil War in Spain, 1936–1939* (New York: G. P. Putnam, 1962).

Spanish Civil Wars in Peru (1537–1548)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Francisco Pizarro vs. Diego de Almagro; Cristóbal Vaca de Castro vs. Almagro; Gonzalo Pizarro vs. Núñez Vela, viceroy of Peru
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peru
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of colonial Peru
OUTCOME: Gonzalo Pizarro emerged as governor of Peru.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Huarina (October 26, 1547), a total of 1,500 men were engaged.
CASUALTIES: Minimal, fewer than 100 total
TREATIES: None

The Spanish conquest of Peru in the 16th century was accompanied by internecine fighting within the colonial administration the conquistadores instituted. Even as the Spanish fought indigenous Indian resistance to conquest, they often vied with one another and, indeed, expended as much effort in such conflicts as in quelling native resistance.

Diego de Almagro (c. 1475–1538), one of the conquistadores, led an expedition in 1537 to rescue Cuzco, Peru, from Indian rebels. Once there, however, he laid claim to Cuzco and was opposed by the principal conquistador, Francisco Pizarro (c. 1475–1541), who took arms against him. Pizarro, after all, had commanded the garrison that had withstood the Indian attacks. After defeating Almagro at Las Salinas, on April 26, 1538, Pizarro executed him. Almagro's son, however, swore vengeance against Pizarro and, with a band of partisans, stormed Pizarro's palace on

June 26, 1541, and assassinated him. The young Almagro proclaimed himself governor.

In response to what was now clearly a rebellion, the Spanish government dispatched Cristóbal Vaca de Castro (d. c. 1571) to Peru as the new royal governor on September 16, 1542. Accompanied by a military force, Castro restored order in Peru by 1542 and saw to the execution of Almagro's son. In 1544, the Spanish king sent a viceroy to Peru, Blasco Núñez Vela (d. 1546), whose mandate was to curtail the virtually limitless power of the conquistadores by enforcing a set of so-called New Laws, which not only reined in the conquistadores but also guaranteed the Indians certain rudimentary rights. Predictably, the presence of Núñez angered and antagonized the conquistadores, one of whom, Gonzalo Pizarro (c. 1506–1548), younger brother of the assassinated Francisco, led a successful rebellion against Núñez, whose forces were defeated at the Battle of Anaquito on January 8, 1546. The defeat of the viceroy was decisive, Núñez himself was executed, and Gonzalo Pizarro claimed the post of Peruvian governor.

The following year, the Spanish Crown sent Pedro de la Gasca (1494–1565) to Peru to counter what was seen as Gonzalo Pizarro's insurgency. With 500 men, Gonzalo Pizarro defeated 1,000 under Gasca at Huarina on October 26, 1547. On April 9, 1548, however, Gasca led 2,000 men against Gonzalo Pizarro at Xaquixaguana. Pizarro was defeated, captured, and executed, thereby bringing the civil wars to an end.

Further reading: Kenneth J. Andrien, *Andean Worlds: Indigenous History, Culture, and Consciousness under Spanish Rule, 1532–1825* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 2001); Rafael Varon Gabai, *Francisco Pizarro and His Brothers: The Illusion of Power in Sixteenth-Century Peru* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1999); William H. Prescott, *The History of the Conquest of Peru* (1847; reprint, New York: Random House, 1998).

Spanish Conquest of Chile (1540–1561)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish conquistadores vs. Araucanian Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chile
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spain sought to suppress Indian resistance to conquest.
OUTCOME: The conquest proceeded, but warfare remained chronic.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 3,000 maximum; Araucanian forces, 200,000
CASUALTIES: Spain, hundreds lost; Araucanians, approximately 130,000 killed between 1554 and 1557, the era of most intense conflict.
TREATIES: None

The conquistador Pedro de Valdivia (c. 1500–1553) led the first campaigns of conquest in Chile, which soon became a long series of wars between the invaders and the Araucanian Indians. After Valdivia was killed in battle in 1553, Spanish leadership was assumed by Garcia Hurtado de Mendoza (1535–1609).

The first major Araucanian assault came in July 1541 against the newly founded settlement of Santiago. The Spaniards withdrew from the town and took refuge on a nearby island for two years until a relief force arrived from Peru. Valdivia launched a new campaign against the Indians in 1550 but fell in battle with 50 of his men on December 24, 1553.

War was chronic throughout the 16th century—and, indeed, Araucanian resistance to Spain continued for 300 years, then continued even against the government of independent Chile until 1882. However, the major fighting ended in 1561, by which time Spain had general control over the region.

The biggest battle was fought at Mataquito (Peteroa) in April 1557 (700–800 Araucanians were killed, along with their leader Lautaro [d. 1557]), but between 1554 and 1557 it is estimated that some 130,000 Araucanians were killed out of a total population of 400,000.

Further reading: María de Jesús de Cordero, *Transformations of Araucania from Valdivia's Letters to Valdivia's Chronicle* (New York: P. Lang, 2001); Hugh R. S. Pocock, *The Conquest of Chile* (New York: Stein and Day, 1967).

Spanish Conquest of Cuba (1511–1515)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. indigenous people of Cuba
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cuba
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Culmination of Spanish conquest of Cuba
OUTCOME: Indian resistance was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Spanish conquest of Cuba proceeded steadily in a series of brutal sweeps through the island by a small band of conquistadores under Diego de Velázquez (c. 1460–c. 1524), colonial governor of Hispaniola. There were no set-piece battles in what amounted to a campaign of relentless pacification that ended when anything resembling organized resistance ceased, in 1515.

Further reading: J. M. Cohan, tr., *Conquest of New Spain by Bernal Diaz del Castillo* (New York: Penguin, 1972); Jaime Suchlicki, *Cuba: From Columbus to Castro and Beyond* (New York: Brassey's, 1997).

Spanish Conquest of Mexico (1519–1521)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. Aztec Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spanish conquistador Hernán Cortés sought to conquer and plunder the Aztec Empire under Moctezuma II (Montezuma).
OUTCOME: The Aztec Empire was destroyed, Moctezuma killed, and the Aztecs enslaved to Spain's New World empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Cortés, 600 men; Aztecs, unknown, but far more than Cortés
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When the European mercantile powers began exploring the Western Hemisphere in the 16th century, few New World expeditions, Spanish or otherwise, actually turned up gold, but a handful of discoveries were sufficient to fuel further expeditions. The most celebrated "discoveries" were those of Hernán Cortés (1485–1547).

In 1519, Cortés landed a small force of 600 at what is today Veracruz, Mexico, where he was greeted by ambassadors of the Indian king Moctezuma II (c. 1480–1520). They bore lavish gifts intended to appease, but Cortés only demanded more. In search of gold, Cortés marched upon Tenochtitlán—capital city of a people who called themselves variously the Mexicas, or the Aztecs. He launched his march by boring holes in the hulls of his own ships (he told his men it was the work of worms) so that there could be no turning back. Along the way to Tenochtitlán, he recruited allies among the ever-warring city-states of the far-flung and much-resented Aztec Empire. Despite widespread hatred of the Aztec rulers, recruitment was not always a peaceful exercise. The people of Cholula were won over only after Cortés slaughtered 3,000 of them in two hours.

Perhaps at the news of this, Moctezuma lost any heart he may have had for a fight. Perhaps he believed Cortés to be the incarnation of the birdlike god Quetzalcoatl, who created man out of his own blood. In any case, he opened his magnificent city to them.

As far as anyone can tell, the Aztec Empire as Cortés found it in 1519 was relatively new. Before the 14th century, the Aztec appear to have been only one among several nomadic tribes wandering through Central America. Just as Spanish imperial ambitions claimed inspiration from the word of God, so the Aztecs claimed to have heeded the word and commandment of the war god Huitzilopochtli, who enjoined the tribe to conquer all about them and harvest the blood of the conquered. Thus driven, within the space of two centuries, the demands and the fruits of continual warfare created a vast, complex empire of dark beauty, extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific and from the Valley of Mexico south into Guatemala.

It is possible that the conquest of this Aztec Empire, might have been accomplished without wholesale killing had another European not appeared on the scene. Cuba's governor Pánfilo de Narváez (c. 1470–1528) was both inept and jealous of Hernán Cortés. Narváez conducted an expedition from Cuba to Mexico, intending to arrest his rival conquistador for overstepping the authority granted him. Cortés set out from Tenochtitlán to meet the governor's forces, leaving the imperial city in the hands of one Pedro de Alvarado (1485–1541). Overcoming Narváez's army proved no great task; Cortés suborned 900 of his opponent's men and employed them in defeating the balance of the expeditionary army. Narváez lost an eye in the battle, and it was he—not Cortés—who was placed under arrest.

While Spaniard fought Spaniard in the Mexican countryside, Alvarado, back in Tenochtitlán, initiated an action that was to typify white-Indian relations for the next four centuries. He turned his soldiers on the people, giving them leave to slaughter all men, women, and children. This provoked the people, who had so far meekly submitted to conquest, to rise up in heated rebellion. They laid siege to the palace where the Spaniards had taken refuge and where soldiers now held Moctezuma captive. Returning in the midst of this rebellion, Cortés took charge of his men and fought his way into and then out of the palace and city, plundering what he could as he went. During the evacuation—on June 30, 1520, called by the Spanish the *Noche Triste* (Sad Night)—Moctezuma was murdered. Spanish accounts claimed he had been assassinated by his own people; the Aztecs attributed his death to the Spanish.

Cortés was after more than an emperor's head and the palace loot. After crushing a revolt at Otumba on July 7, the conquistador prepared to retake Tenochtitlán. Ten months after the Spanish fled the city, they returned to besiege it, destroying Tenochtitlán's aqueducts and choking off the supply of food. The Aztecs held out for three months, but what thirst and starvation failed to do, smallpox—apparently carried to Mexico by a black slave in the service of Narváez—accomplished. On August 13, 1521, the city fell. Tenochtitlán, and all Mexico, belonged to Hernán Cortés and, of course, his Most Catholic Majesty, King Charles I (1500–58).

Tenochtitlán had been greatly reduced by three months of starvation and pestilence, but what remained, Cortés looted. He enslaved large numbers of Aztecs, branding each of them—probably the first instance of this most "Western" means of identifying chattel. He tortured the new king, Cuauhtemoc (c. 1495–1525)—successor to Cuitlahuac (dead of smallpox), who had succeeded Moctezuma—in an effort to recover the hoard of silver and gold Cortés had left behind in his hasty withdrawal from the city, but to no avail. Nevertheless, Cortés would make a fortune from the mining operations that yielded tin, iron, and other metals, and from harvests of cocoa and cotton he extorted as tribute from the vanquished Aztecs.

Further reading: Inga Clendennen, *The Aztecs* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991); William Hickling Prescott, *History of the Conquest of Mexico* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1873); Hugh Thomas, *Conquest: Montezuma, Cortés, and the Fall of Old Mexico* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1995); Tzvetan Todorov, *The Conquest of America* (New York: Harper and Row, 1984).

Spanish Conquest of New Mexico (1595–1628)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Colonizers under Juan de Oñate vs. Acoma Pueblo Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): New Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Oñate led an expedition into today's American Southwest to colonize the region.
OUTCOME: The Indians of the Southwest became subjects of the Spanish *encomienda* system.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain: 400; Pueblo and other Indians, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1595, the Spanish Crown authorized an expedition north from Mexico. Don Juan de Oñate (c. 1550–1630), born in western Mexico, the son of a rich mine owner, led this effort to explore and colonize the upper Rio Grande. In return for its permission to do so, the Crown forced him to spend a major portion of his substantial personal fortune—some half a million pesos—on the expedition. After three years of preparation, he set out in the spring of 1598, heading north in the historic tracks of Francisco Coronado (c. 1510–54) with 400 men, women, and children, 7,000 head of stock, and approximately 80 wagons.

On April 30, Oñate reached present-day El Paso, Texas, and claimed for his king all of what he called "New Mexico," a province stretching from Texas through California. Oñate marched farther north, colonizing the pueblo country in earnest. Of all the pueblo towns, only one, Acoma, in western New Mexico, offered serious resistance.

Perched atop a steep-walled mesa, the pueblo village made a formidable objective. Yet Oñate's troops fought their way to the top, killed most of the town's warriors, and took 500 women and children captive. A few men over the age of 25 also had been captured. For their bravery in defending Acoma, Oñate sentenced them to the loss of one foot and 20 years of enslavement. He spared the women—and the children over 12—their hands and feet but made them slaves as well. He turned the children under 12 years of age over to the priests. Two Hopis had been visiting Acoma during the siege, innocent of everything but being in the wrong place at the wrong time. Still, Oñate chopped off their right hands and sent them home, a warning to *their* pueblo about the consequences of fighting back.

For 15 years Oñate treated the Indians he had conquered so harshly that eventually the clerics who had accompanied him into "New Mexico" brought him before a Spanish court on charges of brutality and illegal enslavement. Found guilty, Oñate was fined and stripped of all honors, and the notion of large-scale settlement of "New Mexico" was abandoned. All during the Spanish colonial period, the region remained nothing more than a sparsely settled frontier.

Further reading: George P. Hammond and Rey Agapito, eds. and trans., *Don Juan de Oñate: Colonizer of New Mexico: 1595–1628* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1953); Marc Simmons, *The Last Conquistador: Juan de Oñate and the Settling of the Far Southwest* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1991); David J. Weber, *The Spanish Frontier in North America* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1992).

Spanish Conquest of Nicaragua (1522–1523)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. indigenous peoples of Nicaragua
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nicaragua
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Nicaragua was pacified and conquered.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As with the SPANISH CONQUEST OF CUBA, that of Nicaragua proceeded rapidly and not as a result of any particular battle or battles, but through a general pacification sweep and demonstration of force led by Gil Gonzalez Dávila (dates unknown) and Alonzo Niño (dates unknown).

Further reading: Charles Loftus Grant Anderson, *Old Panama and Castilla Del Oro: Narrative History of the Discovery, Conquest, and Settlement by the Spaniards of Panama, Darien, Veragua, Santo Domingo, Santa Marta, Cartagena, Nicaragua, and Peru* (London: Best Books, n.d.); Michael Wood, *Conquistadores* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001).

Spanish Conquest of the North American Southeast (1539–1543)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conquistadores under Hernando de Soto vs. Cherokees, Seminoles, Creeks, Appalachians,

Choctaws Chickasaws, Tuscaloosas, and other tribes of Indians in the southeastern region of North America
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Georgia, the Carolinas, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest and enrichment
OUTCOME: Thousands of Indians were slaughtered; de Soto lost half his men and his own life; no riches were acquired, but de Soto "discovered" for Spanish purposes the Mississippi River.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spanish: 1,000; Indians: unknown, but in the tens of thousands
CASUALTIES: Spanish: 500 killed, 1,000 wounded; Indians: unknown, but 10,000 Tuscaloosas alone were killed at Mobile
TREATIES: None

Before retiring to Seville, the conquistador Hernando de Soto (c. 1496–1542) had taken part in the Spanish invasions of Central America and become Francisco Pizzaro's (c. 1475–1541) second in command during the SPANISH CONQUEST OF PERU The wealth he brought home with him made him a gentleman and a good marriage, but when he read Cabeza de Vaca's (c. 1490–1560) exaggerated claims of the riches of the vast region the Spanish then called Florida (Florida, the Carolinas, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee), de Soto's lust for gold was rekindled. He sold all his property to equip himself for a conquest of the region, an expedition Spanish king Charles I (1500–1558), to whom de Soto had lent money, was happy to endorse, naming de Soto *adelantado* of Florida and governor of Cuba.

De Soto's small armada of 10 ships, containing 1,000 fighting men and eight secular priests, two Dominicans, a Franciscan, and a Trinitarian, made landfall in the Canary Islands on Easter Sunday, 1538, then sailed on for Cuba, where the new governor replenished his supplies and collected horses for his Florida expedition. He put one of his men in charge of local security and his wife in charge of state in Cuba and, ready at last, set sail in nine ships for the Florida gulf coast. The expedition landed two leagues from a local Indian village, Apalache (near present-day Tallahassee, Fla.), on Friday, May 18, 1539, where it wintered before spreading north and west into wild and unknown country. It would pass through lands already made hostile by the invasions of Pánfilo de Narváez (c. 1478–1528) (*see* SPANISH CONQUEST OF NORTH MEXICO [NORTH AMERICA]) and be told lies about vast wealth further on by Indians anxious to see them gone. Wandering aimlessly for three years, they would grow ever more frustrated and ever more brutal in their treatment of the North American Natives, with whom they would be, not surprisingly, constantly at war.

In March 1540, de Soto explored eastern and northern Georgia, then worked his way southwesterly through the Carolinas and Tennessee, led by Native guides he abducted along the way. Though he failed to find the gold he sought, he did collect a rich assortment of pearls at a place called Cofitachequi, in present-day eastern Georgia. Near Lookout Mountain, in southeastern Tennessee, de Soto and his men turned southward into Alabama and headed toward Mobile Bay, where they expected to rendezvous with their ships. But when he reached the province of Tuscaloosa in southern Alabama, where he had been told there was immense wealth, he ran into a huge confederation of hostile Indians at the fortified Indian town of Mauvila (near present-day Mobile), who offered the Spanish a more stubborn resistance than de Soto had yet to encounter. The Indians attacked the Spaniards in October 1540, in a battle that lasted nine hours. Though the Spanish ultimately prevailed, the fight cost them dearly. They lost nearly 70 men and almost all the 1,000 Spaniards—officers and soldiers alike—were wounded. In the end, however, these were as nothing compared to the Indian losses: 11,000 Indians were killed in the battle, and Mauvila was destroyed by a fire that also consumed the provisions of the Spaniards. If the Indians were decimated, the Spanish were severely crippled, losing most of their equipment and all their pearls.

De Soto spent a month resting and restoring his troops before turning north once again and heading inland to replenish his treasures. It was a fateful decision, with dire consequences. News traveled faster than Europeans could imagine among Native peoples and, moving northwest through Alabama and then west through Mississippi, de Soto's party was attacked relentlessly by Indians. On May 21, 1541, the Spaniards saw for the first time the Mississippi River, the "Father of Waters" south of what is now Memphis, Tennessee. They crossed the river and tramped through Arkansas and Louisiana. Then, early in 1542, de Soto turned back to the Mississippi. Overcome by fever, he died in Louisiana, and his comrades buried his body beneath the waters of the great river. A remnant of the expedition (half the original party) made its way down the Mississippi on rafts, reaching Mexico in 1543.

Further reading: Miguel Albornoz, *Hernando de Soto: Knight of the Americas* (New York: F. Watts, 1986); John R. Swanton, ed. *Final Report of the United States De Soto Expedition Commission* (Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution Press, reprint 1985).

Spanish Conquest of North Mexico (North America) (1527–1537)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conquistadores under Pánfilo de Narváez and Álvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca vs. various Indians of the American gulf coast and Southwest

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gulf coast region of the American Southwest
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The first Europeans to wander into the area we call today the American Southwest were lost. They served under Pánfilo de Narváez, who set out from Cuba in 1527 on an ill-fated Florida expedition, hoping to plunder the gulf coast.
OUTCOME: Narváez's ships sank, most of his men died, and Narváez himself vanished at sea. Only a small band of his men survived. Led by Narváez's second-in-command, Álvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca, they found themselves shipwrecked somewhere along the bleak expanses of the Texas coast. Nearly a decade later, the survivors straggled in to Mexico City.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 400 Spaniards
CASUALTIES: All but four Spaniards; Indian casualties unknown.
TREATIES: None

Spanish conquistador Pánfilo de Narváez (c. 1478–1528) would prove to be as incompetent as he was covetous, and he had been most covetous of the conquests of Hernán Cortés (1485–1547). In 1520, under orders from Diego de Velázquez (c. 1460–1524?), governor of Hispaniola, Narváez had led an expedition from Cuba to Mexico intending to arrest Cortés for overstepping the authority granted him by Spain, only to be defeated and taken prisoner by the great conquistador (*see* SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO).

Cortés's conquest would stimulate booty-seeking expeditions into the borderlands of the Spanish Empire, in what today is the southwestern United States. The earliest of these was led by Narváez, freed after a year in captivity under Cortés. Narváez was made governor of Cuba, which only fed the growing competition between Mexico and Cuba for exploration and conquest of North America.

In 1527 Narváez received a royal commission to subdue and plunder Florida, which, to the Spanish, meant everything north of the land Cortés had taken from the Aztecs. Narváez's second-in-command was Álvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca (c. 1490–1560), who kept an account of the expedition, and who was probably the first European to travel extensively among the peoples of today's American Southwest.

Like others who would seek to eclipse the glory of Cortés, Narváez failed to realize that the conquest of Mexico had not merely been a matter of appropriating territory. Cortés had first looted, then exploited a great civilization, and a great civilization is—among other things—a nexus of immense wealth. In contrast, the borderlands that lay north of this civilization were for the most part populated by small groups struggling to survive.

Obsessed by dreams of wealth and renown, more eager than ever to outshine Cortés, Narváez combined all the rapacity of his more famous rival with his own manifest lack of courage and tactical skill. Unwilling to acknowledge the reality of the new lands he explored, Narváez seemed almost determined to stumble into disaster. Cabeza de Vaca, already a war hero and himself apparently accustomed to command, chafed under the incompetent leadership of Narváez from the start.

Narváez and Cabeza de Vaca set sail on June 17, 1527, from the port of San Lucar de Barrameda with 600 men. They arrived in Santo Domingo two months later, and their troubles began immediately. During the month and a half the expedition spent on the island gathering provisions and rounding up horses, 140 men deserted to live with the Indians. After a stop in Santiago de Cuba, where Narváez recruited replacements, he sent Cabeza de Vaca with two of the expedition's ships to Trinidad, Cuba, for more supplies. A hurricane wrecked both ships, killing 60 men and 20 horses. After a four-month delay, the expedition set out for the mainland with 400 men and 80 horses. The ships promptly ran aground on shoals off the western point of Cuba, stranding the entire party for 15 days—until yet another storm floated them off.

It was the middle of April 1528, when the expedition at last touched Florida. Of the 80 horses, only 42 had survived the storms and other rigors of the sea passage—and most of those were too starved and exhausted to be of much use. But the men found a gold rattle amid some Indian fish nets, and that was motivation enough for Narváez. In a brief solemn ceremony, he claimed the country for the king of Spain, then decided to march inland while the ships continued to coast on to a port. Cabeza de Vaca argued that the pilots knew of no such port, that under no circumstances should the expedition forsake its ships before they rested in a secure harbor and knew precisely where they were, that the expedition would want for horses and, lacking an interpreter, could not even count on communication with the Indians, and that supplies were insufficient for a march to ports unknown. Far better, Cabeza de Vaca insisted, to reembark, find a port, secure it, and then set out in search of gold. Narváez would have none of it. Leading his troops too far inland for resupply from the sea, Narváez lost touch entirely with the vessels that might have rescued him, just as Cabeza de Vaca had predicted, and those ships soon set sail for home.

When Narváez reached the promised land of Apalachen, he dispatched 50 foot soldiers and nine cavalrymen to invade the village. They found only women and boys in a dirt-poor town. The Spaniards strutted about the settlement until the menfolk appeared. Apparently having returned from hunting, the men of the village discharged a few arrows (one of which killed a horse), then fled. It was not much of a battle, but when the conquistadores learned that Apalachen was the largest and richest village in the country, they were crushed. The conquistadores wandered about the Florida panhandle for the better part of the summer. Malaria, complicated by dysentery, disabled a

third of the men by the beginning of August. Concluding they were doomed if they remained in the area, the conquistadores made efforts to return to Mexico. All but Cabeza de Vaca perished in the attempt.

See also SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE NORTH AMERICAN SOUTHEAST.

Further reading: Cyclone Covey, ed., *Cabaza de Vaca's Adventures in the Unknown Interior of America* (New York: Collier, 1961); Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod, *Encyclopedia of the American West* (New York: Macmillan, 1996); David J. Weber, *The Spanish Frontier in North America* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1992).

Spanish Conquest of Peru (1531–1533)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish conquistadores vs. the Inca
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peru
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Spanish sought to conquer Peru, then exploit the Inca Empire for natural resources and slave labor.
OUTCOME: The Spanish conquered Peru, then fell to fighting among themselves.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spanish, 164; Inca, potentially some 20,000 warriors, but few actually took up arms
CASUALTIES: Inca lost 4,000 killed at Teocajas on May 3, 1534; Spanish losses were 4 killed.
TREATIES: None

The only Spanish conquistador to rival Hernán Cortés (1485–1547) in his New World adventures (*see* SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO) was Francisco Pizarro (c. 1475–1541), who twice attempted to invade the Inca lands of Peru, which, like Mexico, were rich in gold medallions and ornaments, in the 1520s. He succeeded upon a third try in 1531, when he sailed south from Darien (Panama) and landed at Tumbez (San Miguel) on the Pacific coast, just south of the equator, with a force of 180 men, 27 horses, and two cannon. There he waited for reinforcements to arrive under Diego de Almagro (c.1475–1538), then advanced inland with 62 cavalry and 102 infantry toward Cuzco, the Inca capital.

In order to effect his conquest, Pizarro brilliantly exploited the volatile political situation of Peru, which was plagued by civil and intertribal warfare between factions allied to rival heirs to the chieftainship. The conquistador told each group he met along his way that he had come as an enemy of the other, and he therefore proceeded essentially unopposed. At Cajamarca, on the way up the Andes to Cuzco, Pizarro encountered and pretended friendship for Atahualpa (c. 1500–1533), one of the contenders to the chieftainship, who boasted some 30,000 followers. When Pizarro's men began plundering Cajamarca, Pizarro negotiated an alliance with Atahualpa's brother and rival, Huascar (d. 1532), even as Atahualpa secretly worked to muster an army to expel the Spaniards. Before the Incan could assemble such a force, however, Pizarro lured him with 3,500 mostly unarmed men to the great square at Cajamarca on November 16, 1532. There Atahualpa—after listening to Pizarro's exhortations that the "emperor" become a Christian—made a great show of scornfully flinging the Bible to the ground, whereupon Pizarro's men opened fire from all sides, cutting the Incas to pieces, as Pizarro himself grabbed Atahualpa. He held the Inca chief for an outrageous ransom: one roomful of gold and another of silver. Incredibly, the ransom was delivered, but instead of releasing Atahualpa, Pizarro put him on trial for usurpation, idolatry, and polygamy. Pizarro found Atahualpa guilty and ordered his execution by strangulation on January 26, 1533.

Initially, the conquest of Peru proceeded more easily than that of Aztec Mexico. Maintaining control over the conquered territory, however, proved much harder. Though he moved against Cuzco, the Inca capital, which fell without bloodshed in November 1533, and thereby placed Pizarro briefly in control of the Inca Empire, the Incas soon revolted. Moreover, rivals to Pizarro—including Almagro—curried favor with contending Inca factions, maintaining the countryside in a state of continual warfare for years.

The next Inca stronghold to fall after Cuzco was Teocajas. On May 3, the Inca chief Ruminavi (d. 1534) was defeated and killed in battle here, when a mere 200 conquistadores inflicted 4,000 deaths, defeating an Inca force of 50,000. Spanish losses were 4 killed. Quito fell the next month. Almagro, who headed into Chile during July 1535, would soon return to Peru to plague Pizarro with civil war.

See INCA REVOLT; SPANISH CIVIL WARS IN PERU.

Further reading: Kenneth J. Andrien, *Andean Worlds: Indigenous History, Culture, and Consciousness under Spanish Rule, 1532–1825* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 2001); Rafael Varon Gabai, *Francisco Pizarro and His Brothers: The Illusion of Power in Sixteenth-Century Peru* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1999); William H. Prescott, *The History of the Conquest of Peru* (1847; reprint, New York: Random House, 1998).

Spanish Conquest of Puerto Rico (1508–1511)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Conquistadores vs. the Arawak Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Puerto Rico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spanish conquest of Puerto Rico
OUTCOME: The conquistadores prevailed, although they failed to stamp out all Indian resistance.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Conquistadores, 120 men committed to combat; Arawak Indian strength is unknown.
CASUALTIES: Arawak casualties were heavy, certainly in the hundreds.
TREATIES: None

The conquistador Juan Ponce de León (c. 1460–1521) explored Puerto Rico (called by the Spanish version of its native name, "Boriquen") and encountered the Arawak Indians, who welcomed him and his men. Soon, however, relations with the Arawaks deteriorated, as the Spanish, conforming to their ethic of conquest, pressed the Arawaks into quasi-slavery as gold miners. This abuse provoked desultory uprisings from 1508 to 1511, when the Arawak *cacique* (chief) Agueybana II (d. 1511) planned a major rebellion to encompass all of the island. Unfortunately for the Arawaks, Ponce de León's informant network tipped him off to the plan; the conquistador, with 120 men, launched a preemptive attack, descending on the camp of Agueybana by night, attacking him and his men, then turning their wrath indiscriminately against every Indian they could find.

During the mayhem, Agueybana escaped, rallied surviving forces, and attacked the Spanish, but was defeated. Agueybana fell in the battle. Many of the survivors were intimidated into making peace with Ponce de León, while others escaped to nearby islands and united with the Caribs, their traditional enemies, against the invaders.

Further reading: Arturo Morales Carrion, *Puerto Rico: A Political and Cultural History* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1990); Olga Jimenez De Wagenheim, *Puerto Rico: An Interpretive History from Precolumbian Times to 1900* (Princeton, N.J.: Markus Wiener, 1996); David J. Weber, *The Spanish Frontier in North America* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1992).

Spanish Conquest of Sicily and Naples

(1733) *See* SPANISH SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE.

Spanish Conquest of South Mexico and Mesoamerica

See SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO; SPANISH CONQUEST OF NICARAGUA; SPANISH CONQUEST OF YUCATAN.

Spanish Conquest of the Pueblos (1540–1542)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish conquistadores (with Indian allies) vs. Pueblo Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): American Southwest
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The conquests of Cortés and Pizarro in Central and South America stimulated hopeful Spanish expeditions north into the area of the present United States. Here the conquistadores met with no civilizations comparable to those of the Aztecs or Incas, but they did encounter persistent legends of gold and vague references to the Seven Cities of Cibola. These rumors and myths of untold riches were sufficient to fuel a series of expeditions culminating in the 1540–42 explorations of Vásquez de Coronado, who penetrated as far as present Kansas and who roamed throughout the Southwest.
OUTCOME: Coronado found only poor pueblo-dwelling Indians, whom he conquered and abandoned to a few priests.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spanish, 600; Spanish-allied Indians, 50,000; Pueblo rebels, 12,000–22,000
CASUALTIES: Pueblos, 12,500 captured, of whom many were subsequently executed. Losses among the Spanish and their Indian allies are not known.
TREATIES: None

One of the Spanish soldiers of fortune—called *conquistadores*—much influenced by Cabeza de Vaca's (c. 1490–c. 1560) account of the Narváez expedition (*see* Spanish CONQUEST OF NORTH MEXICO) was Don Francisco Vásquez de Coronado (c. 1510–54). Born about 1510 in Salamanca, Spain, the second son of a noble family, Coronado had sailed for Mexico at age 25. There, he married into a socially prominent and wealthy family, quickly earning the respect of his contemporaries and appointment as a councilman in Mexico City. In 1538, he was elevated to governor of New Spain.

In the years since Pánfilo de Narváez (c. 1478–1528) had first launched his expedition into the Floridas, the conquistador Francisco Pizarro (c. 1475–1541) had destroyed the Incas in Peru and looted yet another great Indian culture (*see* SPANISH CONQUEST OF PERU), proving, if nothing else, that Cortés's conquest (*see* SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO) was no fluke—there was indeed more than one fortune to be found in the Americas. If there were fabulously wealthy civilizations south of Mexico, why not in the Northern Mystery—as the Spaniards had taken to calling the vast unknown region above the Rio Grande—as well?

In 1539, Coronado arranged for Estevanico (c. 1500–1539), the black Moorish slave, also known as Estéban, who had returned to Mexico City with Cabeza de Vaca, to lead a Franciscan friar, Marcos de Niza (c. 1495–1558), on a reconnaissance of the cities Cabeza de Vaca had heard about that lay farther to the north. In the minds of many, these cities already rivaled the capitals of Aztec Mexico and Incan Peru. Serving as Coronado's advance guard,

Father Marcos was to prepare the way peacefully for the large expedition to follow.

But Estevanico had other plans. Scouting ahead of the friar and his retinue, he traveled from village to village demanding turquoise and women, until a tribe of Zuñis, angered by his actions, decided to tolerate him no longer. They executed him as a spy (which, technically, he was). Fray Marcos managed to draw within sight of the pueblo where Estevanico met his fate; he returned to Coronado nevertheless with more tales of great Indian wealth awaiting. He spoke of the (literally) fabulous seven cities of Cibola, the smallest of which, he claimed, was larger than Mexico City.

What he had actually seen—at a distance—was the crowded independent Zuñi pueblo of Hawikuh, which boasted a population of, at most, 800 Indians. It was but one of perhaps 130 such villages, each inhabited by from around 400 to around 2,000 natives. His report, however, struck a chord with Coronado and company, all of whom had been reared on the seven-cities legend.

Coronado intended to conquer such cities and appropriate their gold, but he took pride in the notion that he was no butcher like Cortés. As he gathered the forces for his expedition in February 1540 at the provincial capital of Compostela, he talked of avoiding the cruelties of the conquest of Mexico. He personally screened each volunteer, outfitting poor but worthy adventurers from his own purse with the advances they needed to buy horse, weapons, and equipment. Six months and 52,000 ducats later he was still telling the 300 Spanish men-at-arms, 240 cavalrymen, 600 foot soldiers, and some 800 local Indian "allies" (plus Fray Marcos and a few friars) that his was to be a "peaceful conquest," the oxymoronic dream of many an imperialist to come.

Coronado was a man of his times, preferring to think of himself as a beneficent conqueror, bringing civilization to the continent's "pagan" populace. After marching four months along Indian trails, across deserts, and over mountains, he and his men finally came into view of Hawikuh. He promptly sent a vanguard of 75 horsemen and 25 foot soldiers to the Zuñi village to announce that he, Coronado, was claiming the area for his king, the Holy Roman Emperor, based on His Holiness the pope's donation of the entire hemisphere to Iberia. The Indians had best come down, submit to the Spanish Crown, and adopt Christianity, or he, Coronado, would be forced to make war against them.

To the Zuñis—who had heard neither of kings nor popes—Coronado's high-minded rhetoric, even had they understood it, would no doubt have sounded at best like bluster. They refused to allow these strangers to enter their pueblo. The Indians who had come out to meet Coronado began throwing stones and shooting arrows at his troops.

In response and—according to Coronado—with the approval of the priests, the Spaniards shouted "Santiago!"—a battle cry invoking the patron saint they believed had made them victors over the Moors—and charged. A dozen or so Zuñis fell under lance or gunshot, and the rest escaped up the ladders of their pueblo. As the Zuñis hurled rocks down from the ramparts, they managed twice to knock Coronado to the ground, but—protected by his helmet—he was unharmed. Better armed and armored, the Spanish soon overran the village.

Apparently, Coronado's conquest of the American West was not going to be so peaceful as he supposed—nor, perhaps, so rewarding. The fabled Seven Cities of Gold he sought turned out to be nothing more than a collection of impoverished villages. While waiting for his main force to join him at Hawikuh, Coronado ordered his vanguard to pacify the other villages of "Cibola." Showing little of the beneficence he had promised back in Mexico, he forced levies from the Zuñi and evicted them from their homes to quarter his men. When some of the men at Tiguex tired of the levies and struck back by killing a few Spanish horses, Coronado besieged and burned the pueblo, then burned the Zuñis who survived the siege. When the Spaniards heard from some of the Zuñis about a "rich" province to the north, their dreams of gold were rekindled. However, a hastily dispatched expedition of 20 men found only more pueblos, these belonging to the Hopis.

Coronado wintered among the Pueblos. He sent parts of his army a little farther north along the Rio Grande into Tiwa country. Searching each village they came upon, the Spaniards raided the pueblo of Alcanfor, looting food and clothes, raping Indian women, and destroying Indian crops. When the nearby village of Arenal fought back, the soldiers razed it, burned 100 Indians at the stake, and killed dozens of others. In the winter of 1540–41, Coronado's forces destroyed 12 villages and a number of Pueblos in the Sangre de Cristo Mountains.

Coronado's men returned with some hides, a few turquoise gifts, and—what was most encouraging to Coronado—more tales of a fabulously wealthy kingdom somewhere to the north and east. A Pawnee captive of the Tiwas, whom the Iberians called "the Turk," spoke of a great river and of the opulent kingdom of Quivira, his homeland, to which he would be glad to lead the Spaniards.

Luckily for the Zuñi and the Hopi, Coronado took the Turk's bait in the spring. He chased his dreams of fame and fortune throughout the summer and fall. But instead of a great river he found a huge gash in the earth, the Grand Canyon. Instead of Quivira, he found—beyond an ocean of grass he had to navigate with a compass—a Wichita village of clustered huts nestled in the Arkansas River valley among small fields of Indian corn, beans, and squash. Both the Grand Canyon and the Great Plains were unlike anything any European had ever seen, and the Spanish were as astonished by them as they were by the huge herds of buffalo—Coronado called them "cows"—that parted like a sea just long enough for his columns to pass. But they did not find a single nugget of gold.

Under intense interrogation, the Turk confessed that there had never been any gold or silver; it had been a plot, he said, by the Tiwas to lead the strangers far away into a place where they and their horses would languish and starve. It was a disheartened conquistador who, after having the Turk strangled to death, returned to winter again among the Pueblos. His men pleaded with Coronado to give up and head for home. Coronado capitulated, leaving behind two missionaries. In due time, the Indians dispatched them as well.

Although Coronado's expedition had found no treasure, it had succeeded in mapping today's American Southwest, and it laid the groundwork for Spain's eventual colonization of the region. Coronado was the first European to travel through the lands of the Zuñi, Pueblo, and Hopi Indians, and one of his lieutenants, Hernando Alarcon (fl. 1500s), was to be the first European to reach California. Today we might consider these major accomplishments, as the names of several sites in the West testify: the Coronado Mountains, Coronado Park, Coronado Trail, and Coronado Summit. But for the Spanish authorities at the time, Coronado was a failure, if not something even worse.

Upon Coronado's return to Mexico City in 1542, the imperial authorities—based on the reports of the expedition's clerics and the testimony of its soldiers—questioned his command and charged him with misconduct. The court of inquiry fined him for lack of judgment and discipline but failed to find any evidence of dishonesty or improper actions. He afterward resumed his political career and was reappointed councilman in Mexico City. Living out his life in the relative obscurity of that post, he died a dozen years later on September 22, 1554.

Further reading: German Arciniegas, *The Knight of El Dorado* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1968); Charles Gibson, *Spain in America* (New York: Harper and Row, 1966); John Parry, *The Spanish Seaborne Empire* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1990); Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod, *Encyclopedia of the American West* (New York: Macmillan, 1996); David J. Weber, *The Spanish Frontier in Northern America* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1992).

Spanish Conquest of Yucatán (1527–1546)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish conquistadores vs. Indians of Yucatán
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Yucatán Peninsula, Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Spanish sought the further conquest of Mexico.
OUTCOME: The region came under Spanish control by 1546.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Fewer than 1,000 Spaniards; Indian numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The conquest of the Yucatán Peninsula began after the SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO and was accomplished under Francisco de Montejo (1484–1550). The campaign proved even more difficult than the conquest of Mexico proper had been, as Montejo met formidable Mayan resistance. The first Spanish foray, which spanned 1527–28, resulted in a strategic withdrawal, and it was not until 1531 that Montejo mounted a new campaign. Whereas he had originally attacked from the east, he now approached from the west, but was repulsed, yet again, by well-organized Mayan resistance.

Montejo turned over command of the third campaign to his son, also named Francisco (fl. 1540s), who approached the task with far greater ruthlessness than his father. Instead of concentrating on the defeat of warriors, he waged total war on the Mayans, destroying every village he encountered and quickly establishing small Spanish garrison towns. The region was under Spanish control by 1542. The Indians mounted one strong revolt in 1546, but by this time the Spanish were sufficiently well established to put down the rebellion with iron brutality.

Further reading: Michael Wood, *Conquistadores* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2001); David S. Weber, *The Spanish Frontier in North America* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1992).

Spanish Conquests in North Africa (1505–1511)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish Catholic forces vs. North African Muslims
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Algeria, plus Tunis and Tripoli
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Religious conquest of North Africa: the displacement of Islam by Christianity
OUTCOME: Most of Algeria and the major cities of Tunis and Tripoli came under Spanish Christian control.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Tribute agreements with rulers in Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli

The Spanish military campaign in North Africa during this period was authorized and financed not by the royal government under Ferdinand II (1452–1516), but by the Catholic Church, in the person of the inquisitor general, Cardinal Francisco Jiménez de Cisneros (1437–1517). Using church revenues, he financed what he conceived as

a crusade against the Muslim infidels in North Africa, and in 1509 led one of the expeditions personally. Landing in the port of Oran, Algeria, Jiménez led the conquest of the city, installed a Christian garrison there, and, after taking Mers El Kebir, returned to Spain. The next year, a new expedition took the Algerian port of Bougie. With this foothold secured, Spanish forces captured Algiers and Tunis. Forces under Pedro Navarro (c. 1460–1528) took Tripoli at the end of the year. By 1511, the Spanish Christians extorted tribute agreements from the Muslim rulers of these cities.

Flushed with success, Jiménez was primed to continue his campaign of religious conquest but aborted this project when he received a papal summons for support against French religious dissidents. Before long the Spanish would find themselves severely challenged in North Africa by the Muslim forces of the Ottoman Empire.

Further reading: Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); John H. Elliott, *Imperial Spain, Fourteen Sixty-Nine to Seventeen Hundred Sixteen* (New York: Viking Penguin, 1990); Joseph F. O'Callaghan, *A History of Medieval Spain* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1983).

Spanish-English Wars

See Anglo-Spanish War (1586–1604); Anglo-Spanish War (1655–1659); Anglo-Spanish War (1727–1729).

Spanish-French Wars

See Anglo-Spanish War (1727–1729); Franco-Spanish War (1648–1659); Franco-Spanish War (1823); Hapsburg-Valois War; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, First; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Second; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Third; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Fourth; Italian War of Charles VIII; Quadruple Alliance, War of the.

Spanish-Moroccan War (1859–1860)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. Morocco
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Morocco
DECLARATION: Spain against Morocco, October 22, 1859
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ostensibly, Spain retaliated for attacks against its nationals living in its Moroccan possessions; Spain also wished to expand its Moroccan holdings.
OUTCOME: Poor planning resulted in heavy Spanish losses, but a mediated peace awarded Spain an indemnity and enlarged its Moroccan holdings moderately.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 43,069; Morocco, about 40,000
CASUALTIES: Spain, 1,152 battle deaths, 2,888 from disease; 4,994 wounded; Moroccan losses, about 6,000 dead
TREATIES: Treaty concluded April 26, 1860

For Spain, Morocco had been a coveted object of conquest since the late 15th century. No substantial headway was made until the war of 1859–60. In the fall of 1859, Muslim Arabs attacked Ceuta and Melilla, Spanish possessions in Morocco. In response, Spanish premier Leopoldo O'Donnell (1809–67) used damage claims by Spanish nationals as a pretext for a declaration of war against Morocco, the sultan of which refused to make adequate reparations for the attacks. O'Donnell personally led a 43,069-man Spanish army. Simultaneously, a naval blockade of Moroccan seaports was set up, but the landing of the Spanish troops was poorly planned. They became bottled up and bogged down along inadequate roads and fell prey to endemic diseases, especially cholera.

Narrowly outnumbered, the Moroccans were fierce fighters who took a heavy toll of the invaders. Nevertheless, when the far abler general Juan Prim y Prats (1814–70) took over direct command from the well-meaning but inept O'Donnell, a major Spanish victory was won on January 1, 1860, and, on February 4, the fortress of Tetuán fell to the Spanish. British mediators pressed both sides to come to an agreement, and a peace was concluded on April 26, 1860. Spain was awarded an indemnity, and its territory at Ceuta was enlarged. However, this peace was little more than a truce in a struggle that continued, with varying levels of intensity, until 1926, when Morocco came firmly into Spanish hands at last.

Further reading: Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); C. R. Pennell, *Morocco since 1830: A History* (New York: New York University Press, 2001).

Spanish Muslim Civil Wars (1002–1086)

See Almoravid Conquest of Muslim Spain; Castilian Civil War (1065–1072); Spanish Christian-Muslim War (1001–1031); Three Sanchos, War of the.

Spanish-Peruvian War (Spanish-Chilean War) (1866)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Peru, Chile, Bolivia, Ecuador vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The coasts of Chile and Peru
DECLARATION: January 14, 1866, by Peru
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spanish contempt for South American independence.
OUTCOME: By treaty, Spain officially recognized Peru's sovereignty.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Between Spain and Peru (mediated by the United States), 1879

Following the TALAMBO AFFAIR, Peru's General Mariano Ignacio Prado (1826–1901)—supported by Peruvians inflamed by Spanish contempt for their sovereignty and by Spanish demands for a large indemnity in response to Peru's maltreatment of Basque immigrants—staged a military coup and declared war on Spain on January 14, 1866. Peru concluded a defensive alliance with Chile's President Jose Joaquín Peréz (1800–90). Bolivia and Ecuador—like Peréz, fearing a return of Spanish power in South America—also joined the alliance and declared war. Wholesale deportations of Spanish subjects followed, and South American ports in the allied countries were closed to the Spanish fleet. The naval squadron under Admiral Casto Mendez Nuñez (c. 1830–c. 1880), which Spain had sent to seize the Chincha Islands during the Talambo dispute, caused considerable damage as Spanish warships bombarded the Chilean port of Valparaiso and the Peruvian port of Callao on March 31 and May 2 respectively. But Peruvian shore defenses repelled the attackers, and a week after the bombardment began—with the United States beginning to show interest in the war—Spain ceased hostilities. U.S. mediation eventually brought peace in 1871. Spain and Peru signed in 1879 a treaty in which Spain officially recognized Peru's independence. Chile, meanwhile, instituted a hurried naval program to modernize and improve her sea power, which became significant when the War of the PACIFIC between Chile and the allied Peru and Bolivia broke out, also in 1879.

Further reading: Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); James W. Cortada, ed., *Spain in the Nineteenth-Century World: Essays on Spanish Diplomacy, 1789–1898* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1994).

Spanish-Portuguese Philippine Wars (1570–1580)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. Portugal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Philippine Islands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the islands
OUTCOME: Fighting on the islands was desultory, intermittent, and without decisive issue; however, Spain's annexation of Portugal in 1580 brought to an end the conflict in the Philippines.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Spain dispatched Miguel López de Legaspi (d. 1572) to the Philippines in 1570 to begin colonizing efforts there. In 1571, Legaspi established a strong Spanish presence at Manila, which served as his governmental and military headquarters. Throughout the 1570s, Spanish and Portuguese forces clashed in the Philippines in battles for control of the archipelago as well as neighboring Indonesian islands. The conflict never developed into a full-scale war. It came to an end not as a result of any battlefield resolution on the islands but because of Spain's victory over Portugal in Europe, which resulted in the Spanish annexation of that nation. Although the fighting stopped throughout what had been the Portuguese Empire, including Manila, the Spanish and Portuguese colonial systems persisted as separate entities even after the annexation.

Further reading: Edward G. Bourne, *Discovery, Conquest, and Early History of the Philippine Islands* (Temecula, Calif.: Reprint Services, 1989); Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Artemio R. Guillermo and Kyi W. May, *Historical Dictionary of the Philippines* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1997); Daniel B. Schirmer and Stephen R. Shalom, eds., *Philippines Reader: A History of Colonialism, Neocolonialism, Dictatorship, and Resistance* (Boston: South End, 1990).

Spanish-Portuguese War (1580–1589)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. Portugal (with English aid in 1589)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Portuguese throne and, therefore, control of Portugal
OUTCOME: Spain defeated Portugal, and Philip II of Spain ascended the Portuguese throne as well.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 25,000; Portugal, 15,000
CASUALTIES: Spain, unknown; Portugal, about 2,000 killed
TREATIES: None

The deaths of two Portuguese monarchs in quick succession, Sebastian (1554–78) in 1578 and Henry the Cardinal (1512–80) in 1580, precipitated a crisis as Philip II (1527–98) of Spain, uncle of Sebastian, took advantage of his nephew's passing to assert a hereditary claim to the Portuguese throne. He opened negotiations with Portugal even as he prepared a surprise invasion of the country with 25,000 troops. In the meantime, Antonio (1531–95),

the illegitimate nephew of Henry the Cardinal, was proclaimed king of Portugal, whereupon Philip invaded, and his troops occupied Évora, the seat of Portugal's royal court.

On August 25, 1580, Spanish troops under Fernando Álvarez de Toledo (1507–1582), duke of Alba, defeated a 10,000-man Portuguese peasant militia at the Battle of Alcántara. Antonio fled to Oporto, was defeated in battle there but managed to take ship for France in May 1581. All that remained in Portuguese hands was the Azores, to which Philip dispatched a fleet. To help the Portuguese hold the Azores, Catherine de Médicis (1519–89) sent troops. A Spanish assault against Terceira Island was repulsed with Franco-British aid in 1581. But a second, larger assault, 60 ships and 8,000 men, quickly defeated the defenders. The Azores fell to Spain, and Antonio remained in exile for the next nine years. In April 1589, the victory of the English over the Spanish Armada prompted Elizabeth I (1533–1603) to support Antonio's return to the Portuguese throne. She authorized an English invasion of Portugal, which failed when an expedition of 120 English ships was engulfed by a sickness that killed some 8,000 of 19,000 men deployed. Antonio returned to Paris, where he died in 1595. Portugal would remain in Spanish hands until 1640.

Further reading: David Birmingham, *Concise History of Portugal* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808: A World on the Move* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Spanish-Portuguese War (1641–1644)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. Portugal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal and Spain
DECLARATION: Portugal on Spain, 1641
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: John IV of Portugal sought to forestall any attempt by Spain to regain control over Portugal.
OUTCOME: Spain was defeated, and Portuguese independence effectively confirmed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 10,500; Portugal, numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Spain, 3,000 killed or wounded; Portuguese losses unknown
TREATIES: Negotiations relating to the Thirty Years' War (1644)

As a result of the PORTUGUESE REVOLUTION of 1640, Spain lost the hold it had gained on Portugal (in the SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR of [1580–1589]), and John IV (1605–56) ascended the throne as king of a Portugal once again independent. He immediately made alliances with England, the Netherlands, and France in order to bolster his position against Spain and forestall Spanish reconquest of his kingdom, which had already begun with several half-hearted Spanish feints and attacks. His 1641 treaty with France explicitly pledged that Portugal would make war on Spain, which John IV commenced in 1641 with quick attacks on Spanish fortifications at Elvas and Badajoz. With the curtain raised, both sides prepared for extended hostilities.

The Portuguese strategy was to drive a wedge between Andalusia, in southern Spain, and the rest of Spain, whereas Spain financed a Lisbon-based conspiracy to overthrow John IV. The Portuguese prevailed at the Battle of Olivenca and in defending Beira, both in 1642. Under Mathias d'Albuquerque, Portuguese forces invaded Spain in May 1644 and defeated the Spanish at the Battle of Montijo on May 26.

In the meantime, peace negotiations began among most of the powers participating in the THIRTY YEARS' WAR, although Spain boycotted these negotiations until France dropped its demand that Spain recognize Portuguese independence. This hardly mattered, however, as Portugal had inflicted severe losses on Spain, some 3,000 killed or wounded. This demonstration of military force confirmed Portuguese independence, although official Spanish recognition would not come until 1688. The negotiations of 1644 had the effect of ending the Spanish-Portuguese War as well as the Thirty Years' War.

Further reading: David Birmingham, *Concise History of Portugal* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808: A World on the Move* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Spanish-Portuguese War (1657–1668)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. Portugal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal and Andalusia, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After the death of Portugal's John IV, Spain attempted to reconquer Portugal.
OUTCOME: Spain formally acknowledged Portugal's independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 23,000; Portugal, 20,000
CASUALTIES: Spain, 4,000 killed or wounded, 6,000 taken prisoner; Portuguese losses unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Lisbon, 1668

Prior to the SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1641–1644), Portugal's John IV (1605–56) concluded alliances with England, the Netherlands, and France in an effort to forestall any

Spanish attempt to reclaim Portugal from the independence it had won in the PORTUGUESE REVOLUTION of 1640. The death of John IV in 1656 brought renewed fears that Spain would once again attempt to reconquer Portugal. In anticipation of an invasion, Portugal opened up diplomatic channels to England, France, and Sweden, and, in the meantime, braced itself.

A Spanish invasion in 1657 at Olivenca went badly for the Portuguese, who surrendered the town to the Spanish troops. On the verge of counterattacking at Badajoz, the Portuguese thought better of it when Spanish reinforcements approached; however, in January 1659, Portuguese forces triumphed at Elvas.

In 1661, Spain's Philip IV (1605–65) sent 20,000 troops into Portugal. Initially, the Spanish under Don Juan (John of Austria, 1629–79), enjoyed success, defeating Portuguese forces in May 1662 at the Battle of Évora. The defeat was sufficient to shake the Portuguese government.

Don Juan went on from Évora to attack Ameixal on June 8, 1663. He was met by Portuguese troops under the German mercenary Frederick Herman Schomberg (1615–90). Schomberg had lost Évora, but he fought with great brilliance at Ameixal and defeated Don Juan. The Portuguese had fielded 17,000 men against 18,500 Spaniards. Schomberg went on to further victories at Valencia de Alcántara, Villaviciosa, and Montes Claras. In this latter battle, 23,000 Spaniards were defeated by 20,000 Portuguese, who inflicted 4,000 casualties and took 6,000 prisoners of war. Following his triumph at Montes Claras, Schomberg took the war deep into Spain, invading Andalusia in 1665.

Although Spain continued to fight, England's Charles II (1630–85) mediated a peace, by which Spain at last signed the Treaty of Lisbon in 1668 and thereby recognized Portugal's independence under the House of Braganza. Both sides returned conquered and occupied territory.

Further reading: David Birmingham, *Concise History of Portugal* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808: A World on the Move* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Spanish-Portuguese War (1735–1737)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain vs. Portugal
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Banda Oriental (Uruguay), South America
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of Colonia and other Portuguese holdings in Banda Oriental (Uruguay)
OUTCOME: In response to British mediation, Spain returned Colonia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Spain, 2,000; Portugal, 1,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1737

This was a war fought in the La Plata region, roughly present-day Uruguay, where the South American colonies of Portugal and Spain met. The conflict consisted of desultory fighting between Spanish and Portuguese colonial forces in what was then the Portuguese South American colony of Banda Oriental (Uruguay) and focused on the garrison town of Colônia do Sacramento. The war was the direct result of Spain's involvement in the War of the Polish SUCCESSION from 1733 to 1738. Under Philip V (1683–1746), Spain supported the claim of Stanislas Leszczynski (1677–1766) to the Polish throne, which put Spain in an alliance with France against Austria. While fighting the European war, Philip V decided to revisit the longtime rivalry with Portugal and ordered his colonial forces to attack the Portuguese at Colonia, their stronghold on the Río de la Plata in Banda Oriental. Sailing in 7 ships, 2,000 Spanish troops took Colonia, which was defended by no more than 1,000 Portuguese troops. The Portuguese waged a campaign to secure its return. Fighting was inconclusive, and the war ended only after Spain was persuaded by British intermediaries to relinquish Colonia.

Further reading: David Birmingham, *Concise History of Portugal* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808: A World on the Move* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Spanish-Portuguese War (1762)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spain (with France) vs. Portugal (with Britain)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Portugal
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spain sought territorial conquest within Portugal.
OUTCOME: Spain was driven out of Portugal.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Paris, 1763 (ended this war as well as the larger Seven Years' War and French and Indian War)

Spain's Charles III (1716–88) kept his nation neutral in the all-engulfing SEVEN YEARS' WAR (1756–63) until he concluded the Bourbon Family Compact with France against Britain in 1761, in an effort to block British designs against Spain. While fighting Britain, Spain invaded Portugal, taking Braganza and Aleida. The Span-

ish received military aid from France, and Portugal called upon Britain. Generals John Burgoyne (1722–92) and John Campbell (1705–82) led British troops to Portugal's aid, while a German mercenary, Count William of Schaumberg-Lippe (1724–77), successfully regrouped Portugal's battered army. The allies swept the Spanish out of Portugal by the end of 1762. This loss was added to Spain's other losses as the ally of France, which was the major loser in the Seven Years' War and the associated FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

Simultaneously with the war in Europe, Spain retook Colônia do Sacramento in Banda Oriental (Uruguay, South America), which it had relinquished to Portugal after the SPANISH-PORTUGUESE WAR (1735–1737), regaining the town after a siege that spanned October 5 to October 30. The Portuguese surrendered 2,335 men, 87 guns, and 26 ships to the Spanish.

An English flotilla attempted to recapture Colonia for its Portuguese ally on January 6, 1763, but without success. Portugal would, however, regain Colonia by terms of the treaty that ended the Seven Years' War in 1763.

Further reading: David Birmingham, *Concise History of Portugal* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1993); Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); A. J. R. Russell-Wood, *Portuguese Empire, 1415–1808: A World on the Move* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998).

Spanish Revolution (July Revolution) (1854)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces led by General Leopoldo O'Donnell and Antonio Cánovas del Castillo vs. government forces of Maria Cristina
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Reform of the Spanish government
OUTCOME: The revolutionaries prevailed, a new government was formed, and Maria Cristina left in self-imposed exile.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Also called the July Revolution, this was led by General Leopoldo O'Donnell (1809–67) and Antonio Cánovas del Castillo (1828–97) against the government of the Spanish regent and queen mother, Maria Cristina (1806–78). Under her rule, Spanish government had become corrupt, inefficient, reactionary, and enormously unpopular.

The war began not in July but in June 1854, as revolutionary forces fought government troops inconclusively outside of Madrid. While the military campaign stagnated, Cánovas published the *Manifesto de Manzanares,* in which he pledged widespread government reform and thereby gained much popular support, especially within Madrid itself and the cities of Barcelona and Valladolid. This sparked, in July, major uprisings in all three of these cities, and the situation in the capital became especially chaotic. At the height of the uprising, the Spanish premier stepped down and the Crown agreed to the establishment of a so-called "Junta of Public Safety," in effect a provisional government. Isabella II (1830–1904) recalled from retirement Baldomero Espartero (1793–1879) to serve as premier and restore order to the country, and Espartero, in turn, chose O'Donnell as his minister of war. The combination of Espartero and, especially, O'Donnell raised the ire of Maria Cristina, who, however, soon found that she lacked the support to protest. She left Spain in self-imposed exile on August 28, 1854. What followed were 14 years of low-level civil war and rebellion, culminating in the SPANISH REVOLUTION (1868).

Further reading: Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001).

Spanish Revolution (1868)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Spanish rebels vs. Isabella II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: Proclamation of Revolution, September 18, 1868
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: With popular support, the rebels sought to end the reign of the corrupt and autocratic Isabella II.
OUTCOME: Isabella II was deposed and a new government installed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Although Isabella II (1830–1904) had instituted a reform government as a result of the SPANISH REVOLUTION (1854) (the so-called July Revolution), by 1868 she reinstituted an outmoded and unresponsive autocratic governing style while conducting herself in an unseemly and scandalous manner. A coup d'état was fomented by a cabal of her ministers in July 1868 but collapsed, and the generals who had participated in the coup were banished to the Canary Islands.

When Isabella departed for France to conclude an alliance with Napoleon III (1808–73), Admiral Juan Bautista Topete y Carballo (1821–85) issued from Cadiz a proclamation of revolution on September 18, 1868. The proclamation triggered popular uprisings in Madrid and

throughout Spain. Isabella rushed back to Spain, only to find that the exiled generals had returned from the Canary Islands. One, Francisco Serrano (1810–85), led a successful engagement against government troops under Manuel Pavía y Lacy (1814–96) at the Battle of Alcolea outside of Córdoba on September 28. At this, Isabella fled to France and, on September 29, was proclaimed deposed.

This was the end of the brief revolution, but it left Spain seething in near anarchy. The revolutionaries hastily installed a radical provisional government, which proclaimed universal suffrage, freedom of the press, and the abolition of the Jesuits as well as all other religious orders. Serrano and another general, Juan Prim y Prats (1814–70), assumed leadership of the provisional government and quickly assembled the Cortes (parliament), which wrote and approved a new and more liberal constitution, but also voted to retain a monarchical government. Order was hardly restored, and in 1872, the very costly, bloody, and bitter Third CARLIST WAR would begin. By its end in 1876, some 50,000 lives would be lost.

Further reading: Joseph A. Brandt, *Toward the New Spain: The Spanish Revolution of 1868 and the First Republic* (Chatham, Mich.: Porcupine, 1976); Raymond Carr, ed., *Spain: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001).

Spanish Saharan War (1975–1991)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Polisario Front (of the Saharan Arab Democratic Republic) vs. Morocco
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Sahara (formerly Spanish Sahara)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Morocco and the Saharan Arab Democratic Republic (SADR) disputed sovereignty over the Western Sahara.
OUTCOME: A cease-fire has mostly held since 1991, but the dispute over a referendum of self-determination for the region continues as of 2004.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Morocco, 120,000 troops patrolling a defensive "wall of sand"; Polisario Front numbers are unknown
CASUALTIES: Numbers of killed and wounded are unknown; the ongoing warfare has produced many refugees, of whom about 165,000 live in camps in southwestern Algeria.
TREATIES: Treaty between Mauritania and SADR, 1980; United Nations–sponsored referendum on self-determination for the Western Sahara proposed in 1991; no referendum had been implemented as of 2004

Spain had repeatedly put down uprisings in the coastal strip of the Sahara it controlled. The two most serious occurred in 1957–58 and 1967–70. In May 1973, liberation groups created the Polisario Front, and Spain responded by secretly negotiating with Mauritania and Morocco to block independence. On November 6, 1975, King Hassan II (1929–1999) of Morocco led 350,000 unarmed "volunteers" on a forced march—called the Green March—to occupy the disputed area. Troops from Mauritania also were sent into the area. Early the following year, Spain ceded the Spanish Sahara to Morocco (which received two-thirds of the territory) and Mauritania (which received one-third). Immediately after this, the Polisario Front (also called the Popular Front for the Liberation of Saguia el Hamra and Río de Oro), invaded both regions.

Backed by Algeria and Libya, the Polisario Front attacked both the Moroccans and the Mauritanians in a bid to set up the Saharan Arab Democratic Republic (SADR). Mauritania bowed out in 1980, signing a treaty with the Polisario Front, ceding to it sovereignty over its third of the Spanish Sahara. Almost immediately, Hassan II of Morocco annexed the area Mauritania had ceded and occupied it. At this, the SADR government withdrew, established itself in exile, and was recognized by 40 nations. Thus legitimated, in 1981 SADR began a guerrilla war against Moroccan forces in the Spanish Sahara.

In response to the onslaught of the Polisario Front guerrillas, Moroccan troops built a system of defensive walls stretching from southern Morocco through the Spanish Sahara (now called the Western Sahara) and south to Cape Bojador. This so-called "Wall of Sand" was defended by 120,000 Moroccan troops. The wall was protected by minefields. In the meantime, the Organization for African Unity (OAU) and the United Nations separately worked to obtain a mandated referendum on self-determination in the Western Sahara. In 1988, Morocco at last accepted a UN-proposed self-determination referendum. However, the continued activity of Polisario guerrillas repeatedly postponed implementation of the referendum. It was 1991 before Morocco and the Polisario Front agreed to allow a UN-supervised referendum, and a cease-fire was put in place between Morocco and the SADR-backed Polisario.

Yet, while the war hung fire, the referendum continued to be postponed from one year to the next, as SADR and Morocco argued over voting lists and procedural matters. In 1997, UN secretary general Kofi Atta Annan (b. 1938) appointed former U.S. secretary of state James Baker (b. 1930) as a special UN envoy charged with attempting to settle the dispute. Progress was made in 1998 on acceptance of terms for a referendum on self-determination, but other issues, including the repatriation of refugees, surfaced, and the Polisario stood firm in its refusal to accept the latest UN-sponsored peace proposals. As of 2004, sporadic fighting continues between Moroccan forces and the Polisario Front, which was considerably weakened by a sharp reduction in support from Algeria. The future of Africa's last remaining colony is uncertain.

Further reading: Tony Hodges, *Western Sahara: Roots of a Desert War* (Chicago: Chicago Review, 1984); Anthony

G. Pazzanita and Tony Hodges, *Historical Dictionary of Western Sahara* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1994).

Spanish Succession, War of the (1701–1714)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: France and Bourbon Spain and their allies (Savoy, Mantua, Cologne, and Bavaria) vs. a new Grand Alliance of the Hapsburg Empire, England, the Netherlands, Brandenburg-Prussia, and most of the other German-speaking states of Europe
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Europe from the Netherlands and northern France to Bavaria and Central Europe to northern Italy and the Mediterranean Coast.
DECLARATION: September 7, 1701, Grand Alliance proclaimed; November 24, 1701, Philip V proclaimed king of Spain and Louis XIV invades Spanish Netherlands
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The issue remained, despite decades of various wars fought in numerous combinations, the balance of power in Europe. As the War of the Grand Alliance proved, the ambitions of France's Louis XIV could be held in check only by the determined and combined efforts of others, especially England and the Hapsburgs. When Louis claimed the Spanish Crown for his grandson, another great alliance was formed to prevent a Bourbon Spain.
OUTCOME: When the rest of Europe reached a settlement in 1713 at Utrecht, Holy Roman Emperor Charles VI fought on alone against France for more than a year before reaching a separate peace at Rastadt. Together, the two agreements formed the foundation of Europe's international relations. Not only did the war result in a basic equilibrium in Europe until about 1740, but it also gave birth to the English hegemony in North America, as Great Britain gained the Hudson Bay region, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland. In addition, Spain ceded Gibraltar and Minorca to Great Britain and obtained the *asientio* (privilege) of exclusively introducing African slaves into Spain's American possessions—a right that was subsequently extended to general trading privileges. The war marked the end of French aggrandizement under the ancien régime and the dramatic diminution of Spain as a power among the European states.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The Hapsburgs, 155,000; France, 170,000
CASUALTIES: Estimates vary widely from just under half a million to more than three-quarters of a million on both sides. These include Austria, 100,000 killed and wounded; Maritime states, England, Holland, 250,000 killed and wounded; German states and Denmark, 100,000 killed and wounded; Savoy, 50,000 killed and wounded; Portugal, 50,000 killed and wounded; Bavaria and Spain, 100,000 killed and wounded; France, 500,000 to 600,000 (figures include missing and captured as well as killed and wounded).
TREATIES: The Treaty of Utrecht on July 13, 1713, ended the War of the Spanish Succession as well as its North American phase, Queen Anne's War; the Treaty of Rastadt on March 16, 1714, ended the fighting between Charles VI and France.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

When the War for the Spanish Succession broke out in 1702, the ancien régime of Louis XIV (1638–1715) was already in decline. Louis, the "Sun King," the first of the Continent's monarchs to define himself as "absolute," had in many ways taught Europe what a nation could be; now, he was to pay for that lesson. Following his war with the LEAGUE OF AUGSBURG near the end of the century just past, Louis had been forced to renounce most of his great military conquests. With the end of this war, French fortunes would reach a nadir. Although heroic military efforts and clever diplomacy would allow Louis to recoup some losses in the future, French expansion under the ancien régime had come to a definite standstill.

The roots of the war lay in the growing decrepitude of the Spanish Empire. Louis had long wanted to create a Bourbon Spain. Back in 1659, he had agreed to marry King Philip IV (1605–65) of Spain's Austrian daughter, Maria Theresa (1638–83). The newlyweds had renounced any claim to the Spanish throne in return for Maria Theresa's magnificent dowry, but when the Spanish failed to pay, Louis declared the agreement void. When Charles II (1661–1700) acceded to the throne, Louis had to put off his goal, but he kept up such diplomatic and political pressure on the hapless Charles that the Spanish king agreed to allow a French claimant to the throne after his death.

At the same time, the Austrian Hapsburgs had also been harrying the ailing, incompetent, and most important, heirless King Charles with claims to some of his Iberian holdings that had already been recognized under earlier agreements. Before he could straighten out the mess with the Hapsburgs, the old king died and left a deathbed will ceding the whole of the empire to the duke of Anjou (1683–1746), the great-grandson of Philip IV, and the grandson of France's Louis XIV. The Sun King was happy to place a Bourbon on the throne in Madrid, but the Hapsburgs under Holy Roman Emperor Leopold I (1657–1705) would have none of it. Although Louis tried to appease the Hapsburgs with offers of land and other concessions recognizing many of their previous claims, they remained opposed.

The English and the Dutch, rising commercial powers, feared that the French might establish hegemony in Spanish America and the Spanish—that is, the southern—Netherlands. Even as Louis was preparing to proclaim his grandson Philip V king of Spain, these powers—the Hapsburg Empire, England, and the Netherlands—formed

another Grand Alliance with Brandenburg-Prussia and most of the other German states on September 7, 1701, against just such an eventuality. In response, upon the crowning of Philip on November 24, Louis XIV marched his troops into the Spanish Netherlands, provoking the Hapsburgs to declare war.

THE WAR

From 1701 to 1713, the Grand Alliance battled France and her allies on the continent while Britain and France contested control of North America from 1702 to 1713 (QUEEN ANNE'S WAR). Some of the earliest fighting came in Italy, where Louis had sent troops to occupy Rivoli and shore up his allegiance with Savoy, which ultimately failed and led Savoy to switch sides, joining the Grand Alliance in 1703. The major theaters of this long war, however, lay in the Low Countries and Germany, where—unlike in Italy and in the previous War of the GRAND ALLIANCE—large-scale battles took place, though, given the limits of current weaponry, with only localized results.

In any case, the alliance began the war with hard-driving initiatives in 1702, with the Austrians invading Alsace in July under Prince Louis (1655–1707), margrave of Baden. Meanwhile, an Anglo-Dutch force led by John Churchill (1650–1722), earl of Marlborough, captured the French fortresses along the Meuse between September 15 and October 15, a month's worth of work for which Churchill was created duke. In September, however, Louis XIV concluded an alliance with Bavaria. As a result, Louis of Baden, being chased by a French army, fled Alsace to return home to protect his lands from the Bavarians, who had already seized Ulm. Marshal (Claude) Duc de Villars (1653–1734) led the French to victory over Baden at Friedlingen on October 14, 1702, which allowed Louis to threaten the Hapsburg holdings directly.

Spring 1702 found Villars in the Black Forest on his way to joining Maximilian of Bavaria (1662–1726) at Ulm for a march on Vienna. Despite Villars's arguments for advancing on Vienna directly, Maximilian elected first to seize Tyrol and join the allied Italians under Marshal Louis Joseph, duc de Vendome (1654–1712), before taking Vienna. The Bavarian elector had made a major blunder. His troops occupied Tyrol easily enough, but the Austrians—with local help—chased them out by August, meanwhile preventing any linkage with Vendome. All this time, Villars was in the Danube Valley doing a more than credible job of staving off the alliance armies. After two major victories (at Munderkingen on July 31 and Hochstadt on September 20), he once again invited Maximilian to join him in a march on Vienna. When the elector demurred a second time, operations ground to a halt for half a year, during which time Villars was replaced.

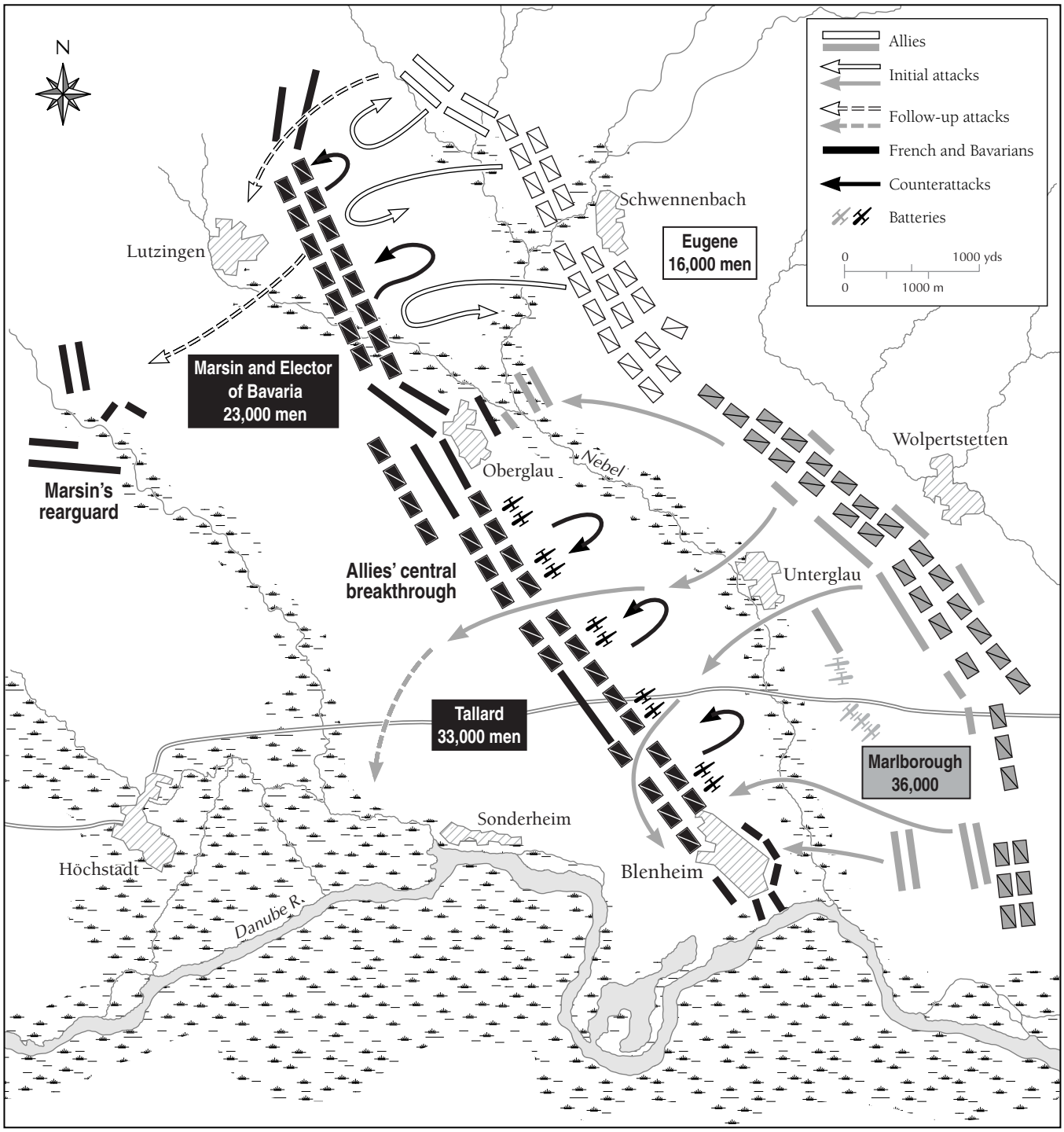
By 1704, Franco-Bavarian forces were in position to invade Austria and take Vienna. Maximilian had collected around 55,000 French and Bavarian soldiers at Ulm, and these were soon reinforced for the invasion by the 30,000-strong French army under Marshal Camille de Tallard (1652–1728). For the alliance, Marlborough's army of 36,000 was joined by 40,000 Hapsburg troops from Baden and Savoy in the advance down the Rhine. The two armies met at Blenheim in 1704; the French suffered their most crushing defeat of the war. In Marlborough's brilliant battle the French and Bavarians lost 38,600 men, including 6,000 dead. Approximately 14,000 were taken prisoner, one of whom was Tallard himself. The alliance lost 4,500 dead and 7,500 wounded.

With this battle, Marlborough ensured the safety of Vienna and drove the French from Germany. Maxmilian was forced into exile, and the Hapsburgs annexed Bavaria. Both sides were exhausted by the fighting, and it took more than a year before either could generate much new effort. By 1706, however, the alliance was attacking the French with great force. Marlborough won another of his brilliant victories in the Low Countries at Ramillies in 1706, when his army of 62,000 met a French force of 60,000, drove them from the field, and gave chase. The French had suffered 8,000 casualties, the alliance half that. Over the next few months, Marlborough occupied the entirety of the Spanish Netherlands.

The French never recovered from these defeats. Driven out of Savoy also in 1706, their efforts to retake the Spanish Netherlands in 1708 failed, and after the severe defeat at Oudenarde on July 11 of that year, Louis sued for peace. The talks foundered, however, on Louis's refusal to join the alliance against his grandson, Philip of Spain. In 1709 Louis tried once again to regain the Netherlands, only to suffer the bloodiest defeat in the war at Malplaquet. Although he lost fewer men—12,500 to the alliance's 20,000—the French army of 90,000 was overmatched and driven from the field.

There followed several more years of indecisive maneuverings. In North America, English forces had taken Port Royal, the major French stronghold in Acadia (Nova Scotia and New Brunswick), but French colonials allied with Indians continued to harry, terrorize, and ravage the settlements of New England. When Emperor Joseph I (r. 1705–11) died in 1711, Charles III (1685–1740) of Barcelona became Holy Roman Emperor Charles VI. Because Charles was also the Hapsburg claimant to the Spanish Crown, the British began to worry that an outright victory would merely change France's self-aggrandizement into a genuine Hapsburg hegemony.

Despite Marlborough's brilliant battlefield triumphs, the British had taken notice of the stiffening of French resistance at Malplaquet. Reeling under the heavy price of its triumphs, the bellicose Whig government fell. Fearing an alliance between Austria and Spain, Queen Anne (1665–1714) recalled Marlborough (her armies in consequence suffered a defeat at the Battle of Denain in 1712) and commenced peace talks with France.



Battle of Blenheim, August 13, 1704

The twelve-year war of the Spanish Succession over Louis XIV's claim to the Spanish throne came to a close for most of the belligerents—England, Holland, and Austria on the one side, France and Spain on the other—in an international peace settlement (the Treaty of Utrecht) that set the stage for European politics and international relations for at least a generation. But Charles VI, as emperor of the Holy Roman Empire and as a Hapsburg, was not happy with allowing a French Bourbon to sit on a Spanish throne he believed by right belonged to his House. He continued to fight the "Sun King" for another year or so. Not until March and September of 1714 did Charles come to an official settlement with the French in the treaties of Rastadt and Baden, and not even then—though he at least

admitted the war was over—did he fully accept the accord to which the rest of Europe had come during the previous spring and summer.

Despite the diplomatic formalities, the end of the War of the Spanish Succession marked the virtual disappearance of the Spanish from any real role in the affairs of the evolving European state system. Though a Bourbon (Philip V) did indeed succeed to the Spanish throne, the settlement kept the two nations—France and Spain—separate kingdoms, and they remained so permanently. Austria took control of the Spanish lands in Italy and the southern Netherlands, although the Dutch insisted they be allowed to throw up a line of fortresses there to serve as a barrier against the Hapsburgs. But the real winners were the English. In North America, Hudson Bay, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland all fell onto English hands—or perhaps, because Scotland and England had been united in 1709, "British" hands would be more proper. From Spain Great Britain took Gibraltar and Minorca, the better to protect her expanding Mediterranean trade. In short, the settlements of the war not only promoted British commercial interests, but also confirmed her commercial supremacy.

In a broader sense, the Treaty of Utrecht established an equilibrium in Europe that would last virtually unchallenged until 1740. It set the terms for European politics and international relations for a generation. Its provision on African slavery became the basis for Britain's general slave-trading privileges in Spanish America, and this in turn resulted in the gradual erosion of the Spanish hegemony in North America. In the long term effectively removing Spain from the centuries-long imperial struggles in the Western Hemisphere, the treaty cleared the field for the battle to continue ever more directly between France and England, although each new escalation of the North American fight inevitably involved jockeying for position in Europe as well.

There would be other wars in which Spain played a role, of course, and which spilled over into the Americas—the European struggle in the War of the Austrian Succession, for example, which the American colonists knew as the War of Jenkins' Ear and King George's War, successively. Each flash of fire in the wilderness would hone the contention more finely to one primarily between France and England. The French, like the Spanish before them, were economically inhibited from supporting their colonies in the vast North American interior as grandly as the English could maintain their snug settlements along the Atlantic seaboard. Instead, they allied themselves more closely with the native populations, and, like the Spanish before them, intermarried with and converted the Indians. The British colonials were more wont simply to take their lands. Thus, when what historians would later call the "Great War for Empire" finally erupted in Europe at midcentury after several smaller conflicts, the British colonials in America, seeing Spain's participation as hardly of any consequence at all, described what the Europeans would call the Seven Years' War more accurately from their point of view as simply the French and Indian War.

See also Camisards' Rebellion; Glorious Revolution; Quadruple Alliance, War of the.

Further reading: David Chandler, *The Art of Warfare in the Age of Marlborough* (New York: Viking, 1976); Henry Kamen, *The War of Succession in Spain, 1700–1715* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1969).

Spartacus (League) Revolt (1919)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Communists led by Spartacus League vs. the Allied-established German Republic
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Berlin
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In the political chaos following World War I, the German communists tried to foment social revolution.
OUTCOME: The revolt was crushed by the proto-Nazi Freikorps, the Spartacus League leaders were murdered, and the Weimar Republic was established.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 2,000 revolutionary marines and supporters, plus thousands of demonstrators; German police and Freikorps, 30,000.
CASUALTIES: 1,200 demonstrators and revolutionaries killed in Berlin, 1,500 more nationwide; police and Freikorps, minimal
TREATIES: None

In 1918, following Kaiser Wilhelm II's (1859–1941) hasty departure from Germany at the close of World War I, young leftist revolutionaries formed the "Spartacus League," led by Rosa Luxembourg (1871–1919) and Karl Liebknecht (1871–1919), and moved to take over the tottering government.

Years of seemingly senseless slaughter—at the behest of arrogant leaders, indifferent to the effect of their decisions on the lives of those they commanded and ruled—masses of workers, peasants, and soldiers were galvanized into a series of spontaneous uprisings throughout Europe as World War I drew to a close. In Russia, the relatively tiny Bolshevik Party ultimately took control of the inchoate mass revolt in 1917 with slogans calling for the end of the war and turned chaotic protest toward social revolution (*see* the Bolshevik Revolution). In Germany, the leading leftists were the Social Democrats, who had supported the nation's war effort and who had no stomach for the kind of radical change being attempted by the Bolsheviks and being proposed by some German communists.

The situation in Germany was desperate. The kaiser had fled, and the Junker leaders of a defeated German

army were keeping a low profile. Workers and common soldiers organized into councils called *Rates,* Germany's version of Russia's *soviets,* and took control of the factories and the streets. Gangs of thugs and mercenaries—the so-called German "Freikorps" because of the number of demobbed German servicemen involved—ranged about at night, preying where and when they could on defenseless citizens and the propagandizing revolutionaries. The government was being run, more or less, by a six-man Council of People's Deputies. Though revolution was in the air, the council seized no property and conducted no purges of the old regime's once-powerful bureaucracy or the military caste that had led the country into war. The moderate head of the Social Democrats, Friederich Ebert (1871–1925), dominated the council, which set January 19, 1919, for elections to a new National Assembly and looked to the old regime's military officers to provide security.

Ebert was the kind of reformer who feared social revolution more than right-wing reaction, and when the People's Marine Division—1,000 sailors strong, joined by an equal number of supporters—showed up in Berlin in December 1918 to back the more radical three Independent Socialists on the council against Ebert and his Social Democrats, Ebert worried that a Bolshevik-style coup was in the making. He turned to the Junkers, creating an alliance that would cause blood to run in the streets of Berlin and pave the way for the rise of the Nazi Party. Ebert asked the sailors to leave Berlin. They mutinied instead. He ordered loyal troops to remove them. Thousands of demonstrators filled the streets, forcing Ebert's troops to withdraw, and the outraged Independents on the ruling Council of People's Deputies resigned in protest. With them gone, the council fired Berlin's police chief, an Independent Socialist named Eichorn (fl. 1920s), and once again radicals took to the streets, this time led by the week-old Communist Party. Ebert had created the very coup he feared. The Communist Party was headed by the far-left faction of Germany's Marxist revolutionaries, the once-tiny Spartacus League, and when party leaders declared that the council was deposed and they would assume power in its stead, the *putsch* became known as the Spartacus Revolt.

The Communists themselves were divided on the question of whether Germany was ripe for a complete revolution. Even if it was, Rosa Luxembourg—founder of the Spartacus League, one of Europe's most eloquent leftist leaders, and Lenin's only true theoretical rival in the international communist movement—opposed on principle the Bolsheviks' dictatorial and terrorist tactics. She was overruled by Karl Liebknecht, a former Social Democrat legislator and cofounder of the Spartacus League, who was for a Bolshevik-inspired takeover. Ebert panicked in any case. For some time, the German minister of defense, Gustav Noske (1868–1946), had been organizing Germany's street gangs into the mercenary Freikorps. From the beginning they had been under the clandestine control of members of the former kaiser's officer caste. Now, Ebert authorized Noske to call them in.

Freikorps troops murdered both Luxembourg and Liebknecht on January 19, 1919, the day of the national elections. They attacked the mobs in the streets with a vengeance, as well as looting and raping. Over the next two months, the Freikorps killed 1,200 Berliners before viciously crushing a rebellion in Bavaria. During the elections, Ebert was swept into office on the tide of reaction, becoming president of a new republican government temporarily housed in Weimar, while Berlin was being cleaned up for Ebert's return. The Weimar Republic's constitution was the most liberal in the world, but it was written in the blood spilled by the very thugs who would become Adolf Hitler's brown-shirt stormtroopers, and the entire German military establishment was in the hands of men who not only despised liberalism, socialism, and communism but also hated the very concept of democracy. Instead of the workers' democracy imagined by those participating in the Spartacus Revolt, postwar Germany would be governed by the weak and decadent Weimer Republic, installed with the aid of men who despised it, the same men who within a decade would help boost Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) to dictatorial power.

Further reading: Elzbieta Ettinger, *Rosa Luxembourg: A Life* (Boston: Beacon, 1986); Otto Friedrich, *Before the Deluge* (New York: Harper and Row, 1972); J. P. Nettl, *Rosa Luxembourg,* 2 vols. (New York: Schocken, 1989); Helmut Trotnow, *Karl Liebknecht (1817–1919): A Political Biography* (Hamden, Conn.: Archon Books, 1984).

Spartacus's Revolt

See SERVILE WAR, THIRD.

Spartan-Achaean War (228–226 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sparta vs. Achaean League
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peloponnese
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sparta and the Achaean League contested possession of city-states of the Peloponnese.
OUTCOME: Sparta triumphed, bringing about the rapid dissolution of the league.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the death of Alexander the Great (356–23 B.C.E.), Greece was torn by a series of wars among those who contended to inherit what he had conquered. The end of the so called Wars of the DIADOCHI left a splintered

and bickering collection of Greek city-states in its wake. By the end of the third century B.C.E., Macedonia and Sparta were the principal Greek city-states, with a third entity, the Achaean League (a confederation of Greek cities in Achaea), also a power to be reckoned with.

The leader of the league, Aratus of Sicyon (d. 213), at one time allied with Macedonia, wanted to bring all of the Peloponnese into the league. Cleomenes III (c. 260–19) of Sparta was opposed to such expansion and in 229 invaded disputed territory, persuading the Aetolian cities to ally themselves with Sparta. He also won a portion of territory around Manitea, in a section of Arcadia not yet under the league's control. The next year, Aratus captured part of this area, provoking Cleomenes to mobilize. In response, the Achaean league declared war on Sparta, but no grand battles ensued.

In 227, after a series of skirmishes the year before, Aratus was reelected as the League's general and launched a major attack on Lyceum. Defeated there, he went on to retake Mantinea. In 226, a Spartan revolt elevated Cleomenes to tyrant of Sparta, and he took up the war once again with renewed zeal. After recovering Mantinea, he invaded Achaea, shattering the league's army at Hecatobaeum. The league sued for peace but soon began to disintegrate. After 225, Macedonia and Sparta became the only contenders for hegemony in Greece until the rise of Rome, which gave new life to the league.

Further reading: Stanley Mayer Burstein, *The Hellenistic Age from the Battle of Ipsos to the Death of Kleopatra VII* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1985); W. G. Forrest, *A History of Sparta: 950–192 B.C.* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1978); Michael Whitby, ed., *Sparta* (New York: Taylor and Francis, 2001).

Spartan-Achaean War (193–192 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sparta vs. Achaean League (with Rome)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spartan seaports
DECLARATION: None recorded
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Achaean League sought to annex Sparta.
OUTCOME: Despite many victories against a weakened Sparta, the Romans refused to press the campaign; Sparta briefly joined the Achaean League, but was not annexed to it.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This was an important episode in the Roman conquest of Greece, which spanned 215 to 146 B.C.E., culminating in the ACHAEAN WAR. Badly weakened by the SPARTAN-ACHAEAN WAR (228–226 B.C.E.), the Achaean League (consisting of Dyme, Patrae, Tritaea, Phérae, Aegium, Bura, and Ceryhea) virtually ceased to exist until the Second MACEDONIAN WAR so drained Spartan resources that the Achaean League was given a motive and opportunity to revive. A treaty of 195 B.C.E. between the league and the Roman Republic granted the league control over certain Spartan seaports as a reward for military services rendered to Rome. However, the treaty did not grant the league full possession of the seaports. Philopoemen (c. 253–183 B.C.E.), the league's leading general, wanted not only to possess those, but also to gain control of Sparta itself.

In 193, a series of revolts broke out in the seaports, which Philopoemen exploited. Incited by Sparta's tyrant, Nabis (r. 207–192 B.C.E.), the revolts brought the seaports back under Spartan control. Moreover, Nabis made bold to besiege Gytheum in 193, an Achaean garrison town.

Philopoemen laid these affronts before the great Roman general Titus Quinctius Flaminius (c. 230–174 B.C.E.). The Roman readily agreed to fight. In advance of Flaminius's army, Philopoemen opened a campaign to recover Gytheum. It was completed by the Romans, thereby allowing the league's forces to pursue Nabis's army toward Mount Barbosthenes (192 B.C.E.). There, Philopoemen all but annihilated the Spartan forces.

Next, Philopoemen set up a blockade of Sparta while he went on to ravage Laconia. However, Flaminius had had enough of the campaign and ordered his troops to stop fighting. Rome was simply unwilling at this point to press its advantages. Doubtless, this reluctance greatly lengthened the campaign to subjugate Greece. With his strong ally out of the picture, Philopoemen had no choice but to call off his campaign. A treaty restoring the status quo ante bellum was concluded with Sparta, and the Achaean League abandoned its plans to annex Sparta. Nevertheless, the Spartan defeat resulted in the assassination of Nabis in 192, after which Sparta briefly joined the Achaean League, thereby diminishing resistance to the eventual Roman conquest.

Further reading: Stanley Mayer Burstein, *The Hellenistic Age from the Battle of Ipsos to the Death of Kleopatra VII* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1985); W. G. Forrest, *A History of Sparta: 950–192 B.C.* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1978); Michael Whitby, ed., *Sparta* (New York: Taylor and Francis, 2001).

Spartan-Achaean War (189–188 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sparta vs. Achaean League
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sparta
DECLARATION: Achaean League on Sparta, 189 B.C.E.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Elements within Sparta wanted to secede from the Achaean League; the league acted to crush the revolt.

OUTCOME: Sparta was subjugated to the league, although Rome intervened to moderate Achaean policy toward Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Spartan agreement to the authority of the league

The Achaean League had not abandoned its dream to gain control of the Peloponnese and annexed Messene and Elis. In 191, the league's general, Philopoemen (c. 253–183 B.C.E.), quelled a Spartan revolt—without, however, first securing the permission of Rome. Two years later, he repeated this affront, acting against Sparta after its troops attacked Las near Gytheum. Philopoemen (253–183 B.C.E.) presented Sparta with an unauthorized ultimatum—surrender those guilty of the attack or suffer a declaration of war. In response, the Spartans executed 30 pro-Achaean citizens, left the Achaean League, and looked to Rome for protection.

Philopoemen declared war, sending his armies to invade Laconia in 188. There he took 80–350 leaders of the Spartan secession prisoner. He tried them publicly, then executed them. Philopoemen ordered Sparta's city walls pulled down. Mercenaries, enfranchised helots, and any who opposed the league were exiled. Spartan laws were replaced by the league's codes.

The unyielding harshness of Philopoemen's new regime brought intervention from Rome, which introduced restrictions on the league's authority.

Further reading: Stanley Mayer Burstein, *The Hellenistic Age from the Battle of Ipsos to the Death of Kleopatra VII* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1985); W. G. Forrest, *A History of Sparta: 950–192 B.C.* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1978); Michael Whitby, ed., *Sparta* (New York: Taylor and Francis, 2001).

Spartan-Persian War

See ANABASIS, THE: MARCH OF THE TEN THOUSAND; CORINTHIAN WAR.

Spartan Revolt (332–331 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sparta and various southern Greek city states vs. Macedonia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Greece
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chafing under Macedonian hegemony, the Spartans took advantage of the absence of Alexander the Great in Persia and Egypt to mount a revolt.
OUTCOME: Sparta and its allies were defeated at Megalopolis.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

While Alexander the Great (356–23 B.C.E.) was off conquering Persia and occupying Egypt (*see* ALEXANDER'S PERSIAN CAMPAIGN and ALEXANDER'S OCCUPATION OF EGYPT), King Agis II (d. 400 or 398 B.C.E.) of Sparta, with financial support from the Persians, roused several of the Greek city-states to revolt against Macedonian rule. By 332 B.C.E. most of the states in southern Greece had joined his rebellion, and together they besieged Megalopolis. Alexander's general Antipater (c. 397–19 B.C.E.) marched south and defeated the rebels outside the city in 331. After his victory, Antipater sent substantial reinforcements of infantry and cavalry to Alexander, and they joined him in Egypt.

Further reading: Stanley Mayer Burstein, *The Hellenistic Age from the Battle of Ipsos to the Death of Kleopatra VII* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1985); W. G. Forrest, *A History of Sparta: 950–192 B.C.* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1978); Robin Lane Fox, *Alexander the Great* (New York: Viking Penguin, 1994); Michael Whitby, ed., *Sparta* (New York: Taylor and Francis, 2001); Ian Worthington, ed., *Alexander the Great* (New York: Taylor and Francis, 2003).

Spokane War

See COEUR D'ALENE WAR.

Stilicho's Wars with the Visigoths (War between Alaric and Stilicho) (390–408)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Visigoths vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy, the Balkans, and Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: For the Visigoths, loot, prestige, and tribute; for the Romans, defense of the empire against barbarian invasion and depredations; for factions in Rome and Constantinople, the reunification of the Roman Empire under their hegemony
OUTCOME: After Stilicho was executed for treason in his attempt to usurp the throne of the eastern Roman Empire, the Visigoths were left with a free hand in Italy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty between Stilicho and Alaric at Verona, 403

Under the Emperor Theodosius (c. 346–95), the Roman Empire enjoyed a stable, relatively peaceful and unified period of existence. Then, in 390, the Visigoths broke a

decade-long peace (*see* VISIGOTH RAIDS ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE, EARLY) by allying with the Huns to attack Thrace. Led by an 18-year-old military genius named Alaric (c. 370–410), the barbarian tribes devastated the entire region. The Goths' savagery so incensed Theodosius that he took the field against Alaric himself. When the imperial general Promotus was killed in 392, Theodosius replaced him with the Roman general Flavius Stilicho (c. 359–410), a former Vandal who understood barbarian warfare. Invigorated by the new leadership, the Roman legions tracked down and defeated the barbarian coalition. Alaric was persuaded to quit the field with the majority of his Visigoth forces still intact in exchange for a command in the imperial army.

The encounter would be only the first of a series of engagements between the two soldiers, and though Stilicho always seemed to best Alaric, the Roman general never completely defeated the Visigoth warrior, whose prestige increased with each encounter, as did the gold in his coffers and the territory over which he held sway. In the balance usually hung the future of the Roman Empire.

Alaric's Roman patron, Theodosius, died in January 395, leaving behind two heirs—Arcadius (r. 395–408) and Honorius (r. 395–423), both minors. The struggle over which of the two would succeed their father split the Roman Empire into East and West. Stilicho was appointed regent to the 11-year-old Honorius, whose champions held sway in the western regions of the empire; Rufinus (d. 395) served as regent to Arcadius in the East. Rumors abounded that soon one of the generals would march against the other to reunify the suddenly sundered empire.

Following Theodosius's death, Alaric left the imperial army and returned to the Visigoths, who immediately proclaimed him their king. The death of the emperor, the partitioning of the empire, and Alaric's elevation to king of the Visigoths, seriously disturbed the status quo.

Divided Rome cut off its subsidies to the Visigoths, which Alaric used as his excuse to begin raiding again. South and west into the Balkans swept Alaric's hordes, where they were essentially unopposed by the Roman army, the leaders of which bickered among themselves back in Rome and Constantinople. Marching into Greece, the Visigoths pillaged with impunity, destroying the famed Temple of Demeter in 396. They sacked Piraeus, the port of Athens, as well as Corinth, Megara, Argos, and Sparta. In northern Greece, only Thebes held out against the barbarian invaders. Finally, Rome responded: Stilicho led an army down the Italian Peninsula and into Greece, catching Alaric in Thessaly. Before he could defeat his barbarian rival, he was transferred back to Italy and ordered to surrender his command in Thessaly, at the request of Arcadius, who—directed by Rufinus—feared the ambition of his brother and his brother's general more than he did Alaric's vandalizing. Arcadius was perfectly within his rights, Thessaly being considered a part of the Eastern Empire, and he assured Rome he could handle the Visigoths himself without its aid. That, however, was easier said than done, and in 397 Stilicho was back in Greece, where he blockaded the Visigoths in Arcadia. His strategy was undercut, however, when once again he was ordered back to Italy, this time to punish the Moors for refusing to ship grain to Rome.

Meanwhile, Alaric devastated the crucial province of Epirus. Arcadius responded by offering Alaric a bribe, just as his father had—if Alaric would once more abandon the field, Arcadius would not only allow him to keep Epirus but also make him *magister militum* (military governor) of Illyricum. It was an unfortunate reward and major strategical error from Stilicho's point of view, though perhaps less so from that of Arcadius and Rufinus, in that it put the king of the Visigoths in a perfect position to harass the western Roman Empire.

After a period of relative calm, Alaric allied with the Gothic leader Radagaisus (d. 405) to form a Danubian confederation of the Goths, Visigoths, Huns, Vandals, and Alans. By 401 northern Italy was under attack (*see* VISIGOTHIC RAIDS ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE: ALARIC'S FIRST INVASION OF ITALY). Savaging the region, the barbarian confederation had just mounted an offensive on Milan when, again, Stilicho marched out to meet them. This time the Roman general had reinforcements from Britain and the Rhine frontier, and he drove the confederation armies westward. The bloody showdown came at the Battle of Pollentia on Easter Sunday, April 6, 402. Both sides sustained heavy casualties in a Pyrrhic victory for Stilicho. Although he had captured Alaric's wife and family and forced Alaric himself to retire from the peninsula and regroup in Illyricum, Stilicho's forces were in no condition to pursue the retreating barbarians.

Within a year Alaric took the field again, besieging Verona in 403. This time Stilicho could have massacred the Visigoths, except he desired Rome's eastern throne. He developed a treaty with Alaric in 403 aimed at fostering an invasion of the "younger" empire, a plan that seemed to founder almost from the start.

To begin with, Alaric demanded a cash subsidy from the Senate in Rome; against Stilicho's strict admonishments the Senate foolishly complied, again leaving the young barbarian general with a gain when he should have suffered defeat, perhaps destruction. Then Alaric's confederate Radagaisus, instead of joining the invasion of the Eastern Empire, hied himself off to Italy, where he meant to take up raiding again, perhaps looking for his own cash settlement. Stilicho closed the ports of Italy to all eastern ships and instructed Alaric to hold Epirus and Illyricum. Two pieces of news caused Stilicho to abort his campaign: false reports of Alaric's death and the news of Radagaisus's Gothic invasion.

Stilicho marched north to put down the Goths, defeating Radagaisus at Fiesole in 405. Seeing Stilicho's plot go

awry and taking note of the Gothic loss, Alaric broke the treaty agreement, marched into Noricum (southern Austria), and took over the Gothic base there. He demanded another cash subsidy from the Senate in return for his troubles in the aborted attempt to reunify the empire, intimating that if the senators refused to pay he would march on Rome. Again Stilicho vehemently opposed the extortion; again the Senate voted to pay. In 407, Alaric received 4,000 pounds in gold.

Before Stilicho could take to the field in a final attempt to defeat the barbarian who for 16 years had been a constant thorn in his side, his own troops mutinied. A rumor (perhaps true) had spread that he intended to put his son on the throne in the West. Brought before his men on an allegation of treason, he was tried and executed in 407. Alaric, now totally unopposed, ranged the Italian Peninsula wreaking havoc and laying siege to Rome three times (*see* VISIGOTHIC RAIDS ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE: ALARIC'S SECOND INVASION OF ITALY). He sacked the ancient imperial capital on August 24, 410 (*see* VISIGOTHIC SACK OF ROME), the first time in 800 years Rome had been taken and the end of the Roman Empire in the West.

Further reading: Frank M. Clover, *Late Roman West and the Vandals* (London: Ashgate, 1993); Peter Heather, *The Goths* (London: Blackwell, 1996); Rosamond McKitterick, ed., *Early Middle Ages: Europe, 400–1000* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Herwig Wolfram, *History of the Goths* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1990).

Streltsy, Revolt of the (1698)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: *Streltsy* (czar's musketeer bodyguards) vs. mercenaries in the service of Peter I
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Moscow, Russia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *Streltsy* wanted to overthrow Peter I and replace him with his late half brother's regent, Sophia Alekseyevna.
OUTCOME: The revolt was suppressed, many *streltsy* were killed, and the military unit disbanded; Sophia Alekseyevna was effectively imprisoned for life.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 22,200 *streltsy;* number of Peter's mercenaries was greater
CASUALTIES: More than 1,000 *streltsy* were executed by torture.
TREATIES: None

The *streltsy,* an elite corps of Russian musketeers, based in the Kremlin, who served as the czar's bodyguard, became over the years a political cabal that played an increasingly influential role in Russian government. They were a large force organized into 22 regiments of 1,000 men each. On May 15, 1682, after the death of Feodor III (1661–82), son and successor of Czar Alexis (1629–76), they rebelled, killed scores of boyars (noblemen), and made Alexis's daughter Sophia (1657–1704) regent over the young Peter I (the Great; 1672–1725), successor to Feodor III, his late half brother. Their plan was to put Ivan V (1666–96) on the throne. Ivan proved short-lived, however, and in 1698 Peter drove Sophia from power.

For his part, Peter did nothing to ingratiate himself with the *streltsy.* He brought unwelcome reforms to the musketeer corps, calling upon the *streltsy* for higher levels of performance, and when Peter left on his famous European tour—determined to study European government and culture, with an eye toward introducing more reforms into Russia—the *streltsy* conspired to overthrow the czar and return to power the regent, Sophia Alekseyevna.

During the summer of 1698, 2,200 *streltsy* marched in support of Sophia. Peter, however, had been informed of the scheme and quickly returned to Russia. He used mercenary troops to suppress the *streltsy.* Once the musketeers had been neutralized, Peter, in most respects an enlightened ruler, executed more than 1,000 of them by various tortures. The *streltsy* corps was officially disbanded. Peter also instituted harsh measures against any others who indicated opposition to his reign. As for Sophia, her life was spared, but she was effectively imprisoned for life in a strict convent.

Further reading: Robert O. Crummey, *The Formation of Muscovy, 1304–1613* (London and New York: Longman, 1987); Chester S. L. Dunning, *Russia's First Civil War: The Time of Troubles and the Founding of the Romanov Dynasty* (University Park: Pennsylvania State University Press, 2001); S. F. Platonov, *The Time of Troubles: A Historical Study of the Internal Crises and Social Struggle in Sixteenth- and Seventeenth-Century Muscovy* (Lawrence: University Press of Kansas, 1970).

Suburb, Revolt of the

See ARRABAL, REVOLT OF THE.

Sudanese War (First Mahdist War) (1881–1885)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mahdists vs. Anglo-Egyptian government forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sudan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: A popular religious leader, the Mahdi, sought to expel foreign rulers from the Sudan.
OUTCOME: Dervishes under the Mahdi and his successor successfully liberated the Sudan from Anglo-Egyptian rule.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mahdists, 70,000; Anglo-Egyptian troops, 20,000

CASUALTIES: Each side lost more than 15,000 killed.
TREATIES: None

Also called the First Mahdist War, this bloody conflict began after the Muslim religious leader Muhammad Ahmad (c. 1843–85) had attracted renown as a holy man, living on the island of Aba in the White Nile, in Sudan. Around him a pious and militant sect gathered, including a core of especially militant Dervishes (as the British called them). Perhaps in response to his own obvious influence, Muhammad Ahmad proclaimed himself the Mahdi, the "expected guide"—in effect a prophet. He declared a jihad (holy war) against Egypt, which was controlled by British colonial forces based in Cairo.

In response to the Mahdi's declaration, Anglo-Egyptian authorities sent two companies (200 men) of Egyptian troops to Sudan to take the Mahdi prisoner. The troops were attacked by the Mahdi's now numerous followers at the Battle of Aba on August 12, 1881, and sent into retreat, with the loss of 120 men,

After the Battle of Aba, the Mahdi and his followers established a camp in the Jebel Masa mountains of Kordofan province, Sudan. They transformed this into a formidable stronghold. A 2,000-man Anglo-Egyptian expedition attacked the Mahdi's stronghold, but was ambushed and virtually annihilated. Fourteen hundred of the 2,000 men engaged were killed, on December 8, 1881. Shortly after this, another expedition was also defeated in May 1882.

The Mahdi's victories drew even more Muslims to the side of the triumphant leader. Worse for the British, their Egyptian troops began to refuse to fight the Mahdi, whom many believed possessed supernatural or, indeed, holy powers. Growing ever stronger, in 1882, the Mahdi assumed the offensive, launching attacks on government garrisons and outposts throughout Kordofan. Emboldened by the fall of one garrison after another, the Mahdi led an attack on the city of El Obeid, which was defended by 4,000 Egyptian soldiers. Here, however, the superior British arms of the Egyptian defenders took their toll and drove back some 30,000 Mahdists, of whom 10,000 were killed. The attackers regrouped and settled in for a siege, determined to starve the defenders out. When a relief column was sighted, the Mahdists ambushed it, killing 1,500 of the 3,000-man force and effectively cutting off El Obeid from the outside world. On January 17, 1883, El Obeid surrendered.

In crisis, the British government organized a new Anglo-Egyptian army, 11,000 strong and equipped with artillery, to retake El Obeid. The force was continually attacked as it marched on its objective. The attacks intensified until, during November 3–6, 1883, it was annihilated. Unable to hold the Sudan, the British advised the Egyptians to abandon the country to the Mahdists. To ensure the safe evacuation of the great trading city of Khartoum, the daring British general Charles George Gordon (1833–85)—known as "Chinese" Gordon (*see* TAIPING REBELLION)—was dispatched. Unable to bring himself to abandon Khartoum to the Mahdi, Gordon decided to take a stand and defend the city instead of evacuate it. With a garrison of 8,000 badly demoralized Egyptian soldiers, Gordon valiantly held Khartoum against a Mahdist siege for nearly a year, waiting in vain for a relief force, which was held up while the British government debated the Sudanese situation. At last, on January 26, 1885, some 60,000 Mahdists breached the city walls, overran the fortifications, and slaughtered all of the defenders, including Gordon. The belated relief force arrived on January 28, but quickly withdrew.

The Mahdi died of natural causes five months after the fall of Khartoum, but a successor, Abdullah (1846–99), led the Mahdists to victory over Anglo-Egyptian rule in the Sudan.

Further reading: Byron Farwell, *Prisoners of the Mahdi: The Story of the Mahdist Revolt* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1989); Murray S. Fradin, *Jihad: The Mahdi Rebellion in the Sudan* (Lincoln, Neb.: Authors Choice, 2003); Heinz Halm, *Empire of the Mahdi: The Rise of the Fatimids* (Boston: Brill Academic, 1996).

Sudanese War (Second Mahdist War) (1896–1899)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Anglo-Egyptian forces vs. the Mahdists
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sudan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The English and Egyptians wanted to regain control of the Sudan from the successor to the Mahdi, Khalifa Abdullah.
OUTCOME: The Mahdists were defeated, and the British and Egyptians established a joint ("condominium") government in the Sudan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mahdists, 50,000; Anglo-Egyptian forces, 26,000
CASUALTIES: Anglo-Egyptians, 1,200 killed; Mahdists, 36,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

As a result of the SUDANESE WAR (1881–1885), Sudan came under the control of the successor to the Mahdi, Khalifa ("adviser") Abdullah (c. 1846–1899). The Egyptians and British had relinquished Sudan in that war, but by the end of the century, the region was being eyed hungrily by Italy and France, so the British decided to act preemptively by retaking the region from Abdullah. The result was a new Sudanese war, which is also called the Second Mahdist War.

Under British general Horatio Kitchener (1850–1916), an Anglo-Egyptian army of 18,000 (including Sudanese auxilliaries), marched south out of Egypt and up the Nile

into Sudan. Supporting his land forces with a riverborne gunboat flotilla, Kitchener proceeded overland methodically, ensuring a permanent line of supply and communication by building a railroad as he advanced. The Mahdists resisted stoutly and frequently, but the Anglo-Egyptian force took Firket on the Nile on June 7, 1896, and Dongola on September 21, 1896. Abu Hamed fell next, on August 7, 1897. Firket resulted in the loss of 800 Mahdists killed, 500 wounded, and 600 made prisoners. Mahdist losses at Dongola and Abu Hamed were similar. From these captured strongholds, Kitchener was able to mount an effective assault against the Mahdists at the Battle of the Atbara River on April 8, 1898, at the juncture of the Atbara and the Nile. This victory drove 16,000 Mahdists from the field and killed 3,000 of them. However, Atbara provoked a massive counterattack by some 50,000 Mahdist dervishes against Kitchener's 25,800 troops at the Battle of Omdurman, a village on the Nile River, just north of Khartoum, the Sudan's principal city. The September 2, 1898, attack was repelled by the superior arms of the Anglo-Egyptian troops—especially their machine guns, which took a heavy toll on the dervishes, who lost some 11,000 killed and 11,000 wounded or captured. After the Mahdists withdrew, Kitchener emerged for a counterattack and drove the Khalifa's troops from the field. After this, Kitchener conducted a mop-up operation, pursuing survivors to Kordofan, where they took a strong defensive stand. Kitchener held the Mahdists under siege at Kordofan for more than a year, but on November 24, 1898, they finally broke, were overrun, and killed or taken prisoner. Khalifa Abdullah fell in battle.

The Anglo-Egyptian victory in the 1896–99 war succeeded in retaking Sudan, which was ruled by a British-Egyptian "condominium" government. It is estimated that 18 years of Mahdist revolt, rule, and warfare cost some 300,000 lives, mostly civilian Sudanese, and mostly as a result of disease, famine, and general privation brought on by incessant combat.

Further reading: Byron Farwell, *Prisoners of the Mahdi: The Story of the Mahdist Revolt* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1989); Murray S. Fradin, *Jihad: The Mahdi Rebellion in the Sudan* (Lincoln, Neb.: Authors Choice, 2003); Heinz Halm, *Empire of the Mahdi: The Rise of the Fatimids* (Boston: Brill Academic, 1996); John Charles Pollock, *Kitchener: Architect of Victory, Artisan of Peace* (New York: Avalon, 2001); Edward M. Spiers, ed., *Sudan: The Reconquest Reappraised* (London: Frank Cass, 1998).

Suez War

See Arab-Israeli War (1956).

Sugar War (Dutch War in Brazil) (1624–1629)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Netherlands vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Brazil
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Dutch West India Company sought to expand its trading territory to include Brazil and to force Portugal and Spain out of the region.
OUTCOME: The Dutch remained firmly in control of Brazil until 1654 when the Portuguese colonists rebelled against them.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

A fleet of 26 ships belonging to the Dutch West India Company sailed to Bahia, Brazil, in 1624 and seized control of the port, then under the control of Spain and its annexed territory, Portugal. Spain responded by sending 52 ships under Fadrique de Toledo Osorio (fl. 17th century) to Bahia to battle the Dutch invaders under Piet Heyn (1577–1629). The Spanish troops were successful, but the following year the Dutch returned to Bahia and recaptured the city. Heyn's exploits were further enhanced by his capture of a Spanish treasure ship off the coast of Cuba in 1628. With these new riches, the Dutch West India Company sent 67 ships and 7,000 men to seize northeastern Brazil. The Dutch remained in the territory until 1654 when Portuguese colonists rebelled against their rule.

Further reading: Bailey W. Diffie, *A History of Colonial Brazil, 1500–1792* (Melbourne, Fla.: Krieger, 1987); Noel Geoffrey Parker, *Spain and the Netherlands, 1559–1659: Ten Studies* (Berkeley Heights, N.J.: Enslow, 1979).

Sukhothai Revolt

See Thai War (1371–1378).

Swedish Civil War (1066–1134)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Various Swedish warlords vs. magnates
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sweden
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Sweden
OUTCOME: By about 1134, Sverker succeeded in establishing a viable central government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Sweden during the 11th century was less Christianized than Denmark and Norway and was, indeed, a wild place.

In 1060, Stenkil (c. 1028–66) succeeded to the throne but was defeated in battle by the forces of Denmark and Norway by about 1063. Stenkil left no heir when he died. That and general dissatisfaction within Sweden led to a period of civil wars, which extended well into the 12th century. The cause of the wars was a combination of disputed succession to the throne and sporadic pagan efforts to resist Christianization. It was not until the ascension of Sverker (r. c. 1130–56), a warlord from Ostergötland, to the Swedish throne that an effective central government was established. He came to power about 1130. Within four years, the civil wars had ceased—only to be renewed in 1160, between Sverker's descendants and those of the pretender Erik Jedvardsson (d. 1160).

Further reading: Franklin Daniel Scott, *Sweden: The Nation's History* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1988).

Swedish Civil War (1520–1523)

See KALMAR CIVIL WAR (1520–1523).

Swedish Civil War (1562–1568)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Followers of John, duke of Finland vs. forces of Erik XIV, king of Sweden
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sweden
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Swedish throne
OUTCOME: Enlisting the loyalty of the Swedish nobles, discontent with Erik XIV's brutal and erratic rule, John overthrew his half brother and succeeded to the Swedish throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1562 Erik XIV (1533–77) succeeded to the throne of Sweden, which was contested by his half brother John, duke of Finland (1537–92). John married the sister of Sigismund I Augustus (1520–72), king of Poland, in a move to cement a Polish alliance and with an eye toward capturing the Swedish throne. Erik acted preemptively against John, however, invading his stronghold town of Åbo (Turku, Finland) and taking John prisoner.

Erik charged John with treason, and in what many around the Swedish king considered a sign of insanity, began to murder certain members of the noble Sture family, whom Erik suspected of conspiring with John. John himself, however, was released from prison after relinquishing Finland to Erik. Well aware that the Swedish nobility had come to distrust and fear Erik for his actions against the Stures and for his general and increasing mental instability, John stirred up a rebellion among the Swedish nobles. This soon developed into a full-scale civil war. John led forces against the fortress of Stockholm in 1568 while Erik celebrated his wedding. Once the fortress had been seized, John settled in for a siege of the city itself. Considering his situation hopeless, Erik abdicated in favor of John. Erik was promised personal safety, but John, taking no chances, had him imprisoned within a year after his abdication. He died behind bars in 1577, presumably by poisoning at the hands of his jailers and by order of his half brother. In the meantime, John became John III of Sweden.

Further reading: Robert I. Frost, *The Northern Wars: 1558–1721* (New York: Pearson Education, 2000); Byron J. Nordstrom, *The History of Sweden* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2002); Byron J. Nordstrom, *Scandinavia since 1500* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 2000); Frederick Bernard Singleton, *Short History of Finland* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998).

Swedish-Danish Wars

See DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1497–1500); DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1501–1512); DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1563–1570); DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1643–1645); DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1675–1679).

Swedish-Russian Wars

See RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR (1240–1242); RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR (1590–1595); RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR (1613–1617); RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR (1656–1658); RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR (1741–1743); RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR (1788–1790); RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR (1808–1809).

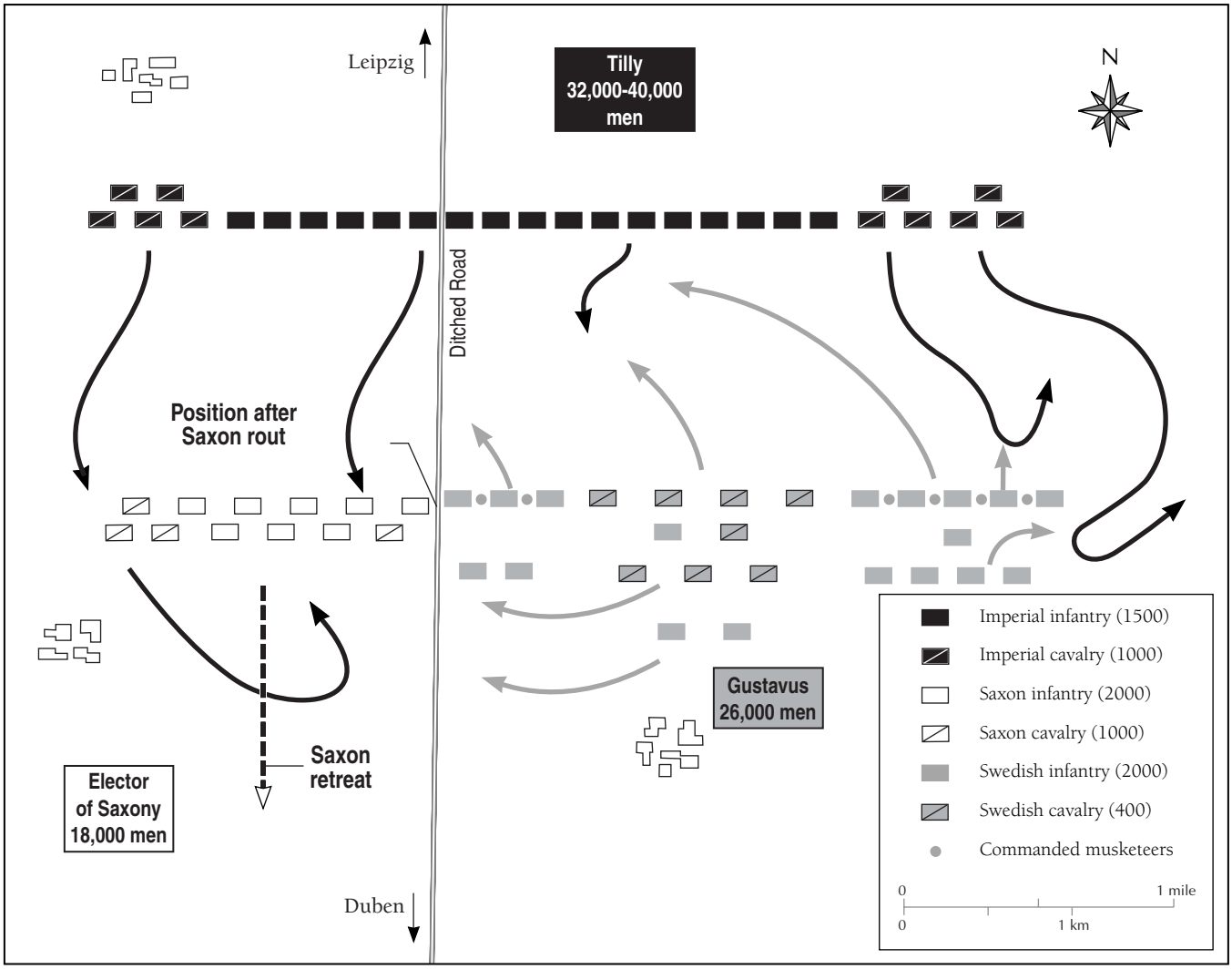
Swedish War (1630–1635)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Protestant Sweden vs. Saxony (with lesser German states) and the Catholic Holy Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sweden's Gustavus II sought to prevent the Holy Roman Empire from suppressing Protestantism in Sweden and northern Europe generally.
OUTCOME: Despite many Protestant triumphs, the war ended somewhat inconclusively when the Holy Roman Empire agreed to abandon its Edict of Restitution, which had been directed against the Protestants.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the key Battle of Breitenfeld, there were 26,000 Swedes and 18,000 Saxons against an Imperial force of 32,000 to 40,000.

CASUALTIES: At Breitenfeld, the Imperial forces lost 7,000 men; the Protestants, 3,000.
TREATIES: Treaty of Bärwalde, 1631; no formal treaty ended the war

This war may be seen as a phase of the THIRTY YEARS' WAR from 1618 to 1648 or as a major conflict in its own right. As the forces of the Holy Roman Empire enjoyed triumph in Denmark during the Thirty Years' War, Lutheran king Gustavus II (1594–1632) of Sweden, fearing that the victories of the Holy Roman Empire would ultimately snuff out Protestantism in Sweden and the north generally, led an invasion force into Germany in June 1630 and began operations to seize Pomerania. In the meantime, under the brilliant general Johan, count of Tilly (1559–1632), the Imperial forces attacked, overran, and sacked Magdeburg, a free city dominated by Lutherans. This prompted the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg and a host of lesser German princes, all Protestants, to throw their allegiance behind the campaign of Gustavus II. On the diplomatic front, Gustavus II had concluded the Treaty of Bärwalde, securing financial support from France, which, although Catholic, was opposed to the growing power of the Holy Roman Empire.

Thus, on September 17, 1631, Gustavus II entered the Battle of Breitenfeld, six miles north of Leipzig, well prepared and, despite Tilly's brilliance, emerged victorious. Gustavus's army at this battle consisted of 26,000 Swedes and 18,000 Saxons, against Tilly's 32,000 to 40,000 men. Although Tilly deployed his forces behind very well prepared defenses, his second in command, Count Gottfried zu Pappenheim (1594–1632), divided Tilly's forces by committing a major portion of the Imperial army to another battle north of Leipzig and east of Breitenfeld. In the end, Tilly lost 7,000 men, the Protestants 3,000. It was a key Protestant victory, and, viewed in the context of the Thirty Years' War, may be seen as the first Protestant triumph of that larger conflict.



Battle of Breitenfeld, September 17, 1631

After defeating Tilly, the Swedish-Saxon forces invaded the Rhineland, securing most of northwestern Germany and threatening the Holy Roman Empire itself by the beginning of 1632.

During April 15–16, 1632, the Swedish-Saxon forces engaged Tilly's army again, at the Battle of Lechs, which resulted in the death of the great Imperial general. Gustavus continued his triumphal campaign, taking Augsburg, Munich, and all of southern Bavaria. His objective now was Vienna, capital of the Holy Roman Empire. Count Albrecht von Wallenstein (1583–1634) led imperial forces against Gustavus at the Battle of Lützen on November 16, 1632. Gustavus's army outnumbered Wallenstein's 15,000 men, but Pappenheim approached southward from Halle with another 10,000, to even the odds. The Swedish-Saxon forces acted first, however, and attacked Wallenstein. While the battle was engaged, Pappenheim arrived with cavalry and checked a Swedish surge but was soon killed. Next to fall, however, was the great Gustavus, riddled with musket balls through the head, side, arm, and back. Command was assumed by Duke Bernhard (1601–75), and the death of their leader stirred Protestants to even more furious resolve. Under a withering attack, Wallenstein withdrew, abandoning his valuable artillery and leaving 3,000 men dead on the field. The Swedish-Saxon forces lost about half this number—but, most importantly, they had lost their great leader and would never regain the heart to continue the campaign. For their part, the imperial forces also suffered. Wallenstein's overweening political ambitions brought about his assassination in 1634, the same year in which the Swedish-Saxon army lost the important Battle of Nördlingen and, as a consequence, withdrew from Germany.

Ferdinand II (1610–70), the Holy Roman Emperor, agreed to abrogate the Edict of Restitution, which had been directed against the Protestants. This done, Saxony decided to make peace with the Holy Roman Empire, and the other German princes followed suit. Sweden, without the heart to go it alone, appealed for French aid but could no longer prosecute the war.

Further reading: Richard Bonney, *Thirty Years' War, 1618–1648* (London: Osprey, 2002); Geoffrey Parker and Simon Adams, eds., *Thirty Years' War* (London: Routledge, 1997); C. V. Wedgwood, *The Thirty Years War* (London: Routledge, 1982).

Swedish War with Lübeck

See Lübeck's War.

Swiss-Austrian Wars

See Austro-Swiss War (1385–1388); Austro-Swiss War (1460); Austro-Swiss War (1499).

Swiss-Burgundian Wars

See Burgundian-Swiss War (1339); Burgundian-Swiss War (1474–1477).

Swiss Civil War

See Old Zürich War.

Swiss-Hapsburg Wars

See Austro-Swiss War (1385–1388); Austro-Swiss War (1460); Austro-Swiss War (1499).

Swiss-Milanese War (1478)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Switzerland vs. Milan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): St. Gotthard Pass region, Italian-Swiss border
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Possession of the St. Gotthard Pass, a vital trade route.
OUTCOME: The Swiss asserted control of the pass, but the war failed to resolve permanently the border dispute between Switzerland and Milan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown, except that the Italian forces outnumbered the Swiss forces, which were nevertheless far more effective.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

A familiar dispute over the Swiss-Italian border triggered hostilities during this period, and when the Val Levantina renounced allegiance to Milan in 1475, Swiss troops laid siege against the city of Bellinzona near the disputed St. Gotthard Pass in the Lepontine Alps of southern Switzerland. The siege failed, but on December 28, 1478, a Swiss infantry force of pikemen and halberdiers triumphed over the Milanese at the Battle of Giornico. Numbers involved are not available, but it is known that the Swiss were significantly outnumbered, yet they fought with accustomed fierceness and overpowered the Milanese forces. This battle not only ended the war but also established the reputation of the Swiss soldier as a formidable mountain trooper, especially adept at close combat. No other army was ever more effective hand to hand then the Swiss with their trademark weapon, the long pike.

Despite the success at Giornico, most of the Swiss cantons declined to back further military effort against Milan, and possession of Bellinzona remained a subject of dispute until 1500, when the Swiss canton of Uri overran and took it.

Further reading: Douglas Miller, *The Swiss at War, 1300–1500* (London: Osprey, 1998); David Nicolle, *Italian Medieval Armies, 1300–1500* (London: Osprey, 1988).

Swiss Revolt (1798)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Switzerland vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Switzerland
DECLARATION: Berne (Swiss canton) on France, 1798
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Napoleon wanted to subjugate Switzerland.
OUTCOME: Within the space of less than a year, and often with decisive brutality, Napoleon conquered Switzerland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: The bloodiest incident was the Massacre of Stanz, in which 1,127 citizens of the half-canton of Nidwalden were killed by French troops.
TREATIES: Peace accord concluded in July 1798

Switzerland sought to remain neutral in the wars that swirled around and followed the FRENCH REVOLUTION (1789–1799); however, the country occupied a strategic position on the Paris-Milan route via the Simplon Pass through the Alps. Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) wanted to gain control of the pass. Berne dominated the Swiss region of Vaud at the end of the 18th century. Vaud chafed under its harsh rule, and Frédéric César de La Harpe (1754–1838) led a rebellion of Vaudois. Seeing an opportunity in this, Napoleon invaded Switzerland, grandly declaring his intention to help in the Vaudois struggle against Bernese oppression; however, instead of merely doing so, Napoleon brought about the creation of the Lemanic Republic from the Vaud region in January 1798. (It later became the canton of Leman and then, in 1803, the canton of Vaud.)

Although the Lemanic Republic gave Napoleon control of the Simplon Pass, he soon hungered for more, and, by mid-1798, extended his foothold in Vaud to control of all Switzerland, which he caused to be renamed the Helvetic Republic. In response, Berne declared war on France and fought two battles against French forces on the same day, March 5, 1798. The Bernese emerged victorious from one encounter, but were badly beaten in the other and immediately sought terms with the French. The surrender of the Bernese prompted most of the other Swiss cantons to revolt against the French. Rebellions were successful at Lake Zug, Rothenturm, and Morgarten during the early spring of 1798, and the French called for a peace conference. This brought an armistice, during which most of the cantons accepted a French-authored constitution. One canton, Unterwalden, refused to observe the armistice or to accept the constitution and kept fighting through July, when the weight of far superior French forces finally brought about its surrender.

The final peace came in August 1798 and was entirely dictated by France, which dissolved the Swiss Confederation. (It would revive only with the final defeat of Napoleon in 1815.) The French-dictated peace required Switzerland to render military aid to France and to permit Switzerland to be occupied by French forces. This peace did leave out the tiny half-canton of Nidwalden, which valiantly, stubbornly, and hopelessly held out against French domination until French forces killed 1,000 men, 102 women, and 25 children in the Massacre of Stanz in September 1798. As for the Helvetic Republic, it dissolved into anarchy and was replaced by a new Swiss Confederation created by Napoleon's Mediation Act of 1803.

Further reading: David Birmingham, *Switzerland: A Village History* (New York: St. Martin's, 2000); Stuart J. Woolf, *Napoleon's Integration of Europe* (London: Routledge, 1991); Oliver Zimmer, *A Contested Nation: History, Memory and Nationalism in Switzerland, 1761–1891* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003).

Swiss-Swabian War *See* AUSTRO-SWISS WAR (1499).

Swiss War against Charles the Bold *See* BURGUNDAN-SWISS WAR (1474–1477).

Swiss War against Savoy (1403–1416)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Unterwalden and Uri (Swiss cantons; with later aid from other cantons) vs. duchy of Savoy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italian-Swiss border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Alpine passes in the Italian-Swiss border region.
OUTCOME: Switzerland came to control the key passes by the end of the war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As the 15th century began the eight confederated Swiss cantons were surrounded by four menacing powers: the Hapsburg, Burgundy, Milan, and Savoy dynasties. During this period, the Italian-Swiss border was often the site of conflict (*see* SWISS-MILANESE WAR). Deciding that the best defense is a good offense, in 1403, two Swiss border cantons, Unterwalden and Uri, moved troops into the upper Ticino River valley as a first step in an aggressive southerly expansion into lands claimed by Italy. The bold move produced only desultory and sporadic armed exchanges until 1410, when the two invading cantons sought to force the war to a resolution by enlisting the aid of the

other cantons. Despite success in rallying such support, the duchy of Savoy was able in 1414 to push the Swiss out of the Val d'Ossola, which Unterwalen and Uri occupied. In 1416, the combined cantons invaded and managed to regain Val d'Ossola by the end of 1416. This took the major Alpine passes out of Italian control and into Swiss hands, thereby greatly increasing the integrity of the Swiss border region.

Further reading: Douglas Miller, *The Swiss at War, 1300–1500* (London: Osprey, 1998); David Nicolle, *Italian Medieval Armies, 1300–1500* (London: Osprey, 1988).

Swiss War of Independence

See Austro-Swiss War (1385–1388).

Syrian-Egyptian War, First (Seleucid War) (274–271 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syria (Seleucids) vs. Egyptians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Palestine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Syrians wanted to conquer Egyptian-held Palestine.
OUTCOME: Despite early land victories, the Syrians were beaten at sea and withdrew.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The death of Alexander the Great (356–23 B.C.E.) in 323 B.C.E. sent his Macedonian generals scurrying to carve up the empire he had won. The result was a century of struggle for control of Asia Minor known as the Wars of the Diadochi. By the third century B.C.E., the Ptolemies were dominant in Egypt, whereas the Seleucids controlled Syria. Then, in 274, Antiochus I Soter (324–261 B.C.E.) led the Syrians in an invasion of Palestine, which encompassed much of present-day Israel, Jordan, and Egypt. Ptolemy II Philadelphus (309–246 B.C.E.), ruler of Egypt, sent forces to combat the invaders. At first, the defenders fared poorly, especially on land. But after Ptolemy brought his powerful navy to bear, Antiochus suffered a series of defeats, and by the end of the war, Egypt controlled all the ports of the Mediterranean. The Syrians were forced to abandon their designs on Palestine, and defeat in this war heralded the decline of the Seleucid Empire, which would continue through the Second Syrian-Egyptian War, the Third Syrian-Egyptian War, the Fourth Syrian-Egyptian War, and the Fifth Syrian-Egyptian War.

Further reading: Glanville Downey, *History of Antioch in Syria: From Seleucus to the Arab Conquest* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1961); Albert T. Olmstead, *History of Palestine and Syria to the Macedonian Conquest* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1972); Lewis Bayles Paton, *Early History of Syria and Palestine* (New York: Hyperion, 1981).

Syrian-Egyptian War, Second (260–255 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syria (Seleucids) vs. Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Mediterranean coast
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Syria wanted to recover lands lost in the First Syrian-Egyptian War.
OUTCOME: The lands were recovered.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace was sealed by marriage.

The First Syrian-Egyptian War resulted in the loss of Syrian port cities to Egyptian control. Antiochus II Theos (286–247 B.C.E.), who succeeded his father, Antiochus I Soter (324–261), renewed war with Egypt by invading Egyptian-held Syrian territory in 260. After recovering what his father had lost along the eastern Mediterranean, Antiochus restrained himself from invading Egyptian Palestine, as his father had done. Instead, he exploited the naval victory of Antigonus Gonatus (277–39 B.C.E.) against Ptolemy II Philadelphus (c. 308–246 B.C.E.) to coax favorable peace terms from Egypt. Antiochus II made peace with Egypt, relinquishing his wife, Laodice, to marry the daughter of Ptolemy II, Berenice (d. 246 B.C.E.).

Thus the Second Syrian-Egyptian War was concluded. Unfortunately, the marriage was marked by misery and discontent. Antiochus violated his peace agreement and left Berenice and their son to return to Laodice.

See also Syrian-Egyptian War, Third; Syrian-Egyptian War, Fourth; Syrian-Egyptian War, Fifth.

Further reading: Glanville Downey, *History of Antioch in Syria: From Seleucus to the Arab Conquest* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1961); Albert T. Olmstead, *History of Palestine and Syria to the Macedonian Conquest* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1972); Lewis Bayles Paton, *Early History of Syria and Palestine* (New York: Hyperion, 1981).

Syrian-Egyptian War, Third (Laodicean War; War of Berenice) (246–241 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syria (Seleucids) vs. Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Asia Minor and Syria
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The war was motivated by the Seleucid murder of the sister and nephew of Egypt's king; beyond this, the principal objective was conquest.
OUTCOME: The war brought the Ptolomies' empire to its height.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Second Syrian-Egyptian War was ended, in part, by the marriage of Berenice (d. 246), daughter of Egypt's Ptolemy II Philadelphus (c. 308–246 B.C.E.), and the Seleucid (Syrian) king Antiochus II Theos (286–247 B.C.E.). Some time after, the couple had a son, Antiochus; however, growing restive in his marriage, Antiochus II Theos returned to the arms of his first wife, Laodice (fl. third century B.C.E.). Her lust for power, however, overcame any love she may have had for Antiochus II Theos, and she poisoned him and proclaimed her son, Seleucus II (d. 226 B.C.E.), king. In order to eliminate a rival claimant to the Syrian throne, in 246, she ordered her followers at Antioch to kill Berenice and the son she had borne to Antiochus II.

The murders moved her brother, Ptolemy II Euergetes (282?–21 B.C.E.), to make war on Syria. His army invaded Seleucid Syria and marched on Babylonia. His navy simultaneously recaptured the Mediterranean port towns gained by Egypt in the First Syrian-Egyptian War and lost in the Second. Beyond this, a large portion of southern Asia Minor and Syria, as well as certain Aegean ports, fell to the army and navy of Ptolemy II Euergetes. In the cause of vengeance for the deaths of Berenice and her son, Ptolemy II Euergetes built his family's Egyptian empire to its greatest extent.

See also Syrian-Egyptian War, Fourth; Syrian-Egyptian War, Fifth.

Further reading: Glanville Downey, *History of Antioch in Syria: From Seleucus to the Arab Conquest* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1961); C. A. Kinkaid, *Successors of Alexander the Great: Ptolemy I-Pyrrhus of Epirus-Hiero of Syracuse-Antiochus III* (Golden, Colo.: Ares, 1980); Albert T. Olmstead, *History of Palestine and Syria to the Macedonian Conquest* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1972); Lewis Bayles Paton, *Early History of Syria and Palestine* (New York: Hyperion, 1981).

Syrian-Egyptian War, Fourth (219–217 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syria (Seleucids) vs. Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Palestine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Syria wanted to recover territory lost in the Third Syrian-Egyptian War.
OUTCOME: After an initially successful invasion of Palestine, the Seleucids were defeated and withdrew.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Third Syrian-Egyptian War was disastrous for the Seleucid Empire, which had already suffered precipitous decline as a result of the First Syrian-Egyptian War and the Second Syrian-Egyptian War. When he ascended the Seleucid throne in 223, Antiochus III (the Great; 242–187 B.C.E.) set about recovering what had been lost. But it was, in fact, a lost cause. The Seleucid dynasty was greatly diminished. Antiochus III mustered an army and invaded Egyptian-held Palestine. Remarkably, he advanced south almost to the Red Sea. But, in defense of Egypt, Ptolemy IV Philopator (c. 244–203 B.C.E.) assembled an army of his own and, in 217, fought the Seleucids at Raphia (Rafa). The invaders, deep in Egyptian territory, were cut off from sources of supply. Ptolemy won a complete victory, sending the Seleucid army in retreat from Palestine, which Egypt reclaimed.

See also Syrian-Egyptian War, Fifth.

Further reading: C. A. Kinkaid, *Successors of Alexander the Great: Ptolemy I-Pyrrhus of Epirus-Hiero of Syracuse-Antiochus III* (Golden, Colo.: Ares, 1980); Albert T. Olmstead, *History of Palestine and Syria to the Macedonian Conquest* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1972); Lewis Bayles Paton, *Early History of Syria and Palestine* (New York: Hyperion, 1981).

Syrian-Egyptian War, Fifth (202–198 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syria (Seleucids) vs. Egypt
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Palestine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Having suffered disastrous defeat in the Fourth Syrian-Egyptian War, the Seleucid Syrians wanted to recover Palestine.
OUTCOME: The Egyptians suffered total defeat, losing Palestine and possessions in Syria and Asia Minor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace agreement was sealed by marriage.

Stunned by their severe defeat in the Fourth Syrian-Egyptian War, the Seleucid Syrians, under Antiochus III (the Great; 242–187 B.C.E.), made another attempt to invade

and take Palestine. Again, the Seleucids were hampered by a lack of support from neighbors. Nevertheless, Seleucid forces routed the Egyptians at the Battle of Panium (or Panion) in 198, sending the Ptolemaic army under Scopas (fl. second century B.C.E.) into disarray so complete that Antiochus pressed on to take other Ptolemaic territories in Syria and southeast Asia Minor, with the exception of the island of Cyprus. Antiochus gained most of Egypt's Asian territories.

A peace agreement was concluded, which was sealed by marriage: Antiochus gave his daughter, Cleopatra I (fl. 193–176 B.C.E.) to Ptolemy V Epiphanes (210?–181 B.C.E.), in marriage. Despite this triumph, the Seleucid Empire continued to decay internally.

See also SYRIAN-EGYPTIAN WAR, FIRST; SYRIAN-EGYPTIAN WAR, SECOND; SYRIAN-EGYPTIAN WAR, THIRD.

Further reading: Michel Chauveau, *Cleopatra: Beyond the Myth* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 2002); C. A. Kinkaid, *Successors of Alexander the Great: Ptolemy I-Pyrrhus of Epirus-Hiero of Syracuse-Antiochus III* (Golden, Colo.: Ares, 1980); John Ma, *Antiochus III and the Cities of Western Asia Minor* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000); Albert T. Olmstead, *History of Palestine and Syria to the Macedonian Conquest* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1972); Lewis Bayles Paton, *Early History of Syria and Palestine* (New York: Hyperion, 1981).

Syrian-Parthian War (141–139 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syria (Seleucids) vs. Parthia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Syria intervened in order to liberate Greek city-state oppressed by Parthia.
OUTCOME: Despite early victories, the Syrian army was checked and Demetrius, the Seleucid king, was made a captive.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Mithradates I (fl. 171–38 B.C.E.)—also called Arsaces VI—king of Parthia, led his armies to victory against a number of Greek cities in Asia Minor. He made vassals of his conquests, oppressing them mercilessly. At length, the Greeks appealed to the Seleucid king of Syria, Demetrius II Nicator (d. c. 125 B.C.E.), to come to their aid and liberate them. After much delay, in 141, Demetrius agreed. He invaded Parthia, enjoying a string of victories that enabled him, in 140, to drive the Parthians out of Mesopotamia altogether. The following year, however, Demetrius was betrayed by his own commanders. His army defeated, he was taken prisoner.

Demetrius languished as a captive for 10 years, a period during which Parthia, like its ally Egypt, declined. In 130, Demetrius's brother Antiochus VII Euergetes, or Sidetes (c. 158–129 B.C.E.), ascended the Syrian throne and fought the SYRIAN-PARTHIAN WAR (130–127 B.C.E.), which resulted in the expulsion of the Parthians from Syria and the acquisition of territory in Parthian-held Media. Among the conditions of peace was the release of Demetrius in 129. That the Parthians so readily agreed to this suggests that they believed the release was actually a cleverly subversive move. The Parthians reasoned that Demetrius and Antiochus would now contend for the throne, causing a civil war in Syria, which would create an opening through which the lost territory might be regained. However, Antiochus fell in battle during a Parthian raid, leaving Demetrius unchallenged, and no civil war erupted.

Further reading: Amelie Kuhrt and Susan Sherwin-White, eds., *Hellenism in the East: The Interaction of Greek and Non-Greek Civilizations from Syria to Central Asia after Alexander* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1987); Susan Sherwin-White and Amelie Kuhrt, *From Samarkhand to Sardis: A New Approach to the Seleucid Empire* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993).

Syrian-Parthian War (130–127 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syria (with Scythian allies) vs. Parthia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Parthia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Syria wanted to retake lands lost to Parthia.
OUTCOME: Both the Syrian and the Parthian kings perished in battle. The Syrians were partially successful in battle but nevertheless failed to retake the lost lands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Hoping to build on his triumph in the SYRIAN-PARTHIAN WAR (141–139 B.C.E.), Antiochus VII Euergetes or Sidetes (c. 158–129 B.C.E.) penetrated more deeply into Parthia to regain more territory. Victorious in battle, he compelled the Parthian king Phraates (d. 128 B.C.E.) to free his brother, Demetrius II Nicator (d. c. 125 B.C.E.), whom he had held for 10 years.

Still hungry for conquest, Antiochus pressed his campaign into Media, hoping to gain more territory. However,

he fell in battle against Phraates's forces at the Median capital of Ecbatana (Hamadan, Iran) in 129. Despite this blow, the Scythian allies of Antiochus fought on, invading Parthia, where they reinforced the Syrian army. Stunned by this development, Phraates withdrew to regroup his forces in order to defend against the new threat. While personally leading a counterattack against the now combined Scythian and Syrian forces, Phraates was killed in battle. However, the Seleucid Syrians proved unable to retake the Parthian lands they had formerly controlled, and the Seleucid Empire resumed its long and now quite irreversible decline.

Further reading: Amelie Kuhrt and Susan Sherwin-White, eds., *Hellenism in the East: The Interaction of Greek and Non-Greek Civilizations from Syria to Central Asia after Alexander* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1987); George Rawlinson, *Seven Great Monarchies of the Ancient Eastern World: Parthia and Sassania,* vol. 3 (Piscataway, N.J.: Gorgias, 2003); Susan Sherwin-White and Amelie Kuhrt, *From Samarkhand to Sardis: A New Approach to the Seleucid Empire* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993).

Syrian-Roman War (192–189 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syria (Seleucids) vs. Rome (with Rhodes and Pergamum)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Asia Minor
DECLARATION: Rome on Syria, 192 B.C.E.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Syria wanted Rome's compliance in the conquests of its ally Aetolia.
OUTCOME: Rome attacked a Syrian fleet, triggering a war that proved disastrous for the Syrians, who lost their seaports and became landlocked.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Syrian forces, 75,000; Roman-Pergamenian forces, 40,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Following the defeat of Macedonia at the Battle of Cynoscephalae in 197, during the Second MACEDONIAN WAR, the Aetolians of central Greece jockeyed for position to take Macedonia's place as the dominant state in Greece. After attacking the allies of Rome among the Greek states, they appealed to Syrian king Antiochus III (the Great; 242–187 B.C.E.) to intervene with Rome on their behalf.

Taking this as an invitation from the Aetolian League to invade Greece, Antiochus sailed with an army of 10,000 across the Aegean in 192 and was met by a Roman army at Thermopylae. Under the leadership of M. Acilius Glabrio (d. 152 B.C.E.), the Roman forces defeated Antiochus, who fled with the remainder of his forces back to Ephesus. However, the naval fleets of Rhodes and Pergamum collaborated with the Romans against Antiochus's navy, winning three victories at sea, first at a location between Ionia and Chios (191 B.C.E.), then at Eurymedon and Myonessus, both in 190 B.C.E. The Romans capitalized on these triumphs by invading Asia Minor with an army under the command of two great generals, Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus (237–183 B.C.E.) and his brother Lucius Cornelius Scipio (fl. second century). They met the Syrians at the Battle of Magnesia near Smyrna in December 190. After initial gains, Antiochus III made a serious tactical blunder by pursuing a flank of the Roman cavalry too far, laying himself open to encirclement by another Roman flank. This infantry force destroyed most of the Syrian army. As a result, Syria gave up all of its coastal territories, surrendered all but 10 of its warships, gave up its war elephants, and agreed to pay a heavy indemnity. Landlocked, Syria's power was greatly diminished.

Further reading: John D. Grainger, *Roman War of Antiochos the Great* (Boston: Brill Academic, 2002); Susan Sherwin-White and Amelie Kuhrt, *From Samarkhand to Sardis: A New Approach to the Seleucid Empire* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993).

Syrian War with Pergamum (224–221 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Syria (Seleucids) vs. Pergamum
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Syria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Pergamum wanted to expand into northern Syria.
OUTCOME: Syria successfully defended its territory.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Pergamum, a Greek city-state in northern Asia Minor, was founded by Alexander the Great (356–23 B.C.E.). In 230, Attalus I Soter (269–197 B.C.E.), king of Pergamum, triumphed over the Galatians, who lived in Galatia, central Asia Minor. This victory emboldened him to further expand his territory, at which he proved quite successful until his acquisitive course ran afoul of the Seleucid Syrians under Antiochus III (the Great; 242–187 B.C.E.).

Attalus invaded northern Syria, taking much territory there. In the absence of Antiochus, who was fighting in Palestine, his cousin, Achaeus (d. 214 B.C.E.), led an army against Attalus. In several hard-fought battles, Achaeus emerged victorious, slowly pushing the Pergamum invaders out of Syrian territory. By 221, Pergamum had contracted within its original borders. On his return from

Palestine, Antiochus attacked Pergamum and thereby regained control of most of central Asia Minor. Pergamum receded into the status of a marginal power.

Further reading: Amelie Kuhrt and Susan Sherwin-White, eds., *Hellenism in the East: The Interaction of Greek and Non-Greek Civilizations from Syria to Central Asia after Alexander* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1987); Roger B. McShane, *The Foreign Policy of the Attalids of Pergamum* (Champaign-Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1964); George Rawlinson, *Seven Great Monarchies of the Ancient Eastern World: Parthia and Sassania,* vol. 3 (Piscataway, N.J.: Gorgias, 2003); Susan Sherwin-White and Amelie Kuhrt, *From Samarkhand to Sardis: A New Approach to the Seleucid Empire* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993).

T

Taiping Rebellion (1850–1864)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Taiping rebels vs. Manchu government forces (with aid from the United States and Britain)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern China
DECLARATION: The Taiping dynasty was proclaimed in 1852.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: By the mid-19th century the Manchu (Ch'ing) dynasty was so weak and corrupt that rebellion was almost inevitable.
OUTCOME: The Taiping rebels caused massive devastation and were remarkably successful until foreign powers intervened on the side of the Manchu.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: In the millions, among civilians
TREATIES: None

By the mid-19th century, the Manchu, or Ch'ing, dynasty of China was faltering badly as the nation became increasingly riddled with political, religious, and cultural factionalism. In an effort to purge China of foreign influence, Manchu authorities dispatched imperial troops to attack and dismantle a religious society based, at least in part, on Protestantism. To the dismay of the Manchus, the members of the society defeated the troops sent against them, and the scholar who led the organization, Hong Xiuquan (Hung Hsiu-ch'uan; 1814–84), immediately emerged as a popular political leader. His religious organization became the ad hoc nucleus of a rebellion against Manchu rule, a rebellion located primarily in southern China.

The first major objective of the rebellion was to acquire arms, accomplished by an 1852 assault on the government arsenal at Yochow. The rebels captured and looted this installation, then swept down the valley of the Yangtze River and attacked Nanking, which they overran and seized. Here Hong Xiuquan proclaimed a new dynasty for China, the Taiping—"Great Peace."

Now Taiping rebels raided and ravaged the countryside and villages throughout the south, moving with such ferocity and swiftness that imperial forces were almost totally ineffective against them. At last, in 1860, European and U.S. interests decided to exploit the unrest in China to win concessions from the Manchu government in exchange for assistance in suppressing the rebellion. U.S. military authorities helped arm and more effectively organize imperial troops to create the "Ever Victorious Army." In 1862, a British military officer, Charles George Gordon (1833–85), assumed command of the Ever Victorious Army and began a concerted campaign of reconquest, taking back from the Taiping rebels many of the towns, villages, and settlements they had captured. (For his exploits, Gordon would be known henceforth as "Chinese" Gordon; *see* SUDANESE WAR [1881–1885].) The success of the Ever Victorious Army inspired more Chinese who were loyal to the Manchu government to form volunteer armies of their own; they proved effective in suppressing the rebels.

The great turning point of the Taiping Rebellion came in July 1864, with the retaking of Nanking. By the following year, the last of the Taiping rebels were mopped up. Nevertheless, the cost of the rebellion had been tremendous. Either through direct military action or indirectly,

because of economic distress and the ruin of crops, millions of Chinese died during 1850–64. The rebellion fatally undermined the Manchu dynasty, which became increasingly dependent on the West and incompetent to govern the Chinese people.

Further reading: Shunshin Chin, *The Taiping Rebellion* (Armonk, N.Y.: M. E. Sharpe, 2000); Ian Heath, *The Taiping Rebellion 1851–66* (London: Osprey, 1994); Franz Michael and Chung-li Chang, eds., *Taiping Rebellion: Documents and Comments,* vol. 3 (Bellingham: University of Washington Press, 1971); Jonathan D. Spence, *God's Chinese Son: The Taiping Heavenly Kingdom of Hong Xiuquan* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1996); Jonathan D. Spence, *The Taiping Vision of a Christian China 1836–1864* (Waco, Tex.: Baylor University Press, 1998).

Taira and Minamoto, War of the

See GEMPEI WAR.

Takauji, Revolt of (1335–1392)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ashikaga Takauji vs. Go Daigo II
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Japan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Takauji sought to remove Go Daigo as emperor.
OUTCOME: Ultimately Takauji prevailed when Go Daigo's successor abdicated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: 1392 abdication of Go Daigo's successor

Ashikaga Takauji (1305–58) was a Hojo general who deserted the Hojo shogun (military overlord) to join Emperor Go Daigo II (1287–1338) in revolt against the Hojo. For his role in the successful revolt, Takauji expected to be made shogun. Go Daigo, however, insisted on personal imperial rule, whereupon Takauji rebelled against him, beginning in 1335. By 1338, Takauji had succeeded in expelling Go Daigo from the capital city of Kyoto. He set up another member of the royal family as emperor, this time with himself as dictator and shogun. Go Daigo, however, did not capitulate. Operating from a base in the mountains of Yoshino, south of Nara, he continued to oppose Takauji. The war continued without decision for a total of 56 years, ending in 1392, when Go Daigo's successor agreed to abdicate.

Further reading: Sir George Sansom, *A History of Japan* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1963); Kozo Yamamura, ed., *Cambridge History of Japan: Medieval Japan,* vol. 3 (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990).

Talambo Affair (1862)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Peru vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Peru (Talambo plantation; Chincha Islands)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Spain's contempt for Peru's independence; Peruvian maltreatment of Basque immigrants
OUTCOME: Spain's seizure of the Chincha Islands led to a military coup in Peru and a declaration of war against Spain.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Minimal
TREATIES: January 27, 1865

In the mid-19th century long-standing troubles of Peru with Spain, which refused to recognize the independence of the South American country, came to a climax when a Spanish squadron seized Chincha Islands, 12 miles off Pisco on the Peruvian coast. The move came in response to the maltreatment of Basque immigrants in the so-called Talambo incident.

In 1862, Peruvian workers had assaulted a group of Basques laboring on the Talambo plantation. Spain sent Fernando de Naronha (fl. 1860s), a royal viceroy, to Peru to demand compensation. Peru, resentful of Spanish arrogance and Spain's contempt for its independence, refused to receive the envoy. Spain then dispatched troops to the Chincha Islands, valuable for their guano. The squadron took the islands on April 4, 1864. In the treaty that followed in 1865, there was little President Juan Antonio Pezet (1806–after 1871) could do but accede to Spanish demands to pay 3 million pesos for the return of Chinchas. Although Spain virtually recognized Peruvian sovereignty in the treaty, it did not do so officially, and the indemnity infuriated most Peruvians. Pezet was driven from office by General Ignacio Prado, who became president and declared war on Spain on January 14, 1866.

See SPANISH-PERUVIAN WAR.

Further reading: Carlos A. Forment, *Democracy in Latin America, 1760–1900,* vol. 1, *Civic Selfhood and Public Life in Mexico and Peru,* Morality and Society Series (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2003); Orin Starn, Robin Kirk, and Carlos I. Degregori, eds., *Peru Reader: History, Culture, Politics* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1995); David P. Werlich, *Peru: A Short History* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1978).

Talha and Zubayr, Revolt of

See MUSLIM REVOLT.

Taliban, United States's War against *See* United States's "War on Terrorism."

Taliban Conquest of Afghanistan (1994–1996)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Taliban faction vs. competing Mujahideen forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Afghanistan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Afghan government
OUTCOME: The Taliban seized control of the Afghan government, but faced continuing opposition from a small group of Mujahideen
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Taliban numbers unknown; post-1996 Mujahideen resistance, about 15,000
CASUALTIES: More than 50,000 killed in Kabul during 1992–96
TREATIES: None

The Afghan Civil War (1979–1992) ended with the overthrow of the government of President Mohammed Najibullah (d. 1996) by the Afghan army on April 16, 1992. This cleared the way for competing factions of the Mujahideen, the popular military front that had defeated the Soviets during the civil war, to fight one another. Between January 1994 and February 1995, the Afghan capital city, Kabul, fell under almost continual rocket and artillery attack, a disaster that killed some 8,000 citizens and wounded perhaps 30,000 more.

From this chaos, a fundamentalist Muslim organization known as the Taliban arose and quickly gained power. First coming to prominence in the southern part of the country, it soon pushed northward, gathering strength and sweeping aside opposition. On September 27, 1996, Kabul fell to the Taliban, which sought out the deposed Najibullah and hanged him.

The city over which the Taliban now presided was 75 percent destroyed. Nevertheless, from the devastated capital the Taliban introduced an iron discipline into Afghan civil and religious life. Opposition was not tolerated, and by the end of 1996 the Taliban was in control of virtually all of the country, save for some diehard Mujahideen groups, fielding perhaps 15,000 men and under the nominal command of Ahmad Shah Massoud (1956–2001). A low-level guerrilla war against the Taliban continued. The anti-Taliban opposition, which barely held its own, would be boosted to victory by U.S. intervention in the United States's "War on Terrorism," which followed the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, against the United States.

Further reading: Peter Marsden, *The Taliban: War and Religion in Afghanistan,* rev. ed. (London: Zed Books, 2002); Neamatollah Nojumi, *The Rise of the Taliban in Afghanistan: Mass Mobilization, Civil War, and the Future of the Region* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2002).

Tamerlane's First War against Toktamish (1385–1386)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tamerlane vs. Toktamish
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Urganj, Khwarizm, and Transoxiana (Uzbekistan and parts of Turkmenistan and Kazakstan)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tamerlane was determined to punish and suppress the rebellious Toktamish, who attempted to take from him Urganj.
OUTCOME: Toktamish was driven out of the disputed region, and Tamerlane led terror raids throughout Urganj to punish those who had sided with Toktamish.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Toktamish (d. 1406) was a Mongol warlord whose rise was fostered by Tamerlane (Timur Leng [1336–1405]), the great Barlas Turk regarded as the greatest conqueror since Genghis Khan (c. 1167–1227). The son of a minor Tatar prince, Toktamish had been involved in a bid for the throne of Sarai in the 1370s. As a result of his failure there, he was forced to flee to Tamerlane's court, where he found not only respite, but also backing for a return to Sarai. This time he vanquished the tribal leaders who had opposed him and went on in 1381 to reunite for a brief time the major components of the tribal structure of the Golden Horde (*see* Golden Horde Dynastic War) and to attack Moscow. By the mid-1380s, he set about consolidating his gains.

In helping to elevate Toktamish to the Mongol throne, Tamerlane had assumed control of the territory of Urganj, formerly occupied by the Golden Horde. But as Toktamish's power grew, he was inevitably drawn into a struggle with Tamerlane himself. Violating the obligation of loyalty and fealty the Mongol khan owed to Tamerlane, Toktamish decided to take Urganj from the Turkish conqueror. When Tamerlane was absent on campaigns in the Caucasus, Toktamish conducted a furtive military action to take the Urganj capital, Samarkand, in 1385.

Although Toktamish enjoyed success in his advance on the capital, news of this campaign reached Tamerlane, who rapidly led an army from the Caucasus to Samarkand and actually reached the city ahead of Toktamish's forces. Seizing the initiative, Tamerlane made a preemptive attack, using his relatively small force against Toktamish's much greater army. Toktamish, however, was deceived

into believing this force was merely the vanguard of a much larger body of troops, and he quickly withdrew. Tamerlane gave chase during 1386, ravaging Urganj and taking revenge on the Jats of the White Horde, who had sided with Toktamish. A showdown with Toktamish himself would have to await a new campaign, TAMERLANE'S SECOND WAR AGAINST TOKTAMISH.

See also TAMERLANE'S INVASION OF INDIA.

Further reading: Hilda Hookham, *Tamburlaine, the Conqueror* (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1962); Beatrice Forbes Manz, *The Rise and Rule of Tamerlane* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1999).

Tamerlane's Second War against Toktamish (1391–1395)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tamerlane vs. Toktamish
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia and Ukraine
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tamerlane continued his pursuit of vengeance (begun in Tamerlane's First War against Toktamish) against the treacherous Toktamish.
OUTCOME: Toktamish was defeated at every turn and lost control of the Golden Horde, which quickly deteriorated as a military and political power; Toktamish himself continued to evade capture by Tamerlane.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Tamerlane (Timur Leng [1336–1405]) pursued his erstwhile protege Toktamish (d. 1406) through Urganj during TAMERLANE'S FIRST WAR AGAINST TOKTAMISH (1385–86), visiting great destruction on those populations that had aided him but failing to take Toktamish himself. In 1391, Tamerlane pursued Toktamish into the territory of the Bulgars (Great Bulgar state) and received intelligence that Toktamish and his forces were camped on the west bank of the Ural River. Logistically, Tamerlane's forces were not in an advantageous position for attack, because extensive reaches of desert separated his army from that of Toktamish. Nevertheless, determined to deal with the rebel once and for all, Tamerlane ordered the long, punishing march. As he approached the rear guard of Toktamish's army, Toktamish attempted to divert Tamerlane and his forces with bribes and protests of renewed loyalty. Tamerlane brushed these aside and attacked.

In the three-day-long Battle of the Steppes (at Kandurcha), Tamerlane fared poorly at first; Toktamish counterattacked his left flank and nearly rolled it up. The timely arrival of well-positioned reserves turned the tide; they circled around Toktamish and broke through his rear positions. The effect of this action was intensified by rumors that Toktamish had been killed. Demoralized, Toktamish's forces were doomed to defeat. Toktamish himself, however, once again eluded Tamerlane and his desire for personal vengeance. He escaped to form an alliance with the Mamluk sultan of Egypt. Reorganizing a force incorporating the sultan's men, Toktamish made hit-and-run raids against Tamerlane's frontier throughout 1394. For his part, Tamerlane took a new tack, invading Russia and attacking Toktamish's Golden Horde capital, Sarai, which he sacked. Tamerlane then installed a new khan, dependent wholly on himself, and went on to seek out a fresh, direct confrontation with Toktamish.

In 1395, Tamerlane located Toktamish's forces at the Terek River and attacked him there, routing his army. Tamerlane once again pursued Toktamish, chasing him deep into the Ukraine. Periodically, Toktamish tried—always without success—to effect a reconciliation with his nemesis. On the run, Toktamish lost control of the Golden Horde, which quickly deteriorated as a political and military force as its leaders continued to fight each other for supremacy. In the end, all their subsequent attempts to restore political stability and commercial viability to the steppes failed.

See also GOLDEN HORDE DYNASTIC WAR; TAMERLANE'S INVASION OF INDIA.

Further reading: Hilda Hookham, *Tamburlaine, the Conqueror* (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1962); Beatrice Forbes Manz, *The Rise and Rule of Tamerlane* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1999).

Tamerlane's Invasion of India (1398–1399)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Mongol forces of Tamerlane vs. various defenders of India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Unclear; the campaign constituted an extended raid; no territory was occupied.
OUTCOME: Tamerlane penetrated into India, carving a swath of devastation, then, although unopposed, withdrew.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At Panipat (1398), Indian losses exceeded 100,000; Indian civilian casualties were devastating.
TREATIES: None

In the course of his conquests (*see* TAMERLANE'S FIRST WAR AGAINST TOKTAMISH and TAMERLANE'S SECOND WAR AGAINST TOKTAMISH), Tamerlane (1336–1405) deployed his advance units and entire right wing, under the command of his grandson, to the Punjab. These troops captured Multan in the spring of 1398. In the meantime,

Tamerlane's left wing invaded India via Lahore. Tamerlane personally led a force of handpicked men over the formidable Hindu Kush, turning south in September 1398 to join with his principal forces east of the Indus River. Once united, Tamerlane led his armies against Delhi, bringing the maximum of destruction in his wake.

On December 17, 1398, Tamerlane engaged the army of Mahmud Tughluk at the Battle of Panipat, defeating it totally, then executing 100,000 Indian prisoners of war. The victory cleared the way to Delhi, which fell instantly and was subjected to wholesale devastation.

After completing the rape of Delhi, Tamerlane advanced northward into the foothills of the Himalayas, where he stormed the fortress town of Meerut, overrunning that purportedly impregnable position. This accomplished, he turned west and marched back into the Punjab, cutting a wide swath of total destruction.

In March 1399, Tamerlane left India without occupying any territory. History has never adequately explained his motive for this campaign, which, at this historical remove, appears nothing more or less than an exercise in senseless destruction.

Further reading: Beatrice Forbes Manz, *The Rise and Rule of Tamerlane* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1999); David Nicolle, *The Age of Tamerlane* (London: Osprey, 1990); Edward D. Sokol, *Tamerlane* (Lawrence, Kans.: Coronado, 1977).

Tang-Nanchao Wars (829–874)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tang (T'ang) dynasty forces vs. armies of the Nanchao kings
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China and Vietnam
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Nanchao attempted to overthrow and replace the Tang dynasty.
OUTCOME: The Tang prevailed but suffered irreversible loss of influence and power.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Tang dynasty of China suffered decline during the ninth century, and as central authority diminished, the strength and boldness of warlords increased. Vassals of the Tang, most notably the Nanchao kings of Yunnan, openly rebelled. From 829 to 874, a state of chronic, if intermittent, warfare prevailed between the forces of the Tang and those of the Nanchao kings. Three times Nanchao armies invaded regions controlled by the Tang. Ch'engtu (Chengdu) was overrun twice, in 829 and again in 874, and Hanoi was invaded in 863. On all occasions, the Tang managed to expel the Nanchao invaders. However, the war took a steady toll on the already weakening Tang, leaving Tang regions vulnerable to attack by Huang Zhao (Huang Ch'ao; d. 884), a popular Robin Hood figure who during 875–84 overran Loyang and Chang'an, declaring himself emperor in 880. Huang was finally defeated in 882—and committed suicide two years later—but the Tang, diminished in resources after each assault, was clearly doomed.

Further reading: Arthur F. Wright and Denis Twitchett, eds. *Perspectives on the T'ang* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1973).

Tang-Tibetan War (848)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of the Tang (T'ang) dynasty vs. Tibetans occupying Gansu (Kansu)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gansu, northwest China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Tang sought the expulsion of invading Tibetans.
OUTCOME: Despite the general decline of Tang power, the Tibetans were swiftly expelled.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the long decline of China's Tang dynasty in the ninth century, the Tibetans took advantage of the beleaguered state of Tang affairs—particularly the preoccupation with warding off invasions by the Nanchao kings of Yunnan (*see* TANG-NANCHAO WARS)—to attempt the recapture of Gansu in northwest China. Tibetans gradually occupied the region before they were expelled in a swift military action by the Tang in 848.

Further reading: Arthur F. Wright and Denis Twitchett, eds. *Perspectives on the T'ang* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1973).

Taranaki War, First (1860–1861)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain vs. the Maori tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Taranaki region, North Island, New Zealand
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British sought possession of land ceded by a certain Maori sub-chief.
OUTCOME: Most of the land was seized and an uneasy truce maintained after retrocession of a small parcel of land to the Maori.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: The entire period of the First, Second, and Third Taranaki Wars resulted in the loss of 54 percent of the Maori population, at least 27,000 persons.
TREATIES: Truce of 1861

In colonial New Zealand, as in the Indian Wars in the United States throughout the 19th century, tribal members frequently disputed land concessions and other agreements chiefs and other tribal members made with white government authorities. In 1859, a minor chief of the Maori tribe in the Taranaki region of North Island sold to British colonial interests land along the Waitara River. His tribe repudiated the cession and resisted confiscation of the land. Although the British had concluded the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840, whereby tribal veto of various agreements was allowed, authorities violated the treaty by attacking Maori strongholds, called *pa*s. Resistance was stiff, and the British made little headway until they finally succeeded in overrunning the critical Te Arei Pa in 1861. This prompted the Maori to conclude a truce in return for the British retrocession of a modest parcel of tribal land.

The truce was an uneasy one, frequently punctuated by outbursts of violence over a 12-year period. It is estimated that during this time significantly more than half of the Maori population of 50,000 was killed. Historians sometimes refer to this period as the Second Maori War; others recognize a Second TARANAKI WAR (1863–64) also called the Waikato War, and a Third TARANAKI WAR (1864–72).

Further reading: Keith Sinclair, *The Origins of the Maori Wars* (Wellington: New Zealand University Press, 1957).

Taranaki War, Second (Waikato War) (1863–1864)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain vs. the Maori tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Waikato River area, North Island, New Zealand
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British sought to occupy the area.
OUTCOME: Guerrilla resistance was suppressed in the Waikato River region but persisted elsewhere on North Island through 1872.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Also known as the Waikato War and treated by some historians as part of a larger Second Maori War, this was a resumption of the conflict taken up in the First TARANAKI WAR, which had ended in an uneasy truce. In April 1863, Sir George Grey (1812–98), the British governor-general of New Zealand, laid a military road directly into the disputed area of Waikato River. To do this, and to clear the way for European settlers, Grey attacked the Maori, driving them from Tataramaika "block." The Maori responded with guerrilla attacks, which the British sought to suppress by neutralizing the *pa*s, the Maori stronghold-fortresses, and counterattacking with riverborne gunboats and special ranger-style military units. The British were quite successful, suppressing guerrilla forces at Meremere and Rangiriri in 1863 and, the next year, destroying Orakau Pa. These triumphs put an end to Maori resistance in the Waikato River region, but elsewhere on New Zealand's North Island guerrilla warfare continued as the Third TARANAKI WAR.

Further reading: Keith Sinclair, *The Origins of the Maori Wars* (Wellington: New Zealand University Press, 1957).

Taranaki War, Third (1864–1872)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain vs. the Maori tribes
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North Island, New Zealand
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British—especially the British East India Company—sought to settle Maori lands.
OUTCOME: The war produced no clear-cut victor; however, by 1872, with all sides exhausted and the Maori resistance all but crushed, the war petered out.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown; but see this heading in First Taranaki War.
TREATIES: None

This was a resumption of the conflict between the British and Maori on New Zealand taken up in the First TARANAKI WAR (1860–61) and the Second TARANAKI WAR (1863–64). The Second Taranaki War had neutralized Maori resistance in the hotly contested Waikato River area but did not suppress resistance elsewhere on New Zealand's North Island. Throughout this territory, the Maori Hau Hau, a religiously inspired warrior cult, its members motivated by a sincere belief that they were invulnerable and impervious to British bullets, fought with suicidal ferocity against British forces. At this point, the British government was eager to establish peace, but the British East India Company pushed for additional lands in New Zealand and continually provoked new outbreaks. A major attack was launched against the guerrillas at Weroroa Pa in 1865, resulting in a significant British

victory. Despite this, the guerrillas continued to block colonial expansion. In 1868, the resistance of the Maori Hau Hau was supplemented by that of a new group, also religious and military in nature, the Ringatu.

From 1865 on, none of the three combatant elements, the British, the Hau Hau, or the Ringatu, could claim any clear-cut victories. The war wound down in 1872—the fighting stopped—not through any resolution of conflict, any claim of victory, or any concession of defeat but as a result of exhaustion on all sides. Nevertheless, by this time, resistance had been so worn down that only a single portion of New Zealand, King County, remained closed to colonial settlement.

See also BAY OF ISLANDS WAR.

Further reading: Keith Sinclair, *The Origins of the Maori Wars* (Wellington: New Zealand University Press, 1957).

Tassilo's (of Bavaria) Revolt (763)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Duke Tassilo III vs. Franks under Pepin III
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Bavaria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tassilo III sought independence from the overlordship of Pepin III.
OUTCOME: Tassilo prevailed, maintaining independence from 763 until he was deposed by Charlemagne in 788.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Frankish dukes of the Agilolfing family ruled Bavaria from about 555 to 788. In 763, one of these dukes, Tassilo III (730–97), revolted against Pepin III (c. 714–68), the first king of the Frankish Carolingian dynasty and father of Charlemagne (c. 742–814). Pepin defeated Tassilo in 757, when the duke first attempted to assert independent authority. The revolt of 763 was far more successful, and it was not until 788 that Tassilo III was finally deposed by Charlemagne, who incorporated Bavaria once and for all into the Carolingian empire and replaced this last of the Agilolfing dukes with a trusted deputy.

Further reading: Kathy Lynne Pearson, *Conflicting Loyalties in Early Medieval Bavaria* (London: Ashgate, 1999); Pierre Riché, *The Carolingians: A Family Who Forged Europe* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1993).

Tay Son Rebellion *See* VIETNAMESE CIVIL WAR (1772–1802).

Tecumseh's Uprising (1810–1811)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tecumseh Northwest Indian alliance vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Indiana
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tecumseh hoped to form an pan-American Indian buffer state between the United States and Britain's North American colonies, thus checking white encroachment on Indian land in the Ohio Valley and beyond; the United States sought to break up the alliance, acquire all Indian lands east of the Mississippi, and ultimately to move the Indians into the newly bought lands of the Louisiana Purchase.
OUTCOME: Tecumseh's Indian alliance failed, and allies abandoned him; he led those who remained into the British camp as the War of 1812 broke out.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 1,000; Allied tribes, 350 to 700
CASUALTIES: United States, 50 killed, 120 wounded; Allied tribes, 50-plus killed, at least 120 wounded
TREATIES: None

Born into one of the 12 Algonquian-speaking tribes called collectively "Shawnee," Tecumseh (c. 1768–1813) would become the best-known Indian leader of his day to the general American public, and outside the Sioux chief Sitting Bull, arguably the best known in history. Born in Ohio, perhaps around Springfield, Tecumseh was the older brother of a Shawnee shaman named Tenskwatawa (1775–1837) and frequently called by whites "the Prophet." As a young man, Tecumseh had fought with distinction in the 40-year Algonquian resistance against Euro-American incursions in the Ohio Valley and the Old Northwest that began with the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, included PONTIAC'S REBELLION, and ended with the victory of "Mad" Anthony Wayne (1745–96) at the Battle of Fallen Timbers in 1794. Both his father and his two older brothers were killed during the long struggle, and following Fallen Timbers an embittered Tecumseh, forever a foe of the Americans, moved west to present-day Indiana, though he returned regularly to the Ohio Valley to hunt. During the last five years of the 18th century and into the first few years of the 19th he earned the admiration, respect, even affection of not only the Indians but also whites with whom he came into contact for his opposition to the traditional Algonquian practices of captive torture and ritual cannibalism, as well as for his veracity. Among the tribes of the Old Northwest he quickly became a one-man political power consciously modeling himself on Pontiac.

After the defeat of the Old Northwest tribes was finalized in the Treaty of Greenville in 1795, the trans-Appalachian frontier remained relatively peaceful, and an encouraged President Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826)

endorsed further white expansion into the West, directing the governor of the Indiana Territory, William Henry Harrison (1773–1841), to obtain "legal" title to as much Indian land as possible. Harrison, who made no effort to ensure that he dealt with legitimate tribal representatives, acquired 70 million acres in less than three years by a series of questionable treaties, resulting in growing dissension among the tribes. Tecumseh, a persuasive and charismatic leader of remarkable strategic acumen, realized not only that his tribe could not survive a prolonged peace that ushered in thousands of new settlers but also that his people were not powerful enough alone to endure a prolonged war.

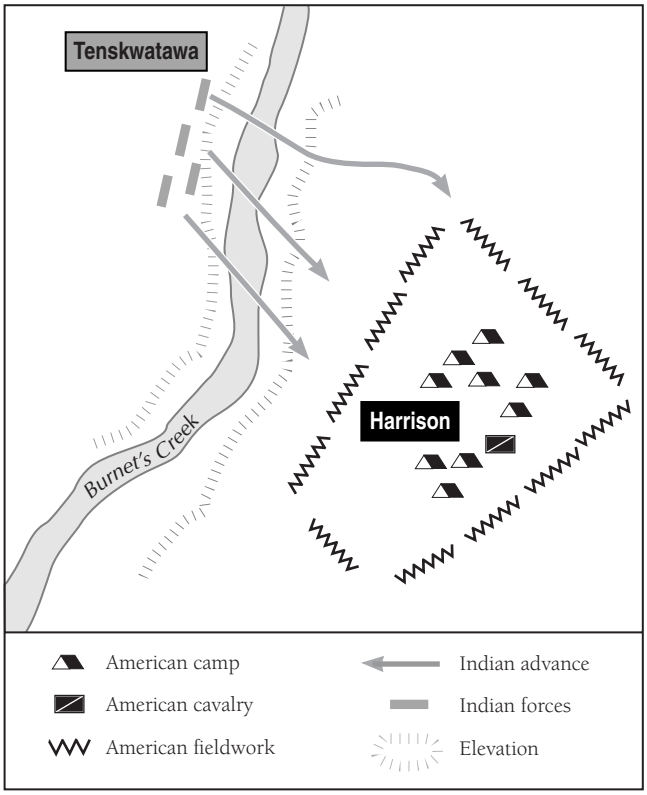
Backed by his brother, who claimed inspiration from the Great Spirit, preached a mixture of Shaker-influenced doctrine and traditional beliefs, and called on Indians to cleanse themselves of the unclean white race, Tecumseh began to put together a trans-tribal Indian alliance. In 1807, Tecumseh established the alliance headquarters at the abandoned site of Fort Greenville on Indiana's Tippecanoe River. It quickly became known to the whites—who considered Tenskwatawa, not Tecumseh, the leader of the new "religious" movement—as Prophet's Town. Using the threat of war to intimidate Governor Harrison and to buy time, Tecumseh traveled in 1811 throughout the Ohio country and beyond, west to the Sioux and south to the land of the Chickasaw, Choctaw, and Creeks, preaching the need for an Indian confederation stretching from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. Only as a unified, sovereign state, Tecumseh reasoned, could the Native Americans resist displacement and death or absorption and disappearance as a people.

While Tecumseh was gone, Tenskwatawa managed to embroil the Ohio Valley tribes that had already joined the alliance in a disastrous battle at Tippecanoe. The Shawnees, Delawares, Miamis, Potawatomis, Ottawas, Winnebagoes, Ojibwas (Chippewas), and Wyandots, angry about Harrison's treaties and defiantly ensconced at the old fort where Tecumseh had placed them, were joined by Black Hawk's Sac (Sauk) and Fox (Mesquakie); Harrison mustered his troops, attacked, and soundly defeated them. The Prophet was discredited. When Tecumseh returned from his largely unsuccessful recruiting expedition, he joined in the public rebuke of his brother. After the Battle of Tippecanoe, the Potowatomi, Winnebago, and Sac and Fox Indians, though shaken, remained loyal to Tecumseh. Wyandot followers of the militant chief Roundhead likewise adhered to the cause. But among the Delaware, Miami, and even Shawnee tribes there were wholesale defections. The alliance began to crumble.

At this crisis point, however, the United States and Great Britain commenced the WAR OF 1812. Tecumseh, who had approached the British in Canada in 1810 seeking support, only to be rebuffed, now eagerly embraced an alliance with England against the Americans.

For the proud chief who had preached abstinence from contact with the whites understood he had to rely even more strongly on the less than stalwart British to realize his dream of an independent Indian state in the Ohio.

See also BLACK HAWK'S WAR.



Battle of Tippecanoe, November 7, 1811

Further reading: Allan W. Eckert, *Sorrow in Our Heart: The Life of Tecumseh* (New York: Bantam, 1992); Bil Gilbert, *God Gave Us This Country: Tekamthi (Tecumseh) and the First American Civil War* (New York: Atheneum, 1989); Glenn Tucker, *Tecumseh; Vision of Glory* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1956); John Sugden, *Tecumseh: A Life* (New York: Henz Holt, 1999).

Temujin's Campaign against the Tartars

See GENGHIS KHAN'S UNIFICATION OF MONGOLIA.

Ten Thousand, March of the

See ANABASIS, THE: MARCH OF THE TEN THOUSAND.

Ten Years' War (1868–1878)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cuban rebels vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cuba, principally the eastern portion of the island
DECLARATION: The *Grito de Yara,* October 10, 1868

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebels sought unconditional independence from Spain.
OUTCOME: The war ended with Spain's pledge to reform and liberalize Cuban government and to abolish slavery in Cuba.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Variable
CASUALTIES: Over 10 years, some 84,337 Spanish and 50,000 Cuban rebels were killed, in addition to some 100,000 noncombatants.
TREATIES: Treaty of Zanjón, February 10, 1878

This was essentially Cuba's first revolution against Spanish colonial rule. Spanish authorities ruled Cuba repressively, taxing the natives harshly, excluding them from representation in the government, and perpetuating slavery on the island. Under the arbitrary, autocratic, and corrupt rule of Isabella II (1830–1904), conditions were particularly harsh. Isabella's removal from power as a result of the SPANISH REVOLUTION (1868) inspired Cuban freedom fighters, under the general leadership of Carlos Manuel de Céspedes (1819–74), to proclaim a revolution at Yara in the southeastern province of Oriente on October 10, 1868. (Always a hotbed of discontent, Oriente would be the site from which Fidel Castro would launch the CUBAN REVOLUTION [1956].) The proclamation, or *Grita de Yara,* demanded immediate and unconditional independence for Cuba.

A decisive revolution, however, failed to materialize. Instead, the *Grita de Yara* inaugurated a decade of fruitless but bloody guerrilla warfare, in which some 235,000 Cubans and Spanish were killed, including noncombatants. Most of the fighting was concentrated in the eastern part of the island, where de Céspedes proclaimed a revolutionary republic in 1869. The Spanish were less concerned with the East, however, than with the economically more important West. Spanish forces never lost control of Havana; the major sugar plantations remained in Spanish hands and did not suffer interruption in production.

In the East, warfare was a series of raids alternating with reprisals. There were no set battles. A handful of revolutionary leaders emerged, including Antonio Maceo (1848–96), his brother José (1846–96), Tomás Estrada Palma (1835–1908), Máximo Gómez y Báez (1836–1905), and Calixo Garciá Iñiguez (c. 1836–98), but most prominent of all was the commander of Spanish forces, General Valeriano Weyler y Nicolau (1838–1930). He earned a reputation for unstinting and, indeed, gratuitous cruelty that spread beyond Cuba to the United States. By the close of the 19th century, Weyler was demonized in U.S. newspapers—such as those published by the Hearst and Pulitzer organizations—as "Butcher Weyler," and his policies helped build a groundswell of American popular support for Cuban independence, which led ultimately to the SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR (1898). Indeed, war between the United States and Spain was nearly touched off by an incident beginning on October 31, 1873, when the *Virginius,* a rebel-operated vessel running guns to Cuba, was seized by Spanish officials. The *Virginius* flew the U.S. flag, and American crew members were executed.

In 1877, the Spanish Crown dispatched General Arsenio Martínez de Campos (1831–1900) to Cuba to negotiate peace with the rebels on the basis of a Spanish pledge of extensive reforms. With both sides exhausted and persuaded of the futility of continuing the war, the Treaty of Zanjón was signed on February 10, 1878, and the shooting stopped. Though some accounts put the number of Spanish dead at 200,000-plus over the course of the Ten Years' War, only 166,228 ever served on the island, though the figures of 81,097 soldiers, 3,240 marines, 5,000 Cuban volunteers, and 50,000 rebels and 100,000 noncombatants dead are surely grim enough. Many more of the empire's forces perished from malaria and other tropical diseases than from insurgent firepower. The harshness did not stop with the fighting. The only treaty pledge the Spanish actually honored was the abolition of slavery, which itself was delayed until 1886. In other respects Spanish rule continued to be oppressive, and the Cuban revolutionary spirit soon revived.

See also CUBAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Further reading: Leslie Bethel, ed., *Cuba: A Short History* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

Teutonic Knights' Conquest of Prussia
(1233–1283)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Teutonic Knights vs. Prussia (with some assistance from Pomerania)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Prussia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Teutonic Knights sought to conquer heathen Prussia in the name of Christianity.
OUTCOME: Over a protracted five-decade campaign, the Teutonic Knights thoroughly subjugated Prussia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but high among the Prussian civilian population
TREATIES: None

Like such other crusading orders as the Hospitalers and the Templars, the Order of the Teutonic Knights originated in Palestine during the 12th century, founded in Acre in 1198 by German crusaders. They grew immensely wealthy and powerful, winning the favor of pope and Holy Roman Emperor alike, receiving special privileges and

dispensations from the former and land in Italy, Greece, Germany, and Palestine from the latter. Not until 1211, however, did they move into eastern Europe, when King Andrew II (1175–1235) of Hungary invited them to defend his frontiers against the nomadic Cumans. When, in addition, they set up an independent state of their own, Andrew forcibly expelled them.

But a precedent had been set, and they got another offer almost immediately, this time from the Polish duke Conrad of Masovia, who wanted them to take on his hostile and heathen neighbors, the Prussians. Although he promised the knights the province of Kulmerland, including the Kulm fortress, plus any territory they might conquer, the grand master, Herman von Salza (d. 1239), was leery, given their treatment at the hands of the Hungarians. Not until Emperor Frederick II (1194–1250) personally guaranteed the order's rights to conquered territory—rights soon confirmed as well by Pope Gregory IX (c. 1145–1241)—did Salza give the signal to march north, ostensibly to conquer and convert the Prussians, with an eye toward creating a holy Catholic German state, officially under papal suzerainty but in fact under the knights' control.

They arrived, 20 knights and 200 sergeants, led by their hero Herman Balke, at Kulm in 1230, using the rivers as their invasion routes, marking their advance with a string of forts from which they expanded into the surrounding woods. As each new district fell, they set up communities of German knights and burghers to help colonize the pagan Prussians and feed the order's coffers and conquests.

Backed by powerful nobles, Polish now as well as German, they sent a steady stream of well-supplied fighters against the wicker shields and wooden forts of the Prussians, who fought ferociously and desperately against crossbows and advanced siege engines. Defeat may have been inevitable, but it was half a century in coming, and long before it came the Christians fell out among themselves. The duke of Masovia staked a claim of Polish suzerainty over the knights and, therefore, likewise over whatever lands they might conquer. This claim failed, and for the next five decades, the Teutonic Knights swept through Prussia, slowly but effectively bringing Prussia into the Christian fold.

In 1242, the Polish duke of Pomerania—a Baltic region, now part of Poland—grew fearful of what he saw as an ever-growing nation controlled by the warlike Teutonic Knights. He decided to act preemptively by fomenting an uprising among the Prussians. For nearly a decade, the knights faced increasingly organized opposition to their grand campaign but nevertheless continued to prevail.

The last two decades of the Prussian campaign were the most bloody. The Teutonic Knights treated the Prussian populations with great brutality, summarily exterminating all who resisted conquest. By 1283, all of Prussia, to the Neman River, had come into the hands of the Teutonic Knights.

Further reading: G. Barraclough, *The Origins of Modern Germany* (Oxford: Blackwell, 1946); Helen J. Nicholson, *Templars, Hospitallers, and Teutonic Knights: Images of Military Orders, 1128–1291* (Leicester: Leicester University Press, 1993).

Teutonic Knights' War with Poland
(1309–1343)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Order of the Teutonic Knights vs. Poland
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pomerelia (eastern Pomerania, Poland) and elsewhere in Poland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The knights exploited a Polish request to defend Pomerelia by seizing the region.
OUTCOME: Pomerelia was delivered into the knights' control.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Kalisz, 1343

Poland called on the Order of the Teutonic Knights to assist in resisting the attack of Brandenburg against the Polish territory of Pomerelia (eastern Pomerania). The knights, who had acquired control of Prussia in the five-decade-long TEUTONIC KNIGHTS' CONQUEST OF PRUSSIA, eagerly entered the conflict, driving the Brandenburgers out of Pomerelia; in 1309, the order seized the territory for itself, including the key port city of Danzig (Gdansk, Poland). In taking Danzig, the knights attacked not only Brandenburgers but also Polish troops and Danzig civilians. To consolidate the claim on Danzig and the order's control over it, the Teutonic grand master established his principal home and headquarters in a castle, Marienburg, adjacent to the city.

Having warded off Brandenburger occupation of Pomerelia, Ladislas I (1260–1333) of Poland lost the region—the only direct Polish access to the sea—to the Order of the Teutonic Knights. He attempted to persuade the pope—Clement V (1264–1314, reigned from 1305) and John XXII (1249–1334, reigned from 1316)—in whose service the knights had pledged themselves, to intervene. In the meantime, Ladislas concluded an alliance with Lithuania, longtime enemy of the knights. However, in 1331, Bohemian forces threatened Poland, and Ladislas focused his attention there. Taking advantage of the situation, the Teutonic Knights marched into Poland in 1331 and again in 1332. The Poles prevailed against the invaders at the Battle of Plowce on September 27, 1331, but this did not block the knights' advance. The order continued to raid and ravage territory throughout

northwestern Poland. In some areas, the knights seized and occupied territory.

In 1333, Casimier III (the Great; 1309–70) succeeded to the Polish throne on the death of Ladislas I and, 10 years later, concluded the Treaty of Kalisz, by which Poland regained the territory it had lost in exchange for giving the Teutonic Knights control of Pomerelia.

Further reading: Helen J. Nicholson, *Templars, Hospitallers, and Teutonic Knights: Images of Military Orders, 1128–1291* (Leicester: Leicester University Press, 1993); Adam Zamoyski, *The Polish Way: A Thousand-Year History of the Poles and Their Culture* (New York: F. Watts, 1988).

Teutonic Knights' War with Poland

(1454–1466) *See* THIRTEEN YEARS' WAR.

Teutonic Knights' War with Poland and Lithuania (1410–1411)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Order of the Teutonic Knights vs. Poland and Lithuania (with Bohemian mercenary auxiliaries and military aid from Russia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mainly East Prussia (northeastern Poland)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The knights sought to break up the union of Poland and Lithuania and acquire more territory at the expense of these countries.
OUTCOME: The knights were defeated at the disastrous Battle of Tannenberg and were thereby neutralized as an offensive, expansionist threat.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Disastrously heavy among the Teutonic Knights—well into the thousands—almost all lost at the Battle of Tannenberg
TREATIES: Treaty of Thorn, February 1, 1411

Among the many conquests of the religious-military organization known as the Order of the Teutonic Knights was a portion of Lithuania called Samogitia. This region had fallen to the knights in 1398. In 1409, the grand duke of Lithuania fomented and supported an insurrection and uprising in Samogitia against the Teutonic Knights.

Having acquired control of Prussia in 1283 (*see* TEUTONIC KNIGHTS' CONQUEST OF PRUSSIA) as well as Pomerelia (eastern Pomerania; *see* TEUTONIC KNIGHTS' WAR WITH POLAND) and other German and Baltic territories, the knights were anxious to block an impending union of Lithuania and Poland. The provocative action of the Lithuanian grand duke propelled the knights into a full-scale war against both Poland and Lithuania, beginning with the Battle of Tannenberg, in East Prussia (northeastern Poland), on July 15, 1410. The knights faced the forces of Poland's Ladislas II (1350–1434) and Bohemian mercenaries attached to him under the command of Jan Ziska (c. 1360–1424). Also allied with the Poles were Russian and Lithuanian troops. Ladislas and his auxiliaries and allies won a stunning victory, killing thousands of knights and breaking the back of the Order of the Teutonic Knights. Among the fallen were the grand master and many other top-level commanders.

In the wake of Tannenberg, the Teutonic Knights had no choice but to cede large tracts of Pomerania and Prussia to Poland and Lithuania. Yet the triumphant Polish-Lithuanian forces were unable to take the knights' stronghold base at Marienburg. The failure to break this position proved momentous. Unable to hold the territory they had taken from the Teutonic Knights, the Poles and Lithuanians withdrew, and the knights reclaimed what they had just ceded. Nevertheless, greatly diminished, the order was finished as an offensive threat. It concluded the Treaty of Thorn on February 1, 1411, ceding Samogitia and some other lands to Lithuania for a period to be terminated by the death of Ladislas II. (Upon the Polish king's death in 1422, the knights reneged but were defeated in three battles and permanently relinquished Samogitia.)

See also THIRTEEN YEARS' WAR.

Further reading: Helen J. Nicholson, *Templars, Hospitallers, and Teutonic Knights: Images of Military Orders, 1128–1291* (Leicester: Leicester University Press, 1993); Adam Zamoyski, *The Polish Way: A Thousand-Year History of the Poles and Their Culture* (New York: F. Watts, 1988).

Texan War of Independence (Texan Revolution) (1836–1837)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Texas vs. Mexico
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Texas
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When American immigration into Coahuila y Texas threatened to destabilize Mexico's northern provinces, Mexico attempted to halt Anglo settlement and reassert political control over Texas through a centralized government in Mexico City. The Texans rebelled and declared their independence.
OUTCOME: Texas became a republic and sought to join the United States; resistance to such annexation by Mexico and continuous border conflicts with the expansion-minded Texans became a major factor in the growing hostility that led to the U.S.-Mexican War.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mexico: 5,000+; Texas, approximately 1,200

CASUALTIES: Mexico: 1,200–2,000; Texas: approximately 500
TREATIES: Treaty of Velasco (signed under duress by Santa Anna; recognized by the United States and Europe; repudiated by Mexico)

Long before the war of 1836–37, Spanish Texas was a hotbed of unrest (*see* MEXICAN REVOLTS [1810–1815]). Concerned about U.S. intentions after Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) annexed Spanish Florida for the expansion-minded democracy to the north (*see* SEMINOLE WAR, FIRST), Spanish authorities fell back on an age-old policy. They once again began trying to use westwardly migrating American settlers both as a barrier to Indian raiders as well as a block against U.S. expansion into Spain's North American holdings. To do so, they created the *empresario* system, a system aimed at encouraging immigration in order to make foreign settlers into loyal subjects of the Crown. However, the empresarios not only brought potential settlers to the region but also fanned the growing unrest among colonial Mexicans against Madrid, an unrest that ultimately resulted in Mexico's independence in 1821 (*see* MEXICAN REVOLT [1821]).

The colonization policy of the new Mexican republic closely followed that of Spain. The Mexican Colonization Law of 1824 guaranteed land, security, and exemption from taxes for four years to foreign settlers. Except that it required foreigners to pledge allegiance to Mexico, the revolutionary government placed few restrictions on immigrants. In many ways, the Mexican immigration policy resembled that of the United States, being intended to encourage economic growth and open new markets. In the long run, Mexico hoped to dilute the dangerous concentration of Americans in Texas by recruiting other immigrants, mostly from Europe, but in the short run it had little choice but to come to terms with the 3,000 Americans who by 1823 were already living as illegal aliens in the Mexican state of Coahuila y Texas. The new law was equal parts appeasement and co-option, an attempt to win the Americans' loyalty by making them landowners with a stake in the future and fortunes of the Republic of Mexico.

The Americans brought to Coahuila y Texas by men like Stephen Fuller Austin (1793–1836) (Mexico's foremost empresario and soon the "father" of the independent Republic of Texas) came from the hard-scrabble farms of Kentucky, the cotton plantations of Georgia, the swampy battlefields of Florida, and the wilds of Missouri. They destabilized the U.S.-Mexican borderlands with their disputatious political habits, their land hunger, their racial hatreds, and their propensity for hair-trigger violence. Although the settlers realized Mexico's hopes and revitalized the provincial economy, they nevertheless gave its officials pause. The new settlers may have called themselves citizens of Mexico, but they obviously still considered themselves Americans. Conflict between these "Texians" and Mexico took root from the very beginning.

The short-lived FREDONIAN REBELLION, which broke out in 1826 when the Mexican government revoked, without notice, a few land grants held by local troublemakers, was typical. The Texans saw it as an example of arbitrary rule, Mexicans as yet another gesture in the U.S. scheme to take Mexico's northern provinces. This impression was confirmed when President John Quincy Adams (1767–1848) offered to buy Texas for $1 million. The offer was declined. Andrew Jackson upped the ante to $5 million, but Mexico turned down that offer as well. Jackson replaced his negotiator and minister to Mexico, Joel R. Poinsett (1779–1851), with someone less scrupulous. On behalf of President Jackson, Anthony Butler (c. 1787–c. 1849) attempted bribery and usury (forcing on the Mexicans an unpayable loan with Texas as collateral) and advocated the use of force if necessary—a pattern of behavior already familiar, no doubt, to the many Cherokees living in the Texas borderlands.

REASONS FOR REBELLION

Such diplomacy only inflamed the situation in Texas, as it was perhaps intended to do. Historians have long debated the ultimate causes of the conflict that led to the Texas Revolution. Some have blamed religion. Most of the Texas settlers were southern Protestants; the Mexican government sanctioned Catholicism as a matter of national policy and nominally prohibited public worship by any non-Catholic sect. But in Texas, as in the other border provinces, the Catholic hierarchy could barely minister to its own flock, and neither Mexico nor Rome spent much time trying to impose the state religion on Texans. In fact, in 1834 Mexico guaranteed that "no person shall be molested for religious or political opinions provided the public order is not disturbed." Whatever else Texans might have wanted to fight for, there was no reason to fight for freedom of religion. Other historians have pointed toward slavery as a cause. The Texas settlers brought slaves with them to work the land and made it clear they would require more; the Mexican government proposed gradual but absolute emancipation in Texas and had already abolished slavery throughout the rest of Mexico. By 1829, however, Mexico compromised and granted Texas a presidential exemption from the decree abolishing slavery; Mexico's handling of its slaveholders could hardly be used as an example of its persecution of Texans.

The Texans also sought free trade with the United States, and they reacted with hostility to Mexican taxes and restrictions; they—along with many Tejanos—took to smuggling. Like Texas, other frontier states within Mexico, including California, the Yucatan, and New Mexico, resisted the move by centralists during the late 1820s and early 1830s to place all power in the hands of Mexico City. These provinces had numerous grievances—some justifi-

able, some petty—against the slow, cumbersome, and arbitrary Mexican legal system, and all of them complained about their lack of autonomy. But only the Texans seemed to be pushing for what amounted to a U.S. republic within Mexico.

The Texans saw themselves as superior to the Mexicans, whom they regarded as stupid, indolent, and priest ridden. There smoldered within the Texans a powerful resentment at having to answer to the authority of such people. From the perspective of the United States, Mexico was young, corrupt, and unstable. Texas was nearby and, despite considerable domestic opposition, Andrew Jackson's United States (where market forces were stimulating the rapid growth of the "Cotton Kingdom") wanted Texas—being inferior to the United States, Mexico did not deserve to keep it. Thus, the race distinctions previously aimed at slaves and Indians, long familiar to the American South and the United States's western frontier, came almost naturally as an excuse for the Texas Rebellion.

Mexico was not unaware of the problem. The popular Mexican press mercilessly caricatured the unwelcome "Anglo-Saxons." In 1827, the Mexican government, worried about the expansionist intentions of the United States, sent a commission under General Manuel de Mier y Teran (1789–1832) into Texas to investigate the influx of Americans.

By 1830, 7,000 *Norte Americanos* lived in Coahuila y Texas, outnumbering the Mexicans by more than two to one. On April 6 of that year, reacting to the Teran commission reports and seeking to stave off the U.S. "menace," Mexico enacted legislation that both augmented the number and size of garrisons in the province and attempted to stop U.S. immigration into Texas while encouraging it from European countries. The new laws—which "closed" the border to Americans, canceled empresario contracts, and prohibited the introduction of slavery—failed. They halted legal immigration, but anyone could cross the long border illegally. In 1833, Mexico again began admitting Americans. A fever raged to rush to Texas. By 1835, Texas had a population of only 3,500 Mexicans and 30,000 Americans. There were almost as many American slaves, 3,000, in Mexico's Texas as there were Mexicans.

GONE TO TEXAS

Many in this latest wave of Texans went by the acronym GTT, for the words "Gone to Texas" that they scrawled across notes or chalked on log-cabin doors when they pulled up stakes and migrated west. Traveling with them were the lawyers and land speculators who knew that a "free" Texas would be a profitable Texas. As Mexico in the 1830s drifted toward civil war between liberal federalists and conservatives who wanted to centralize control in Mexico City, a Texas independent of Mexico seemed ever more possible. Texas malcontents split into war and peace parties, the latter headed by Stephen Austin, the former organized by the new up-and-comers and consisting mostly of GTTs, whom the more "respectable" early settlers called "War Dogs" or "Crazy-orians."

There were mob uprisings all over East Texas in the early 1830s, and a war with Mexico loomed just as Mexico faced a revolt by Antonio López de Santa Anna (1794–1876) and his federalist forces. In his first bid for power, Santa Anna hoped to overthrow Anastasio Bustamante's (1780–1853) xenophobic anti-U.S. government. Despite the Anglo-Mexican clashes and much political agitation, Austin and the majority of Texans were not prepared for out-and-out rebellion. In mid-1832, Sam Houston (1793–1863) arrived in Texas, possibly as an unofficial (i.e., secret) agent of Andrew Jackson. Certainly President Jackson had suggested that Houston go to Texas and had given him $500, a passport, and instructions for some kind of confidential mission, if only to look over the situation. Within six months, Houston was the head of Texas's volunteer army and deeply engaged in its political maelstrom. Meanwhile, Austin had negotiated peace and pledged the Texans' support for General Santa Anna, who was at the time still professing liberalism. When Santa Anna emerged victorious, Texans felt they deserved favor for having supported his cause. It seemed a good point at which to present the new president with the grievances of the province, which included a petition for statehood within the Mexican Republic.

A Texas constitutional convention had met in 1833; the Texans had reiterated their grievances; Houston had drafted the state constitution; and Austin now carried the document to Mexico City. There for some five months he attempted to see Santa Anna. When he finally did gain an audience, the president expressed willingness to remedy all grievances except for the statehood demand. Still, it was more than Austin had expected, and he began his journey back to Texas—only to be arrested at Saltillo, returned to Mexico City, and imprisoned for a letter he had written urging Texas statehood. He spent the next two years in jail.

In 1835, Austin, an embittered man and broken in health, returned to Texas. During his two-year absence, the War Dogs had strengthened their position. In June 1835, 30 Texans forced the small garrison and customs house at Anáhuac to surrender, and although communities throughout Texas disavowed the revolt, Texas did not turn the rebels over to Mexico City. Santa Anna, meanwhile, had turned brutal, repudiating all of his liberal policies and proclaiming himself dictator of a centralized Mexico; worst of all (in the eyes of Texas slaveholders), he threatened to enforce Mexico's ban on slavery. Having decided that force was all the Texans understood, Santa Anna sent additional troops north at the end of 1835 to pacify the frontier. This time even Austin was in no mood or position to mediate. He too counseled revolt. Austin urged his fellow settlers to "Americanize" Texas and bring

the territory under the U.S. flag. He invited Americans to come to Texas "passports or no passports," "each man with his rifle." Violence was inevitable, he declared.

THE INSURRECTION BEGINS

No doubt Texas, with its overwhelmingly Anglo population, was bound to break away from Mexico. But, as it happened, the movement toward armed insurrection began in 1835, led by Sam Houston and heartily applauded by prominent Mexico City radicals, one of them the liberal former vice president Gomez ("Furioso") Farias (1781–1858) whom Santa Anna had banished to the north the previous year. The event that precipitated the insurrection occurred on October 2, 1835, when the Mexican cavalry crossed the Rio Grande and demanded the surrender of a cannon in the town of Gonzales. The Americans quickly forged a small army and chased the Mexican force southward. Next, Austin himself led a force of 500 against San Antonio, where most of the retreating Mexican army, under General Martin Perfecto de Cós (1800–54), had taken refuge. The Texans dug in for a long siege in November. That same month, representatives of the 12 American communities of Texas convened to decide whether the territory was fighting for independence or a return to Mexico under the 1824 constitution. The vote was solidly against independence. A provisional government was created, but with the object of appealing to Mexican liberals to unite against Santa Anna so that Texas might rejoin a constitutionally governed Mexico.

Not immediately declaring independence did garner the Texans some *Tejano* support, but most *Tejanos*—and Mexican liberals in general—distrusted the Americans, and with good reason. The Texans had already sent a delegation, including Austin, to Washington, D.C., to test Andrew Jackson's reaction to the possible annexation of Texas by the United States. Meanwhile, life for the ragtag army of siege was becoming increasingly miserable during a bitter East Texas winter. When their temporary commander decided to withdraw to winter quarters at Gonzales, frontiersman Ben Milam (1788–1835) challenged volunteers to attack the city with the cry, "Who will go with old Ben Milam?" On December 5, 300 Texans, their patience exhausted, forced their way into San Antonio. They fought the Mexican troops in the town's streets, and General Cós retreated with 1,100 troops into the garrison's barracks and armory at the Alamo. The Texans brought their cannon to bear against the Alamo's walls, and Cós finally surrendered. After the taking of the Alamo, the Texans began to repair the fort so that the converted mission could be effectively defended.

Meanwhile, Sam Houston and Henry Smith (1788–1851), the elected governor of Texas, were urging independence and warning that a reprisal from Santa Anna himself was inevitable. But land speculators—men like Dr. James Grant (1793–1836)—feared that titles to the huge tracts of land they had amassed (by bribing the corrupt Coahuila y Texas legislature) were as likely to be nullified by an independent Texas as by Santa Anna's centralized government, and they persuaded a legislative council to dispatch a force to Matamoros, a Mexican town at the mouth of the Rio Grande that was known as a stronghold of liberals opposed to Santa Anna. By seizing Matamoros and uniting with the liberals, Grant and his cohorts hoped to inflame sentiment throughout Mexico for a revival of the old federalist system, thus creating a government friendly to their real estate claims.

But the mission, led by James Walker Fannin, Jr. (1804–36), busily engaged in the looting and despoliation of the Texas countryside and bogged down by indecision and divisive elements within Fannin's command, never reached Matamoros. Ultimately, Fannin did as Sam Houston had asked from the start. As Houston suspected, Santa Anna was on his way north to punish the rebels personally. He had begun gathering an army at San Luis Potosí, the traditional spot from which Mexico had organized and outfitted expeditions to Texas. In January 1836, surrounded by his splendidly bedecked entourage and closely followed by his brilliantly polished, mounted staff, Santa Anna marched out with his army.

About that time back in San Felipe de Austin, Sam Houston told Governor Smith that unless the new constitutional convention, set for the coming spring, laid solid groundwork for a strong government, the country would be lost. The news he had received from the Alamo on January 16 was not encouraging. Lieutenant Colonel James Clinton Neill (1790–1845), the garrison's commander, wrote to Houston that his men were tired, had not been paid, and were talking of going home to the United States. Not that Houston much cared—the one spot where he did not wish to make a stand was the Alamo. Even repaired and fitted with firing platforms, it was a poor excuse for a fortress. He had always believed San Antonio and the Alamo were too far away from San Felipe de Austin to be defended successfully. Far better, he thought, for the outnumbered Texans to fight a guerrilla war against Santa Anna out in the open—in the countryside familiar to volunteers.

The news from Goliad was also bad. Fannin was now threatening to strip the fort of men, munitions, and transport to launch the expedition on Matamoros after all. That meant the interior of Texas would lie exposed to Santa Anna. Houston decided to concentrate what strength he had left 60 miles east of San Antonio at Gonzales. He dispatched James (Jim) Bowie (1796–1836) to Lieutenant Colonel Neill in San Antonio, with orders to remove the Alamo's guns, blow up the "fortress," and abandon it. Meanwhile, Houston had been chosen by the convention to lead a commission to visit the Texas Cherokees in East Texas and negotiate with Cherokee Duwali and others a treaty that would ensure the Indians' neutrality in the coming fight. Houston, who had spent part of his life liv-

ing among the Cherokees and who had been adopted into the tribe, and John Forbes (1797–1880) entered into these negotiations on February 22, 1936, and they had their treaty the next day. Houston's sojourn among the Indians, however, meant that he was absent from the scene when the Alamo was attacked.

SIEGE OF THE ALAMO

When Bowie reached San Antonio, he did not enforce Houston's orders. On the contrary, he and Neill decided that the Alamo was the major obstacle to any Mexican advance and resolved not to be driven from what they called a post of honor. Meanwhile, Santa Anna was approaching the Rio Grande, where he was to join with a force under the command of General Joaquin Ramirez y Sesma, who had originally gone north to reinforce Cós. When Santa Anna crossed into Texas, he showed up at San Antonio de Bexar with 2,000 soldiers. At the Alamo, Neill and Bowie, with little more than 100 men, were appealing for reinforcements. Fannin turned a deaf ear to these pleas, as he was still contemplating Matamoros from his loosely organized camp at Goliad. Another commander did bring aid, however, in the form of two dozen men—Colonel William B. Travis (1809–36), a GTT and early leader of the Texas War Dogs. Then on February 8, David (Davy) Crockett (1786–1836) arrived, leading a dozen men from Tennessee and seeking to revive a moribund political career by joining the Texans.

By February 11, 1835, Neill had left the Alamo, and command had passed into the hands of Jim Bowie and William Travis. Five days later, Santa Anna began his march up from the Rio Grande. Bowie and Travis had about 150 men to hold the Alamo. Travis had ample warning of the Mexicans' advance, but he did not believe the intelligence; he was sure Santa Anna would wait until spring to march his army through the barren country south of San Antonio. By that time, Texas and the world, Travis was sure, would have answered his repeated pleas for aid. But on February 25, the vanguard of Santa Anna's army entered San Antonio. Twenty-five noncombatants, mostly women and children, took refuge in the Alamo, and the siege began as a red flag was raised from a church steeple. It signified Santa Anna's intention to show no mercy, to take no prisoners. Travis responded by firing a cannon.

Jim Bowie was more cautious. Hearing a cavalry bugle, he took it as a signal that the Mexicans wished to parley. Bowie sent a messenger to Santa Anna and offered surrender on condition that the defenders be granted what the Texans had allowed General Cós and his men at the Alamo back in December—freedom to return to their homes unharmed. Santa Anna demanded unconditional surrender. Meanwhile, Bowie had grown ill and had also been injured in an accident while placing a cannon. Unable to stand, he was confined to his cot. Travis, during a lull after the first 24 hours of bombardment, wrote a dispatch "To the People of Texas & all Americans in the world," appealing again for reinforcements and promising "Victory or Death." One band of 25 men did finally materialize in San Antonio to reinforce the Alamo. They came from the militia at Gonzales, where Houston had gathered his forces. They had come against his orders.

After a week of unrelenting Mexican bombardment, not a single Texan had been killed in the Alamo, whereas Texas grapeshot and sharpshooters had taken their toll on Santa Anna's troops—though his army was augmented daily. Within the fort, the defenders busied themselves with the endless task of shoring up walls crumbling under cannon fire. The bombardment finally stopped. Santa Anna deployed some 1,800 soldiers for the final attack, and they rushed the fortress just before daybreak on Sunday, March 6, 1835.

It was a clumsy attack that resulted in huge casualties, but in the end, sheer numbers prevailed. In a frenzy, Santa Anna's army began to pour over the Alamo walls. The fighting was hand to hand in the open plaza of the compound. To some of the Mexicans at the time, as to Texas schoolchildren ever since, the Texans, who had survived 11 days of fierce bombardment, seemed larger than life. By 6:30 that morning, it was quiet at the Alamo. The battle had taken 90 minutes. Santa Anna paid dearly to reclaim the useless, once-abandoned, tumbled down old Franciscan mission; 600 of his men, fully a third of his army, and nearly all the Texans lay dead.

Santa Anna spared the women and children in the fort, charging one of them, Susannah Dickerson (1814–83), with the task of telling all Texas what had happened at the Alamo and warning that the same would befall any others who remained in revolt. Davy Crockett and other prisoners who had surrendered were executed on Santa Anna's orders. Thus Santa Anna unwittingly provided the Republic of Texas invaluable martyrs to the cause. Three days earlier, the constitutional convention in San Felipe de Austin had finally given Sam Houston what he wanted, a declaration of independence. Santa Anna now handed Houston the new-born republic's battle cry: "Remember the Alamo!"

THE WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE

The fall of the Alamo unnerved Colonel Fannin. He grew no calmer when Sam Houston ordered him to destroy Goliad's fort and retreat. Following delays marked by Fannin's indecision, on March 18 the volunteers slipped off into a thick fog, burning Goliad to the ground. Fannin's 400 men had so overloaded their horses, mules, and carts with booty that when they reached the steep banks of the San Antonio River they were unable to cross without offloading, then packing up again on the opposite shore. The additional delay allowed a force of 1,400 men under General José Urrea (1797–1849) to surround Fannin and his troops on the open river plain. Fannin pulled his

wagons into a hollow rectangle, from behind which his men stood off the Mexicans for two days, but Fannin was wounded during the fighting. On March 20, amid the wrecked wagons and the dead oxen, the men began discussing surrender. Fannin capitulated, much to the relief of the majority of his men. Six days later, however, Santa Anna ordered his general to execute all the rebels.

Santa Anna firmly believed he had broken the back of the Texas resistance, and at first he appeared to be right. The Texans panicked. In what became known as the "Runaway Scrape," thousands—men, women, and children—bolted east for the border as the Mexican army continued its steady advance. The provisional government fled with them. Amid the refugee hysteria, there lurked an immense anger over the disasters at the Alamo and at Goliad and certainly a desire for revenge. Houston turned the panic and the passion to advantage, using them to forge an army. He talked about the value of strategic retreat. He assured his men that he was playing for time in order to build strength. Most of all, he constantly drilled those he enlisted, hoping at last to train an effective fighting force. It took a month, but on April 20, with an army grown to 800 troops, Houston felt ready to turn and make a stand.

Santa Anna was camped with 700 men on an open prairie west of the San Jacinto River just off Galveston Bay. Houston took up position and set the next day for an attack. At the last minute, Santa Anna was joined by reinforcements that swelled his ranks, but Houston ordered the attack anyway. The Battle of San Jacinto lasted 18 minutes. The massacre that followed took hours. When it was over, Houston's troops had slaughtered 630 Mexican soldiers, more than all the Texans who had died at the Alamo and Goliad put together.

Santa Anna, captured disguised as a common soldier and trying to escape after the fighting had stopped, assumed he would be executed. But Houston instead forced Santa Anna to sign the "treaty" of Velasco. In exchange for his life, Santa Anna ordered all Mexican soldiers to leave Texas and recognized his former province as an independent republic. Although signed under duress, the treaty was nevertheless generally recognized abroad. Mexico, however, under new leadership, immediately repudiated the document. Not really knowing what to do with him, the Texans threw Santa Anna into jail for two months before dispatching him to Washington. Andrew Jackson treated Santa Anna courteously and received him as a head of state on January 19, 1837. As Jackson's guest, Santa Anna discussed the state of affairs in Texas, and the two men agreed to disagree on Mexico's recognition of Texas as an independent republic before Jackson sent him to Veracruz under naval escort.

THE LONE STAR REPUBLIC

The new Republic of Texas claimed the Rio Grande as its southern and western boundary, as a result of the Treaty of Velasco. Rejecting the Texas claim to independence, the Mexican congress also rejected the new boundary; the traditional border of Texas under Spain and Mexico had been the Nueces River, north of the Rio Grande. In the first election held by the new republic in 1837, Texans overwhelmingly chose Sam Houston as president and agreed that he should seek annexation to the United States. Off and on for years, Texas diplomats would pursue such a goal with the successors of the Jackson administration. Jackson was reluctant to stir up further conflict with Mexico, and he delayed even recognizing the republic until shortly before leaving office. The U.S. Congress was caught up in the regional conflict between North and South, and many in Congress opposed annexation because Texas would eventually become a slave state.

In 1838, when Mirabeau B. Lamar (1798–1859) was elected president of Texas, the republic shifted its focus away from annexation and toward expansion. Lamar tried to negotiate with Mexico for recognition of its independence and the Rio Grande border but failed. The failure was unsurprising, because at the same time he was boasting about a greater Texas that would stretch across the continent and have ports of call on the Pacific Ocean. In 1841, Lamar sent an expedition to claim authority over and open trade with towns along the upper Rio Grande in territory that had always been New Mexico under Spain and Mexico. The expedition floundered; Mexican troops captured its starving remnants and tossed them in jail (where they remained until 1842). For a decade, neither side controlled the region between the Nueces and the Rio Grande.

Neither Texas's border conflicts with Mexico nor its political struggles with the United States interfered with the steady stream of settlers pouring into the region. From an Anglo-American and African-American slave population of 40,000 in 1836, the number of Texans would grow to 142,000 by 1847. Faced with internal and external problems, including considerable debt, Sam Houston, after being reelected president, began playing up British and French interest in trading with Texas and keeping it independent. Such diplomacy matched poorly the desire of the United States to extend the nation westward (and to limit European influence on the subcontinent), and an expansionist lobby grew more powerful within the U.S. government. When Congress, torn by sectional strife, failed to ratify a treaty of annexation, Texas became a major issue in the 1844 presidential campaign. Dark-horse candidate Jame K. Polk (1745–1849), backed by the expansionists, won the election, and even before he took office he encouraged lame-duck president John Tyler (1790–1862) to push through Congress a joint resolution of annexation.

Texas welcomed the resolution and voted to accept annexation. An angry Mexico denounced the actions of the United States and withdrew its ambassador. As James Polk had hoped, the lines were clearly being drawn for UNITED STATES-MEXICAN WAR.

See also MEXICAN REVOLUTION (1823).

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Thai War (1371–1378)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Thai kingdom of Ayutthaya vs. Thai kingdom of Sukhothai (with assistance from another kingdom, Chiengmai)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sukhothai (northern Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ayutthayan conquest of Sukhothai
OUTCOME: The conquest was completed, and Sukhothai became a client kingdom, subject to Ayutthaya.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None located

The war began in 1371 when Boromoraja I (d. 1388), king of Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand), invaded Sukhothai, the Thai kingdom to the north. Boromoraja hoped to exploit the weakness of Sukhothai under its incompetent ruler, Thammaraja II (d. 1409). Sukhothai was currently wracked by internal revolt. Although the prospects for conquest looked favorable, Boromoraja recognized a potential threat from China, which might come to Thammaraja's aid or seek to annex Sukhothai for itself. Boromoraja sent the Chinese emperor gifts by way of appeasement.

By 1372, Boromoraja's forces had captured the Sukhothai towns of Muang Nakhon, Phangkha, and Sengcharao. From these bases, the Ayutthayan army moved against Chakangrao the next year. This was the seat of two powerful chieftains, Sai Keo (d. 1373) and Kham Heng (fl. 1370s). Boromoraja had the first killed, and he drove the second out of the region.

At this point, having gained control of important portions of Sukhothai, Boromoraja halted his war for two years, resuming in 1376 by capturing the city of Phitsanulok, taking its chieftain Khun Sam Keo (d. c. 1376) prisoner, and casting the residents of this major city into abject slavery. He then went on to reattack Chakangrao, which was now defended by the chieftain Kham Heng, who had returned to the city. Kham Heng had struck an alliance with another northern Thai kingdom, Chiengmai, to resist Ayutthayan invasion. Chiengmai regarded the continued independent existence of Sukhothai as important because the kingdom acted as a buffer between Chiengmai and the ever-aggressive Ayutthaya.

The forces of Chiengmai and Kham Heng laid an ambush for the Ayutthayan army but failed, and in a counterattack at Kamphaeng Phet, the allied army was badly defeated and all but completely destroyed. One important Sukhothai chieftain, Thao Phadong (fl. 1370s), managed to escape the general slaughter but was subsequently defeated in battle. Boromoraja's men rounded up many Sukhothai officials in a final effort to topple the government. In 1378, Ayutthayan forces laid siege against Kamphaeng Phet, as they had done earlier. With much of his kingdom devastated and his most important officials and commanders dead or held prisoner, Thammaraja II accepted Boromoraja's peace terms. He ceded the western portion of his kingdom, including the capital city of Kamphaeng Phet, to Boromoraja. Boromoraja permitted Thammaraja II to retain nominal rule of the remainder of Sukhothai as a vassal; however, the vassal king was required to remove his capital to Phitsanulok.

See also KHMER-THAI WARS.

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Thai War (1387–1390)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Thai kingdom of Sukhothai vs. the rival Thai kingdoms of Ayutthaya and, separately, Chiengmai
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern and central Thailand
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chiengmai sought to dominate Sukhothai, client kingdom of Ayutthaya.
OUTCOME: The forces of Chiengmai were defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When the youthful (14-year-old) Sen Muang Ma (1373–1411) succeeded to the throne of the northern Thai kingdom of Chiengmai, his uncle, Prince Phrohm (fl. 14th century), decided to usurp the throne. His first attempts failed, and he contacted the most powerful of Thai rulers, Boromoraja I (d. 1388) of Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand) for military aid. Always prepared to expand his interests, Boromoraja dispatched an army to Chiengmai to

engage the forces of Sen Muang Ma. The two armies met in battle at Sen Sanuk, near the city of Chiengmai. The young king dealt a sharp defeat to Boromoraja's forces, which quickly retreated and then withdrew from the country entirely.

Sen Muang Ma's performance against the forces of Ayutthaya induced his uncle to reconcile with the king. As a token of loyalty, he presented Sen Muang Ma with a golden Buddha stolen from Kamphaeng Phet, a Thai city-state Prince Phrohm had captured and occupied. When Kamphaeng Phet protested both the theft and the occupation, Boromoraja personally led another army into Chiengmai, this time to aid Kamphaeng Phet. Under his leadership, the Ayutthayan forces were successful this time, and Kamphaeng Phet came under Boromoraja's rule; however, Boromoraja died on the return trip to his kingdom in 1388.

All was reasonably quiet throughout Thailand until 1390, when Sen Muang Ma decided to lead an army into Sukhothai (in central Thailand), with a pledge to aid that kingdom in winning its independence from Ayutthaya, to which it had become a vassal state. The king of Sukhothai, Thammaraja II (d. 1409), realized that the pledge of aid was nothing more than a thinly disguised invasion and that, with the powerful Boromoraja dead, the ambitious Sen Muang Ma intended to take over Sukhothai himself. Thammaraja preempted the invasion by attacking the army of Sen Muang Ma. The attack came as a surprise, and the Chiengmai army was defeated. Sen Muang Ma was forced to make his ignominious escape on the backs of two servants.

See also Thai War (1371–1378); Thai War (1411).

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984).

Thai War (1411)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rival claimants to the throne of Chiengmai, Thailand, with military assistance from Ayutthaya, another Thai kingdom
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chiengmai (northern Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the Chiengmai throne
OUTCOME: The issue was ultimately settled by single combat between two champions; Prince Sam Fang Ken ascended the Chiengmai throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The death of Sen Muang Ma (1373–1411), king of Chiengmai, created a dispute between his sons, Prince Sam Fang Ken (d. 1442) and Prince Yi Kumkam (fl. 1411–20), over succession to the throne. In an effort to secure the throne, Yi Kumkam obtained military aid from Intharaja I (d. 1424), king of the most powerful Thai kingdom, Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand). Intharaja commanded his vassal, Thammaraja III (d. 1419), king of Sukhothai (central Thailand), to lead an Ayutthayan army to Yi Kumkam's aid. Thammaraja directed the erection of a high earthen fort outside of the Chiengmai town of Phayao, with the object of creating a position from which cannon could bombard the town. The defenders of Phayao, however, also used cannon to fire on the earthen fort. The people of Phayao reportedly melted down decorative brass tiles to cast the needed cannon, with which they prevailed against the attackers, destroying the fort.

Although Phayao was saved, the Ayutthayans attacked the Chiengmai capital, also called Chiengmai, laying siege to it. The capital resisted stoutly, and, to break the standoff, Sam Fang Ken suggested that the succession issue be settled by single combat between two champions. Yi Kumkam agreed, and a combat between one Chiengmai and one Ayutthayan warrior ensued, lasting the next several hours. The Chiengmai was declared the victor after his opponent sustained a wound in the big toe. True to his word, Yi Kumkam renounced the throne, and he and his Ayutthayan supporters withdrew, pausing only to attack the town of Chiengmai and take many captives. These people would be used as slaves in Ayutthaya as indemnification of war costs.

See also Thai War (1442–1448).

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984).

Thai War (1442–1448)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ayutthaya (Thai kingdom) vs. Chiengmai (Thai kingdom)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chiengmai (northern Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ayutthayans invaded Chiengmai, ostensibly in aid of an aspirant to the Chiengmai throne, but their principal object was conquest.
OUTCOME: Chiengmai forces drove the Ayutthayans out of the kingdom.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1442, Sam Fang Ken (d. 1442), who had ascended the throne of the northern Thai kingdom of Chiengmai as a result of the THAI WAR (1411), was forced to abdicate by his sixth son, Prince Chao Lok (1411–87), who took the throne name of Sri Sutham Tilok. This triggered a dynastic war when the 10th son of Sam Fang Ken, Prince Chao Joi (d. c. 1446), refused to acknowledge Sri Sutham Tilok as king. He took his father to the town of Muang Fang and from this base began a war against his brother. Sri Sutham Tilok counterattacked, however, and overran Muang Fang, whereupon Chao Joi abandoned his father and fled to Thoen. Chao Joi persuaded the governor of Thoen to seek military aid from the most powerful of Thai kingdoms, Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand).

Boromoraja II (d. 1448) of Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand) was always eager to extend the reach of his power, and he immediately led an army to the assistance of Chao Joi. Before he could reach him, however, Sri Sutham Tilok, acting swiftly, ran Chao Joi to ground and killed him, along with the governor of Muang Fang. Boromoraja continued his advance into Chiengmai, taking many captives along the way. However, Sri Sutham Tilok made liberal use of Laotian spies, who infiltrated Boromoraja's army and warned of its approach. Chiengmai forces were thus able to block the advance. When the Laotian infiltrators cut off the tails of the Ayutthayan elephants, the animals stampeded, creating chaos within the Ayutthayan lines. Taking advantage of this, the Chiengmai warriors assumed the offensive and attacked fiercely. The Ayutthayans quickly broke and ran. Boromoraja, ill, lacked the heart and will to continue the campaign. He mounted a new assault in 1448, but it was abandoned after his death later that year.

See also THAI WAR (1451–1456).

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984).

Thai War (1451–1456)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ayutthaya (Thai kingdom) vs. Sukhothai (formerly independent Thai kingdom annexed to Ayutthaya), Chiengmai (Thai kingdom), and Laos
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand), Sukhothai (central Thailand), and Chiengmai (northern Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sukhothai sought to regain independence from Ayutthaya; Ayutthaya sought to expand its territory ever farther.
OUTCOME: Undecided; after a sequence of offensives and counteroffensives, all sides stopped fighting for five years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Ayutthaya was the largest and most powerful of the Thai kingdoms. King Boromo Trailokanat (d. 1488) led an Ayutthayan force against Chiengmai, the Thai kingdom to the north. At the same time, a revolt took place in what had been Sukhothai, a central Thai kingdom that was now a vassal kingdom subject to Ayutthaya. The leader of Sawankhalok, a Sukhothaian town, appealed to Sri Sutham Tilok (1411–87), king of Chiengmai, for military assistance in an effort to regain independence for Sukhothai. Answering the call, Sri Sutham Tilok invaded Sukhothai but was beaten back by Ayutthayan forces. Once this was accomplished, Boromo Trailokanat seized the initiative and invaded Chiengmai, which was occupied in 1452.

Over the next four years, Chiengmai resisted occupation, and Sai Tia Kaphat (d. c. 1479), king of Laos, invaded Chiengmai, forcing the Ayutthayans out. In this seesaw war, Chiengmai troops then invaded Ayutthaya and even briefly occupied the important town of Kamphaeng Phet. At this point, in 1456, with all sides depleted, the war ended—but would resume five years later.

See also THAI WAR (1461–1464).

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984).

Thai War (1461–1464)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ayutthaya vs. Chiengmai
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thailand, mainly central and northwest
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chiengmai sought to annex Ayutthayan territory.
OUTCOME: A successful Chiengmai invasion had to be aborted when the kingdom was threatened by Chinese invasion; Ayutthaya was thereafter able to repulse new Chiengmai invasion attempts.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1464

This was a renewed conflict (*see* THAI WAR [1451–1456]) between two kingdoms of Thai people—Ayutthaya, later known as Siam but at the time a relatively large kingdom in south-central Thailand; and the smaller Chiengmai, in

the mountainous jungles of the northwest. A Chiengmai army under King Sri Sutham Tilok (1411–87) invaded Ayutthaya, laying siege to the towns of Sukhothai and Phitsanulok. The offensive was interrupted, however, by an attack from the Chinese province of Yunnan. Sri Sutham Tilok withdrew from Ayutthaya to confront the Chinese invasion.

With the Chiengmai troops withdrawn, the Ayutthayan king, Boromo Trailokanat (d. 1488), moved his capital to Phitsanulok, where he could more effectively defend against a renewed assault. In 1463, the nighttime Battle of Doi Ba, near Chiengmai, resulted in a triumph for Boromo Trailokanat, who drove the invaders deeply into their own territory. The war was effectively at an end, although a formal peace, restoring the status quo ante bellum, was not concluded until the next year.

See also THAI WAR (1474–1475).

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984).

Thai War (1474–1475)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ayutthaya vs. Chiengmai
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thailand, mainly central and northwest
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ayutthaya sought territorial gains from neighboring Chiengmai.
OUTCOME: Ayutthaya gained some territory, but the war ended without definite conclusion.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Despite the concluding peace after the THAI WAR (1461–1464), the rival kingdoms of Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand) and Chiengmai (northern Thailand) continued to skirmish. Whereas, in 1461, Chiengmai had invaded Ayutthaya, in 1474, the larger Ayutthaya attacked Chiengmai. Having seized the initiative, Ayutthayan forces pressed it relentlessly and fought the Chiengmai army under King Sri Sutham Tilok (1411–87) to a standstill. The king sought an end to hostilities, and fighting ceased for a decade. No formal treaty was concluded.

See also THAI WAR (1492).

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1984).

Thai War (1492)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ayutthaya vs. Chiengmai
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thailand, mainly central and northwest
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Chiengmai sought restoration of a stolen religious statue.
OUTCOME: The statue was returned.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, perhaps none
TREATIES: None

The perpetually warring Thai kingdoms of Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand) and Chiengmai (northern Thailand) typically battled over territory but in fact needed little provocation for war. The royal prince of Ayutthaya had spent time as a Buddhist priest in Chiengmai. When he returned to Ayutthaya, he took with him a crystal Buddha. Chiengmai's King Phra Yot (fl. 1487–95) demanded the return of the statue. The Ayutthayans refused, and Chiengmai invaded. Little if any resistance was mounted. Instead, almost instantly, the Ayutthayan king Rama Thibodi II (1472–1529) restored the purloined statue to Chiengmai. Hostilities ceased until the beginning of the next century (*see* THAI WAR [C. 1500–1529]).

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984).

Thai War (c. 1500–1529)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ayutthaya vs. Chiengmai
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thailand, mainly central and northwest
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Fearing invasion, Chiengmai staged a preemptive attack on Ayutthaya, thereby triggering almost 30 years of sporadic warfare.
OUTCOME: By 1529, all Chiengmai invaders had been driven out of Ayutthaya.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand), by this time also known as Siam, continued to have a hostile relationship with its smaller neighbor, Chiengmai (northern Thai-

land). Because Ayutthaya was larger than Chiengmai, the smaller mountainous kingdom maintained a state of high defensive alert, occasionally seizing the initiative for a preemptive attack. From about 1500 through most of the first third of the 16th century, sporadic frontier warfare was chronic between the two rivals.

In 1507, King Ratana (fl. early 1500s) of Chiengmai launched a preemptive strike into Ayutthaya. At the Battle of Sukhothai, Ratana's army was repulsed. As was frequently the case, aggression on one side prompted aggression from the other, and in 1508 Ayutthaya launched an invasion of Chiengmai. The town of Phrae fell, but Chiengmai mounted a spirited defense that forced the invaders from the town and from the kingdom. Two years later, a new Ayutthayan invasion was mounted. Like the earlier foray, it too was repulsed.

From 1510 to 1515, border skirmishing continued steadily. This culminated in a 1515 Chiengmai invasion at Sukhothai and Kamphaeng Phet. King Rama Thibodi II (1472–1529) of Ayutthaya organized a formidable counteroffensive, which drove the Chiengmai not only out of the Ayutthaya but also well into their own territory, as far as the banks of the Wang River at Lampang. Here the Chiengmai forces made a stand and were defeated at the Battle of Lampang. The victorious Ayutthayan forces were given free rein to loot the town. Among the prizes "liberated" was a treasured statue of Buddha.

Over the next several years, with arms and military training supplied by Portuguese traders, Ayutthaya reclaimed Sukhothai and other Ayutthayan territory from the Chiengmai invaders. By 1529, Ayutthaya was clear of all Chiengmai forces.

See also Thai War (1451–1456); Thai War (1461–1464); Thai War (1474–1475); Thai War (1492).

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984).

Thai War (1660–1662)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ayutthaya (Thai kingdom) vs. Chiengmai (Thai kingdom under Burmese control)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Chiengmai (northern Thailand)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Under pretext of aiding Burma's king against the Chinese, King Narai of Ayutthaya mounted an expedition of conquest against Chiengmai.
OUTCOME: Narai achieved control of Chiengmai but lost it within two years, and the kingdom returned to Burmese control.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In contrast to earlier Thai wars, this conflict did not begin as the direct aggression of one Thai kingdom against another but as a result of the action of outside forces. A Manchu army from China attacked Ava, the capital of the kingdom of Burma (Myanmar), as it pursued Yong Li (Yung Li; d. 1662), a Ming pretender to the Chinese throne. The king of Burma fled Ava and sought refuge in Chiengmai, the capital of the Thai kingdom of Chiengmai. The Burmese king also requested aid and protection from King Narai (1632–88) of Ayutthaya (south-central Thailand, also called Siam). Simultaneously, the Mons, who were rebelling against the king in lower Burma, also appealed to Narai for aid. At this point, however, the Chinese troops withdrew from Burma, and officials of Chiengmai attempted to recall the Burmese king's request for aid. It was too late, as Ayutthayan troops were already advancing on Chiengmai. Ayutthaya's Narai had designs on Chiengmai, which was currently dominated by Burma.

A first attempt to capture the city of Chiengmai failed, but the second Ayutthayan assault succeeded. In 1662 the city and much of the kingdom fell to Ayutthaya. Narai now pressed into lower Burma itself.

Narai's triumph would prove short-lived. In 1664, Chiengmai rebelled against Ayutthayan rule and sent Narai's troops packing. The region returned to the control of Burma.

See also Thai War (1371–1378); Thai War (1387–1390); Thai War (1411); Thai War (1442–1448); Thai War (1451–1456); Thai War (1461–1464); Thai War (1474–1475); Thai War (1492); Thai War (c. 1500–1529).

Further reading: D. G. E. Hall, *A History of South-East Asia,* 4th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981); David K. Wyatt, *Thailand: A Short History* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1984).

Theban-Spartan War (379–371 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Thebes (with Athens, Athenian League, and Boeotian League) vs. Sparta (with Peloponnesian League)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Thebes and Boeotia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sparta wanted to maintain its dominant position among Greek city-states.
OUTCOME: Repeatedly defeating Sparta, Thebes emerged as the new dominant power among the Greek city-states.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the war's major battle, Leuctra, Sparta fielded 11,000 men against Thebes's 6,000.

CASUALTIES: More than 1,000 Spartans fell in the initial attack at Leuctra.
TREATIES: Treaty between Sparta and Athens and the Athenian League, 374 B.C.E.; Arcadian League formed, 371 B.C.E.

The King's Peace, which ended the CORINTHIAN WAR, stipulated that the Greek city-states would enjoy a large measure of autonomy. The King's Peace notwithstanding, Sparta emerged as the dominant power in the Hellenistic world, and it held sway over the other city-states, largely in an effort to placate Persia.

Of all the city-states, only Thebes posed a formidable threat to Spartan power. Sparta provoked Thebes by allowing the other city-states of the Boeotian League a degree of autonomy, while acting against Thebes by seizing the Cadmea, the Theban citadel, in 382. Next, Spartan forces incited a rebellion in Thebes, then intervened to extinguish it—blatantly circumventing and denying Theban internal authority. Finally, in 379, Spartan troops captured Olynthus, effectively cutting off Thebes by blocking routes of Athenian and Chalcidian military assistance.

Thebes retook the Cadmea in 379, then defeated two Spartan armies sent to relieve the force that had been holding the Cadmea. In 378, Thebes struck a direct alliance with Athens and built up power against Sparta. A new Athenian League was formed, which prompted Sparta's most powerful ally, Persia, to withdraw support from Sparta. With this, Spartan power collapsed. In an effort to regain power, Sparta invaded Boeotia in 377 and 376, then concluded a treaty with Athens and the Athenian League in 374. Sparta called a Pan-Hellenic peace conference in 371, which alienated Boeotia. In July of that year, at the Battle of Leuctra, the Theban general Epaminondas (c. 418–362 B.C.E.) fielded 6,000 troops against the Spartans' 11,000 under Cleombrotus (fl. 380–71 B.C.E.). Despite the disparity in numbers, Epaminondas outgeneraled his adversary by deploying his best troops on the left, from which position they drove back the Spartans at a cost of more than 1,000 Spartan lives. This blow enabled the smaller Theban army to outflank the Spartan force, and it sent Sparta in headlong flight from Boeotia.

Following Sparta's ignominious failure in Boeotia, rebellions swept the Sparta-dominated Peloponnesian League. Simultaneously, the Athenian and Boeotian Leagues united as the Arcadian League, which fielded a joint military police force. Thebes dominated the Arcadian League and thus replaced Sparta as the dominant power among the Greek city-states.

See also ANABASIS, THE: MARCH OF THE TEN THOUSAND.

Further reading: W. G. Forrest, *A History of Sparta, 950–192 B.C.* (London: Hutchinson, 1968).

Thebes, Revolt of (1600 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Theban nobility vs. Hyksos
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Upper Egypt
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Reestablishment of native control over Egypt
OUTCOME: The Hyksos were expelled from Upper Egypt.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Probably none; no documents survive

During the period between about 1800 B.C.E. and 1600 B.C.E., the Semitic Hyksos—the so-called "Shepherd Kings"—invaded Egypt, essentially overrunning the region by about 1700 B.C.E. For the next 100 years, the Hyksos more or less successfully dealt with any number of Egyptian uprisings against their overlordship. However, in 1600 B.C.E., the native nobility of Thebes organized a unified and effective action against the Hyksos, managing to drive them out of Upper Egypt. This paved the way for the development of the New Kingdom under the pharaohs, beginning in 1580 B.C.E.

Further reading: John Van Seters, *The Hyksos: A New Investigation* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1966).

Theodoric's Invasion of Italy (488–489)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ostrogoths vs. Gepidae
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy borderlands
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: First phase in the projected conquest of Italy
OUTCOME: Theodoric invaded and positioned himself well to fight Odoacer.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ostrogoths, 50,000–75,000; Gepidae, numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Theodoric the Ostrogoth (c. 454–526) came to power in 484 and was appointed in 488 patrician of Italy by Emperor Zeno (426–91) of the Eastern Empire. Zeno's strategy was to use Theodoric to neutralize Odoacer (c. 434–93), the first barbarian king of Italy. Theodoric invaded Italy from Novae (Sistova, Bulgaria), leading his entire kingdom, perhaps as many as 200,000 people, of whom 50,000 to 75,000 were warriors. Theodoric's advance was met by a Germanic tribe, the Gepidae, at the

Battle of Sirmium (near Belgrade) in 489. Theodoric overcame this resistance and by August 489 had completed crossing the Julian Alps into Italy to begin THEODORIC'S WAR WITH ODOACER.

Further reading: Thomas S. Burns, *A History of the Ostrogoths* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1991).

Theodoric's War with Odoacer (489–493)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Theodoric vs. Odoacer
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Theodoric sought to wrest control of Italy from Odoacer, who had overthrown the last Roman emperor.
OUTCOME: Theodoric and Odoacer agreed to joint rule; Theodoric murdered Odoacer, his sons, and his chief commanders, thereby assuming sole rule of Italy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Theodoric had an army of 150,000; Odoacer commanded similar, sometimes larger, forces
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty establishing Theodoric and Odoacer as joint rulers of Italy, February 27, 493 (immediately abrogated)

Led by Theodoric (the Great; c. 454–526), the German "barbarians," known as the Ostrogoths or East Goths, continually raided the frontier provinces of the Eastern Roman Empire. In a bold diplomatic move, the Roman emperor of the East, Zeno (426–91), co-opted Theodoric by appointing him patrician of Italy and commissioning him to enter Italy with an army and attack Odoacer (c. 434–93), who had overthrown Romulus Augustulus (fl. 475–76), the last Roman emperor of the West, in the final episode of the fall of Rome, and had become ruler of Italy.

Theodoric marched at the head of an Ostrogoth army of 150,000 across the Julian Alps and attacked Odoacer in several battles in northern Italy, most importantly at Sontius (Isonzo) and Verona, both in 489. Defeated in these two encounters, Odoacer withdrew to Ravenna, a formidable fortress-capital. Here he regrouped and received reinforcements from southern Italy. With these replenished forces, he assumed the offensive and in 490 counterattacked Theodoric's army of siege massed around Ravenna. Theodoric's forces reeled under Odoacer's blows and retreated to Pavia. Odoacer pursued vigorously, but suddenly he had to detach about half of his force to defend against a Visigoth and Burgundian invasion. Theodoric was therefore able to prevail against Odoacer at the Battle of the Adda River on August 11, 490. Odoacer swiftly fell back on Ravenna, this time with Theodoric in pursuit. Theodoric settled in for an epic siege of three and a half years. When a naval blockade was added to the land siege, Odoacer finally surrendered on February 27, 493. He agreed to joint rule of Italy with Theodoric.

To solemnize their treaty arrangement, Theodoric and Odoacer, together with their chief commanders, sat together at a great banquet. By prearrangement, Theodoric had his troops set upon Odoacer, his sons, and his commanders. All were murdered, and thus Theodoric became sole ruler of Italy.

See also THEODORIC'S INVASION OF ITALY.

Further reading: Thomas S. Burns, *A History of the Ostrogoths* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1991).

Thirteen Years' War (1454–1466)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Poland vs. Order of the Teutonic Knights
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): East and West Prussia
DECLARATION: Poland against the Teutonic Knights, 1454
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Poland sought the suppression of the Teutonic Knights and to recover Baltic territory lost to the knights in the Teutonic Knights' War with Poland and the Teutonic Knights' War with Poland and Lithuania.
OUTCOME: Poland prevailed, regained the desired territory, and reduced the Teutonic Knights to a Polish vassal order.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Second Treaty of Thorn, October 14, 1466

As a result of the TEUTONIC KNIGHTS' WAR WITH POLAND (1309–43) and the TEUTONIC KNIGHTS' WAR WITH POLAND AND LITHUANIA (1410–11), Poland lost significant territory on the Baltic and was cut off from its only outlet to the sea.

In 1454, Prussia revolted against the harsh rule of the Order of the Teutonic Knights, and Poland's Casimir IV (1427–92) supported the rebellion. He then went on to declare war against the Teutonic Knights. The initial engagement, at Chojnice, resulted in a Polish defeat, but Casimir grasped that this would be a war of attrition and that Poland was in a position to apply pressure to the knights, forcing a drain on their resources. By 1457, the knights could no longer afford to pay the mercenary troops on which they depended, and the knights surrendered their fortified capital at Marienburg to Poland.

The Poles pressed the attack. By 1462, the Teutonic Knights had withdrawn to East Prussia, where a Polish force attacked them at the Battle of Puck on September 17,

1462. Polish victory resulted in the fall of this important Vistula River fortress, near Tczew.

Repeated defeats compelled the knights to conclude the Second Treaty of Thorn on October 14, 1466, by which they ceded Pomerelia (a portion of Pomerania) and all of West Prussia to Poland. The Teutonic Knights were permitted to retain East Prussia, including a new capital city, Königsberg (Kaliningrad), but the grand master of the knights, once a figure of enormous power, was now merely a vassal, in service to Poland. Moreover, seeking to undermine the ethnic structure of the Teutonic Knights, Casimir demanded that Poles be permitted to join the order.

Further reading: Adam Zamoyski, *The Polish Way: A Thousand-Year History of the Poles and Their Culture* (New York: F. Watts, 1988).

Thirty Days' War *See* GRECO-TURKISH WAR (1897).

Thirty Years' War (1618–1648)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Holy Roman Emperor, Spain, Bavaria and other Catholic German states, Saxony and other Protestant German states (after 1635), the Papacy and various Italian states vs. numerous Protestant states and groups in the Empire, Saxony and other Protestant German states (until 1635), Transylvania, the Dutch Republic, Denmark (1625–1629), Sweden (from 1630), and France (from 1636)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Religious and political freedom for the Protestants of the Empire, and especially of the Hapsburg lands (the emperor and the states of the empire); the atomization of Germany, territorial gains in north Germany, and a war indemnity (Sweden); territorial gains in Alsace-Lorraine and reduction of assistance between the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs (France); security for the "Protestant cause" in Germany (Denmark, the Dutch)
OUTCOME: The Empire became fragmented, with the emperor losing most of his political authority within Germany but consolidating his hold over his own territories; religion ceased to be a major precipitant of political conflict; Germany, although devastated by 30 years of conflict, enjoyed internal peace for almost a century; the foreign powers all gained their objectives, although the cost of doing so provoked serious political strains in most of them; Sweden briefly became a great power.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The Imperial army commanded by Wallenstein in North Germany in 1628–29 probably approached 200,000 men; Gustavus Adolphus probably directed the operations of 120,000 men in 1631–32; France maintained some 130,000 men, at least on paper, in 1635–36. Total number of men in battle, however, rarely exceeded 20,000 per side and normally numbered 10,000 or less—roughly half of them cavalry.
CASUALTIES: Perhaps 500,000 soldiers took part in the war, of whom perhaps two-thirds died in service; in addition civilian losses amounted to perhaps 4 million—20 percent of the total population of the Empire.
TREATIES: Hague Alliance (December 9, 1625); Peace of Lübeck (July 7, 1629); Truce of Altmark (September 26, 1629); Heilbronn League (April 23, 1633); Peace of Prague (May 30, 1635); Treaty of Hamburg (March 15, 1641); Peace of Westphalia (October 24, 1648).

The Thirty Years' War devastated Germany. The loss of people was proportionately greater than in WORLD WAR II; the displacement of people and the material destruction caused were almost as great; the cultural and economic dislocation persisted far longer. Although some areas of Germany—particularly in the northeast—escaped relatively lightly, losses in a broad swath of land between Pomerania in the northeast and the Black Forest in the southwest may have approached 50 percent, and the populations and economies of many areas did not recover their prewar levels for at least a generation. Other parts of Europe—particularly northern Italy and Denmark—also suffered temporary but acute devastation. The political influence of Germany crumbled and remained slight until reunification in the mid-19th century. Most foreign powers gained little from their intervention in the war: The Dutch and the Danes got nothing; France acquired only a few rights and territories in Alsace-Lorraine. Only Sweden did well, acquiring extensive lands in north Germany that made it briefly a great power, and the Holy Roman Emperor consolidated his power in the Hapsburg lands in east-central Europe but lost almost all authority within Germany.

CAUSES

The war originated with a dual crisis at the center of the European continent, one in the Rhineland and the other in Bohemia. Both areas lay on the extremities of the "Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation," a state of 1,000 separate, semi-autonomous polities under the overall suzerainty of the Hapsburg dynasty. Many units were very small—such as those of the "Imperial Knights," direct vassals of the Holy Roman Emperor and particularly numerous in the southwest, sometimes consisting of one village—whereas others rivaled in size fully independent states elsewhere, such as Scotland or the Dutch Republic. At the top came the lands of the Imperial Hapsburg dynasty itself, covering the elective kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, as well as Austria, the Tyrol and Alsace, with

8 million inhabitants (another branch of the family ruled Spain, the Netherlands, large parts of Italy, and substantial colonies around the globe). Next came Electoral Saxony, Brandenburg, and Bavaria, with more than 1 million subjects each; and then the Palatinate, Hesse-Kassel, Trier, and Württemberg, with 500,000 each.

Large or small, however, all states in the empire suffered from three weaknesses. First, they did not accept primogeniture; Hesse had been divided into four portions since 1567; the lands of the Austrian Hapsburgs underwent partition in 1564 and again in 1576. Second, many of the states were geographically fragmented; thus the Palatinate comprised an Upper County, adjoining the borders of both Bohemia and Bavaria, and a Lower County on the Middle Rhine. These two factors had, in the course of time, created in Germany a balance of power between the states. The territorial strength of the Hapsburgs may have brought them a monopoly of the imperial title from 1438 onward, but the other princes, when threatened, formed alliances the military strength of which equaled that of the emperor. However, the third weakness—the religious upheavals caused by the Protestant Reformation of the 16th century—changed everything; princes who had formerly stood together were now divided by religion. Swabia, for example, more or less equal in area to modern Switzerland, included 68 secular and 40 spiritual princes, as well as 32 imperial free cities. By 1618 over half these rulers, and almost exactly half the population, were Catholic; the rest were Protestant. Neither bloc was prepared to let the other mobilize an army. Similar paralysis was to be found in most other regions; the Reformation and Counter-Reformation had separated Germany into hostile but evenly balanced confessional camps.

THE CRISIS IN GERMANY

The Religious Peace of Augsburg in 1555 put an end to 30 years of sporadic confessional warfare in Germany between Catholics and Lutherans by creating a layered structure of legal securities for the people of the empire. At the top was the right (known as *cuius regio eius religio*) of every secular ruler, from the seven electors down to the imperial knights, to dictate whether their subjects' religion was to be Lutheran or Catholic (the only officially permitted creeds). The only exceptions to this rule were found in the imperial free cities, where both Lutherans and Catholics enjoyed (at least in theory) freedom of worship, and the Catholic ecclesiastical states, where bishops and abbots who wished to become Lutherans were obliged to resign first. The latter provision, known as the *reservatum ecclesiasticum,* gave rise to a war from 1583 to 1588, when the archbishop of Cologne declared himself a Protestant but refused to resign; in the end a coalition of Catholic princes, led by the duke of Bavaria, forced him out.

The "War of Cologne" proved to be a turning point in the religious history of Germany. Until then, the Catholics had been on the defensive, losing ground steadily to the Protestants; afterward, Catholic princes began to enforce the *cuius regio* principle with rigor. In Bavaria, as well as in several ecclesiastical states, Protestants faced the choice of either conversion or exile. Most of those affected belonged to the Lutheran Church, already weakened by defections to a new creed that could scarcely boast a German adherent at the time of the Augsburg settlement—Calvinism. The rulers of the Palatinate (1560), Nassau (1578), Hesse-Kassel (1603), and Brandenburg (1613) all abandoned Lutheranism for the new confession, as did many lesser rulers and several towns. It is small wonder that the Lutherans came to detest the Calvinists even more than they loathed the Catholics.

These religious divisions intensified the confessional diversity within the empire. By 1600, the Catholics were firmly entrenched south of the Danube and the Lutherans northeast of the Elbe. But the areas in between formed an unstable patchwork of Calvinist, Lutheran, and Catholic. Donauwörth, an independent city just across the Danube from Bavaria, for example, was obliged (by the Peace of Augsburg) to tolerate both Catholics and Protestants; but for years the Catholic minority had not been permitted full rights of public worship. When, in 1606, the priests tried to hold a procession through the streets, they were beaten, and their relics and banners desecrated. The following year, however, when the Lutheran magistrates of Donauwörth flatly refused to permit their Catholic subjects freedom of worship, the Bavarians secured imperial permission to march into the city and restore Catholic worship by force (December 1607). They also banned Protestant worship and set up an occupation government that eventually transferred the city to direct Bavarian rule.

These dramatic events thoroughly alarmed Protestants elsewhere in Germany. Was this, they wondered, the first step in a new Catholic offensive against heresy? The Calvinist elector Frederick IV of the Palatinate (1583–1610) took the lead and on May 12, 1608, forming a Protestant association, to last for 10 years, for self-defense—the Evangelical Union. At first membership remained restricted to Germany, although some wished to extend it, but before long a new crisis rocked the empire and turned the German Union into a Protestant International.

THE CRISIS IN THE RHINELAND

The new crisis began with the death of John William (1562–1609), the childless duke of Cleves-Jülich, in March 1609. His duchies, occupying a strategic position in the lower Rhineland, included both Protestant and Catholic subjects, but both of the main claimants to the inheritance were Protestants: under the *cuius regio* principle, their succession would lead to the expulsion of the Catholics. Emperor Rudolf II (1576–1612) therefore refused to recognize the Protestant princes' claims. Because both belonged

to the Union, they solicited, and received, promises of military aid from their colleagues; they also received similar promises from the kings of France and England. This sudden accretion in Protestant strength caused the German Catholics to take countermeasures: a Catholic League was signed between Duke Maximilian of Bavaria (1597–1651) and his neighbors on July 10, 1609, soon to be joined by the ecclesiastical rulers of the Rhineland and receiving support from Spain and the papacy. Again, reinforcement for one side provoked countermeasures. The union leaders signed a defensive treaty with England in 1612 (cemented by the marriage of the union's director, the young Frederick V of the Palatine [1610–32], to the king of England's daughter) and with the Dutch Republic in 1613.

At first sight, all this resembles the pyramid of alliances patiently constructed by the statesmen of Europe 300 years later that plunged the continent into WORLD WAR I. But governments before 1914 feared political domination, whereas before 1618 they feared religious extirpation. Union members believed that some sort of Catholic conspiracy existed, aimed at rooting out all trace of Protestantism from the empire. Such fears were probably unjustified at this time: in 1609, pope and emperor lacked unity of purpose, and the last thing Maximilian wished to see was Hapsburg participation in the league—indeed, rather than suffer it he formed in 1613 a separate association of his own, and when that failed, he dissolved the league altogether in 1617. This reduction in the Catholic threat produced reciprocal moves among the Protestants. Although renewed fighting occurred in 1614 over Cleves-Jülich, the members of the Protestant Union had abandoned their militant stance by 1618, when the treaty of alliance came up for renewal. They declared that they would no longer become involved in the territorial wrangles of individual members, and they resolved to prolong their association for only three years more.

Although the existence of these militant confessional alliances helped to spread war across Germany after 1618, the continuity must thus not be exaggerated. Both union and league were the product of fear; but by 1618 the grounds for fear seemed to be receding. The Thirty Years' War was not triggered by events in the Rhineland but by developments in the lands of the Austrian Hapsburgs over the winter of 1617–18.

THE CRISIS IN THE HAPSBURG LANDS

Although the Cleves-Jülich crisis held the attention of western Europe in 1609, the eyes of observers farther east were upon Prague, the capital of Bohemia. That elective kingdom (which also included Silesia, Lusatia, and Moravia), together with Hungary, had come to the Hapsburg family in 1526. At first they were ruled jointly, but after 1564 the inheritance was divided into three portions: Alsace and Tyrol (known as "Further Austria") went to one family member; Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola (known as "Inner Austria") went to another; only the remainder came to the new Hapsburg emperor, Maximilian II (1564–76).

By 1609, the fragmentation had advanced even further. Maximilian's eldest son, Rudolf II (1552–1612), ruled only Bohemia; all the rest of his father's territories had been acquired, the previous year, by a younger son (Matthias [1557–1619]). The new ruler had come to power not through strength or talent, however, but by the exploitation of the religious divisions of his subjects. In the course of the 1570s, the Protestants of Austria, Bohemia, and Hungary had used their numbers and their control of local representative assemblies to force the Hapsburgs to grant them freedom of worship. This went clearly against the *cuius regio* principle, and everyone knew it. In 1599 the ruler of Inner Austria, Archduke Ferdinand (1503–64), began a successful campaign of forcible re-Catholicization among his subjects. Rudolf II's decision to launch the same policy in Hungary shortly afterward provoked a revolt, and the rebels offered the Hungarian crown to Matthias in return for guarantees of toleration. The Bohemians then decided to exploit Rudolf's temporary embarrassment by pressing him to grant similarly far-reaching concessions to the non-Catholic majority of that kingdom. Rudolf's "Letter of Majesty," signed on July 9, 1609, granted full toleration to Protestants and created a standing committee of the representative assembly of the kingdom (the Estates), known as "the Defensors," to ensure that the settlement would be respected.

But Rudolf proved incapable of keeping to any one policy for long. In 1611, he tried to revoke the Letter of Majesty and to depose the Defensors by sending a small Hapsburg army into Prague, but a force of superior strength defeated the invaders, and the Estates resolved to depose Rudolf and offer their crown to Matthias. The emperor, broken in mind and body, died in January 1612; his brother, who also became Holy Roman Emperor later in the year, now ruled all the Hapsburg lands in the empire. But the alliance with the Protestant Estates that brought about Matthias's elevation did not long continue once he was in power. Instead, the new ruler now sought to undo the concessions he had made and looked for support to his closest Hapsburg relatives: to his brother Albert (1559–1621), governor-general of the Spanish Netherlands; to his cousin Ferdinand, ruler of Inner Austria; and to his nephew Philip III (1578–1621), king of Spain. All three, however, turned him down.

In 1609, Albert had succeeded in bringing the war between Spain and the Dutch Republic to a temporary close, with the "Twelve Years Truce." He did not wish to involve his ravaged country in supplying men and money to Vienna, and perhaps provoking countermeasures from Protestants nearer home. Archduke Ferdinand, although willing to aid Matthias to uphold his authority (not least because he regarded himself as heir presumptive to the

childless Matthias), was prevented from doing so by the outbreak of war between his Croatian subjects and the neighboring Republic of Venice (the "Uskok War," 1615–18). Finally, Philip of Spain was also involved in war: from 1613 to 1615 and from 1616 to 1617, Spanish forces in Lombardy fought the troops of the duke of Savoy over the succession to the childless duke of Mantua. Spain could therefore aid neither Matthias nor Ferdinand.

In 1617, however, papal diplomats secured a temporary settlement to the Mantuan question, and Spanish troops hastened to assist Ferdinand. Before long, Venice made overtures for peace and the archduke was able to join Matthias. The emperor, old and infirm, was anxious to establish Ferdinand as his heir and, in the autumn of 1617, the Estates of both Bohemia and Hungary agreed to recognize the archduke unconditionally as king-designate. On the strength of this, Ferdinand proceeded over the winter of 1617–18 to halt the concessions being made to Protestants. He created an overwhelmingly Catholic council of regency for Bohemia, which soon began to censor works printed in Prague and to prevent non-Catholics from holding government office. More inflammatory still, the regents ordered Protestant worship to cease in towns on church lands (which they claimed were not included in the Letter of Majesty).

The "Defensors" created by the Letter of Majesty objected strongly to these measures and summoned the Estates of the realm to meet in May 1618. When the emperor's representatives declared the meeting illegal, the Estates invaded the council chamber and threw two Catholic regents from the window (the "defenestration"), together with their secretary. Next, a provisional government was created (known as "the Directors"), and a small army was raised (*see* BOHEMIAN-PALATINE WAR).

OUTBREAK

Apart from the famous "defenestration," superficially the events in Prague in May 1618 differed little from those in 1609 and 1611. Yet those earlier crises did not trigger a 30-year struggle. The crucial difference lay in the involvement of foreign powers. In 1609 and 1611 the Hapsburgs, represented by Rudolf and Matthias, had given in to their subjects' demands; in 1618, led by Ferdinand, they did not. At first his defiant stance achieved nothing, for the rebel army expelled loyal troops from almost every part of the kingdom, while their diplomats secured declarations of support from Silesia, Lusatia, Moravia, and Austria. In May 1619, the rebels even laid siege to Ferdinand in Vienna. But within weeks they were forced to withdraw because a major Spanish army, partly financed by the papacy, invaded Bohemia.

The appearance of Spanish troops and papal gold in eastern Europe immediately reawakened the fears of the Protestant rulers of the empire. So when in the summer of 1618 the Bohemians deposed Ferdinand and offered the crown to Frederick V of the Palatinate (1610–32), parts of whose territories adjoined Bohemia, he was favorably disposed. Some of the elector's advisers favored rejecting this offer, because they feared that acceptance might begin a general religious war; others pointed out that such a war was inevitable anyway when the Twelve Years' Truce, concluded between Spain and the Dutch Republic in 1609, expired in April 1621. They argued that allowing the Bohemian cause to founder would ensure that the conflict in the Netherlands would also be resolved in Spain's favor later, making a concerted Hapsburg attack on the Protestants of the empire both ineluctable and irresistible.

Frederick therefore accepted the Bohemian crown and in so doing rekindled the worst fears of the German Catholics. The Catholic League was recreated, and in December 1619 its leaders authorized the levy of an army of 25,000 men, to be used as Maximilian of Bavaria thought fit. At much the same time Philip III and Archduke Albert each promised to send a new army into Germany to assist Ferdinand (who had succeeded the late Matthias as Holy Roman Emperor).

THE TRIUMPH OF THE CATHOLICS, 1619–1629

The rebel Estates crowned Frederick V (1596–1632) king of Bohemia in October 1619, but already the Catholic net was closing around him. The axis linking Vienna with Munich, Brussels, and Madrid enjoyed widespread support: Rome and Genoa sent subsidies whereas Tuscany and Poland sent troops. Furthermore, states favorable to Frederick's cause remained neutral: Spanish diplomacy kept England out of the war, and French efforts persuaded the Evangelical Union to remain aloof from the Bohemian adventure of their leader. The Dutch Republic also did nothing, permitting a Spanish army to cross from the Netherlands and occupy the Rhine Palatinate in the summer of 1620, while the armies of the emperor and league, reinforced with Spanish and Italian contingents, invaded the rebel heartland. On December 20, in the first significant battle of the war, at White Mountain outside Prague, they routed Frederick's forces. The unfortunate prince fled northward, abandoning his subjects to the mercy of the victorious Ferdinand.

This was total victory, and it might have remained the last word but for events in the Low Countries. Once the Twelve Years' Truce expired in April 1621, the Dutch, fearing a concerted attack by both Spanish and Austrian Hapsburgs, decided to provide an asylum for Frederick and to supply diplomatic and, eventually, military assistance to his cause. In 1622, and again in 1623, armies were raised for Frederick with Dutch money, but they were defeated. The emperor's political position, however, also weakened considerably in the course of 1623. Although his armies won impressive victories in the field, their success reflected massive financial and military support from the Catholic League, controlled by Maximilian of Bavaria. Ferdinand II,

thanks to the Spanish and papal subsidies, maintained some 15,000 men himself; but the league provided him with perhaps 50,000. Thus Maximilian's armies had in effect won Ferdinand's victories and, now that all common enemies had been defeated, Maximilian requested his reward: the lands and electoral title of the outlawed Frederick of the Palatinate. Don Balthazar de Zúñiga (d. 1622), chief minister of Ferdinand's other major ally, Spain, worried about the potential consequences of acceding to this demand, but in October 1622 he died and no one else in Madrid, least of all his successor as principal minister, the Count-Duke of Olivares (fl. 1621–43), possessed practical experience of German affairs; in January 1623 the emperor conferred the electorate on Maximilian.

The electoral transfer provoked an enormous outcry, for it was clearly unconstitutional. The Golden Bull of 1356, universally regarded as the fundamental and immutable law of the empire, had ordained that the electorate should remain in the Palatine house in perpetuity; the transfer of 1623 thus undermined a cornerstone of the constitution, which many regarded as their only true safeguard against arbitrary rule. Inside Germany, a pamphlet war began, directed against Maximilian and Ferdinand; outside, sympathy for Frederick at last created for his cause an international body of support, which had been so conspicuously lacking. The Dutch and the Palatine exiles now encountered little difficulty in engineering an alliance involving France, England, Savoy, Sweden, and Denmark and dedicated to the restoration of Frederick to his forfeited lands and titles (the Hague Alliance, December 9, 1624). Its leader was Christian IV of Denmark (1577–1648), one of the richest rulers in Christendom, who saw a chance to extend his influence in northern Germany under cover of defending "the Protestant cause." He invaded in June 1625.

But the Protestants' diplomatic campaign had not gone unnoticed. In spring 1625 Emperor Ferdinand authorized Albrecht von Wallenstein (1583–1634), military governor of Prague, to raise an imperial army of 25,000 men, and to move it northward to meet the Danish threat. Wallenstein's approach forced Christian to withdraw, and when the Danes invaded again the following year, they were routed at the Battle of Lutter (August 26, 1626). The joint Imperial and league armies pursued the defeated forces: First they occupied the lands of north German rulers who had declared support for the invasion, then they conquered the Danish mainland itself. Christian made peace in 1629, promising never again to intervene in the empire. His allies had long since withdrawn from the struggle.

Just as the Battle of White Mountain had delivered the rebels into the emperor's grasp, so the Battle of Lutter delivered the rebels' German supporters. After the victories, accordingly, Ferdinand initiated important new policies that aimed to exalt the Catholic religion and his own authority. Widespread confiscation of land took place in the Hapsburg provinces—perhaps two-thirds of the kingdom of Bohemia changed hands during the 1620s—and established a new class of loyal landowners (like Wallenstein). At the same time, the power of the Estates was curtailed, and freedom of worship for Protestants restricted (in some territories) or abolished (in most of the rest). Even a major rebellion in Upper Austria in 1626, provoked principally by the persecution of Protestants, failed to change Ferdinand's mind. Indeed, fortified by his success in the Hapsburg lands, he implemented new policies in the empire. To begin with, disloyal rulers were replaced (the Palatinate went to Maximilian, Mecklenburg to Wallenstein, and so on). Next, serious steps were taken to reclaim church lands that had fallen into Protestant hands. At first this was done on a piecemeal basis, but on March 28, 1629, Ferdinand issued the "Edict of Restitution," which declared unilaterally that all church lands secularized since 1555 must be returned at once, that Calvinism was an illegal creed in the empire, and that ecclesiastical princes had the same right as secular ones to insist that their subjects be of the same religion as their ruler. The last clause, at least, was clearly contrary to the terms of the Peace of Augsburg, which Protestants at least had come to regard as a central pillar of the Constitution. But Ferdinand allowed no opportunity for argument and ordered the Edict to be enforced immediately by the victorious Catholic armies.

The people of the Empire seemed threatened with arbitrary rule against which they had no defense, and this fear, skillfully exploited once again by Protestant propagandists, ensured that the war in Germany did not end in 1629 with the defeat of Denmark. Ferdinand may have won numerous military victories, but these victories lured him toward a serious political defeat. The pens of his enemies proved mightier than the sword.

THE CRISIS OF THE WAR, 1629–1635

If Maximilian of Bavaria desired the title of elector as his reward for supporting Ferdinand, Spain (for its part) demanded imperial support for its wars elsewhere in Europe—above all in Italy. The death of the last native ruler of the strategic states of Mantua and Montferrat in December 1627 created dangers in Italy that the Spaniards proved unable to ignore and temptations they proved unable to resist. Hoping to forestall intervention by others, Spanish forces from Lombardy launched an invasion, but the garrisons of Mantua and Montferrat declared for the late duke's relative, the French-born duc de Nevers. Nevers lacked the resources to withstand the forces of Spain alone, and he appealed to France for support. However, Louis XIII (1610–43) and Cardinal Richelieu (1585–1642; chief minister, 1624–42) engaged in a desperate war against their Calvinist subjects, could cross the Mont Cenis pass and enter Italy only when the rebels had been defeated, early in 1629. It was to meet this threat that, at the request of Philip IV of Spain (1621–65), the Emperor

sent some 50,000 troops, tipping the balance in the war for Mantua in the Hapsburgs' favor but critically weakening his own hold on Germany.

Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden (1611–32) had spent most of the 1620s at war with Poland seeking to acquire territory on the southern shore of the Baltic (*see* POLISH-SWEDISH WAR FOR LIVONIA, SECOND). Poland made numerous concessions in return for a six-year cease-fire in the Truce of Altmark (September 26, 1629), and Gustavus lost no time in turning his attention to developments in Germany. On July 6, 1630, he led a Swedish expeditionary force ashore near Stralsund with the declared intention of saving the "liberties of the empire" and preserving the security of the Baltic from Hapsburg aggression (*see* SWEDISH WAR).

Despite the defeat of the German Protestants and their foreign allies, Sweden enjoyed a far more favorable position than Denmark had possessed five years previously. Instead of the two armies that faced Christian IV, only one opposed Gustavus Adolphus, for in the summer of 1630 the emperor's Catholic allies in Germany—led by Maximilian of Bavaria—demanded the dismissal of Wallenstein and the drastic reduction of his expensive army. Ferdinand, with the bulk of his forces tied down in Italy, could not refuse, even though he thereby lost the services of the one man who might conceivably have retained all the imperial gains of the previous decade and united Germany under a strong monarchy.

The emperor and his German allies nevertheless remained united over the Edict of Restitution; no concessions in matters of religion and no restoration of forfeited lands would be allowed. The German Protestants therefore reluctantly made common cause with Sweden, the army of which swelled thanks to French and Dutch subsidies. In September 1631 at Breitenfeld, just outside Leipzig in Saxony, Gustavus's forces destroyed the main Catholic field army and in the winter of 1631–32 overran most of central Germany and Bohemia. The next summer they occupied Bavaria. Although Gustavus died in battle at Lützen, on November 16, 1632, his forces again proved victorious, and his cause was directed with equal skill by his chief adviser, Axel Oxenstierna (1583–1654), who crafted a military alliance that transferred much of the cost of the war onto the shoulders of the German Protestant states (the Heilbronn League, April 23, 1633). Swedish ascendancy was destroyed in 1634, however, when Spain sent a large army across the Alps from Lombardy to join the Imperial and Bavarian forces in relieving the besieged town of Nördlingen (September 6). The Swedes were beaten in the ensuing battle, and withdrew their forces in haste from most of southern Germany.

Yet Sweden, under Oxenstierna's skillful direction, fought on. Certainly its motives included a desire to defend the Protestant cause in Germany and to restore the deposed princes to their thrones. More important was the fear that if the German Protestants were finally defeated the imperialists would turn the Baltic into a Hapsburg lake and might even invade Sweden. The Swedish government therefore desired a settlement that would atomize the empire into congeries of independent but weak states incapable of threatening the security of Sweden or her hold on the Baltic. Furthermore, to guarantee this fragmentation, Sweden desired sovereignty over certain strategic areas of the Empire—particularly the duchy of Pomerania on the Baltic coast and the electorate of Mainz on the Rhine.

Sweden's German allies, however, did not share these goals. They aimed, rather, at the restoration of the prewar situation—in which there had been no place for Sweden—and it soon became clear that they were prepared to make a separate settlement with the emperor in order to achieve this. No sooner was Gustavus Adolphus dead than the elector of Saxony, considered the foremost Lutheran prince of the Empire, put out peace feelers towards Vienna. At first John George (1611–56) was adamant about the need to abolish the Edict of Restitution and to secure a full amnesty for all, as preconditions for a settlement. But the imperial victory at Nördlingen made him less demanding. The insistence on an amnesty for Frederick V was dropped, and it was accepted that the edict would be applied in all areas recovered by Catholic forces before November 1627 (this covered all lands south of the Elbe, but not the Lutheran heartland of Saxony and Brandenburg). The emperor and the Saxons signed the Peace of Prague on May 30, 1635, and within a year most other German Lutherans also changed their allegiance from Stockholm to Vienna.

THE EUROPEAN WAR IN GERMANY, 1635–1645

This partial settlement of the issues behind the war led many in Germany to look forward to a general peace. Attempts were made to convert the Peace of Prague into a general settlement. At a meeting of the electors, held at Regensburg in 1636–37, Ferdinand II agreed to pardon any prince who submitted to him and promised to begin talks with the foreign powers to ascertain their terms for peace. But the emperor's death immediately after the meeting brought this initiative to nothing. Efforts by Pope Urban VIII (1623–44) to convene a general peace conference at Cologne proved similarly unavailing. Then, in 1640, the new emperor, Ferdinand III (1637–57), assembled the Imperial Diet for the first time since 1613 in order to find a solution to at least the outstanding German problems—the amnesty question and the restitution of church lands. He met with little success and could not prevent first Brandenburg (1641) and then Brunswick (1642) from making separate agreements with Sweden. The problem was that none of these attempts at peace were acceptable to the foreign powers involved in the war, yet no lasting settlement could be made without them.

Nevertheless the Peace of Prague transformed the Thirty Years' War. Instead of a struggle principally between the emperor and his own subjects, with some foreign aid,

it became a war of the emperor against foreign powers, the German supporters of which were normally few in number and limited in resources. Sweden, as noted above, had distinct and fairly consistent aims in its war: to secure bases in the empire, both as guarantees of its influence in the postwar era and as recompense for coming to the rescue of the Protestants; and to create a system of checks and balances in Germany that would prevent any single power ever again becoming dominant. If those aims could be achieved, Oxenstierna was prepared to quit.

However, because the Heilbronn League did not long survive the Peace of Prague, Sweden needed to find an alternative source of support in order to secure its objectives, and the only one available was France. Louis XIII and Richelieu had been subsidizing Sweden's war effort for some time. Now, in 1635, in the wake of Nördlingen, they signed offensive and defensive alliances with the Dutch Republic (February 8), Sweden (April 28), and Savoy (July 11); they sent an army into the Alps to occupy the Valtelline, a strategic military link between the possessions of the Spanish and Austrian Hapsburgs (March); and they mediated a 20-year truce between Sweden and Poland (September 12). Finally, on May 19, 1625, they declared war on Spain.

Yet France possessed different aims both from Sweden and from its German allies. France wished to defeat Spain, its rival for over a century, and her early campaigns in Germany were intended more to prevent Ferdinand from sending aid to his Spanish cousins than to impose a Bourbon solution on Germany—indeed France declared war on Ferdinand only in March 1636. Therefore, Sweden at first avoided a firm commitment to France, in order to leave the way clear for a separate peace should the military situation improve sufficiently to permit the achievement of its own particular aims. But the war did not at first favor the allies. French and Swedish forces, operating separately, failed to reverse the verdict of Nördlingen; despite the Swedish victory at Wittstock (October 4, 1636) and French gains in Alsace and the middle Rhine (1638), the Hapsburgs always seemed able to even up the score. Oxenstierna therefore abandoned his attempt to maintain independence and threw in his lot with France: In the Treaty of Hamburg (March 15, 1641), the two sides promised not to make a separate peace and instead to open joint negotiations with the emperor and the German princes for the satisfaction of the allies' claims at the Westphalian towns of Münster and Osnabrück. However, while the talks proceeded, the war would continue.

The treaty of Hamburg at last created a coalition capable of destroying the power both of Ferdinand III and of Maximilian of Bavaria. In general, France attacked Bavaria, and Sweden fought the emperor, but there was considerable interchange of forces and some effort to coordinate strategy. On November 2, 1642, the Hapsburgs' army met defeat in Saxony at the Second Battle of Breitenfeld, and the emperor avoided further reverses thanks only to the outbreak of war between Denmark and Sweden (May 1643–August 1645). Yet even before Denmark's final surrender, the Swedes were back in Bohemia, and, at Jankow (March 6, 1645), they destroyed another Imperial army. The emperor and his family fled to Graz, while the Swedes advanced to the Danube and threatened Vienna. At the same time, French forces defeated Maximilian's army on August 3 at Allerheim.

Jankow and Allerheim constituted two of the truly decisive battles of the war, because they destroyed all possibility that the Catholics might obtain a favorable peace settlement. In September 1645 the elector of Saxony made a separate peace with Sweden and—like Brandenburg and Brunswick before him—withdrew from the war. Meanwhile, at the peace conference then in session in Westphalia, the imperial delegation began to make major concessions.

MAKING PEACE, 1645–1648

One hundred ninety-four European rulers, great and small, sent representatives to the Congress of Westphalia, and talks continued from spring 1643 through autumn 1648. Although negotiations proceeded simultaneously on all issues, the purely German problems tended to be resolved first—partly because they were already near to solution, and partly because the foreign diplomats realized that it was best to address public peace and the liberties of the empire. So in 1645 and 1646, with the aid of French and Swedish mediation, the emperor conceded all German territorial rulers a large degree of sovereignty (*Landeshoheit*), issued a general amnesty to all German princes, created an eighth electorate for the son of Frederick V (so that both he and Maximilian possessed the coveted dignity), abandoned the Edict of Restitution, and granted official toleration to Calvinism within the empire. The last two points caused the most bitter argument and led to the division of the German rulers at the Congress into two blocs: the *Corpus Catholicorum* and the *Corpus Evangelicorum*. Neither was monolithic or wholly united, and eventually the Catholics split into those who were prepared to make religious concessions in order to have peace and those who were not. A coalition of Protestants and pragmatic Catholics then succeeded in securing the acceptance of a formula that recognized all church lands in secular hands by January 1, 1624 (that is, before the gains made by Wallenstein's army), as Protestant and granted freedom of worship to religious minorities where these had existed by that same date. The Augsburg settlement of 1555 was thus overthrown, and it was agreed that any change to the new formula could be achieved only through the "amicable composition" of the Catholic and Protestant blocs, not by a simple majority.

The "amicable composition" principle was finally accepted by all parties early in 1648, thus solving the last German problem. But it did not lead to immediate peace, because of the difficulty of satisfying the foreign powers

involved. Apart from France and Sweden, representatives from the Dutch Republic, Spain, and many other non-German participants in the war were present and eager to secure the best settlements they could. The war in the Netherlands was the first to end; on January 30, 1648, Philip IV (1605–65) of Spain signed a peace that recognized the Dutch Republic as independent and agreed to liberalize trade between the Netherlands and the Iberian world. The French government, led since Richelieu's death (December 4, 1642) by Cardinal Mazarin (Giulio Mazarini [1602–61]), bitterly opposed this settlement, because it left Spain free to deploy all its forces in the Low Countries against France; France now concentrated on perpetuating the war in Germany. Although Mazarin had already signed a "preliminary agreement" with the emperor in September 1646, which conveyed parts of Alsace and Lorraine to France, in 1647–48 he started a new campaign in Germany in an attempt to secure more. On May 17, 1648, another combined imperial-Bavarian army was defeated at Zusmarshausen, and the French occupied Maximilian's lands.

Mazarin's desire to keep on fighting was thwarted by two developments. On the one hand, the pressure of the war on French taxpayers created tension that in June 1648 erupted into the revolt known as the "Fronde" (*see* FRONDE, WARS OF THE). On the other, Sweden finalized terms for a settlement. The emperor and the Diet offered the Stockholm government, still directed by Oxenstierna, half of Pomerania, most of Mecklenburg, and the secularized bishoprics of Bremen and Verden; a seat in the Imperial Diet; and 5 million thalers toward the wage arrears of the Swedish army. With so many tangible gains, and with Germany so prostrated that there was no risk of any further imperial attack, it was clearly time for Sweden to escape from the war.

France appeared to gain less—mainly the transfer of a bundle of rights and territories in Alsace and Lorraine—but Mazarin could nevertheless derive satisfaction from the fact that the final treaty, signed on October 24, 1648, firmly excluded the emperor from the empire and placed him under oath to provide no further aid to Spain. France therefore settled down to suppress the Fronde and to win the war against Philip IV. Nevertheless, the Austrian Hapsburgs had also made some gains in the war. No powerful estates and no Protestant worship remained in their territories (except in Hungary), and despite strenuous efforts by the Swedish diplomats at Westphalia, no lands confiscated from rebels and others had to be restored. The "Hapsburg Monarchy," born of disparate units but now entirely under the authority of the king-emperor, had become a powerful state in its own right. Purged of dissidents, the compact private territories of the Holy Roman Emperor remained large enough to guarantee him a place among the foremost rulers of Europe. In the empire, by contrast, the new stability rested upon division rather than unity. Although the territorial rulers had acquired, at Westphalia, supreme power in their localities and collective power in the Diet to regulate common taxation, defense, laws, and public affairs without Imperial intervention, in fact the "amicable composition" formula prevented any changes being made to the status quo.

The war also created a new diplomatic order in Europe, predicated on a balance of power with its fulcrum in a disunited Germany. The system depended on channeling the aggression of German princes from thoughts of conquering their neighbors to dreams of weakening them; the settlement of 1648 was long regarded as the principal guarantee of order and peace in central Europe. Thus, for almost a century, German rulers rarely went to war with each other—a strong contrast with the 100 years before 1618, which had been full of armed neutrality and actual conflict. The reason for the contrast was simple—the Thirty Years' War had settled both of the crises that had so disturbed the peace in the decades before it began.

Finally, the war helped to remove religion as a likely precipitant of political conflict. Although religion remained politically significant after 1648 (for instance in creating an alliance against Louis XIV [1638–1715] after 1685 (*see* GRAND ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE) or in unseating James II [1633–1701] of England in 1688; *see* GLORIOUS REVOLUTION), it no longer determined international relations as it once had done. Confessional considerations strongly influenced those Calvinist princes who took up arms against Ferdinand II, and as long as these men dominated the anti-Hapsburg cause, so too did the issue of religion, but they failed to secure a lasting settlement. Gradually the task of defending the "Protestant cause" fell into the hands of Lutherans—less militant and less intransigent than the Calvinists—and they stood ready to ally, if necessary, with Anglican England, Catholic France, even Orthodox Russia in order to create a coalition capable of defeating the Hapsburgs. Naturally such states had their own reasons for fighting; if upholding the "Protestant cause" featured among them, it seldom predominated. After 1625, therefore, the role of religious issues in European politics receded. This was, perhaps, the greatest achievement of the Thirty Years' War, for it thus eliminated the major destabilizing influence in European politics that had both undermined the internal cohesion of many states and overturned the diplomatic balance of power created during the Renaissance.

See also BOHEMIAN-PALATINE WAR; DANISH-SWEDISH WAR (1643–1645); EIGHTY YEARS' WAR; FRANCO-SPANISH WAR (1648–1659); MANTUAN SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE; TRANSYLVANIA-HAPSBURG WAR.

Further reading: G. Benecke, ed., *Germany in the Thirty Years' War* (New York: St. Martin's, 1929); Herbert Langer, *The Thirty Years' War* (New York: Hippocrene Books, 1980); Geoffrey Parker, ed., *The Thirty Years' War,* 2nd ed., rev. (London and New York: Routledge, 1997); Theodore K. Rabb, ed., *The Thirty Years' War,* 2nd ed. (Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 1981); C. V. Wedgwood, *The Thirty Years' War* (London: J. Cape, 1938).

Thousand Days, War of a (1899–1903)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Colombian Conservatives vs. Liberals (with much infighting among the Conservatives)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Colombia
DECLARATION: Coup d'état of July 31, 1900, propelled the nation into civil war.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Colombian government
OUTCOME: No great reform was achieved; Colombia was ravaged by the war and lost the province of Panama, which declared its independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Conservatives, 20,000; Liberals, 10,000
CASUALTIES: Estimated 100,000 died on all sides
TREATIES: None

Near the end of the 19th century, Colombia was wracked with civil violence as liberals rebelled against conservative president Rafael Núñez (1825–94) and his successor, Miguel Antonio Caro (1843–1909). In 1898, Caro was succeeded by another conservative, Miguel Sanclemente (1820–1902), but by this time the conservative party was beginning to show cracks, and liberals were eager to exploit growing dissension within the party. In 1899, a liberal revolt swept Colombia. During the tumult, Sanclemente's vice president, Jose Manual Marroquín (1827–1908), overthrew the president in a coup on July 31, 1900. This only added to the disarray within both the government and the conservative party. Armed violence between conservatives and liberals intensified, as Colombia fell into civil war, during which the fragile economy of this impoverished nation shattered completely, The desperate economic conditions fueled further violence.

The shooting started on October 17, 1899, in Santtander Province in an armed revolt against the Conservative-dominated central government. Although small—9,000 men at the outbreak of the war—the Colombian army contained the revolt, forcing a rebel retreat to the Venezuelan border. Simultaneously, government gunboats destroyed a Liberal flotilla on the Magdalena River at Los Obispos on October 24, 1899.

Undaunted by these defeats, the Liberals rallied and managed to win major victories in the Peralonso River valley during December 15–16, only to suffer a crushing defeat at Palonegro during a long battle that spanned May 11–26, 1900. This defeat badly crippled the Liberals as a conventional military force; however, rebel elements continued to fight a vicious guerrilla war from strongholds in the Andes.

In September 1902, government forces captured the guerrilla leader Cesáro Pulido (d. 1902) and summarily executed him. This prompted the surrender, on November 21, 1902, of the last of the Liberal forces. Fighting continued sporadically until June 1903.

It took Marroquín and his forces three years to suppress the civil war, at a cost, it is estimated, of some 100,000 lives on all sides. Although the last of the fighting ended in June 1903, additional fallout from the war came later in the year. Colombia was so weakened that it could do nothing when Panama, at the time a province of Colombia, seceded and declared its independence—encouraged and aided by the United States, which sought (and gained) acquisition of a "canal zone," through which the long-desired Panama Canal would be dug.

See also PANAMANIAN REVOLUTION.

Further reading: David Bushnell, *Making of Modern Colombia: A Nation in Spite of Itself* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993); Orlando Fals-Borda, *Subversion and Social Change in Colombia,* trans. by Jacqueline D. Skiles (New York: Columbia University Press, 1969); James D. Henderson, *Modernization in Colombia: The Laureano Gómez Years, 1889–1965* (Tallahasee: University of Florida Press, 2001).

Three Feudatories, Revolt of the (1674–1681)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Wu Sangui (Wu Sankuei), governor of Yunnan (with provinces of Guangdong [Kwangtung] and Fujian [Fukien]) vs. Kangxi (K'anghsi), Manchu emperor of China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern China
DECLARATION: Wu declared independence of Yünnan in 1674.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The emperor sought to suppress the power of the three feudatories (Yünnan, Kwangtung, and Fukien); in response, the governor of Yünnan, Wu San-kuei, fomented and led a long rebellion.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was ultimately suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Emperor Kangxi (1654–1722) rewarded each of the three Ming generals who aided the Manchus in overturning the Ming dynasty taking control of China, and creating the Manchu dynasty with the governorship of a feudatory (vassal state) in southern China. When the governors began to demand subsidies from the emperor and then asserted hereditary rights to the feudatories, Kangxi acted. In 1673, when the governor of the Guangdong feudatory retired from military command, relinquishing his army, Kangxi took advantage of the situation to abolish the feudatory. Realizing what this portended, Wu Sangui (1612–78), governor of Yunnan, refused the emperor's command that he pay homage and that he relinquish his

rights. Furthermore, Wu renounced all allegiance to the Manchus, and he proclaimed Yunnan independent. He mustered his forces and took control not only of Yunnan, but also of Sichuan (Szechwan), Guizhou (Kweichow), Hunan, and Guangxi (Kwangsi). He moved so swiftly and forcefully that the disinherited heirs of Guangdong and the still-active governor of Fujian, Shang Kexi (Shang K'o-hsi; fl. late 1600s) enthusiastically joined Wu's rebellion.

Emperor Kangxi ordered the full force of the imperial army against the rebels. He began with operations in Guangdong and Fujian but found himself bogged down in a slow, bloody war. Fortunately for the emperor, these former generals proved less competent in military matters than the Manchu commanders and the rebellion in these provinces was crushed.

Wu, who had by now declared himself emperor of the Zhou (Chou) dynasty, continued to fight, however. Patiently, Kangxi pushed his forces out of all the provinces, save for Yunnan and Sichuan (Szechwan). Wu persevered in resistance against imperial forces until he died in 1678, whereupon his son, Shang Zhixin (Shang Chih-hsin; d. 1710) took on the fight. Without Wu, however, the army slowly disintegrated, and the emperor succeeded in crushing the revolution by 1681. The emperor severely punished the leaders of the rebellion, executing all senior leaders. However, he was generous to the peasants who had supported the rebellion, reasoning that they had been forced, under pain of death, to do so. He also swiftly ordered all prisoners of war and women and children refugees returned to their homes. This combination of severity and popular generosity did much to reunify China. The emperor won the loyalty of the peasant classes, even as he put down rebellion at the highest level.

Further reading: J. A. G. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); Jonathan D. Spence and John E. Wills, Jr., *From Ming to Ch'ing: Conquest, Region, and Community in Seventeenth Century China* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1979).

Three Henrys, War of the

See Religion, Eighth War of.

Three Kingdoms' Civil Wars: Shu Dynastic Wars (220–264)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Shu dynasty vs. Wei dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Power contest among the three kingdoms, Shu, Wei, and Wu
OUTCOME: After achieving considerable influence and stability, the Shu was absorbed by the Wei.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As the Han dynasty faded out of existence at the end of the second century and the beginning of the third, Cao Cao (Ts'ao Ts'ao; 155–220), a warlord, rose to seize the Chinese government. Cao's death in 220 brought to power his son, Cao Pi (Ts'ao P'ei; 187–226), who deposed the last Han emperor and proclaimed himself the first ruler of the Wei dynasty. With this, the former Han territories split into three: the Wei, north of the Yangtze River; the Shu, southwest of the Wei; and the Wu, to the southeast. The three new kingdoms fought three civil wars: Three Kingdoms' Civil Wars: Shu Dynastic Wars; Three Kingdoms' Civil Wars: Wu Dynastic Wars (222–280); and Three Kingdoms' Civil Wars: Jin (Chin) Dynastic Wars (265–280).

Liu Bei (Liu Pei; 162–223), a member of the Han family, established the Shu, or Shu Han, dynasty with a capital at Chengdu (Ch'engtu). Thanks to its chief statesman and general, Zhuge Liang (Chu Ko Liang; 181–234), the Shu grew powerful. However, the kingdom went into sharp decline following Zhuge Liang's death in 234. The Wei steadily eroded Shu territory until the Shu was entirely absorbed by the Wei, which, in 265, was seized by Sima Yan (Ssu-ma Yen; 236–90), who established the Jin (Chin) dynasty.

Further reading: Nanxiu Qian, *Spirit and Self in Medieval China: The Shih-Shuo Hsin-Yu and Its Legacy* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 2001); J. A. G. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999).

Three Kingdoms' Civil Wars: Wu Dynastic Wars (222–280)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Wu dynasty vs. Shu dynasty and Wei dynasty, severally
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
DECLARATION: None; warfare was chronic during this period
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Power contest among the three kingdoms, Shu, Wei, and Wu
OUTCOME: The Wu enjoyed prosperity from about 250 to 280, when it was conquered by the Jin (Chin).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Wu kingdom, the dynastic founder of which was Sun Quan (Sun Ch'uan; 182–252), had a capital at Nanjing

(Nanking) and stretched along the seacoast from the lower Yangtze River valley to below Tongkin. The kingdom reached its period of greatest power by about 250.

The Wu engaged in chronic warfare with the other two kingdoms, the Shu and the Wei, and enjoyed relative prosperity until 280, when it was conquered by the Ch'in in THREE KINGDOM'S CIVIL WARS: JIN (CHIN) DYNASTIC WARS.

For background on the Three Kingdoms, *see* THREE KINGDOM'S CIVIL WARS: SHU DYNASTIC WARS.

Further reading: J. A. G. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999).

Three Kingdoms' Civil Wars: Jin (Chin) Dynastic Wars (265–280)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Wei dynasty vs. Wu dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Power contest
OUTCOME: The Wei dynasty conquered the Wu dynasty.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By 274, the Wei kingdom had triumphed over its chief rival, the Shu, and the following year, Sima Yan (Ssu Ma Yen; 236–290), the victorious Wei general, seized the Wei throne, proclaiming himself Emperor Wudi (Wu Ti), first of the Jin dynasty.

Having already defeated the Shu, Wu Ti turned his attention on the Wu kingdom, which he conquered in 280, thereby bringing an end to the era of the Three Kingdoms and, for a brief interval, unifying China. Wu Ti's central government did not outlast him, however. On his death in 290, China plunged into a period of anarchy that was not ended until the rise of Eastern China during 317–420.

For background on the Three Kingdoms, *see* THREE KINGDOMS' CIVIL WARS: SHU DYNASTIC WARS.

Further reading: Nanxiu Qian, *Spirit and Self in Medieval China: The Shih-Shuo Hsin-Yu and Its Legacy* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 2001); J. A. G. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999).

Three Sanchos, War of the (1068)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Castile vs. Navarre, and Aragon
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Navarre, Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sancho II of Castile invaded Navarre (ruled by Sancho IV) in an attempt to gain territory; Sancho IV enlisted the aid of Sancho I of Aragon.
OUTCOME: Castilian forces were defeated and evicted from Navarre.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

This "war" was a subconflict of the CASTILIAN CIVIL WAR (1065–1072), during which Sancho II (c. 1038–72) of Castile sought to expand his kingdom by invading Navarre, which was ruled by his cousin, Sancho IV (1054–76). Under attack, Sancho IV called on his cousin, Sancho I (1043–94), king of Aragon, for aid. In 1068, Sancho II's Castilians were badly beaten and were evicted from Navarre.

Further reading: Gabriel Jackson, *The Making of Medieval Spain* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1972); Angus MacKay, *Spain in the Middle Ages: From Frontier to Empire, 1000–1500* (New York: St. Martin's, 1977).

Three Years' War, Later *See* JAPANESE LATER THREE YEARS' WAR.

Tibet, British Expedition to (1903–1904)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain vs. Tibet
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tibet
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Isolated Tibet, located on a disputed border of British India, refused trade with the empire until the British government sent an expedition under intrepid explorer and soldier Francis Edward Younghusband.
OUTCOME: After several short but severe engagements, the Dalai Lama was forced to come to terms.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Britain, 500; Tibet, 6,000
CASUALTIES: British, 40 killed; Tibet, 2,700 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Anglo-Tibetan Treaty, September 6, 1904

By 1903, Indian-born Francis Edward Younghusband (1863–1942) had become not only a colonel in the British army but also an explorer whose travels in Central Asia allowed him to make major contributions to geographical research. Having entered the army in 1882, by 1887 he had crossed Central Asia from Beijing (Peking) to Yarkand (now in the Autonomous Region of Xinjiang [Sinkiang], China)

and continued on to India by way of the Mustagh Pass through the Karakoram Mountains, establishing that the range provided a water divide between India and Turkestan.

Thus, he was the perfect candidate to aid Great Britain's Lord Curzon (r. 1898–1905), viceroy of India, in his problems with Tibet. Repeated attempts to gain trading rights with the isolated and stubborn Tibetans had not only led to rejection by Thupten Gyatso (1876–1933), the 13th Dalai Lama, the country's supreme religious and political ruler, but had also caused the British to challenge the country's traditional borders with India. In July 1903, Lord Curzon authorized Younghusband, accompanied by a military escort, to cross the disputed Tibetan border, negotiate trade concessions, and stabilize Tibet's northern frontier.

When Younghusband's efforts failed, the British invaded. Commanded by Major General James Macdonald (1862–1927), British troops slaughtered 600 Tibetans at Guru in August 1904. Meanwhile, Younghusband marched on to Gyantze (Chiang-tzu), where he made a second, more concerted attempt to begin trade negotiations. This too proved unsuccessful; Younghusband marched into the Tibetan capital of Lhasa with a full complement of British troops and forced the conclusion of a trade treaty on the Dalai Lama. Later that year Younghusband was knighted for his efforts.

Further reading: Tim Coates, *The British Invasion of Tibet: Colonel Younghusband, 1904* (London: Tim Coates Books, 2001).

Tibetan Civil War (1727–1728)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tibetan rebels vs. Manchu occupiers of Tibet
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tibet
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Restoration of native Tibetan rule
OUTCOME: The civil war was quickly quelled.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: China, 15,000; Tibetan rebel numbers, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Tibet fell to domination by China as a result of the MANCHU CONQUEST OF TIBET in 1720, but disorder in the conquered land was frequent. During 1727–28, the general disorder coalesced into an organized uprising against the Manchu overlords. A Chinese army of 15,000 was dispatched to restore order, and the brief civil war was quelled by 1728. To ensure compliance with Chinese rule, the Dalai Lama was exiled for seven years.

Further reading: A. Tom Grunfeld, *A History of Tibet* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2003); Luciano Petech, *China and Tibet in the Early Eighteenth Century: History of the Establishment of the Chinese Protectorate in Tibet* (Winnipeg, Man.: Hyperion, 1973).

Tiepolo's Rebellion (1310)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Bajamonte Tiepolo and the Querini family vs. the forces of Venice's ruling Great Council
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Venice
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Struggle for power among members of the patrician class
OUTCOME: The rebellion was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Venice, a city-state on the north Adriatic coast of Italy, enjoyed a prosperous role as Europe's leading trade port and the West's commercial and cultural connection to Asia. In the 12th century, Venice became a republic governed by the Great Council of 45 and headed by a *doge*. Once a monarchical position, with the creation of the republic, the doge's job became administrative. The doge ran the affairs of the state with a six-member Minor Council, and the magistrates presided over administrative and judicial functions.

For two centuries, the Great Council was annoyed by families who tried to assert their control over the business of the council. The Great Council set rules of membership in 1268; these rules, in attempting to prevent any family from dominating the council, also restricted council membership to members of the city's ruling families. Venetians, shut out of government decisions, staged a popular rebellion in 1300 led by Marin Baocconio (fl. 1300s). The revolt was suppressed, and its leaders were hanged. Bajamonte Tiepolo (d. 1328) conspired with the patrician Querini family in 1310 to take over the government. When their plans were betrayed, they were forced to stage the revolt before all parts of the plot were in place. On June 14, 1310, Tiepolo and his followers seized the public square, where they were quelled by the forces of the doge, Pietro Gradenigo (1249–1311). The Querini leader was captured and executed, but Tiepolo managed to escape. Afterward a secret tribunal, the Council of Ten, was assigned the task of policing Venetians and protecting the republic from future assaults. In 1335, it became a permanent body and in time took over the financial and military affairs of Venice.

Further reading: Ellen E. Kittell, ed., *Medieval and Renaissance Venice* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1999); Philip Longworth, *The Rise and Fall of Venice* (London: Constable, 1974).

Timarchus's Revolt (c. 161–159 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebel Babylonian forces under Timarchus of Miletus vs. the Seleucids
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Babylonia and Media
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Timarchus sought an empire.
OUTCOME: The revolt was initially successful, but Timarchus's reign as "great king" over Babylonia and Media was short lived.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The period of 162 to 143 B.C.E. was marked by widespread domestic strife within the Seleucid Empire in Syria. About 161, the governor of Babylonia, Timarchus of Miletus (fl. second century B.C.E.), rebelled against the Seleucid overlords. Moving aggressively, he threw off the Seleucid yoke and advanced against Media, which he soon conquered. Timarchus then crowned himself "great king." His reign was short-lived, however, as the Seleucid emperor Demetrius I (fl. 162–150 B.C.E.) defeated the forces of Timarchus in 159 and thereby restored to Seleucid control both Babylonia and Media.

Further reading: Bezalel Bar-Kochva, *The Seleucid Army: Organization and Tactics in the Great Campaigns* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1976); Ehsan Yarshater and Stanley I. Grossman, eds., *The Cambridge History of Iran: The Seleucid, Parthian and Sasanid Periods,* Part 1 (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993).

Time of Troubles, Russia's (1604–1613)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rival factions backing contenders for the Russian throne
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The death of Czar Fyodor I threw Russia into a succession crisis, which created a period of anarchic civil war.
OUTCOME: The Time of Troubles was resolved by the elevation to the throne of Michael Romanov.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The death of Russia's Czar Fyodor (1557–98) in 1598 gave the czar's ruthless brother-in-law, Boris Godunov (c. 1551–1605), an opportunity to manipulate his election as czar. Boris Godunov's elevation was not universally welcomed, and in 1604, amid sporadic violence and unrest in Russia, a cabal of *boyar*s (Russian nobles) and Polish aristocrats formed an opposition. Together, they conspired to back a pretender to the throne, the so-called "false Dimitry," who was presented as the younger brother of Czar Fyodor and, therefore, Fyodor's lawful successor. (In reality, Fyodor's real brother, Dimitry [1581–91], had been assassinated in exile.) With the "false Dimitry" now in play, Boris Godunov suddenly died in 1605, whereupon Poles and Cossacks elevated the false Dimitry to the throne. He ruled for nearly a year before boyars opposed to him caused his assassination, and one of the boyars, Basil IV Shuiski (d. 1612), seized the throne. This touched off armed violence from the Poles and Cossacks.

Against the backdrop of renewed turmoil, a second false Dimitry materialized in 1608 and planted himself and an entourage in Tushino, a village outside of Moscow. While the new false Dimitry awaited developments that, he hoped, would propel him to power, Basil IV Shuiski fought two major battles against Polish and Cossack forces. He lost both battles, which gave the second false Dimitry the opening he needed to seize sufficient power to contend seriously with Basil for the throne. In 1610, however, boyar forces ousted Basil and murdered the second false Dimitry, suddenly leaving the throne vacant.

Over the next three years, the Russian throne became the focus of violent contests that plunged the nation into civil war. Two more false Dimitrys laid claim to the throne. One was killed by boyars in 1611 and another judicially executed in 1613 for the crime of pretending to the throne. With these two pretenders disposed of, the boyars offered the crown to Ladislas (1595–1648), the son of Poland's king. Simultaneously, another faction, the lesser landowners, offered the crown to the brother of Sweden's king. While the two factions disputed (*see* RUSSO-SWEDISH WAR [1613–1617]), the *zemstvo* (Russian assembly) elected Michael Romanov (1596–1645) as czar, thereby inaugurating Russia's longest-lived czarist dynasty.

Further reading: R. Niobet Bain, *The First Romanovs, 1613–1725: A History of Muscovite Civilization and the Rise of Modern Russia under Peter the Great and His Forerunners* (New York: Russell and Russell, 1967); Ian Grey, *The Romanovs; The Rise and Fall of a Dynasty* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1970).

Timoleon's War (344–339 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Corinthian forces under Timoleon vs. the combined forces of Dionysius II, Hicetas, and the Carthaginians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sicily
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Timoleon attempted to liberate Syracusans from Dionysius's reign of terror.
OUTCOME: Dionysius and his allies were defeated; Timoleon established a peace that lasted 30 years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 364 B.C.E. Timoleon (c. 411–337 B.C.E.) earned the title "the scourge of the tyrants" for aiding in the assassination of his brother, Timophanes (d. 364), after the latter declared himself tyrant of Corinth.

In 344, the citizens of Syracuse on Sicily appealed to their mother city of Corinth for relief from the harsh tyranny of Dionysius II (d. 344). Corinth sent Timoleon, a statesman and general, to fight Dionysius and his ally, Hicetas (fl. third century B.C.E.), the tyrant of nearby Leontine (Lentini). When Timoleon arrived at Tauromenium in the summer of 344 he actually faced two opponents: Dionysius and the forces of Carthage, which had been summoned by Hicetas. Timoleon cleverly maneuvered his ships around the Carthaginians, who were waiting to entrap him. The Corinthians defeated the opposition by reputedly shrewd tactics, the details of which are not recorded. Dionysius was exiled to Corinth. Meanwhile, Timoleon set up a mixed constitution as a safeguard against future tyrants and invited emigrants from Greece and Italy to settle in his regime.

In the ensuing years, Timoleon undertook a campaign to purge Sicily of its tyrants. He fought a second battle against Carthaginian forces in about 341, which resulted in decisive victory and enduring peace with Carthage. The peace lasted almost 30 years, to be disturbed by AGATHOCLES' WAR AGAINST CARTHAGE, 331–306 B.C.E.

Further reading: Richard J. A. Talbert, *Timoleon and the Revival of Greek Sicily, 334–317 B.C.E.* (London: Cambridge University Press, 1974); H. D. Westlake, *Timoleon and His Relations with Tyrants* (New York: St. Martin's, 1952).

Toussaint Louverture, Revolt of (1791–1803)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Haitian slaves, mulattos, and free blacks vs. French colonial forces; under Toussaint Louverture, the slaves, mulattos, and free blacks were at times tenuously allied with the French against the Spanish and British
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hispaniola (including Haiti)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Haitian rebels sought an end to slavery and to French rule.
OUTCOME: After a disastrously bloody war, Haiti became independent, albeit under the tyrannical rule of a native emperor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Combatant Haitian slaves, mulattos, and free blacks 140,000; French troops (with Polish auxiliaries), 55,131 (plus additional French sailors)
CASUALTIES: Haitians, 348,000 natives killed; French, 45,000 troops and 10,000 sailors died, some in battle, most from disease
TREATIES: Treaty by which France officially recognized Haitian independence was not concluded until June 9, 1838.

Led by a black priest known only as Boukman (fl. late 18th century), 50,000 Haitian slaves rose against their French masters at Le Cap (Cap François) beginning on August 22, 1791. Within weeks of this so-called Night of Fire, Francois-Dominique Toussaint Louverture (1743–1803), a free black, took control of the rebellion and both organized and expanded it. Of the half-million slaves on the island, about 100,000 participated in the rebellion; added to this "army" were some 40,000 mulattos and free blacks. The white population of Hispaniola (the island that includes Haiti), about 30,000, now feared extermination.

On March 3, 1792, whites repulsed a slave attack on the gates of Port-au-Prince. Two thousand rebels fell; white casualties were about 100. Although the attack was repulsed, Port-au-Prince was besieged. With violence elsewhere, the death toll reached 2,000 whites and 10,000 slaves. Only the timely announcement of the abolition of slavery by the French government prevented wholesale massacre.

The cessation of slavery brought only a temporary halt to the uprising. On June 21, 1793, 5,000 French royalists attacked Cap François, slaughtering hundreds of blacks. The army soon disintegrated into a mob, however, and was counterattacked by 15,000 blacks and routed. In July 1794, blacks attacked the town of Fort Liberté, killing 900 whites. Despite these spasms of violence, Toussaint Louverture decided to align his forces with the revolutionary French to fight the Spanish and the British. In February 1799, Toussaint also had to fight 9,000 mulattos who had attempted to set up a breakaway nation in southern Haiti. After much butchery—including the outright slaughter of 10,000 mulattos—this campaign ended in November 1800 with the suppression of the breakaway movement.

After defeating the Spanish on Hispaniola during January 1801, Toussaint suppressed a rebellion led by one of his own generals, known only as Moyse, who was executed on November 29, 1801. A thousand of his followers were executed—shot, bayoneted, or tied to the muzzles of cannon barrels and blown to pieces.

Toussaint Louverture was in complete control of Hispaniola by the end of 1801, but he now faced reconquest by France. In February 1802, General Victor-Emmanuel Leclerc (1772–1802) and an army of 21,175 French regulars

landed. Toussaint and his forces resisted fiercely, and the war soon degenerated into an exchange of atrocities. On May 6, 1802, however, Toussaint accepted generous French terms for resolution of the war. Haiti would be free from slavery, although still subject to France. However, the next month, Toussaint was arrested and sent to a prison in the Jura Mountains, where he died on April 7, 1803.

The death of Toussaint sparked renewed warfare. The rebel strategy was to keep the French engaged, knowing that their continual exposure would render them vulnerable to yellow fever and other diseases endemic to Haiti. Although it is likely that the rebels would have prevailed even without disase, yellow fever proved a valuable ally. The approach proved highly effective; the French army withered under the onslaught of disease. In 1803, 20,000 French reinforcements were sent to the island, including a unit of 4,000 Poles (500 of whom defected to the rebels as a brigade dubbed Les Polonais). Although the French killed many rebels, disease and general attrition took a terrible toll on them. In October 1803, 16,000 Haitians laid siege to the 5,000-man French garrison at Le Cap. After holding out for more than a month, the French surrendered to a blockading British naval squadron. Thanks to the British, most of the French garrison escaped—except for 800 French prisoners, whom the Haitians drowned.

Haiti was free of the French but at a terrific cost: 348,000 slaves, free blacks, and mulattos out of a total native population of 700,000. Jean-Jacques Dessalines (1758–1806), who had assumed command of most of the rebel forces after the arrest of Toussaint Louverture, now proclaimed himself emperor of Haiti, creating a government every bit as tyrannical and brutal as that of the French.

See also HAITIAN-FRENCH WAR.

Further reading: Cyril Lionel Robert James, *The Black Jacobins: Toussaint L'Ouverture and the San Domingo Revolution* (New York: Vintage Books, 1989); David Nicholls, *From Dessalines to Duvalier: Race, Colour, and National Independence in Haiti* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1995).

Town War (German Town War) (1387–1389)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Principally the free ("Imperial") towns of Germany vs. the feudal nobility of Germany
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany, especially southern Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Germany
OUTCOME: Undecided; warfare between the towns and the nobles ended without resolution of the underlying issues of power, control, and nationhood.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace settlement arranged by King Wenceslaus of Germany, Bohemia, and the Holy Roman Empire, 1389

The Town War, or German Town War, was a symptom of the disintegration of German political structure amid the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire. During the chaotic close of the 14th century in Germany, various lords, landholders, and even the minor nobility created a host of private semi-states, often governed by secret courts (known as the *Veme,* which amounted to secret societies) and defended by private palace-guard-style armies. Amid this factionalization, Wenceslaus (1361–1419), king of Germany, Bohemia, and the Holy Roman Empire, struggled to assert control over various nobles, princes, lords, and others. All around him, town fought town. Various towns sought aggrandizement by annexing tracts of rural land, and they resisted taxation by higher authority—yet the towns also taxed one another, in the form of exorbitant tolls and tariffs.

With Wenceslaus ineffectually attempting to rule Germany from his remote Bohemian throne, the situation became increasingly anarchical. Against the weakness of Wenceslaus there emerged the ruthless Duke Leopold of Austria (fl. c. 1380–1410), who did not scruple to assert his oppressive rule wherever he could. His aggression prompted the towns of Swabia to form a league, which, allied with the Swiss Confederation, fought the army of Leopold and defeated it at the Battle of Sempach in 1386. The victory touched off intensified warfare among the towns and the nobles of Germany. The towns were independent enclaves within territory ruled by ancient feudal right, which dictated a determining geography of the Town War; the towns, as enclaves, were isolated from one another, whereas the surrounding territory controlled by the nobles was contiguous and allowed for easy movement of forces. In southern Germany especially, the towns were consistently defeated by the forces of the feudal nobility.

Warfare was ended in 1389 through the intercession of Wenceslaus, who favored the nobles; however, the underlying issues were hardly resolved, and violent unrest persisted for years to come, greatly retarding the development of Germany as anything resembling a nation.

See also OLD ZURICH WAR.

Further reading: F. R. H. Du Boulay, *Germany in the Later Middle Ages* (London: Athlone, 1983); Horst Fuhrmann, *Germany in the High Middle Ages* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1986); John M. Jeep, ed., *Medieval Germany: An Encyclopedia,* vol. 6 (London: Taylor and Francis, 2001).

Transvaal Civil War

See BOER WAR, FIRST.

Transvaal Revolt *See* BOER WAR, FIRST.

Transylvania-Hapsburg War (1645)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Transylvania and Sweden (with French and Hessian aid) vs. Hapsburg Austria-Hungary
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Austria and Bavaria
DECLARATION: Transylvania and Sweden against Hapsburgs, 1644 (war began the following year)
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Transylvania and its allies opposed the Hapsburg attempts to impose the Counter-Reformation on Transylvania.
OUTCOME: The Hapsburgs were defeated; Hungary gained independence; Transylvania was enlarged; the Protestant cause was successfully defended.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the major Battle of Nördlingen, the French-Hessian and Transylvanian-Swedish forces numbered more than 12,000; the Austrian-Bavarian forces also numbered about 12,000
CASUALTIES: At Nördlingen, losses among the French-Hessian and Transylvanian-Swedish forces were heavy, but Austrian-Bavarian losses were catastrophic, 5,000 men.
TREATIES: Peace of Linz, December 16, 1645

This conflict may be viewed as an aspect of the THIRTY YEARS' WAR or as a war tangential to it. During the period of the war, Transylvania was the eastern province of Hungary, which was controlled by the Hapsburgs. Throughout their empire the Hapsburgs enforced the Counter-Reformation, championing Catholicism at the expense of Protestantism. In stark opposition to this Hapsburg-sponsored Counter-Reformation stood Transylvania, under George I Rákóczy (1591–1648), champion of the Protestant cause. Sweden, a great Protestant power, struck an alliance with Rákóczy's Transylvania in 1644, and, together, the allies declared war on the Hapsburgs.

The first action of the war took place in 1645, when the Swedes invaded (for a second time) Bohemia and defeated Austrian infantry and Bavarian cavalry at the Battle of Jankau on March 6. While the Swedes advanced into Upper Austria, Rákóczy led Transylvanian forces north, toward Vienna. On August 3, 1645, the Transylvanian and Swedish armies linked up and, in conjunction with French and Hessian armies, fought the Battle of Nördlingen (Allerheim), in Bavaria. The battle, paramount in this war and important in the larger Thirty Years' War, began when a Weimarian-French force under Henri de La Tour d'Auvergne (1611–1675), vicomte de Turenne, having been defeated at the Battle of Mergentheim in May, joined forces with the army of France under Louis II de Condé (1621–86). Condé assumed command of the joint force and invaded Bavaria, as the Bavarian-Austrian army—the imperial forces—retreated to the village of Allerheim, southeast of Nördlingen. Commanded jointly by Field Marshal Baron Franz von Mercy (c. 1590–1645) and General Johann von Werth (1595–1652), the imperial army dug into positions blocking the approach to the Danube. On August 3, Condé, with 12,000 men, attacked the Bavarian-Austrian forces, which also numbered about 12,000. The defenders held firm until Mercy was mortally wounded and his subordinates began to lose heart. Ultimately, the Austrian-Bavarian forces were driven back toward the Danube, incurring losses approaching 5,000. Condé's forces, however, had also suffered heavy losses, and when Condé himself fell ill, his army returned to France. Turenne had no choice but to retire to Philipsburg. However, the victory had clearly gone to the French and their Transylvanian-Swedish allies. These reversals prompted the Hapsburgs to agree to the Peace of Linz on December 16, 1645, which gave independence to Hungary, won more territory for Transylvania, and ensured the security of Protestantism in that country.

Further reading: Robert A. Kann, *A History of the Habsburg Empire, 1526–1918* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1974); Zoltan Szasz, ed., *History of Transylvania,* vol. 2, *From 1606 to 1830* (New York: Eastern European Monographs, 2002).

Transylvanian-Turkish War (1657–1662)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Transylvania vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Transylvania and Hungary
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Transylvania sought independence from Ottoman suzerainty.
OUTCOME: The Transylvanian rebellion was ultimately crushed and its principal leader, George II Rákóczy, killed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Under Ottoman rule, Transylvania nevertheless acted independently against Poland in 1657, which prompted the Sublime Porte (the Ottoman government) to withdraw its support of George II Rákóczy (1621–60), prince of Transylvania. The Porte deposed Rákóczy in 1657, but undaunted, he reassumed power in 1658 and mustered an army to fight the Turks. Besieged at the Transylvanian capital of Lippa, Rákóczy, recently returned from the First NORTHERN WAR, was able to defeat the attackers and break the siege. Later in 1658, the Ottomans joined forces with the Wallachians in an attack on Karlsburg. The assault resulted in the ruin of the town and the overthrow

of Rákóczy, who fled to his estate in Austrian Hungary. There he recruited a new army, and in 1659 returned to Transylvania and was again elevated to the throne. Ottoman forces in Buda (now part of Budapest) responded by invading Transylvania along a broad front, from Temesvar to Torda and Hermannstadt. Scene of a glorious victory in 1442, Hermannstadt now capped the Transylvanian defeat. From this and every battle, the Ottoman troops emerged victorious.

Rákóczy, reeling from one defeat to the next, called on Austria for military aid. To secure it, he ceded significant territory, trading land for troops, but the Austrians delayed, and while they idled, the Ottomans continued to rampage through northeastern Hungary and then into Transylvania during 1660. At the Battle of Fenes, Rákóczy was defeated and mortally wounded.

The death of Rákóczy did not end the Transylvanian rebellion against the Ottoman Turks. In 1661, Transylvanians elevated to the throne yet another prince, Janos Kemény (d. 1662), who defied the Ottoman yoke. Unfortunately for him, he commanded a mere 10,000 troops, was cut off from Austrian reinforcements, and was surrounded by Turkish forces near Segesvar (Sighişoara) in 1662. He was defeated and murdered. His death, at last, extinguished the rebellion in Transylvania, and the Turks quickly seated their own prince.

See also AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1663–1664).

Further reading: David Hotham, *The Turks* (London: J. Murray, 1972); Paul Wittek, *The Rise of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: B. Franklin, 1971).

Trinidad and Tobago, Uprising in (1970)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebel forces vs. government forces (with U.S. and UK military assistance)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Trinidad and Tobago
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ethnic and economic unrest created anger against the government.
OUTCOME: With some assistance and supply from the United States and Great Britain, the government forces prevailed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The twin-island nation of Trinidad and Tobago was afflicted by ethnic and racial unrest and chronic poverty, the ingredients of civil insurrection. During the late 1960s, militant black citizens—who comprised about 43 percent of the population—protested for black power and for government action to ameliorate economic problems. Much of the militant protest was organized by sugar plantation workers, who formed the National Joint Action Committee, from which the uprising grew. The governor-general, Sir Solomon Hochoy (1928–1997), an East Indian (East Indians comprised 40 percent of the population but tended to be the social and power elite), declared a state of national emergency, barred all protests and demonstrations, imposed a strict curfew, censored the press, and arrested several of the most prominent black leaders. Far from quelling the unrest, these actions fanned the flames into a conflagration as rioting swept both islands, beginning on April 20. At this point, several hundred army troops declared their support for the black power advocates and mutinied. The troops stormed a government arsenal, from which they seized weapons, then went on to take hostages.

The governor-general of Trinidad and Tobago called on the United States for aid and received arms and other materiel. U.S. and Royal Navy vessels took up stations near the islands, ready to move if the government seemed seriously threatened. However, after less than a week of outright rebellion, on April 25, 1970, government forces succeeded in suppressing the rebels. The uprising had ended, but the governor-general persisted in applying measures that significantly limited the freedom and movement of citizens. At last, in July 1972, the state of emergency was lifted, and all political prisoners were released. In August, prisoners of war—soldiers whom the government had incarcerated—were also released.

Further reading: Stefano Harney, *Nationalism and Identity: Culture and Imagination in a Caribbean Diaspora* (New York: St. Martin's, 1996); S. B. MacDonald, *Trinidad and Tobago: Democracy and Development in the Caribbean* (New York: Praeger, 1986).

Triple Alliance, War of the

See PARAGUAYAN WAR.

Tripolitan War (1801–1805)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States vs. "Barbary states"
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tripoli, North Africa
DECLARATION: Tripoli (unofficially) on the United States, 1801
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The United States fought against the bribery and enslavement of sailors practiced by the Barbary pirates.
OUTCOME: The Barbary states piracy was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown numbers of "Barbary pirates"; U.S. naval flotilla, several hundred U.S. sailors
CASUALTIES: Approximately 300 U.S. prisoners taken
TREATIES: Treaty of Tripoli, June 4, 1805

After the successful conclusion of the AMERICAN REVOLUTION, the new republic faced a number of serious military crises. The most critical was the unremitting guerrilla warfare between the Indians and settlers of the frontier regions, especially in the Ohio country. But the United States was also threatened from abroad, by the "Barbary pirates," Muslim seafarers who had been operating from the so-called Barbary states (Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, and Libya) off the coast of North Africa since the 17th century. These pirates were not simply criminals; rather, they enjoyed the financial and political backing of wealthy merchants and even political leaders. It is accurate to describe this "piracy" as an organized government activity.

To avoid harassment, capture, and confiscation of cargoes, "Christian" nations plying North African waters routinely paid "tribute" money to the Barbary (Berber) states. Initially, the United States, like other nations, paid the tributes demanded, but U.S. officials saw this as both an insult and a threat to American sovereignty. Accordingly, the United States won in a series of limited naval wars the right of free navigation in North African waters. These "Barbary Wars" spanned 1801–15, with the most concentrated action occurring in the Tripolitan War of 1801–05. The background of the wars goes back even further—for the United States at least to 1785, when Great Britain encouraged Algiers to capture two U.S. vessels. Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826), at the time American minister to France, attempted to recruit the aid of Portugal, Naples, Sardinia, and Russia, as well as France, in an anti-Algerian alliance. When France declined to cooperate, the alliance collapsed, and Britain encouraged further Algerian action in which 12 American ships were captured and more than 100 American sailors imprisoned. This prompted the United States to negotiate a treaty with the bey of Algiers in 1795, pledging tribute to secure release of the captives and to ensure freedom of navigation. Additional treaties were concluded with Tunis and Tripoli.

Despite the treaties, the idea of tribute never sat well with the U.S. government or with the American people, and there was a long delay in sending the tribute money. Shortly after the inauguration of President Jefferson in 1801, Pasha Yusuf Qaramanli (d. 1838), Tripoli's ruler, unofficially declared war against the United States. Jefferson concluded a coalition with Sweden, Sicily, Malta, Portugal, and Morocco against Tripoli, which forced Qaramanli to back down. For the next two years, one U.S. frigate and several smaller vessels patrolled the Tripolitan coast. This mission proceeded successfully until the frigate USS *Philadelphia* ran aground in October 1803 and was boarded by Tripolitan forces, which captured 300 U.S. sailors, took the ship as a prize, and prepared to use it against the Americans. In February 1804, however, Lieutenant Stephen Decatur (1779–1820), with daring and stealth, entered Tripoli Harbor and burned the *Philadelphia*. After Decatur's maneuver, Commodore Edward Preble (1761–1807) stepped up the bombardment of Tripoli, and Decatur was hailed as a great American naval hero.

Against the background of the ongoing bombardment, William Eaton (1764–1811), U.S. consul at Tunis, proposed an alliance with Ahmed Qaramanli, the brother Yusuf had deposed in 1795. Eaton also recruited an army of Arabs and Greeks and joined these to a contingent of U.S. Marines to support the restoration of Ahmed as ruler of Tripoli. Eaton's force captured the city of Derne in 1805, just as the Jefferson government, which had neither opposed nor supported the Eaton plan, concluded a treaty of peace with Yusuf on June 4, 1805. The treaty ransomed the prisoners for $60,000 and, although it made no explicit mention of the subject of tribute, it put a de facto end to the practice of tribute payment by establishing free and unhindered commerce between the United States and Tripoli. At home, the treaty was celebrated as a great triumph for the fledgling U.S. Navy.

See also ALGERINE WAR.

Further reading: Donald Barr Chidsey, *The Wars in Barbary: Arab Piracy and the Birth of the United States Navy* (New York: Crown, 1971); Stephen Howarth, *To Shining Sea: A History of the U.S. Navy, 1775–1998* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1999); Joseph Wheelan, *Jefferson's War: America's First War on Terror, 1801–1805* (New York: Carroll and Graf, 2003).

Trojan War (c. 1200 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Troy vs. Greece
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Troy, in Anatolia (Turkey)
Declaration: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: According to literary tradition, the Greeks sought to recover Helen, the abducted wife of Menelaus of Sparta.
OUTCOME: Troy was destroyed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Trojan War is known only through the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* of the Greek poet Homer (fl. 850 B.C.E.), although it is also known that the war figured in other preclassical works, now lost. Later authors, including the Roman Virgil (70–19 B.C.E.), in the *Aeneid,* also wrote about the war. The extent to which any of the accounts reflect history is unknown.

The war was fought between the early Greeks and the people of Troy in western Anatolia (Turkey). The most commonly accepted date for the Siege of Troy is c. 1184, and the war as a whole is dated to some time during the 12th or 13th century B.C.E.

Homer's account relates that Paris, the son of the king of Troy, abducted Helen, wife of Menelaus of Sparta. Menelaus's brother Agamemnon led a Greek expedition against Troy in an effort to recover Helen. The war raged for a decade without issue until the Greeks feigned a withdrawal, leaving behind them an enormous wooden horse. The Trojans opened their gates and pulled the horse within the city. Once the horse was inside, a Greek raiding party emerged from its hollow interior and threw open the gates of Troy to the concealed Greeks who lay without. Troy was sacked, its women abducted, and its men slain.

Further reading: Jonathan S. Burgess, *Tradition of the Trojan War in Homer and the Epic Cycle* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2001); Michael Wood, *In Search of the Trojan War* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1998).

Trung Sisters' Rebellion (39–43)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebels led by the Trung sisters vs. China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Vietnam
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After Trung Trac's husband was murdered for conspiring against China's Han rulers, she and her sister mounted a rebellion to oust the Hans.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed, the Trung sisters committed suicide, and the Hans took over much of modern Vietnam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Rebels, 30,000; Chinese forces, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In China, after a brief period of anarchy under Wang Mang (33 B.C.E.–23 C.E.) (*see* RED EYEBROW REVOLT), the Han dynasty was restored in 24 C.E. by a warrior leader of the imperial clan, Liu Xiu (Liu Hsiu) (also known as Guang Wudi [Kuang-wu-ti; 6–57]), who seized control, secured internal order, and reestablished Chinese authority over most of the Han border regions. Beginning around 39, Guang Wudi expanded south, where a revolt was simmering in what is now northern Vietnam, led by Trung Trac (d. 43) and her sister Trung Nhi (d. 43). For over a century, since the Chinese conquest of Nam Viet, the bureaucratic-minded Han had been undermining the feudal society of the Vietnamese, installing corrupt and inefficient provincial administrations that drained Vietnamese nobles by extorting bribes and unjust taxes. The Trung sisters were part of an aristocratic independence movement given courage by China's troubled times just prior to the Han restoration. Trung Trac and her sister had joined the movement after her husband was murdered by a Chinese official for conspiring with other lords to oust the Han.

The execution and other Chinese actions against the Vietnamese stirred rather than quelled rebellion. The sisters began rallying troops in 39, and on February 6, 40, Trung Trac appeared before some 30,000 rebel soldiers gathered at the Hat estuary. Arrayed in full armor, she inspired them to a vigorous campaign that within less than a year regained control of 65 citadels, including that at Luy Lau, scene of a battle that cost the Chinese dearly.

The Trung sisters proclaimed themselves co-queens of Vietnam and for the next two years managed to exclude Chinese military power from Vietnam. However, they lacked the enduring peasant support that had marked the Chinese revolts against Wang Mang. In 43, Guang Wudi dispatched his general Ma Yuan (14–49), an outstanding cavalry leader, to Tongking to crush the revolt. The sisters' untrained troops were soon overwhelmed by Ma Yuan's invading Chinese force. After first suffering a defeat at their capital near present-day Hanoi, the Trungs retreated to Hat Mon (Son Tay), where Ma Yuan caught up with them and decisively crushed their army. Disgraced, the sisters drowned themselves in the Red River. Ma Yuan went on to conquer Annam and Hainan.

Further reading: J. A. G. Roberts, *A Concise History of China* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1999); Nghia M. Vo, *The Trung Sisters* (Bloomington, Indiana: 1st Books Library, 2000).

Tukulor-French Wars (1854–1864)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Tukulors vs. France and Mali
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Senegal and Mali, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Under the charismatic religiomilitary leader, al-Hajji Omar, the Tukulor people rose from subjugation to fight against neighboring countries, particularly French colonial interests and Mali.
OUTCOME: The French successfully resisted Tukulor aggression; although the Tukulors conquered much of Mali, internecine fighting caused the dissolution of Tukulor power by 1890.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: France, 25,000; Mali, unknown; Tukulors, 50,000
CASUALTIES: France, unknown; Mali, unknown; Tukulor, 10,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

The Tukulors were Islamic people who dominated the Senegal River valley of West Africa and formed the state of Tekrur. During the 11th century, the Tukulors pushed to the north and founded the Moravid dynasty, which ruled

Morocco. However, the Tukulors were themselves conquered by the forces of the Mali Empire during the 14th century and lived as a subject people for centuries until the advent of al-Hajji Omar (c. 1795–1864), mid-19th century founder of the Tijaniyya Brotherhood.

Omar was a Tukulor cleric who about 1848 had moved with his followers to Dinguiraye (in modern Guinea) with the intention of creating a new nation governed according to the strict precepts of his Islamic sect. To accomplish this, he trained a religious-military force and equipped it with European firearms, then set out on a jihad, a holy war, against his neighbors.

First confronted were the Bambara chiefdoms to his north. After these were defeated, Omar moved farther north, across the upper Senegal River, and against another Bambara kingdom, Kaarta. At this point, French colonial forces checked Omar, who then turned to the west and in 1861 quickly conquered the Bambara kingdom of Segu. This was followed by Macina. From these bases, the Tukulor extended their reach as far as the fabled trading city of Timbuktu (in modern Mali).

At its height, the Tukulor empire rivaled that of the Fulani to the east. However, it failed to achieve the internal spiritual cohesion Omar had hoped for. Many of his followers had little interest in religion and instead used conquest as a means of amassing personal wealth and power. The result was that many in the conquered Bambara and Fulani regions repeatedly rose against Tukulor authority. This opposition culminated in 1864, when Omar fell in a battle with the Fulani. Following his death, the empire was divided among his sons and commanders, who fought with one another as the French withdrew from active participation in the conflict and merely looked on, biding their time, then stepping in to pick up the pieces. In 1890, France seized control of both Segu and Senegal with little bloodshed.

Further reading: William J. Foltz, *From French West Africa to the Mali Federation* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1965); B. O. Oloruntimehin, *Segu Tukulor Empire* (Leiden, Netherlands: Brill Academic, 1972).

Tupac Amaru's Revolt

See PERUVIAN REVOLT (1780–1782).

Tupamaros' Reign of Terror (1963–1973)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Uruguay vs. the Tupamaros (Movement for National Liberation)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Uruguay
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Tupamaros sought to overthrow the government and replace it with a Marxist regime.
OUTCOME: Given control of the government, the Uruguayan army ultimately crushed the Tupamaros rebellion—at the price of any semblance of liberty in Uruguay.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Uruguayan army, 18,000; Tupamaros, unknown
CASUALTIES: Uruguayan army, fewer than 100 killed; Tupamaros, 500 killed in combat (more died in detention)
TREATIES: None

Beginning in the late 1960s, a leftist terrorist organization known as the Tupamaros attacked the government of Uruguay with a campaign of assassinations, abductions, bombings, raids, and bank robberies. Taking their name from Tupac Amaru (d. 1572), the Inca leader who had defied Spain, the Tupamaros, soldiers of the Movement for National Liberation (MLN), boldly targeted police stations and military installations to obtain arms and ammunition, and they abducted prominent Uruguayans and the nationals of other countries in order to extort exorbitant ransoms to finance their cause. In some cases, the Tupamaros exchanged abductees for members of their organization who had been captured.

From July 31, 1963, when Tupamaros began their first armed action, until 1971, when about 100 Tupamaros made a spectacular prison break, Uruguayan police attempted to cope with the reign of terror. From 1963 until 1966, however, the Tupamaros acted with impunity, suffering but a single fatality. After the prison break, the Uruguayan army was called in to replace the police. Still, the Tupamaros activity continued unabated. When, on April 14, 1972, Tupamaros killed four prominent military officials (they were, in fact, leaders of a government-supported "Death Squad"), Uruguayan police raided a Tupamaro stronghold, killing eight rebels. The Uruguayan government then declared a "state of internal war" and imposed martial law nationwide. This situation escalated into the installation of a military government, as, on February 12, 1973, President Juan María Bordaberry (b. 1928) relinquished authority to the military and abolished Congress. Given a free hand, the army imposed brutal measures to crush the Tupamaros, including mass arrest and the liberal use of torture. Some 100 Tupamaros were killed before the end of the year, and another 600 captured, many of whom were doomed to die in custody. The pressure became so intense that the surviving Tupamaros—those who escaped the army's dragnet—fled to Argentina, from where some continued to wage an anti-government campaign.

Although Tupamaro activity within Uruguay had been contained by 1972, the military continued to run the government and, on January 1, 1975, officially barred all Marxist political parties from the country.

Further reading: Edy Kaufman, *Uruguay in Transition: From Civilian to Military Rule* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Transaction Books, 1979); Alain Labrousse, *The Tupamaros: Urban Guerrillas in Uruguay,* trans. Dinah Livingstone (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1973).

Turenne's Rhineland Campaign

See DUTCH WAR, THIRD.

Turkish Conquest of Bosnia

See BOSNIAN-TURKISH WAR.

Turkish Conquest of Herzegovina

See HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1483).

Turkish Reconquest of Hungary

See AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1683–1699).

Turkish War of Independence (1919–1923)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Kemalists (Young Turks, Turkish nationalists) vs. forces of Sultan Muhammad VI Vahideddin and Greek forces of occupation
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Turkey
DECLARATION: No formal declaration of war; independence was declared by the Fundamental Law of 1921.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Turkish nationalists sought independence from Greece and the establishment of a Turkish republic.
OUTCOME: Both objectives were achieved.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Turkish nationalists, 52,000+; Greek army, 125,000
CASUALTIES: Turkish nationalists, 13,000 killed, 35,000 wounded; Greeks, 30,000 killed, 40,000 wounded, 35,000 missing or taken prisoner
TREATIES: Treaty of Lausanne (July 24, 1923)

The Ottoman Empire had allied itself with the Central Powers during WORLD WAR I, and, following their defeat, Turkey was occupied by Greek forces. With the blessing of the Supreme Allied War Council, the Greeks occupied Adrianople (Edirne), Bursa, and Smyrna (Izmir), where a landing was effected under cover of an allied flotilla that included U.S. warships. The Turks offered no opposition, and Muhammad VI Vahideddin (1861–1926), last of the Ottoman sultans, was willing to surrender to what he believed was the inevitable: domination by Greece. However, Mustafa Kemal (later known as Ataturk; 1881–1938), leader of the progressive Young Turk movement (*see* YOUNG TURKS' REVOLT) took up the reins of a Turkish nationalist resistance movement. His group, the Association of the Rights of Anatolia and Rumelia, opposed both the Greek occupiers and the government forces of the sultan (*see* GRECO-TURKISH WAR [1920–1922]).

Kemal set up a provisional parliament in Ankara, which he used as a platform from which to proclaim the sultan to be under the control of foreign powers. He urged all Turks to resist. Politically, against the backdrop of a low-level civil war, this appeal resulted in passage of a new Fundamental Law (constitution) in 1921. Sovereignty was returned to the Turks and their nation formally named Turkey. The international community began to respond favorably to the new government. Both France and Italy withdrew all forces from Anatolia by October 1921, and treaties were signed that year with the Soviet Union, the first European power to recognize Turkey.

The civil war now became a war for independence, which entirely merged with the war against the Greek occupiers. Kemal led the Turks to victory in that conflict, thereby establishing Turkish independence by the Treaty of Lausanne (July 24, 1923). The Turkish republic was formally proclaimed on October 29, 1923.

Further reading: Fèroz Ahmad, *The Making of Modern Turkey* (London: Routledge, 1993); Lord Kinross, *Ataturk: A Biography of Mustafa Kemal, Father of Modern Turkey* (New York: Morrow, 1992); David Kushner, *The Rise of Turkish Nationalism, 1876–1908* (London: Frank Caso, 1977).

Turko-Egyptian War, First (1832–1833)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Egypt (with some French aid) vs. Ottoman Empire (with Russian aid); France and Britain mediated peace terms
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaza, Jerusalem, Acre, Aleppo, Damascus, Anatolia (part of Turkey)
DECLARATION: False declaration, Egypt vs. Acre, 1832
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Muhammad Ali, pasha of Egypt, sought vengeance against the Ottoman Empire for reneging on a pledge to give his son control of Syria.
OUTCOME: Egypt gained control of Syria and other territories.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Egypt, 100,000; Ottoman Empire, 400,000; Russia sent a contingent of 18,000 troops and a naval fleet in aid to the Ottomans.
CASUALTIES: Egypt, about 5,000 killed or wounded; Ottoman Empire, about 10,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Convention of Kütahya, among Egypt, Ottoman Empire, France, Russia, and Britain, May 1833; Peace of Hunkiar Iskelessi between Ottoman Empire and Russia, July 8, 1833

The Sublime Porte (Ottoman government) promised to give Ibrahim (1789–1848), son of Muhammad Ali (c. 1769–1849), pasha of Egypt, control of Crete and Syria in return for Ibrahim's military assistance in overcoming Greek independence fighters in the GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE (1821–32). When the Ottoman sultan partially reneged on the pledge—giving Ibrahim Crete but withholding control of Syria—Muhammad Ali planned an invasion of Syria. Muhammad Ali trumped up a quarrel with the pasha of Acre and used this as a pretext for sending Ibrahim at the head of an invading army in 1832. Egypt's forces took Gaza and Jerusalem early in the campaign, then laid siege to Acre, which fell soon after Gaza and Jerusalem. Next, Ibrahim's army attacked the Ottoman forces at Aleppo and Damascus. Mahmud II's (1784–1839) Ottoman troops were green, whereas Ibrahim commanded an army led by French veterans. The Ottomans lost both battles.

Having enjoyed an unexpected degree of success, Ibrahim invaded Anatolia (Turkey) itself. The city of Konya fell to him, and he prepared to take Bursa, which was a mere 50 miles from the Ottoman capital at Constantinople. The Sublime Porte sought Russian aid. The czar furnished a naval fleet and 18,000 troops, who reached Constantinople in 1833. Their arrival was sufficient to discourage Ibrahim, who aborted his planned attack on the capital.

Eager to avoid a widening crisis, France and Britain intervened and negotiated a treaty with Ibrahim in 1833. The treaty confirmed Muhammad Ali pasha of Egypt and Crete, and Egypt was given control of Syria as well as Adana. France and Britain undertook to prevent future Egyptian incursions, provided that Russia withdraw its troops from Constantinople. This was done, but then Russia and the Ottoman Empire separately concluded the Peace of Hunkiar Iskelessi, whereby the two nations made an offensive and defensive military alliance. The Sublime Porte granted Russia permission to close the Dardanelles in time of war, thereby barring the passage of warships. As for Muhammad Ali, in view of the Peace of Hunkiar Iskelessi, he warily regarded the Convention of Kütahya, negotiated through the French and British, as nothing more than a most tentative truce. Indeed, it proved unsatisfactory to all parties, and a Second TURKO-EGYPTIAN WAR began in 1839.

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995).

Turko-Egyptian War, Second (1839–1840)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Egypt vs. the Ottoman Empire (with aid principally from Britain)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Syria and Egypt
DECLARATION: Egypt declared independence from Ottoman Empire, 1838; Ottoman Empire declared against Egypt, 1839
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Egypt sought independence from the Ottoman Empire.
OUTCOME: Thanks to the intervention of Britain (and the diplomatic cooperation of France and Russia), the rebellion was suppressed, and Egypt returned to the Ottoman fold.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Egypt, 100,000; Ottoman Empire, 400,000
CASUALTIES: Egypt, 20,000 killed or wounded; Ottoman Empire, 10,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of London, July 15, 1840

In 1838, Egypt declared independence from the Ottoman Empire by refusing to render further tribute payments to the Sublime Porte (Ottoman government). In response, Sultan Mahmud II (1784–1839) assembled an army and declared war on Egypt in 1839. He sent an invasion force by land and sea. These met with quick defeat at the Battle of Nizip (or Nizib) on June 23–24, 1839. Although the Turks massed 30,000 men, the Egyptians had heavy artillery, which won the day by smashing the Turkish infantry. The sultan's land forces were disloyal, and many accepted Egyptian bribes to desert. The troops who did fight were no match for Egyptian forces. As for the Ottoman navy, its principal commander turned traitor, sailing the fleet into Alexandria and turning it over to the Egyptians.

Because France supported Egypt—even sending French officers to lead the Egyptian army—Britain was deeply concerned that Russia would enter into the war on the side of the Ottoman Empire and that a major confrontation between European powers would develop. As it turned out, Russia had no desire for war and even voluntarily relinquished the right it had secretly negotiated by the Peace of Hunkiar Iskelessi (*see* TURKO-EGYPTIAN WAR, FIRST) to close down, at will, the Dardanelles. In 1840, Russia joined France and Britain in prevailing upon the Sublime Porte to make the pashalik of Egypt hereditary—a move that gave Egypt virtual independence—provided that Egypt returned the Ottoman fleet. The Ottoman sultan agreed, but Muhammad Ali (c. 1769–1849) of Egypt would settle for nothing short of absolute independence. This refusal resulted in European intervention. British warships bombarded Beirut and Acre, destroying the Egyptian forts there, then landed a small invasion force. The invaders collaborated with Arabs who were in revolt against Muhammad Ali and were able to defeat Egyptian occupation forces in Syria.

Reeling from defeat, Muhammad Ali backed down when the British threatened to bombard Alexandria, his capital. Muhammad Ali not only returned the Ottoman fleet but also agreed by the Treaty of London (1840) to

resume annual tribute payments to the Ottoman Porte. He completely withdrew his forces from Syria, and he reduced the size of his army. Clearly, it was thanks to the Porte's European allies that the Ottoman Empire survived.

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizons: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995).

Turko-Greek Wars

See Greco-Turkish War (1897); Greco-Turkish War (1920–1922).

Turko-Hungarian Wars

See Hungarian-Turkish War (1437–1438); Hungarian-Turkish War (1441–1444); Hungarian-Turkish War (1444–1456); Hungarian-Turkish War (1463–1483); Hungarian-Turkish War (1492–1494); Hungarian-Turkish War (1521–1526).

Turko-Montenegrin War, First (1852–1853)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Montenegro (with unsolicited Austrian and Russian intervention) vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Montenegro
DECLARATION: De facto declaration of Montenegrin independence, 1851
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Montenegro, a vassal of the Ottoman Empire, sought independence.
OUTCOME: Danilo II, leader of Montenegro, effectively declared his nation's independence; Ottoman forces invaded but, through a combination of Montenegrin resistance and Austro-Russian intervention, withdrew.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: About 6,500 killed on both sides
TREATIES: None

The tiny Balkan nation of Montenegro was a subject client state (what was then called a vassal) of the Ottoman Empire but continually fought against the Ottoman yoke throughout the 19th century. Although it had for superior weapons and much larger forces, the Sublime Porte (Ottoman government) found it impossible completely to suppress the Montenegrin independence movement.

In 1851, Danilo II (1822–60), prince-bishop of Montenegro, divided the offices of prince and bishop, making the former hereditary. This was tantamount to declaring the independence of Montenegro, and the Ottoman Porte dispatched troops to Montenegro in 1852 to check such defiance, but they found the Montenegrins amply prepared for their arrival. After several battles, the Turks retreated.

Observing the war between Montenegro and the Ottoman Empire was Austria, which eyed the small country jealously. Francis Joseph (1830–1916), the Austrian emperor, deployed troops along the border of Bosnia and Herzegovina, neighbors of Montenegro. With his troops in place, the emperor demanded that the Turks withdraw from Montenegro. At first, the Ottoman commander, Omar Pasha (1806–71), was defiant, but when Russia added its voice to that of the Austrians in 1853, the Turks backed down and withdrew. The First Turko-Montenegrin War ended without treaty and without definitive resolution, but with Austria poised to absorb the tiny country.

Further reading: Mark Mazower, *Balkans: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of The Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995).

Turko-Montenegrin War, Second (1861–1862)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ottoman Empire vs. Montenegro
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Montenegro
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: With Montenegro close to anarchy following the death of its prince, Danilo II, the Ottoman Empire sought to reassert control over its ever-rebellious vassal.
OUTCOME: The war was ended by the Convention of Scutari, which essentially restored the status quo antebellum; that is, the de facto, but unofficial, independence of Montenegro.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: About 3,500 killed on both sides
TREATIES: Convention of Scutari, 1862

Danilo II (1822–60), principal leader of Montenegrin independence from the Ottoman Empire, died in 1860, leaving a power vacuum in Montenegrin politics, which created near anarchy. The Ottoman Empire, which had been forced to back down in the First Turko-Montenegrin War, fought from 1852 to 1853, saw an opportunity to reassert control over Montenegro and sent Omar Pasha (1806–71) at the head of a large invasion force in 1861. Omar Pasha's army laid siege against the ancient capital of Montenegro, Cetinje, where, despite the absence of Montenegrin leadership, resistance was stiff. Omar failed to take Cetinje, but he did overrun the rest of Montenegro.

The war was ended by the Convention of Scutari, by which Montenegro undertook neither to build forts on its borders nor to import arms. Although Montenegro did not

receive formal independence, the convention essentially restored the status quo antebellum, which was a status of de facto independence; however, when Montenegro joined Serbia in opposing the Porte in 1876, the Ottoman response came swiftly and massively. Only timely Russian intervention kept Montenegro (and Serbia) out of Turkish hands.

See also CRIMEAN WAR.

Further reading: Mark Mazower, *Balkans: A Short History* (New York: Random House, 2002); Alan Warwick Palmer, *The Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995).

Turko-Persian War (1473)

See VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1479).

Turko-Persian War (1514–1517)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ottoman Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia and its possessions
DECLARATION: Turkey on Persia, 1514
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Sunni Sultan Selim I of the Turks instigated a holy war against predominantly Shi'ite Persia.
OUTCOME: Much of Persia was conquered before Selim I broke off the war to attend to the Mamluk-Ottoman War of 1516–1517.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman forces, 60,000; Persia, 50,000
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Ridanieh (January 22, 1517), 6,000 Ottoman troops were killed or wounded; Persian losses were 7,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: None

The chronic struggle between the Ottoman Empire and Persia was a contest for territorial domination and also a religious conflict initiated by the newly enthroned Turkish sultan, Selim I (1467–1520), a Sunni Muslim, against Persia, which was a Shi'ite Muslim nation; Selim believed that the Shi'ites were heretics and represented a pollution of Islam. Furthermore, the Persians, together with Shi'ites in Turkey, had supported Selim's brother and rival Ahmed (d. 1513), who was killed in the OTTOMAN CIVIL WAR (1509–1513).

Accordingly, in 1514, Selim I led an army of 60,000 Janissaries out of Adrianople on a tortuous march to Azerbaijan, intending to invade Persia. The Persians retreated before his advance, but that advance proved costly to Selim, whose troops suffered great hardship and hunger. The retreating Persians destroyed all crops and other means of sustenance along the route of their retreat. Nevertheless, at the first major battle, Chaldiran, on August 23, 1515, against 30,000–50,000 Persian cavalrymen, Selim emerged victorious, then went on to capture Tabriz, which was only partially populated. Selim plundered what he could and then took vengeance against those who had remained in the city. His forces massacred all inhabitants, save for 1,000 skilled craftsmen, who were sent back to Constantinople as slaves useful to the Ottoman Empire.

Selim was unable to hold on to the conquered territory because, after the sack of Tabriz, the Ottoman army mutinied, returning to Amasya and Angora (Ankara), where it dispersed. However, within a few months, Selim launched a new campaign, in which he attacked the great Persian fortress of Kamakh, which gave him control over Kurdistan, formerly under the rule of the Safavids. Albistan also fell to the Turks, who made it a vassal state. However, the overthrow here of the Duldakir dynasty alarmed the Mamluks of Syria, who declared war, which resulted in the MAMLUK-PERSIAN-OTTOMAN WAR (1514–1517). This new conflict compelled Selim's full attention and forced him to abandon the campaign in Persia. Persia's Shah Ismail I (1486–1524) could have used Selim's vulnerability to his advantage by launching a counteroffensive against the Turks, but he and his people no longer had the stomach for war. The fighting between the Ottomans and the Persians was suspended for a full 10 years, until the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1526–1555).

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London: Longman, 1988).

Turko-Persian War (1526–1555)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ottoman Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia and its territories, especially Mesopotamia (Iraq)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottoman Empire sought territorial expansion at the expense of Persia.
OUTCOME: The Ottoman Empire acquired significant territory but stopped short of the complete conquest of Persia because of a need to address internal and external military threats.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman army, 200,000; Persian numbers, unknown
CASUALTIES: Ottoman Empire, 50,000 killed or wounded; Persian losses unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Amasya, 1555

Although Shah Ismail I (1486–1524) of Persia did not directly counterattack the Ottoman forces of Sultan Selim I (1467–1520) when Selim broke off his invasion of Persia in the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1514–1517) to fight the MAMLUK-PERSIAN-OTTOMAN WAR of (1514–1517), the Safavid

Persians, who had lost Kurdistan to Selim in the 1514–16 war, did attempt to stir up rebellion in a variety of Ottoman provinces during the period following the war. During this time, the sultan who had succeeded Selim I, Süleyman I (the Magnificent; 1496–1566), was preoccupied with campaigns of conquest in Europe, and consequently he paid little direct attention to the Persian front. He took measures to oppose Safavid activists and infiltrators in eastern Anatolia (part of Turkey), and he also induced the Turkish Uzbeks of Transoxania to invade Persia from the east. Nevertheless, Süleyman was forced into direct war with Persia in 1526 because of a Turkoman uprising in Cilicia. The fighting continued in Karaman, when the Mamluks rebelled under the leadership of Kalendar-Oghlu (d. 1528). Finally, when the leader of Kurdistan defected to Persia, Süleyman had no choice but to open a battlefront there.

After several years of fighting on all of these fronts, Baghdad surrendered to the Sublime Porte (Ottoman government) in 1532. This encouraged Süleyman to continue his conquest of the Persian world. With an eye toward seizing control of all Mesopotamia (Iraq), he led 200,000 men in an invasion that overran Tabriz and Van in 1534. He then proclaimed a new Ottoman province at Erzurum. Baghdad fell in December 1534. Persian forces counterattacked in 1535, however, and retook Tabriz early in the year. The Persians' chief ally was the harsh winter weather, which took a toll on the poorly supplied Ottoman troops. Nevertheless, before the year ended, Süleyman recaptured Tabriz, then sacked it before returning to Constantinople, his own capital.

Despite his victories, Süleyman did not succeed in entirely suppressing Persian resistance. Fighting became chronic and costly in border regions. Tabriz and Van were retaken by Persian forces, only to be won again by Süleyman in 1548. The Safavid Persians periodically attacked Erzurum, and in 1552 seized it, after killing 3,000 Ottoman garrison troops in an ambush outside the city gates. The loss prompted Süleyman to lead a new campaign, which quickly retook Erzurum and then ravaged western Persia with a punitive operation.

At the end of 1554, the Persians were relieved to accept a truce offer from Süleyman. In a peace concluded at Amasya in 1555, he agreed to renounce Ottoman claims to Tabriz, Erivan, and Nakhjivan in exchange for complete control of Mesopotamia (Iraq), Erzurum, western Armenia, and most of Kurdistan. For Süleyman, it was a significant gain, but also a compromise. He understood that if he pressed on with an all-out war, all of Persia might well fall to his Ottoman Empire. On the other hand, instabilities within the Sublime Porte and threats from beyond the empire made such a complete commitment to war impractical and certainly dangerous.

See also Austro-Turkish War (1529–1533); Venetian Turkish War (1537–1540).

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London; Longman, 1988).

Turko-Persian War (1578–1590)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ottoman Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Persia and its possessions, especially Georgia, Azerbaijan, and Shirvan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Perceiving Persian internal instability, the Ottoman Empire sought conquest at Persian expense.
OUTCOME: A peace settlement restored the Ottoman Empire to the great extent it had enjoyed under Sultan Süleyman I the Magnificent.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman forces, 100,000; Persian forces, unknown
CASUALTIES: Ottoman forces, 20,000 killed or wounded; Persian losses unknown
TREATIES: Peace settlement, 1590

The death of Shah Tahmasp I (1514–76) in 1576 created a situation approaching civil war in Persia. Perceiving vulnerability, the Ottomans mounted a surprise invasion (via Crimea) in 1578. Georgia, at that time a Persian province, fell to the Ottoman Empire, and Daghestan in Persia itself was attacked. However, the Ottoman momentum soon flagged, even as the Persian forces organized more effective resistance. The Ottoman forces, about 100,000 strong, slowed themselves by devoting attention to capturing Kars, a major fortress, in Georgia (it fell in 1579) and capturing Erivan in Armenia (which fell in 1583). This served only to give the Persians time to mount an increasingly successful resistance, even as Ottoman logistics faltered. In 1584, the Ottoman armies constructed major defenses at Tiflis. All of these efforts cost even more time and resources. It was not until 1583 that Daghestan finally fell to the Ottomans, followed by Shirvan later in the year. However, about 20 percent of the invading army had been killed or wounded by this time.

From 1585 to 1588, the Ottoman armies targeted Azerbaijan, but they were stunned by powerful Persian counteroffensives, which managed to retake—albeit briefly—both Tiflis and Erivan. However, Persia began to suffer from internal dissension, and Uzbekistan, taking advantage of Persia's preoccupation with defending against the Ottoman Turks, attacked from the east. This distraction reduced the available Persian forces for combat against the Ottoman invaders, who defeated the Persians at Ganna and Karabagh in 1588.

Beleaguered from within and without, Persia finally sued for peace. During talks, in 1590, the Ottoman armies retook Tabriz and all of its dependent Azerbaijan territories. To forestall further losses, Persia agreed to Ottoman terms, yielding Georgia, Azerbaijan, Shirvan, and other provinces. These cessions reestablished the extent of the Ottoman Empire in the east as it had existed during its great height in the reign of Süleyman I (the Magnificent; 1496–1566).

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London: Longman, 1988).

Turko-Persian War (1603–1612)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ottoman Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ottoman-held former Persian territories and the Caucasus
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia's Abbas I (the Great) was determined to recover Persian territory lost to the Ottoman Empire in the Turko-Persian War of 1578–90.
OUTCOME: Persia prevailed and recovered all of its lost territory.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1612

Persia had ceded Georgia, Azerbaijan, Shirvan, and other provinces to the Ottoman Empire when it was defeated in the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1578–1590) and wanted to regain what it had lost. Continual warfare with the Uzbeks, however, put a new offensive out of the question until 1603. Shah Abbas I (the Great; 1557–1628) had been preparing for this since 1599, when he attempted to promote an anti-Ottoman alliance among European powers. When these attempts finally collapsed, Abbas took a new tack, sending Caucasian and Azerbaijani troops into Anatolia (Turkey). The shah recognized that the Ottomans were currently engaged in a war in Hungary—the AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR of (1591–1606)—as well as an internal revolt in some parts of the empire (by subjects who found Ottoman war-time taxation intolerable). Taking advantage of all this, the shah's army laid siege to Tabriz, which fell late in 1603. Erivan, Shirvan, and Kars were all retaken by the Persians during 1604.

Ottoman sultan Ahmed I (1589–1617) looked on as, one by one, the conquests of the previous war were lost. Enraged, he assembled a large army and attacked a much smaller Persian force, personally commanded by Abbas, at Lake Urmia. The 1606 battle was a stunning defeat for the Ottomans, which allowed Abbas to seize Baghdad, Mosul, and Diarbekh.

In the meantime, the Ottoman Empire made peace with its chief European adversary, Austria, by the Treaty of Zsitva-Török in 1606. Ahmed's plan was to use the Ottoman armies now freed up from the European war to fight the Persians. Yet these armies were never effectively brought into action, and by 1608 Abbas recovered all of the territory that had been lost in the Turko-Persian War of 1578–90. He went beyond this, ravaging the Caucasus and stripping the Ottoman Empire of most of its power and influence there. Abbas dictated the terms of a 1612 peace treaty, which left hard feelings among the Ottomans. These would become the cause of a new war, the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR of (1616–1618).

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London: Longman, 1988).

Turko-Persian War (1616–1618)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ottoman Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Erivan and Tabriz and environs
DECLARATION: Ottoman Empire against Persia, 1616
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottomans vainly sought to regain territory ceded to the Persians by the treaty that ended the Turko-Persian War of 1603–12.
OUTCOME: The Ottoman forces were defeated in both of their major campaigns, against Erivan and against Tabriz.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1618

The treaty that ended the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1603–1612) was, for all practical purposes, dictated by the victorious Persians and caused great discontent in the Ottoman Empire. A dispute over certain terms triggered a new war between the Ottomans and the Persians in 1616. At this time, a large Ottoman force laid siege against Erivan, one of the possessions Persia had recovered in the 1603–12 war. A combination of effective Persian resistance, counterattack, and the onset of brutal winter weather forced the Ottomans to break off the siege and retreat. It was not until 1618 that the Ottoman Turks renewed the attack, invading the recaptured territories once again, this time attacking Tabriz. Persian commanders outgeneraled the Ottomans, however, and ambushed the principal Ottoman column, destroying a significant part of the Ottoman army.

The Ottomans sued for peace, and the new treaty that emerged merely reiterated and reinforced the harsh terms of the earlier document.

See also TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1526–1555).

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London: Longman, 1988).

Turko-Persian War (1623–1638)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ottoman Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Erivan and Baghdad
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Having lost Baghdad to Persia as a result of an internal power struggle, Sultan Murad IV was determined to regain it for the Ottoman Empire.
OUTCOME: By a treaty concluded in 1638, Baghdad was returned to the Ottoman Empire, which agreed to allow Persia control of Erivan.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 1638 giving Baghdad to the Ottoman Empire and Erivan to Persia.

This war between two traditionally rival powers began as an internal conflict within the Ottoman government of Baghdad. The pasha (governor) and the military struggled for control of the pashalik, and in 1621 a Janissary (elite mercenary force) conspiracy formed a governing faction that was more powerful than the pasha, Güzelce Ali Pasha (r. 1619–21). After effectively pulling off a coup d'état at the pasha's expense, the officer of the Janissaries, Ohrili Hüseyin (d. 1623), applied to the sultan himself for recognition as the new pasha. When this was not immediately forthcoming, he appealed to the Persian shah, Abbas I (the Great; 1557–1628), for military aid. Always eager to exploit Ottoman weakness, Abbas sent a small force—just as the sultan and Sublime Porte (Ottoman government) finally agreed to acknowledge the Janissary officer as the new pasha—Ohrili Hüseyin Pasha—of Baghdad. The new pasha instantly renounced all allegiance to Abbas. But it was too late. The Persians attacked and killed him in 1623, then overran Baghdad.

Suddenly finding themselves bereft of Baghdad, the Ottomans launched a campaign to recover the city. The first attempt, in 1625–26 collapsed because of a lack of artillery and a military mutiny. A second campaign fell victim to floods in 1629–30 and never reached its destination. Later in 1630, the Ottomans successfully fought the Persians at the Battle of Mihriban, then went on to ravage Hamadan. However, the Persian defenders of Baghdad proved too strong, and the Ottoman forces retreated from an assault on the city.

A new Ottoman sultan, Murad IV (1609–40), prepared to launch a fourth campaign, but had to put it off to respond to more pressing threats from the Druse and rebels in the OTTOMAN-DRUSE WAR of 1631–35. With that war won, Murad, in 1635, invaded Persian territory and recaptured Erivan in 1636. From here, he marched on Baghdad. By this time, the Persians were resolved never to give up the city. Murad set up a siege, which lasted seven months before the defenders finally gave way in 1638.

With Baghdad retaken, Murad was prepared to discuss peace. It was agreed that the Ottoman Empire would retain Baghdad, whereas Persia would regain Erivan. The eastern border of the Ottoman Empire was fixed at the border of Mesopotamia with Persia.

See also JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1621–1622).

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London: Longman, 1988).

Turko-Persian War (1730–1736)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ottoman Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Armenia, Georgia, Persian Gulf, region of Baghdad
DECLARATION: Ottoman Empire against Persia, 1730
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Efforts to purge Persian territory of Ottoman influence and occupiers caused military incursions into Ottoman lands; this prompted a counterattack from Ottoman forces.
OUTCOME: The Persians were consistently successful against the Ottomans and managed to regain all territory lost during the conquests of Süleyman I ("the Magnificent").
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman forces, 80,000; Persian forces, 70,000
CASUALTIES: Ottoman forces, 20,000 killed or wounded; Persian forces, 30,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of 1736, restoring Persian territories

During the PERSIAN CIVIL WAR (1725–1730), Nadir Khan (1688–1747)—who later assumed power as Nadir Shah—launched a campaign to purge Persian holdings of Turks and Turkish occupiers. The effort often penetrated the Persian-Ottoman border and ultimately provoked the Ottomans to make a formal declaration of war.

In 1730, when Ottoman forces attacked, Nadir Khan was more concerned with punishing the rebellious Afghans in the PERSIAN-AFGHAN WAR (1726–1738); however, the Ottoman Empire could not afford to devote all of its mili-

tary resources to the campaign against the Persians. The JANISSARIES' REVOLT (1730) had diluted and weakened the Ottoman army, and Nadir Khan was able to counterattack at the Battle of Hamadan, winning back control over Armenia as well as Georgia. A Persian military campaign recovered Ardebil, lost earlier to the Ottomans, and, encouraged by this success, Nadir Khan invested in the creation of a navy, with which he patrolled the Persian Gulf. This greatly weakened Ottoman authority in the region. The only setback came at the Second Battle of Hamadan in 1732, when the Turks defeated the Persian forces there.

Otherwise, Nadir Khan was consistently successful, until he lost Baghdad in 1733. He had to withdraw before the advance of on 80,000-man Turkish relief army. Despite the retreat, Nadir Khan recovered and a short time later and retook Baghdad. In 1736, now as Nadir Shah—shah of Persia—he concluded the Treaty of Constantinople with the Ottoman Empire, which reestablished Persia's western border to its extent in the days before the conquests of Süleyman I ("the Magnificent" [1496–1566]).

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London: Longman, 1988).

Turko-Persian War (1743–1747)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ottoman Empire vs. Persia (with parallel internal strife in both nations)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ottoman Empire and Persia
DECLARATION: Persia against Ottoman Empire, 1743
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The issues of the Turko-Persian War of 1730–36 were never completely resolved; Persia's Nadir Shah made unreasonable religious demands; the Ottoman Sublime Porte (government) abused and tortured Persian diplomats.
OUTCOME: The war between the nations disintegrated as both suffered internal revolt.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman forces, 130,000; Persian forces 375,000
CASUALTIES: Ottoman forces, 58,000 killed or wounded; Persian forces, 10,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Formal peace concluded in 1747

During peace talks to end the TURKO-PERSIAN WAR (1730–1736), Persian negotiators refused to compromise on an apparently minor point, demanding that the Ja'fari, a small Shi'ite sect, be declared orthodox. On the Ottoman side, officials abused and even tortured Persian diplomats. Although the 1730–36 war was concluded, the bitter issues between the two governments persisted, and in 1743 Persia's Nadir Shah (1688–1747) declared a new war. He demanded the surrender of Baghdad to Persia, and when he did not get it, he led an army of about 80,000 (out of 375,000 men under arms) against Constantinople (Istanbul). In the meantime, the Ottoman ulema, the Muslim legal council, ratified a jihad (holy war) against Persia. This prompted Nadir Shah to change his plan and march against Kirkuk, which he captured, and then against Arbil, which also fell to him. Next, Nadir Shah laid siege against Mosul, preparatory to attacking Baghdad. At this point, however, Mongol China menaced Persia, and, within Persia itself, uprisings in protest of high taxes broke out. These exigencies interrupted Nadir Shah's campaign.

In 1744, Nadir Shah resumed attacks on the Ottoman Empire by laying siege to Kars, an important fortress. Yet again, however, he had to break off his campaign against the Ottomans to return to the Persian province of Daghestan to put down an insurrection there. On August 3, 1745, he attacked at Erivan, again with about 80,000 men, winning a great victory against a Turkish force of 130,000. At least 20,000 Turks became casualties in this battle. Next, Nadir Shah returned to Kars and achieved an extraordinary victory against Ottoman forces along the Arpatschai River, driving the Ottoman army west. Ten thousand Turks fell in battle and another 18,000 were wounded. The desperate Turkish survivors raided and ravaged their own territory, which inflamed various districts throughout the Ottoman Empire.

As the violence became general throughout the Ottoman realm, so it spiraled out of control in Persian territory. Nadir Shah turned sadistic and vengeful. He attacked his own people and his own government. He ordered tortures, maimings, blindings, and executions for the merest infractions, imagined or actual. His reign of terror sparked general revolts in Persia from 1745 through the spring of 1746.

With civil strife rampant in both the Ottoman lands and Persia, the war between the Ottomans and the Persians petered out. In 1747, the peace was formalized when it was agreed that Baghdad would remain in Ottoman hands, and Nadir Shah withdrew his troublesome demand for Ja'fari recognition as orthodox. As a gesture of complete conciliation, the Ottoman Sublime Porte (Ottoman government) sent a new ambassador and diplomatic party to the court of Nadir Shah, only to find, on their arrival, that Nadir Shah had been assassinated and that the PERSIAN CIVIL WAR (1747–1760) had commenced.

Further reading: Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999); David Morgan, *Medieval Persia, 1040–1797* (London: Longman, 1988).

Turko-Persian War (1821–1823)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Ottoman Empire vs. Persia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia (Turkey)
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Persia retaliated against Ottoman aid to rebellion in the Persian province of Azerbaijan.
OUTCOME: The Ottoman army was defeated, but the Treaty of Ezurum made no substantive changes in borders or territories.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Erzurum, 1823

When the Ottoman Sublime Porte (Ottoman government) came to the defense of tribes rebelling against Persian rule in Azerbaijan, Crown Prince Abbas Mirza (1783–1833) of Persia led his newly reformed, equipped, and trained army against eastern Anatolia (Turkey) in 1821. Abbas Mirza enjoyed success near Lake Van and then triumphed at the Battle of Erzurum in 1821. Although this battle resulted in the rout of Ottoman forces, fighting continued in a desultory manner for the next two years until the Treaty of Erzurum was concluded, by which the two empires recognized existing borders. In sum, the war changed nothing, except to demonstrate the effectiveness of the Persian army, which, after defeat in the Russo-Persian War (1804–1813) had been reformed according to European principles and had been trained by British officers, and to stop the Ottomans from aiding and abetting rebellion in Azerbaijan.

Further reading: Peter Avery, *Modern Iran* (New York: F. A. Praeger, 1965); Jason Goodwin, *Lords of the Horizon: A History of the Ottoman Empire* (New York: Henry Holt, 1999).

Turko-Polish Wars

See Austro-Turkish War (1683–1699); Polish-Turkish War (1484–1504); Polish-Turkish War (1614–1621); Polish-Turkish War (1671–1677).

Turko-Russian Wars

See Catherine the Great's First War with the Turks; Catherine the Great's Second War with the Turks; Russo-Persian War (1722–1723); Russo-Turkish War (1568–1569); Russo-Turkish War (1678–1681); Russo-Turkish War (1695–1700); Russo-Turkish War (1710–1711); Russo-Turkish War (1736–1739); Russo-Turkish War (1806–1812); Russo-Turkish War (1877–1878).

Turner's Rebellion (1831)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Black slaves vs. local whites
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southampton County, southeastern Virginia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Presumably an attempt to achieve freedom; intended scope of the rebellion is unclear.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was crushed; many innocent blacks were killed in addition to the 20 known slave rebels executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Turner's band, numbers unknown, but in excess of 20; white volunteers, militia, and mob, numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Whites, 55 killed; Turner's band, 20 executed; other blacks, more than 100 murdered
TREATIES: None

Also called Nat Turner's Rebellion, this servile insurrection erupted on August 21, 1831, in Southampton County, southeastern Virginia, and was led by a fiery lay preacher, Nat Turner (d. 1831), slave on the plantation of Joseph Travis (d. 1831). Leading a band of an undetermined number of slaves, Turner killed Travis and every member of the Travis household before rampaging throughout the countryside, putting to the torch several plantations and killing 55 whites. Local militia forces engaged the slaves several times before the rebellion ended.

The spasm of violence triggered hysteria among local whites, who went on a rampage of their own, murdering at least 100 blacks who had nothing to do with the uprising. Turner and 19 of his followers were captured and executed.

Further reading: Stephen B. Oates, *The Fires of Jubilee: Nat Turner's Fierce Rebellion* (New York: Harper-Collins, 1990); Kenneth S. Greenberg, ed. *Confessions of Nat Turner and Related Documents* (New York: St. Martin's, 1996); Kenneth S. Greenberg, ed., *Nat Turner: A Slave Rebellion in History and Memory* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2003).

Tuscarora War (1710–1715)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tuscarora Indians vs. Colonial North and South Carolina
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North Carolina
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Tuscarora, reacting to colonial depredations, launched a resistance to further settlement; the colonies responded with a war of extinction.
OUTCOME: The Tuscarora were destroyed as a tribe; most survivors migrated north, ultimately to join the Iroquois "Five Nations" League as a sixth nation; a few remained on much diminished lands in North Carolina.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Colonial forces, militia and Indian allies, 2,000; Tuscarora, 1,200 warriors

CASUALTIES: Colonists, 200+ killed; Indian allies, unknown; Tuscaroras, 1,400 killed, 1,000 enslaved
TREATIES: Those Tuscarora who remained behind in North Carolina signed a peace treaty on February 11, 1715.

The Tuscaroras, who lived inland from the Atlantic seacoast, along the coastal rivers of North Carolina, were initially inclined to be friendly to their colonial neighbors. By the first decade of the 18th century, however, they were suffering indignities and abuses, especially at the hands of local English traders. Plying the Tuscaroras with liquor, traders cheated them out of goods and territory—though, in the case of the latter, there was rarely even the semblance of a business transaction, as settlers simply squatted on the Tuscaroras' best land. Worse, traders began kidnapping Tuscaroras and selling them into West Indian slavery. As if this were not misery enough, Iroquois raiding parties from the north were ambushing isolated groups of Tuscarora hunters.

After enduring this situation for some years, the Tuscaroras, still wishing to avoid war, petitioned the government of Pennsylvania in 1709 for permission to migrate there. Authorities were willing to grant the necessary permission only if the Tuscarora settlers could secure a note from the government of North Carolina attesting to their good conduct. Although the Tuscaroras had shown great forbearance under considerable pressure, the North Carolinians refused to furnish the required certificate—allowing the Tuscaroras to leave would have meant relinquishing a valuable inventory of slaves.

About a year later in 1710, a band of Swiss colonists organized by an entrepreneur named Baron Cristoph von Graffenried (1661–1743) settled on a tract of North Carolina land at the confluence of the Neuse and Trent Rivers that they christened New Bern. There was a problem, however; the tract of land was already part of an extended Tuscarora village. Instead of attempting to negotiate with the Indians, von Graffenried complained to North Carolina's surveyor general, who affirmed that as far as the colonial government was concerned, the von Graffenried settlers held clear title to the land. The surveyor general told the Swiss promoter that he was perfectly within his rights to drive the Indians off without payment, which he did.

At dawn, on September 22, 1711, the Tuscaroras' forbearance at last gave way to violence. A raiding party attacked New Bern and other settlements in the area, killing 200 settlers, including 80 children. Von Graffenried managed to secure his release—as well as a pledge from the Indians not to attack New Bern again—by promising to make no war on the Tuscaroras. One of his settlers, William Brice (fl. early 18th century), thirsting for revenge, was unwilling to abide by von Graffenried's promise. He captured a local chief of the Coree tribe, allied with the Tuscaroras, and burned him alive. The Tuscaroras, Corees, and other, smaller tribes, renewed their raids.

The situation was out of hand, and North Carolina officials sought aid from South Carolina. South Carolina dispatched Irish-born Colonel John Barnwell (c. 1671–1724) in command of 30 militiamen and 500 Indian allies, many of them Yamassees. The South Carolinian force took a great toll on Tuscarora settlements and those of their allies. Barnwell, heartened by his victories, his forces augmented by a contingent from North Carolina, directed an attack against the stronghold of the Tuscarora "king" Hancock (fl. early 18th century) in March 1712. The North Carolina men proved unreliable. Meeting fiercer opposition than they had anticipated, they broke ranks in a panic, and the assault failed. The Indians asked for a peace parley, but Barnwell refused. In response, the Tuscaroras began to torture their captives in full view of Barnwell's men. Finally, Barnwell agreed to withdraw in return for the release of the captives. The Tuscaroras agreed, and Barnwell returned to the New Bern settlement.

The North Carolina assembly angrily ordered him back to the front. Nothing less than the reduction of Hancock's "fort"—the Tuscaroras, like many eastern tribes, lived behind village palisades—was acceptable. Barnwell marched back in greater force, bullied Hancock into signing a peace treaty, then, marching back to New Bern, summarily violated his own treaty by seizing a party of Tuscaroras and selling them as slaves.

War was renewed in the summer of 1712, and North Carolina again appealed to South Carolina for help. This time, the neighboring colony sent Colonel James Moore (fl. early 18th century) with a force of 33 militiamen and 1,000 Indians. They arrived in November 1712, combined with North Carolina troops, and in March 1713 struck at the principal concentration of Tuscarora warriors. Hundreds of Tuscaroras died in this battle, and 400 were captured. The proceeds of their sale into slavery, at £10 each, helped defray the cost of the campaign. Many Tuscaroras who escaped death or enslavement migrated northward, eventually as far as New York, where they were given asylum among the Iroquois and, in 1722, were admitted into the Iroquois League as its "sixth nation." A smaller faction, led by a chief the English called Tom Blount (d. after 1732), remained in North Carolina, signing a peace treaty on February 11, 1715.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Marilyn L. Haas, *The Seneca and Tuscarora Indians: An Annotated Bibliography* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1994); William S. Powell, *North Carolina Through Four Centuries* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1989).

Tutsi-Hutu Wars

See Burundian Civil War (1972); Burundian Civil War (1993–ongoing); Ruandan (Rwandan) Civil War; Rwandan Civil War.

26th of July Movement (1953)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cuban rebels led by Fidel and Raul Castro vs. government forces of Fulgencio Batista
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Santiago, Cuba
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Castro and his followers sought to overthrow the regime of Fulgencio Batista.
OUTCOME: The 26th of July Movement was suppressed but helped lead ultimately to the Cuban Revolution of 1956–59, which resulted in the overthrow of the Batista regime and the creation of a Marxist government under Fidel Castro's dictatorship.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Castro led about 200 rebels; government forces, which numbered 1,000 at the Moncada barracks, were overwhelmingly greater.
CASUALTIES: Nine rebels were killed in the assault on the Moncada and Bayamo army barracks, but 68 rebel prisoners were subsequently murdered; government forces lost 19 men at Moncada.
TREATIES: None

This was the first attempt at a Cuban revolution aimed at the overthrow of the government of Fulgencio Batista y Zaldívar (1901–73). On July 26, 1953, Fidel Castro (b. 1926) and his brother Raul (b. 1931), both leading Cuban dissidents, led 200 youthful Cuban rebels in an assault on the Moncada army barracks at Santiago, Cuba, while a simultaneous assault was carried out against the barracks at Bayamo. The assaults were gallant, but ill conceived and quickly repelled. Castro and 48 others escaped, 9 rebels were killed, and 120 captured, of whom 68 were subsequently murdered.

The Batista regime ordered brutal reprisals against the people of Santiago, revolutionaries and nonrevolutionaries alike, which prompted Fidel and Raul Castro to surrender themselves to Batista's forces on condition that the reprisals come to an end. Fidel Castro was sentenced to 15 years imprisonment on the Isle of Pines. After serving 11 months, however, he was pardoned in a general amnesty. He left Cuba for Mexico, where, in exile, he organized a far more formidable guerrilla movement, which resulted in the Cuban Revolution (1956–1959), the overthrow of the Batista regime, and the creation of a Marxist government under Castro's dictatorship, which has endured into the 21st century.

Although the 26th of July Movement was a military failure, it instantly elevated Castro onto the public stage and made him a charismatic popular hero. It was thus an important step toward an ultimately successful revolution.

Further reading: Carmelo Mesa-Lago, ed., *Revolutionary Change in Cuba* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1971); Tad Szulc, *Fidel: A Critical Portrait* (New York: Morrow, 1986).

Two Brothers, War of the

See Miguelite Wars.

Tyler's Revolt (1381)

See English Peasants' Revolt.

Tyre, Siege of (333–332 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Alexander the Great vs. the City of Tyre
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Phoenician coast
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Tyre remained a stumbling block to Alexander's defeat of the Persian fleet and, thus, his Persian conquests.
OUTCOME: After a seven-month siege, Tyre fell and its inhabitants were sold into slavery.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Phoenicians, 8,000 killed, 30,000 captured and sold; Macedonians, unknown
TREATIES: None

Ancient Tyre, which had 250 years earlier withstood a 13-year siege from Babylonian king Nebuchadnezzar II (c. 630–c. 561 B.C.E), considered itself nearly impregnable before the arrival of Alexander the Great (356–23 B.C.E) in 333 B.C.E. Phoenicia's greatest commercial city, this strongly fortified city stood on an island half a mile off the Phoenician coast. To reach it, Alexander, fresh from his decisive victory at Issus and his seizure of Damascus (*see* Alexander's Persian Campaign), began to build a causeway across the channel. The work was hampered by the Tyrians, who shot the workers and launched fireships from the city's two harbors to burn down the siege towers. Not until the Cypriot fleet had surrendered to Alexander did he make much headway in Tyre. With Cypriot ships and captured Phoenician vessels, Alexander was able to attack from the sea, tying ships in pairs to hold rams and using barges to catapult stones, spears, and incendiaries into the besieged city. Thus protected, the siege force reached the walls of Tyre. Still, it took seven months. Tyre's resistance cost the city 8,000 lives; 30,000 more of its citizens were sold into slavery when the city finally fell in 332 B.C.E.

With Tyre behind him, Alexander was now free to continue his march along the Mediterranean.

Further reading: A. R. Burn, *Alexander the Great and the Middle East* (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1973); Peter Green, *Alexander of Macedon, 356–323* B.C.E. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1991).

Tyrone's Rebellion (1594–1603)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ireland and Spain vs. England
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ireland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Disliking English taxes, English religion, and English rule, the Irish took advantage of the outbreak of war between Spain and England to stage a revolt.
OUTCOME: Following some initial success, the Irish rebellion was crushed; its leader, however, was pardoned and went into exile.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: England, 18,300; Ireland, 10,000
CASUALTIES: At Yellow Ford, English, 1,500 killed or missing; at Curlieu Hills, 240 killed, 208 wounded; at Kinsale, 20 killed. Total Irish and Spanish losses at Kinsale, 1,200 killed; other totals, unknown.
TREATIES: None

In the 16th century, England's overseas commerce had begun to grow. The expansive and adventuresome spirit that had led the English "sea dogs" around the world now gained support from the birth of a Royal Navy. Old insular Britain was changing, and its obvious enemy was Spain, the nation then dominating the oceans and monopolizing the most lucrative colonial trade, especially that of the New World. Efforts to avoid the rivalry, such as the marriage of Mary I (1516–58) to Philip II (1527–98) of Spain had proved useless, and Elizabeth I (1533–1603) had been engaged in a decade of undeclared war with the Iberians—on the high seas, in America, and with the Netherlands—when the formal hostilities broke out that ultimately led to the arrival of the Spanish Armada (*see* Anglo-Spanish War [1586–1604]). The conflict was greatly intensified by its religious dimension. Spain was Catholic, England Protestant, and this difference provoked rebellion in the British Isles.

The Irish, chronically maltreated by the English, sharply resented the taxes Elizabeth I levied to maintain England's new presence in the world. Moreover, as Catholics, they hated her Protestant ecclesiastical policies. Thus, the Irish were inclined toward Catholic Spain, and in 1594, Hugh O'Neill (c. 1540–1616), second earl of Tyrone, joined the already rebellious "Red" Hugh O'Donnell (c. 1572–1602) to unite the Celtic dissenters.

The most significant military action in 1594 came on August 7, when an English force of 600 foot and 46 cavalry, escorting a large supply train, was ambushed by 1,000 Irish infantry and 100 horsemen. Fifty-six English were killed and 69 wounded. The rest fled the field, abandoning the supply train. The exchange was dubbed the "Battle of the Biscuits," because the English left a multitude of biscuits and cakes behind as they fled. O'Neill appealed to Spain for assistance as rebellion in Eire erupted into full-scale war with the English by 1595. O'Neill raised an army of 10,000 and defeated the English at Yellow Ford on the Blackwater River on August 14, 1598, the climax of a series of brief encounters during which O'Neill had bested the queen's top commanders.

In 1599, Elizabeth sent her favorite, Robert Devereaux (1567–1601), the earl of Essex, with 17,000 infantry and 1,300 cavalry, to crush the Irish rebels, but Tyrone's troops outmaneuvered him for more than a year, as they waited for Spain to respond to the call for aid. In 1600, Essex—after suffering a number of reverses—gave up and concluded a peace with the Irish forbidden to him by his queen. Elizabeth angrily recalled Essex, just in time for 3,814 Spanish soldiers under Don Juan D'Aquila (fl. 16th century) to arrive in Kinsale, Ireland, in 1601. The Spaniards took Kinsale, but the English—11,800 foot and 857 horse—led by Charles Blount (c. 1562–1606), Lord Mountjoy, kept D'Aquila's troops from uniting with Tyrone's men and laid siege to Kinsale on November 21, 1601. Disease and combat casualties reduced Mountjoy's force to 6,595 men fit for duty. Tyrone arrived with 6,500 Irish rebels, but the English responded with a vigorous cavalry charge executed during a severe thunderstorm on December 24. The combination of English ferocity and the fury of the storm apparently instilled panic in the Irish troops. A line of 1,800 pikemen broke and ran, prompting the Spaniards to retreat as well. Twelve hundred Irish and Spanish soldiers fell in this battle, whereas the English lost perhaps 20 men. On January 2, 1602, Aquila surrendered, and by 1603 O'Neill laid down arms and Tyrone surrendered as well. Both leaders were subsequently pardoned by King James I (1566–1625) and prudently went into voluntary exile. By 1603, the English had fully suppressed the uprising.

Further reading: Colm Lennon, *Sixteenth-Century Ireland: The Incomplete Conquest* (New York: St. Martin's, 1995); Hiram Morgan, *Tyrone's Rebellion: The Outbreak of the Nine Years' War in Tudor Ireland* (London: Boydell and Brewer, 1999).

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Ugandan Civil War (1978–1979)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tanzania government and Ugandan rebels vs. Idi Amin's Ugandan regime (with aid from Libya)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tanzania and Uganda, principally the south
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In response to a Ugandan invasion of Tanzania, Tanzanian forces joined Ugandan rebel forces in a civil war to overthrow the brutal dictatorship of Idi Amin.
OUTCOME: The combined Tanzanian-Ugandan rebel forces successfully invaded Uganda, took the capital of Kampala, and overthrew Amin, who found refuge in Libya.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Tanzania and rebel forces, 20,000; Amin's forces, 21,000; Libyan forces, 2,700
CASUALTIES: Tanzania, 373 killed; Uganda rebels, 150 killed; Amin's forces, 1,000 killed; Libyan forces, 600 killed
TREATIES: None

Idi Amin (1924/25–2003), the vicious and unbalanced dictator of Uganda, asserted his belief that the Tanzanian government was stirring the border regions to rebellion. Accordingly, Amin dispatched 3,000 troops into Tanzania to the west bank of Lake Victoria on October 28, 1978. Driving about 20 miles into Tanzanian territory, the Ugandans declared the annexation of about 710 square miles of territory. Tanzanian military officials mounted a counteroffensive with 7,000 troops but failed in an attempted crossing of the Kagera River on November 11. Nevertheless, on November 14, Amin announced that he was withdrawing from Tanzania. Government troops found the area of the invasion desolate; it had been burned over by the Ugandans. Perhaps as many as 1,500 civilians had been murdered. By way of response, Tanzanian forces invaded Uganda, penetrating 30 miles by November 27. At this point, a truce was declared, punctuated over the next several months by skirmishes and clashes.

Early in February 1979, Tanzania's president Julius K. Nyerere (1922–99) began actively supporting anti-Amin Ugandan exiles. Four thousand Tanzanian regulars accompanied 3,000 anti-Amin rebel exiles deep into southwestern Uganda. Although Amin mounted a defense with some 21,000 troops, his army soon proved mutinous and simply dissolved before the onslaught, which gathered in strength until it amounted to some 20,000 men, mostly Ugandan rebels. The only resistance remaining came from a contingent of Nubian mercenary troops (about 2,500) and a force of 2,700 Libyans sent by Libya's president Muammar al'Qaddafi (b. 1942) to aid Amin, a fellow Muslim. In March, at the Battle of Lukaya, 200 Libyans and 200 Amin loyalists were killed. The next month, most of the Libyans were evacuated during a two-day battle for Entebbe.

Following Entebbe, the Ugandan rebels and their Tanzanian supporters closed in on the capital city of Kampala, which they took and occupied on April 11, 1979. Amin, his forces reduced to some 2,000 men, fled to Jinja and then, under unremitting attack, to exile in Libya. This ended Amin's eight-year regime, during which perhaps as many as 300,000 Ugandans had lost their lives.

Further reading: Holger Brent Hansen and Michael Twaddle, eds., *Changing Uganda: The Dilemmas of Structural Adjustment and Revolutionary Change* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 1991); Thomas P. Ofcansky, *Uganda: Tarnished Pearl of Africa* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1999); M. Louise Prouet, *Historical Dictionary of Uganda* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1995).

Ugandan Religious Wars (1885–1889)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: King Mwanga of Uganda vs. Anglican, Catholic, and Muslim missionaries and their converts; subsequently, the converts of these missionaries fought one another for dominance over Uganda.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Uganda
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The war began with an effort to expel foreign missionaries from Uganda, then became a religious war among Anglican, Catholic, and Muslim factions within Uganda.
OUTCOME: The Anglican converts gained control of most of Uganda, leading to the creation of a British protectorate in 1894.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown; many civilians killed by King Mwanga
TREATIES: None

The influx of a variety of missionaries—Anglicans from England, Roman Catholics from France, and Islamic missionaries from the Arab world—into Uganda during the late 1870s alarmed the king of Uganda, Mwanga (fl. 1880s), who objected to so much foreign religious and cultural influence. In 1885, he resolved to eliminate the missionary presence from his kingdom and began by attacking and seizing the chief Anglican missionaries. When one, a bishop, approached from the east—the direction, according to Ugandan legend, from which would-be conquerors would approach—Mwanga's forces killed him. This was only the start of a program of persecution of Christians in Uganda. Particularly targeted were natives who had converted to Christianity. Some were burned at the stake.

Mwanga's plan was to round up all Christians and Muslims in Uganda, confine them to an island in Lake Victoria, and let them starve to death. His program of persecution, however, resulted in an uprising against him, and he fled from the throne. His brother Kikewa (fl. 1880s) replaced him and immediately attempted to make peace among the missionaries. He assigned each religion—Islam, Catholicism, and Anglicanism—an officially sanctioned post in Uganda. However, Muslim converts now attacked a number of Christianized native chiefs. At first, the followers of these chiefs fled, but they soon regrouped and attacked the Muslims in a campaign of October 1889. The Muslims were defeated in the October action but counterattacked in November and achieved temporary victory. In February 1890, however, native Christian forces attacked the Muslims again and soundly defeated them. Beginning at about this time, disputes developed between followers of the Anglican missionaries and those of the Catholics. French Catholic converts attacked British-led Protestants in the Ugandan capital of Kampala but were defeated in the spring of 1892 and retreated to the Sese Islands in Lake Victoria. The Catholics created a stronghold on the islands and used it as a base from which they conducted operations against the Protestants. Before the end of 1892, however, British troops led Protestant forces in an assault on the Sese Islands and defeated the Catholics there. Survivors fled to the southern parts of Uganda. In the meantime, the Muslim converts found other territories. Most of Uganda, however, came under Anglican control, and Great Britain was able to assert a protectorate over Uganda in 1894.

Further reading: Thomas P. Ofcansky *Uganda: Tarnished Pearl of Africa* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1999); Madge L. Prentice, *The Bruised Pearl of Africa: Uganda Past and Present* (Tecoma, Vic.: M. Prentice, 1990); M. Louise Prouet, *Historical Dictionary of Uganda* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1995).

United Irishmen's Revolt (1798)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Irish rebels vs. English government troops
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Ireland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Irish Catholics (and others) wanted independence from Britain.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quickly crushed, and the United Kingdom was created.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: England, 100,000; Ireland, 40,000; France, 3,000
CASUALTIES: English, 1,500 killed in battle; 10,000 died of disease; Irish, 7,900 killed, wounded or captured at New Ross, Vinegar Hill, Castlebar, Ballynamuck, and Killala. Irish total combatant and noncombatant deaths estimated at 50,000. At Lough Swilly, French losses included 425 killed and 1,870 captured.
TREATIES: None

The Society of United Irishmen was founded in 1791, inspired by the French Revolution. The organization's purpose was to secure parliamentary reform and legal equality for all Irish, and it was led by Belfast Presbyterian

merchants and Dublin intellectuals, most notably Wolfe Tone (1763–98) and James Napper Tandy (1740–1803). The United Irishmen garnered support among Presbyterian farmers in Ulster and among Roman Catholic peasants generally.

At first the United Irishmen advocated reform by peaceful means, but, after war broke out in 1793 between Great Britain and France, the society began to espouse outright revolution. In April 1794, it even secured promises of aid from the French for any revolution. When British authorities acted harshly to suppress the United Irishmen, the organization went underground and became avowedly militant, entirely determined to foment rebellion.

Bolstered by anticipation of promised French aid, armed Irish mobs seized control of County Wexford, but were beaten back by British troops commanded by Gerard Lake (1744–1808) at the Battle of Vinegar Hill on June 21, 1798. In the meantime, Wolfe Tone led a French expeditionary force from the Continent only to be intercepted by a British squadron off Lough Swilly, County Donegal. The squadron easily overpowered the force, and Tone, captured, was tried and convicted of treason. He committed suicide before the court's sentence—death by hanging—could be carried out.

With the defeat at Vinegar Hill, the quelling of two other local revolts, and the death of Tone, the United Irishmen's revolt collapsed. The other principal rebel leader, Tandy, fled into French exile. In 1801, Great Britain was united with Ireland as the United Kingdom.

Further reading: Edith Mary Johnston, *Eighteenth-Century Ireland: The Long Peace* (Dublin: Gill and Macmillan, 1994); John Killen, ed., *The Decade of the United Irish men: Contemporary Accounts, 1791–1801* (Belfast: Blackstaff, 1998); Elaine W. McFarland, *Ireland and Scotland in the Age of Revolution* (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 1995).

United States–Apache War (1871–1873)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Apaches vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Arizona and New Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Apaches resisted Anglo-American settlements with lightning raids; the United States intended to end Apache raiding and concentrate the Indians on reservations under Grant's peace policy.
OUTCOME: The Apaches were temporarily defeated and the concentration onto reservations begun.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Nearly 5,000 U.S. troopers were engaged in the Apache Wars; Apache warriors from the various bands totalled only 2,000.
CASUALTIES: Apaches, 300–350 dead (including the Grant Camp Massacre), wounded unknown; United States, from September 1871 to September 1872, 44 killed, 16 wounded
TREATIES: None

The Apache heritage was one of raiding and warfare. Following the APACHE UPRISING during 1861 to 1865, there were several years of neither peace nor formal warfare, during which the Apaches resisted the advance of white American settlers and U.S. troops into the Southwest with swift raids and even swifter retreats to their mountain hideouts.

Not until April 15, 1870, with the establishment of the military Department of Arizona, did the U.S. government and its army fully confront the Apache "threat" to settlement. The department's first commander, General George Stoneman (1822–94), vitiated the army's purpose in creating the department when he established his headquarters not in Arizona but on the California coast. He also sought to deal with the Apaches in accordance with the "peace policy" of President Ulysses S. Grant (1822–85), designed as a "conquest by kindness" under which Native American tribes were no longer to be considered sovereign nations but wards of the state subject to civilian—not military—supervision. The Indians would be concentrated on reservations, where they would be "civilized": educated, Christianized, and taught to become self-supporting farmers. Accordingly, Stoneman had set up a series of "feeding stations" for Apaches who renounced raiding. Stoneman's remoteness from the scene, combined with his "benevolent" approach to what was at the time a military problem, brought accusations of spineless incompetence from the outraged citizens—and influential newspaper editors—of Arizona.

Conditions were ripe for a citizen uprising. Lieutenant Royal E. Whitman (d. 1913), in charge of Camp Grant, a feeding station on the lower San Pedro River, was performing his assignment well, cultivating the trust and cooperation of Aravaipa and Pinal Apache. As far as local settlers were concerned, Whitman was doing his job *too* well. They believed that Camp Grant served as a sanctuary for Indians between raids, and on April 30, 1871, six Americans, 48 Mexicans, and 92 Papago Indians attacked the Apache rancheria at Camp Grant, killing from 86 to 150 Indians, mostly women and children. Twenty-nine children were captured and sold into slavery.

The Camp Grant Massacre, as it came to be called, resulted in the replacement of General Stoneman by General George Crook (1829–90), who took command of the department in June 1871. President Grant wanted peace with the Apaches, and this is precisely what Crook hoped to achieve. He decided that the best way to achieve peace was to hand the Apaches a sound thrashing before begin-

ning negotiations. The notion brought him into conflict with Vincent Colyer (1825–88), Grant's secretary of the Board of Indian Commissioners, who compelled Crook to suspend operations until he had finished his negotiations. To his credit, Colyer made some inroads, but the citizens of Arizona continued to endure raids and terror. Crook issued an ultimatum to the Indians: Report to an agency by February 15, 1872, or be treated as hostile. This time, it was General Oliver O. Howard (1830–1909) who overruled him by opening up another peaceful dialogue.

Neither Colyer nor, initially, Howard had any success in dealing with the legendary Chiricahua Apache leader Cochise (c. 1810–74), and without the participation of Cochise, there could be no genuine peace with the Apaches. Finally, late in 1872, Howard enlisted the aid of frontiersman Thomas J. Jeffords (1832–1914), known to be a trusted friend of the Chiricahua leader, to escort him to "Cochise's Strong-hold," where he at last succeeded in hammering out a tentative peace.

At least, he created a situation in which some 5,000 Apaches and Yavapais (a tribe distinct from the Apaches, but often called Apache Mohaves) claimed peaceful intentions and began to draw rations from a newly organized system of reservations. In fact, from 1871 to 1872 Apache raids continued unabated. It was difficult to distinguish between Apaches who professed peace in good faith and those who used the reservations as a cover for their crimes. In any case, Arizona settlers were unwilling to make distinctions. They demanded that Crook and his soldiers be turned loose upon the Apaches, and they threatened to force the army's hand by staging another Camp Grant Massacre. Faced with citizen anger and the realities of life in Arizona, the Indian Bureau at last authorized Crook to proceed—not to declare outright war but to campaign systematically against the Apaches.

Crook applied all that he had learned in fighting the Paiutes in Oregon and Idaho. He stressed the use of Indian scouts and auxiliaries, mobility, and determined pursuit until the enemy was engaged and defeated. He took charge of the U.S. troops in Arizona and New Mexico, split them into small squads, and sent them out first to find Apaches, then capture or kill them. On November 15, 1872, Crook began an ambitious sweep through Arizona, a winter campaign that aimed at the concentration of hostile Apaches in the Tonto Basin, where they could be dealt with at once and en masse. It was a relentless operation, involving continual pursuit, about 20 actual engagements, 200 Indians killed—76 at the Battle of Skull Cave (December 28, 1872) alone, where 100 Yavapais were cornered in a cave in a wall of Salt River Canyon, and the heavy fire resulted in ricocheting bullets that caused many deaths.

But the most punishing aspect of the campaign was the pursuit. Kept constantly on the move, the Indians were forced repeatedly to abandon shelter and provisions. The Battle of Turret Peak (March 27, 1873) was the "last straw." Under the command of Captain George M. Randall, elements of the 23rd Infantry surprised an Indian rancheria, killing 23. Throughout the spring and into the summer, Apaches dejectedly reported to reservations. Even more significantly, Crook managed to keep the peace for four years—an unprecedented span in so volatile a region.

See also UNITED STATES-APACHE WAR (1876–1886).

Further reading: Grenville Goodwin and Keith Basso, *Western Apache Raiding and Warfare* (Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1969); Stanley Francis Louis Crocchiola, *The Apaches of New Mexico, 1549–1940* (Pampa, Tex.: Pampa Print Shop, 1962).

United States–Apache War (Victorio's Resistance and the Geronimo Campaign) (1876–1886)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Apache "renegades" vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Arizona and New Mexico, and northern Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Apaches resisted permanent settlement on a reservation; the United States was trying to place all the Apaches on reservations and to track down and "bring to justice" those "outlaw" Apaches who refused resettlement.
OUTCOME: The Apaches were resettled on Arizona's San Carlos Reservation; the renegades—those who were not killed—were sent to prison in Florida.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Victorio, 150; Geronimo (and others) 400; United States, 3,000+ troops, 200 scouts
CASUALTIES: Apaches, 200 dead, wounded unknown; United States, 150 settlers dead, more than 100 troops, killed
TREATIES: None, though Geronimo and General Nelson A. Miles negotiated terms of surrender at Skeleton Canyon, Arizona, on September 4, 1886

On September 4, 1886, Apache chief Geronimo (1829–1909) surrendered to U.S. general Nelson A. Miles (1839–1925) in a canyon just north of Mexico after a decade of sporadic guerrilla resistance more effective as sensational newspaper copy than as true warfare. The final "capture" of the renegade Apache marked the surrender of Native Americans to what they experienced as the white invasion of the American West.

Born along Arizona's upper Gila River, Geronimo (his Apache name was Goyahkla) grew to manhood under Mexican rule. Mexican soldiers killed his mother, his wife, and his three children, and Geronimo's hatred of them was

implacable. Even Geronimo's fellow Apaches, the most feared of all the Indians of the Southwest, considered him a wild man. When Mexico ceded much of the Southwest to the United States after the UNITED STATES–MEXICAN WAR of 1846–48, the Americans too became the object of Apache hostility as the new intruders disrupted established Apache ways with their mines, ranches, and dusty small towns. After the United States conducted two sustained campaigns against the Apaches (*see* APACHE UPRISING and UNITED STATES–APACHE WAR [1871–1873]), most reported dejectedly to reservations.

Geronimo rode with the Chiricahua Apaches, whose chief was named Cochise (c. 1810–74) and whose homeland was in the Sierra Madre of Mexico. The first reservation established for the Chiricahuas in 1872 at least had included portions of their traditional lands. But life on the reservation did not much agree with the traditionally bellicose and restless Apaches, especially when game was scarce and their families hungry. Even after Cochise had agreed to settle on the Chiricahua Reservation, disgruntlement with the life there ran high, and young Apaches occasionally continued the raiding that had been a part of Apache existence for centuries.

As usual in dealing with Indian relations, the federal government did not help matters. In 1875, the United States decided to abolish the four separate reservations originally established in Arizona and New Mexico and remove all of the Apaches to one large Arizona reservation, San Carlos. Cochise had died in 1874, and the Chirichahua Apaches lacked the leadership that might have kept them together in resistence. Ordered to San Carlos in 1876, about half went, and the remainder scattered into Mexico. When the Apaches on New Mexico's Ojo Caliente Reservation, which the whites called Warm Springs, were ordered to San Carlos the following year, they, like the Chiricahuas, split, some scattering, some marching to the centralized Apache reservation.

San Carlos was an awful place—barren, miserably hot, overcrowded, and disease ridden. The agency there made little effort to provide sufficient rations, and it distributed what there was poorly. Here, in this desolate spot, two militant leaders arose among the Apaches, one a Warm Springs Apache chief named Victorio (d. 1880), the other a Chiricahua—Geronimo. For the next decade, Victorio or Geronimo and their followers repeatedly broke out of what they considered their imprisonment. Once free of the reservations, they were hard to find among the canyons and arroyos of southern Arizona and nearby Mexico. Roving bands led by Victorio and Geronimo terrorized much of the Arizona and New Mexico territories, killing prospectors, herders, travelers, whomever they ran across, and stealing horses and guns. If the U.S. Army came too close, they fled out of reach across the border into Mexico. From there, joined by Comanches and other renegades, they would once again pick up their raids over the border.

Victorio made the first break from San Carlos on September 2, 1877, leading more than 300 Warm Springs Apaches and a few Chiricahuas out of the reservation. For a month, they resisted the soldiers who chased them, but they were finally compelled to surrender at Fort Wingate, New Mexico. They were permitted, however, to return to their homeland at Ojo Caliente rather than to San Carlos while the U.S. government debated their fate. Within the year, the order came to return to San Carlos, and though most did so, Victorio once again bolted. With 80 warriors, he headed for the hills, trying vainly to return now and again to Ojo Caliente. In 1879, Victorio even attempted to settle with the Mescalero Apaches on their reservation, but the arrangement never worked. On September 4, 1879, Victorio led 60 warriors in a raid on the camp of Troop E, Ninth Cavalry, stationed at Ojo Caliente, killing eight soldiers and stealing 46 ponies. Following the raid, Victorio's forces were strengthened by the influx of Mecalero Apaches, who swelled his numbers to around 150 men. They set about terrorizing the Mexican state of Chihuahua and most of western Texas, southern New Mexico, and Arizona.

Mexico and the United States cooperated in the pursuit of Victorio, who managed to elude them for about a year. By the fall of 1880, however, Victorio's warriors began to wear out. Colonel George P. Buell (1833–83) took his regular infantry and cavalry and joined forces with Mexican irregulars commanded by Colonel Joaquin Terrazas (1829–1901) to run Victorio to ground in Chihuahua. When it became obvious they were about to make contact with the Indians, Terrazas summarily ordered Buell out of Mexico; he wanted the "honor" of destroying Victorio for himself. During October 15–16, 1880, Terrazas engaged Victorio at the Battle of Tres Castillos in hand-to-hand combat. Seventy-eight Indians died, including Victorio and 16 women and children. Those who escaped headed back for New Mexico to join Geronimo in a final effort to escape confinement at San Carlos.

Geronimo had been one of a number of Apache leaders who frequently gathered at Ojo Caliente to organize raids on local ranches and Anglo settlements. When U.S. government authorities realized that the reservation was being used as a headquarters for raiding and resistance, Ojo Caliente was ordered closed, and U.S. Indian agent John P. Clum (1851–1932) was dispatched to oversee the removal of 400 Warm Springs and Chiricahua Apaches to the San Carlos Reservation. The plan was for Clum to rendezvous with eight troops of the Ninth U.S. Cavalry to assist in the removal, but those forces had not arrived on April 20, 1877, when Clum reached the reservation. The Indian agent soon discovered that Geronimo was at Ojo Caliente, doubtlessly organizing violent resistance to the transfer to the hated San Carlos. Clum decided that he had to move decisively. Summoning a tiny force of Indian reservation policemen, he arrested Geronimo along with 16

other Apache leaders. By the time the cavalry arrived two days later, the Apache "renegades" were securely shackled.

Geronimo endured a year at San Carlos before he broke for Mexico. The year Victorio was killed, however, Geronimo—himself relentlessly pursued by Mexican troops—returned to San Carlos. It was during this second period on the reservation that Geronimo became associated with the Apache prophet Nakaidoklini (d. 1881). The prophet taught that generations of the dead and defeated Apaches would rise again and that the great old days, when the Apaches were all-powerful throughout the Southwest, would return. Nakaidoklini was a genuinely religious figure, who did not advocate violence but instead taught his followers to invoke the departed spirits by means of a dance analogous to the so-called Ghost Dance, which would soon be introduced among the reservation Sioux. Nevertheless, white authorities saw grave danger in Nakaidoklini and his teachings. On August 30, 1881, Colonel Eugene A. Carr (1830–1910), commanding Fort Apache, led a small force into the prophet's village on Cibicu Creek and took Nakaidoklini into custody. Carr's troops set up camp outside the village, whereupon 100 of the prophet's followers attacked, and the White Mountain Apache scouts attached to the army mutinied. Car's command barely escaped destruction, but in the course of the fight Nakaidoklini was killed. Carr retired to Fort Apache, which fell under heavy attack.

In response to the siege of Fort Apache, army regulars rushed into the San Carlos area from all over the Southwest. By the end of September 1881, Nachez (Naiche [c. 1857–1921])—son of the Apache leader Cochise—Juh (c. 1825–83), Chato (c. 1860–1934), and Geronimo, with 74 braves, were again heading for Mexico. On October 2, they successfully fought off pursuing troops under the command of Major General Orlando B. Willcox (1823–1907), and, having crossed into Mexico, joined other renegades. When Willcox learned that the war leaders planned to reenter the United States in January 1882 to force an alliance with the Warm Springs Apaches, led by Chief Loco, he marshaled border patrols.

The anticipated invasion did not occcur in January, but on April 19, 1882, an Apache war party skillfully evaded the patrols, rushed into the San Carlos Reservation, killed the reservation police chief, Albert D. Sterling, and compelled Chief Loco, along with several hundred Warm Springs Apaches, to return to Mexico with them. The return trip was bloody. Raids killed between 30 and 50 whites.

Lieutenant Colonel George A. Forsyth (1837–1915), with five troops of the Fourth Cavalry and a unit of scouts, pursued the Apaches without success until April 23, when a patrol found them in Horseshoe Canyon along the Peloncillos River. Forsyth attacked, but the Indians escaped, inflicting light casualties on Forsyth's forces. Troopers of the Sixth Cavalry now gave chase, penetrating deeply into Mexico and attacking on April 28. The Apaches resisted the attack and slipped away.

Joined now by the main body of Forsyth's command, the Fourth Cavalry continued south in pursuit of Geronimo's band. On April 30, it encountered a unit of Mexican infantry commanded by Colonel Lorenzo Garcia (fl. 1880s), who claimed that his men had killed 78 Apache warriors and captured 33 women and children. With that, the Mexican colonel ordered the American military out of his country.

The army suffered another reverse on July 6, 1882, when a White Mountain Apache warrior named Natiotish (fl. 1880s), a militant follower of the slain Nakaidoklini, invaded San Carlos, killing the new police chief, J. L. "Cibicu Charley" Colvig (d. 1882), along with three of his officers. Following this, he led raids throughout Arizona and New Mexico's Tonto Basin, prompting a large-scale search for him. Near General Springs, between Fort Apache and Fort Verde, the White Mountain chief set an ambush, aiming to destroy a Sixth Cavalry column led by Captain Adna R. Chaffee, Sr. (1842–1914). The ambush was discovered, however, and Chaffee's troop was reinforced. In the ensuing Battle of Big Dry Wash on July 17, 1882, Natiotish suffered losses estimated at 16 to 27 dead, with many more wounded, and the White Mountain Apache raids came to an end.

Now the army could devote its exclusive attention to the Chiricahuas and the Warm Springs Apaches the Chiricahuas had drafted into alliance. These forces were led principally by Geronimo, whose adversary was now General George Crook (1829–90), newly appointed commander of the army's Department of Arizona. In September 1882, Crook introduced a strong military presence on the San Carlos Reservation, carefully recruiting a host of Indian scouts and informants in order to infilitrate would-be pockets of resistance on the reservation.

American officials had negotiated a special treaty with Mexico on July 29, 1882, securing permission to conduct operations in pursuit of Geronimo on Mexican soil. Before launching his expedition into that country, Crook used Apache intermediaries to negotiate with Geronimo and his followers, who responded in March 1883 with raids on Mexican and American targets.

General William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91) ordered Crook to move into Mexico. With 193 White Mountain Apache scouts, Captain Emmet Crawford (1844–83) and Lieutenant Charles B. Gatewood (1853–96) pursued Apache raiders into the most remote reaches of the Sierra Madre in Mexico. On May 15, 1883, they attacked the encampment of two important Apache leaders, Chato and Benito (1850–1945), killing nine warriors and destroying 30 lodges. This brought Geronimo and others to sue for peace. Only Juh remained at large.

Crook took a hard line, convincing Geronimo and the others to return to San Carlos. In actuality, only the Warm Springs Apaches—unwilling allies of the Chiricahua in the first place—immediately returned to San Carlos.

Geronimo and the other Chiricahuas did not arrive until March 1884. Once they arrived, they began to foment resistance on the reservation.

The first source of discord was a prohibition against a form of liquor called *tiswin.* The Indians defied the ban in May 1885, and Geronimo, Nachez, Chiricahua chief Chihuahua, and the aged chief Nana (1800–96), with 134 others broke for Mexico once again. Crook sent two forces in pursuit, one under Captain Crawford and Lieutenant Britton Davis (a troop of Sixth Cavalrymen and 92 scouts) and another led by Captain Wirt Davis (1839–1914) and Lieutenant Matthias W. Day (fl. 1880s) (a troop of Fourth Cavalry and 100 scouts), which crossed the Mexican border on June 11 and July 13, respectively. Crook additionally deployed some 3,000 soldiers to patrol the border country to keep the renegades from reentering the United States.

Despite the forces arrayed against him, Geronimo not only eluded Crawford and Davis but also slipped through the border patrols to terrorize Arizona and New Mexico. In October 1885, Crook recalled Crawford and Davis, reequipped them, and sent them into Mexico again. In the meantime, early in November, Josanie (fl. 1880s), brother of Chihuahua, led a dozen warriors on a month-long 1,200–mile rampage through New Mexico and Arizona, during which 38 settlers were killed and 250 horses stolen. To add insult to injury, the raiders slipped back into Mexico undetected by the border patrols.

Under intense pressure from his commanding officers—Generals Sherman and Philip Sheridan (1831–88)—Crook sent Crawford at the head of two companies of scouts, White Mountain and Chiricahua Apaches; the hunters were of the same tribe as the hunted. Crawford's command discovered the Apache camp on January 9, 1886, in Sonora, Mexico. Geronimo and the others fled, but they were exhausted. They sent word to Crawford, and a conference was set for January 11. On the morning of that day, Captain Crawford was "accidentally" killed by Mexican militiamen. Thus the peace conference was postponed, taking place at Canyon de los Embudos, on March 25, 1886.

General Crook told Geronimo that the best he could hope for was two years of exile in the East. Geronimo capitulated, but on the way to Fort Bowie, Arizona, the place agreed upon for the formal surrender, the Apache leader encountered a whiskey peddler, drank heavily, and bolted yet again.

Crook, discouraged and in dispute with Sheridan, resigned and was replaced by General Nelson A. Miles, who sent a strike force under Captain Henry W. Lawton (1843–99) to neutralize Geronimo once and for all. Starting into Mexico on May 5, Lawton's men chased the Indians throughout the entire summer of 1886, covering some 2,000 miles without once actually engaging the enemy. Yet by the end of August Geronimo was again ready to talk. The Apache leader again accepted exile to a Florida prison—on condition that no less than General Miles accept his surrender in person. The general obliged, arriving at the agreed upon point of surrender, Skeleton Canyon, Arizona, on September 4, 1886. Miles took Geronimo and his band to Fort Bowie, then shipped them off to Florida, marching them out of the fort to the strains of "Auld Lang Syne" played by the regimental band.

Eventually, the Chiricahua and Warm Springs Apaches were permitted to return to the West, but only as far as a reservation in Oklahoma. When Geronimo died, aged 80, at Fort Sill, Oklahoma, in 1909, he had been a legend among both Indians and whites for more than a generation.

Further reading: Angie Debo, *Geronimo* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1976); Odie B. Faulk, *The Geronimo Campaign* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1969); Grenville Goodwin and Keith Basso, *Western Apache Raiding and Warfare* (1969); E. Lisle Reedstrom, *Apache Wars: An Illustrated Battle History* (New York: Sterling, 1990); F. Stanley, *The Apaches of New Mexico, 1540–1940* (Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1962).

United States Civil War: Historical Background (17th century–1861)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States of America (California, Connecticut, Delaware, the District of Columbia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, West Virginia, Wisconsin, the territories of Colorado, Dakota, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, and Washington) vs. Confederate States of America (Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia, plus partisans in Kentucky, Kansas, Missouri, New Mexico Territory, and the unorganized Indian Territory [Oklahoma])
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern theater: Maryland, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia; western theater: Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Tennessee; trans-Mississippi theater: Arkansas, Indian Territory, Kansas, Missouri, New Mexico Territory, and Texas; at sea: points along the Atlantic seaboard and Gulf Coast; the Caribbean and the North Atlantic off England and Europe; the high seas.
DECLARATION: No formal declaration. The Confederate States of America fired on Fort Sumter on April 12, 1861, beginning the war. Union president Abraham Lincoln issued a call for troops on April 14, the day of Fort Sumter's occupation by Confederate troops, this proclamation being the "official" U.S. response. Calling the Confederate Congress into special session on April 29, Confederate president Jefferson Davis proclaimed the South would "meet," not "wage," the war now launched by Lincoln.

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The North fought to preserve the union established by the American Revolution and the Constitution, to assert the sovereign rights of the federal government over any individual state or section, and to outlaw slavery in the United States; the South fought to maintain the sovereignty of individual states against the power of the federal union, including the right to nullify irksome federal laws or to secede from that union entirely, and to protect the institution of slavery.
OUTCOME: The South was utterly defeated; slavery was abolished; and a program of social reconstruction, aimed at including freed slaves in the economic and political life of the South, was initiated under military occupation but ultimately failed to achieve its purposes.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Union, 1,556,000; Confederate, 850,000
CASUALTIES: Union, 359,528 killed, 275,175 wounded; Confederate, at least 258,000 killed, some 225,000 wounded
TREATIES: The end of the war was marked by a series of documents: Confederate general Robert E. Lee surrendered to Union commander Ulysses S. Grant on April 9, 1865, and a truce was agreed to that effectively brought the war to a close. But Lee had surrendered only his Army of Northern Virginia, and a more inclusive armistice—in effect, a peace treaty—was concluded on April 18 by William Tecumseh Sherman and Joseph E. Johnston in Raleigh, North Carolina. On April 21, the new president of the United States, Andrew Johnson, and his cabinet repudiated the Sherman-Johnston agreement, and on April 26 Johnston was forced to accept a narrower armistice, identical to the one Grant offered Lee. That day, the Confederate cabinet held its last meeting (in Charlotte, North Carolina) and dissolved. Various Southern commanders then surrendered under the terms of the armistice. The last fighting unit to surrender was that of Edmund Kirby Smith in Texas, on May 26, 1865, and the last general officer to surrender was the Cherokee Confederate brigadier Stand Watie, on June 23, 1865. Provisional state governments were set up in the Confederacy and once those states "in rebellion" had ratified the 13th Amendment to the Constitution, which freed the slaves; had abolished slavery in their state constitutions; had repudiated debts incurred during the rebellion; and had declared the secession null and void, two presidential proclamations—the first on April 2, 1866, the second on August 20, 1866—officially ended the war.

This entry focuses on the causes and the outbreak of the U.S. Civil War. For actions related to the war in Pennsylvania, Virginia (and West Virginia), and North Carolina, and for the war's resolution *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: EASTERN THEATER. For actions relating to the war in Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Tennessee *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: WESTERN THEATER. For actions relating to the war in Arkansas, Missouri, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: TRANS-MISSISSIPPI THEATER. For actions relating to the war on the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts and on the high seas *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: AT SEA.

Sovereignty—that of person over slave or of nation over section—lay at the heart of the issues for which the American Civil War was fought. At several points during the conflict peace overtures, usually from a beleaguered South but also from a beleaguered U.S. president, would be undertaken, always to founder on the question of sovereignty. Formulated in just such terms, these attempts at peace meant that the South would continue to mask its dedication to the "peculiar institution" of slavery with rhetoric about "states' rights," the combination that led to the outbreak of the Civil War. Even after the South, nearing physical and economic exhaustion, was ready nominally to give up Negro bondage, the question of sovereignty would remain a sticking point. Indeed, it would be under the banner of sovereignty—so-called "white sovereignty"—that a defeated South would try to deny emancipated slaves full participation in the American nation secured by the Civil War. Thus, the end of the fighting would not be a matter of treaties but of truces and amnesties granted by a sovereign nation to several states in rebellion. The restitution of a full civil peace would consist of amendments and legislation passed by Congress and—ultimately—of national presidential elections a decade later. None of this should obscure the fact that despite what the participants said at the time and Southern apologists have said since, the Civil War was fought to resolve the question of slavery. For it was only over the question of slavery that the South unequivocally asserted the sovereign rights of the individual states. All other matters—tariffs and sectional influence in Congress, for example—proved pliable to debate and compromise and legislative remedy.

ROOTS OF CONFLICT

In 1619, merely 12 years after the founding of Jamestown, Dutch traders first imported black slaves for sale to the Virginia tobacco farmers. At first, for the wealthy planters who bought them, black slaves represented nothing more than a new source of cheap labor, one that—unlike indentured servants who worked (at least in theory) for only seven years to repay their passage—would be perpetually under the planters' control. In the early colonial period, few could afford the prohibitive costs of purchasing African slaves, so indentured servitude remained the predominant method by which planters exploited the labor force. Toward the end of the 17th century, the price of slaves began to fall, and as living conditions improved in the colonies, planters who bought slaves could expect to get a full lifetime of work from their chattel. Even at twice the price of indentured servants, African slaves had become a bargain.

Southerners were not the only Americans to engage in slavery as a means of economic improvement. The New England shipping industry relied on the importation of slaves as part of its "triangular" trade. The trade took many different forms, but in one version traders shipped molasses refined in the West Indies to New England for use in the distillation of rum. They then shipped rum to Africa in trade for slaves, whom they transported to the West Indies. New England slave traders then hawked the Africans on the auction blocks of Charleston, New York, and other busy port cities along the eastern seaboard. In the South, however, American slavery flourished both as an economic system—allowing a few planters to grow rich from the forced labor of the Africans who cultivated their tobacco, rice, indigo, and later, cotton—and as a system for strict racial control. The casual bigotry of the early European settlers became a virulent racism in the service of the South's regionalist ideology. Planters and traders kept questions of morality and human decency in abeyance during the 17th and 18th centuries, when the economic benefits of slavery were evident for both the South and North and the balance of sectional interests could serve as a basis for compromise. But westward expansion of the new nation threatened that balance even as slavery developed into the South's own "peculiar institution," the bleak foundation of its cherished way of life, and grew increasingly irrelevant to the rapidly industrializing North.

"GINNING UP" THE "PECULIAR INSTITUTION"

The tensions inherent in the diverging economies of the two regions were underscored by slavery, and the institution from the beginning proved politically volatile. By the time of the American Revolution, the interests of the North and South were different enough that slavery was an issue in the drafting of the Declaration of Independence, and it would remain an issue in the subsequent drafting of both the Northwest Ordinance and the Constitution. Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826) had wanted to include a mention of the slave trade in the Declaration and blame the foul practice on George III (1738–1820), but other Southerners in the Continental Congress objected to any mention of slavery at all, and they prevailed. The Northwest Ordinance, probably the most important piece of legislation passed under the Articles of Confederation, because it determined how the United States would handle new lands, prompted the debate over whether slavery should be allowed to spread with the nation. A compromise was reached, barring slavery from the western lands "won" during the war but allowing slavery to flourish below the Old Northwest. The question of whether slaves were property or people was raised during the debates of the Constitutional Convention, where southerners wanted them considered property except when it came to representation in Congress, when they wanted them counted as people. Again a compromise was reached, each slave considered as three-fifths of a person at census time but otherwise treated like any other chattel.

As Congress debated the western land ordinances, one invention in particular exacerbated the problem of slavery by revolutionizing the production of cotton and making it a cash staple of southern agriculture. In 1793, Eli Whitney (1765–1825) invented the cotton gin, which made the processing of most Southern cotton economically feasible. Cotton production soared, the Southern economy boomed, and what had been only a secondary crop became "King Cotton." As a result, the South became more dependent than ever on slave labor, and southern planters grew rabid in their promotion and adamant in their defense of the region's "peculiar institution." Slavery became increasingly the one issue over which neither side was willing to compromise. By the time of the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, the pattern was already in place if not yet obvious: New lands or policies would threaten to upset the regional balance of representation in Congress, the extension of slavery would become the flashpoint for a political crisis, a new compromise would be reached not quite satisfying to either side, and the nation would edge closer to outright civil conflict.

THE LONG DEBATE

In 1819, 22 U.S. senators were from northern states and 22 from southern states. This balance, carefully preserved with the admission of each new state since the Revolution, would be upset when Missouri petitioned Congress for statehood as a slaveholding state. After protracted and agonizing debate, Congress passed a two-part compromise in March 1820, called variously the Compromise of 1820 or the Missouri Compromise. First, Missouri would be allowed to join the Union as a slave state, but at the same time Maine, which had been part of Massachusetts, would be admitted as a free state. No one was completely satisfied by the compromise, but it did help to preserve the Union for some 30 years. Northerners were dissatisfied because the compromise failed to ban slavery from the Louisiana territories. Southerners were distressed that the law set a precedent for future congressional action regarding slavery. Although the law would remain in force until the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, the positions on slavery began to grow more radical. During the 1830s, a secret network of individuals committed to helping escaped slaves find their way north to freedom became more thoroughly organized and acquired the name by which it would be known until the Civil War—the Underground Railroad. The anti-slavery newspaper *The Liberator* appeared in 1831, and the abolitionist crusade was in full swing in the North. Alarmed by the willingness of northern citizens to help the slaves, the southerners protested being deprived of their property. Northern states responded by enacting "personal liberty" laws prohibiting state officials from helping southerners recapture their runaway slaves. In 1842, the Supreme Court declared in

Prigg v. Pennsylvania that the states were not required to enforce the Fugitive Slave Act. The division between North and South widened and deepened.

Early in the 1830s, southerners had thought they found a solution to this northern "attack"—nullification. In 1832, Congress passed a new tariff that southerners, already outraged at the abolitionist fever spreading rapidly through the North, thought not merely excessive but also a deliberate attempt at destroying their economy. Radicals in the South Carolina legislature combined their hatred of abolition with their resentment of the new tariff and resolved that the state would not yield. On November 24, 1832, a special convention called by the state legislature passed the Ordinance of Nullification, which prohibited the collection of duties after February 1, 1833. In addition, the legislature called for raising and arming a military force. The state was determined to put the authority of the central government to a severe test, but South Carolinians did not realize how determined President Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) was to compel their compliance with federal law. He issued a "Proclamation to the People of South Carolina" in which he declared that "disunion by armed force is treason." The South Carolina radicals backed down 10 days before nullification was scheduled to begin. When a compromise tariff was passed by Congress in March 1833, the state legislature repealed the Nullification Ordinance altogether. Although the crisis was averted, sectional tensions continued to mount. Radicals in South Carolina and elsewhere in the South came to believe that only secession from the Union would protect their way of life.

Leading South Carolina's fight during the Nullification Crisis was native son John C. Calhoun (1782–1850), one of a triumvirate of senators who dominated the two decades before the Civil War. Another was Senator Daniel Webster (1782–1852), who represented Massachusetts (and, thus, New England) and was the Whig Party's foremost spokesman for the Union at any cost. Between Calhoun and Webster was Henry Clay (1777–1852), a Whig but also a slaveholding Kentuckian who would become known as the "Great Compromiser." The three hammered out a new political compromise, the Compromise of 1850.

The discovery of gold in California in 1848 brought to a boil the long-simmering sectional differences over slavery. More than 80,000 people from the eastern states and territories flooded into California in 1849 alone, making the establishment of a territorial government a necessity. The question of whether territories and new states would be slaveholding or free had been settled—so most people thought—by the Missouri Compromise of 1820, which prohibited slavery in all parts of the Louisiana Purchase north of the latitude of 36 degrees, 30 minutes. Then, in 1846, Representative David Wilmot (1814–68) of Pennsylvania, introduced an amendment to a bill appropriating $2 million to facilitate negotiations with Mexico for "territorial adjustments" as a way of bringing an end to the UNITED STATES-MEXICAN WAR. The Wilmot Proviso would have prohibited slavery in any land acquired by the United States as a result of the war. Opposing the proviso, Calhoun proposed four resolutions during February 19 and 20, 1847, that articulated the South's position with regard to slavery. He held that the territories were the common and joint property of the states; that Congress, as agent for the states, had no right to make laws discriminating among the states and depriving any state of its full and equal right in any territory acquired by the United States; that the enactment of any national law pertaining to slavery would be a violation of the Constitution and states' rights; and that the people had the right to form their state governments as they chose, the Constitution imposing no conditions for the admission of a state except that its government should be republican. Calhoun warned that failure to maintain a balance between the interests of the South and those of the North would result in civil war; if "trampled" upon, the South would resist.

During the next three years, various compromises on the issue of slavery in new territories and states were proposed and rejected. Faced with a widening gulf of irreconcilable positions, Senator Lewis Cass (1782–1866) of Michigan proposed that territories should be organized without mention of slavery. When the territory wrote its own constitution in preparation for admission to statehood, the citizens of the territory, not the federal government, would decide for themselves whether to be free or slave. Called "popular sovereignty," the concept held great appeal for President Zachary Taylor (1784–1850), who was faced with the decision of what to do about California. He proposed that popular sovereignty be allowed to run its course and that California should be admitted directly as a state. The controversy over whether slavery would be allowed in California would be avoided, because no territorial government would be set up, and the state would determine the issue for itself.

Southern states were horrified by Taylor's proposal. They reasoned that because not only California but also New Mexico would doubtless organize themselves as free states, the balance of slave versus free states as represented in the Senate would be destroyed. Some compensation was required, and the aging Henry Clay, who had been among the framers of the Missouri Compromise, worked with Daniel Webster to devise a plan that would satisfy the South. California would be admitted to the Union as a free state. Other territories in the Southwest would be organized without mention of slavery. The slave trade in the District of Columbia would be abolished, but the federal government would pass a stronger Fugitive Slave Law to prevent slaves from being declared free. The final leg of the complicated compromise called for the federal government's assumption of debts slaveholding Texas had incurred before it was annexed by the United States. The Compromise of 1850 preserved the Union for the time being, but abolitionists saw the new Fugitive Slave Law as

caving into southern pressures, and, with the admission of California as a free state, and the likely admission of New Mexico and Utah as free states in the future, Southern states'-rights advocates saw the eventual end of any power they had in Congress. The rumblings of disunion were unmistakable.

In this highly charged climate, Harriet Beecher Stowe (1811–96) published a novel entitled *Uncle Tom's Cabin, or Life among the Lowly,* which more than any other piece of writing, whether political treatise or newspaper editorial, promoted popular support for abolition. Stowe reported that she had been moved to write the book after the passage of the Fugitive Slave Act. Telling the story of Tom, Eliza, and Eva, slaves under the control of the evil overseer Simon Legree, the novel became an immediate commercial success, selling 10,000 copies in one week and 300,000 within a year. Southerners were outraged, claiming that Stowe had no knowledge of slavery as it existed in the South and that she had exaggerated the mistreatment of slaves. Northerners discounted Southern criticism, and thousands of people who had been undecided over the issue flocked to the abolition movement.

If Congress thought it had permanently averted disaster with the Compromise of 1850, the Kansas-Nebraska Act revealed all of the act's weaknesses. When the territories of Nebraska and Kansas applied for statehood in 1854, Congress repealed the Missouri Compromise, which the Compromise of 1850 had already more or less gutted, and passed the Kansas-Nebraska Act, which left the question of slavery up to the popular sovereignty of the two prospective states. The act spawned a new antislavery Republican Party, and abolitionists in the North organized the Emigrant Aid Society to finance free settlers in Kansas. New England authors such as William Cullen Bryant (1794–1878) and John Greenleaf Whittier (1807–92) mounted one of history's great propaganda campaigns, quickly aided by newspaperman Horace Greeley (1811–72) and correspondents sent by eastern papers to report on the Kansas-Missouri border "situation." In response, thousands of pro-slavery Missourians flooded into Kansas to vote illegally and then return home to their farms. Overwhelming the Kansas settlers, the majority of whom were probably free-soilers, they elected a territorial legislature that immediately legalized slavery and won official recognition from the federal government. Free-soilers poured in from Iowa to settle the land, formed their own legislature, set their capital up at Lawrence, and petitioned Congress for admission as a free state. Open warfare broke out along the Kansas-Missouri border. A posse of Missourians raided Lawrence, setting fire to a hotel and a few houses, chopping up a printing press, arresting several free-state leaders, and killing three others in the process. A fanatical abolitionist named John Brown (1800–59) retaliated by murdering five pro-slavery settlers along the Pottawatomie Creek, then mutilating their bodies. By the time the federal government could join with the governments of Missouri and Kansas to bring the guerrilla fighting in "Bleeding Kansas" more or less to an end in 1858, 200 people were dead and $2 million worth of property had gone up in smoke.

While Kansas bled, the U.S. Supreme Court decided to enter the controversy over slavery by addressing in the Dred Scott case the question of Congress's power over the institution in the territories. A St. Louis slave, Dred Scott (c. 1800–58), had been trying to win his freedom through the courts. Scott had belonged to John Emerson (d. 1846), an army surgeon who was stationed first in Illinois, then in the Wisconsin Territory, and finally in Missouri. Scott had accompanied Emerson to each new station until the surgeon's death in 1846. Scott then sued Emerson's widow for his freedom, claiming that he was a citizen of Missouri and free by virtue of his travels with Emerson in Illinois, where slavery was banned by the Northwest Ordinance, and in the Wisconsin Territory, where it was banned by the Missouri Compromise. When the state court decided against him, he and his lawyers appealed to the Supreme Court. In a split decision written by Chief Justice Roger B. Taney (1777–1864), the Court ruled first that neither free blacks nor slaves were citizens and so could not sue in the federal courts. The Court also ruled that the Illinois law banning slavery had no force over Scott and his owners after he returned to Missouri, where slavery was allowed. In addition, the Court ruled that the Wisconsin Territory laws had no force either, because the Missouri Compromise that outlawed slavery there was unconstitutional, a violation of the Fifth Amendment, which prohibits the government from depriving an individual of property without due process of law.

Politically, the Dred Scott decision had an immediate impact. Republicans, struggling to get their new political party on sound footing, viewed the ruling as an attempt by Southern justices to destroy them. Northern and western Democrats saw the ruling as an attack on the policy of popular sovereignty. Northern abolitionists saw the ruling as an attempt by the Supreme Court, a majority of whose justices were from the South, to extend slavery by legal fiat. The Dred Scott decision changed the terms of the national debate on slavery and made the Civil War inevitable. By making it a property issue, the Dred Scott decision protected slavery from everything except a constitutional amendment, and that the South would never ratify.

ELECTING DISUNION

In the polarized political climate created by the Dred Scott decision, the new Republican Party became the leading force against slavery, and Abraham Lincoln (1809–65) emerged as its standard bearer. While the political debate ensued, John Brown left Bleeding Kansas to incite what he hoped would be a massive slave uprising in Virginia, thereby forcing the issue of abolition to a crisis in 1859 (*see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: TRANS-MISSISSIPPI THEATER).

The following year, Republican candidate Lincoln won election as the 16th president of the United States. The Democratic Party had splintered, into northern and southern factions, thereby handing the election to Lincoln, who won a decisive majority in the Electoral College—180 votes to 123 for all rival candidates—but barely 40 percent of the popular votes of 1.9 million. Having refused to comment on slavery during the election, arguing that he had already made his position clear in his earlier campaign for the Senate, Lincoln may have won a few votes from northern moderates, but he provoked the outrage of southerners, who labeled him "Black Lincoln." On December 20, 1860, South Carolina seceded from the Union. Within six weeks, five other states followed suit—Mississippi (January 9, 1861), Florida (January 10), Alabama (January 11), Georgia (January 19), and Louisiana (January 26). Delegates from the six states met in Montgomery in February 1861 to form a new government. The new Confederate States of America adopted a constitution modeled on that of the United States and named Jefferson Davis and Alexander H. Stephens (1812–83) provisional president and vice president until an election the following November could confirm their choices. None of the border states—eight of them, from Virginia to Missouri—seceded or joined the Confederacy immediately. Most of their people disliked the new administration in Washington but did not believe an unhappy election required them to leave the country. Many thought the cotton states were playing politics, using secession to get the North to make concessions guaranteeing southern "rights," after which the seceding six would return. Texas soon (February 1) hitched its Lone Star to the CSA, but Virginia held out till May 4—after the shooting began and the CSA agreed to transfer its capital from Montgomery, Alabama, to Richmond, Virginia.

WAR BEGINS

In the months following the election, most Americans, including most in the border states, hoped to find some new compromise solution, as the country always had in the past, but it was all to no avail. On the night after Christmas 1860, six days after South Carolina had seceded from the Union, Major Robert Anderson (1805–71), U.S. Army, moved his garrison from the highly vulnerable Fort Moultrie, on Sullivan's Island, South Carolina, to the stronger Fort Sumter. As if it were a sovereign nation, South Carolina protested this action to lame duck President James Buchanan (1791–1868). Buchanan decided to respond by reinforcing Anderson, but instead of dispatching a warship, he sent an unarmed merchant ship to supply reinforcements and ammunition. Before she sailed into Charleston Harbor, the South Carolinians fired upon her, and the *Star of the West* steamed away. A standoff developed, which endured into the first weeks of Lincoln's presidency. On April 4, Lincoln informed South Carolina's Governor Francis W. Pickens (1805–69) that the United States would supply Fort Sumter with provisions. On April 8, Pickens sent the message on to provisional Confederate president Jefferson Davis (1808–89) in Montgomery. Davis immediately ordered Confederate forces in Charleston to demand an evacuation of the fort. If Anderson refused, they were to "reduce" the place to rubble. On April 12, acting as an officer of the Confederacy, General Pierre G. T. Beauregard (1818–93) commanded the harbor batteries to open fire on Fort Sumter. Anderson returned fire, and a fierce shelling of the fort followed. On April 13, out of food and nearly out of ammunition, Anderson surrendered. On Sunday, April 14, he hauled down his flag, Beauregard's men moved into Fort Sumter, and the federal troops disembarked for New York. The Civil War had begun.

Further reading: Mark Mayo Boatner, III, *The Civil War Dictionary,* rev. ed. (New York: David McKay, 1959); Bruce Catton, *The Coming Fury* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1961); William C. Davis, *Jefferson Davis: The Man and His Hour* (New York: HarperCollins, 1991); Joan D. Hedrick, *Harriet Beecher Stowe: A Life* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1994); David S. Heidler and Jeane T. Heidler, eds., *Encyclopedia of the American Civil War: A Political, Social, and Military History* (Santa Barbara, Calif.: ABC-CLIO, 2000); David Herbert Donald, *Lincoln* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1995).

United States Civil War: At Sea (1861–1865)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Confederate and Union navies and privateers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): U.S. coastal waterways and the Atlantic Ocean
DECLARATION: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
OUTCOME: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
CASUALTIES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
TREATIES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background

This entry focuses on the United States Civil War actions relating to coastal waters and oceans. *See* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND for the causes and outbreak of the Civil War and major statistics relating to the war. For actions relating to the war in Pennsylvania, Virginia, and the Carolinas, and for the war's resolution *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: EASTERN THEATER. For actions relating to the war in Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky,

Mississippi, and Tennessee *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: WESTERN THEATER. For actions relating to the war in Arkansas, Missouri, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: TRANS-MISSISSIPPI THEATER. Almost always, civil war is land war. The combatants, after all, live on the same continent. Nevertheless, the U.S. Navy played a crucial role in the capture of New Orleans and in the reduction of the Confederate forts on the Mississippi in the war's western theater). More important though far less glamorous, was the navy's role in making Winfield Scott's (1786–1866) "Anaconda Plan" a reality. As the strength of the Union fleet grew from 42 vessels (of which only three were steam powered) in 1861 to 641 ships by 1865, the blockade of Southern imports and exports became increasingly effective.

This did not stop Southern vessels from trying to run the blockade, and many sailors succeeded in doing just that. But the Confederate naval strategy was not limited to such evasive and defensive measures. Jefferson Davis's (1808–89) government knew that it could never hope to match the Union navy ship for ship. It had neither the money, the shipyards, the personnel, nor the time. Instead, the Confederate Navy, under Davis's naval secretary Stephen R. Mallory (1813–73), pitted its few vessels (many of which were skippered by private citizens rather than naval personnel) not against those of the U.S. Navy but against Union vessels of commerce—privately owned ships carrying goods.

The single most famous Confederate raiding vessel was not a privateer, however, but a craft commissioned by the Confederate Navy and built in ostensibly neutral England.

ADVENTURES OF THE *CSS ALABAMA*

The *CSS Alabama* was one of several warships clandestinely ordered by the Confederate agent in charge of procuring European arms, James D. Bulloch (1823–1901), from Laird Shipyards in 1861. British authorities sought to preserve the fiction of their neutrality by pretending that vessels such as the *Alabama* were being built for commerce, not war; therefore, no ships commissioned by the Confederates were actually armed in British docks. The ships were built in England, and so were the guns, but they were installed in some remote non-British location, such as the Azores. The U.S. government, however, knew the purpose of the ships the British were building, but despite the protests of the U.S. minister to the United Kingdom, Charles Francis Adams (1807–86), *Alabama* and similar vessels were launched.

Alabama evaded a Union sloop and braved a bad storm in the Irish Sea to rendezvous with the *Agrippina,* from which Captain Raphael Semmes (1809–77), a 53-year-old Maryland-born Alabamian, boarded her and took command. Semmes resigned from the U.S. Navy on February 15, 1861, and became the Confederacy's most remarkable sailor. From September 1862 until June 1864, Semmes commanded the *Alabama,* preying upon the commercial shipping lanes, capturing or destroying 69 vessels, and, in the process, occupying a significant portion of the Union navy in futile pursuit of himself. The *Alabama* was the most famous and successful of the Confederate commerce raiders.

DUEL AT HAMPTON ROADS

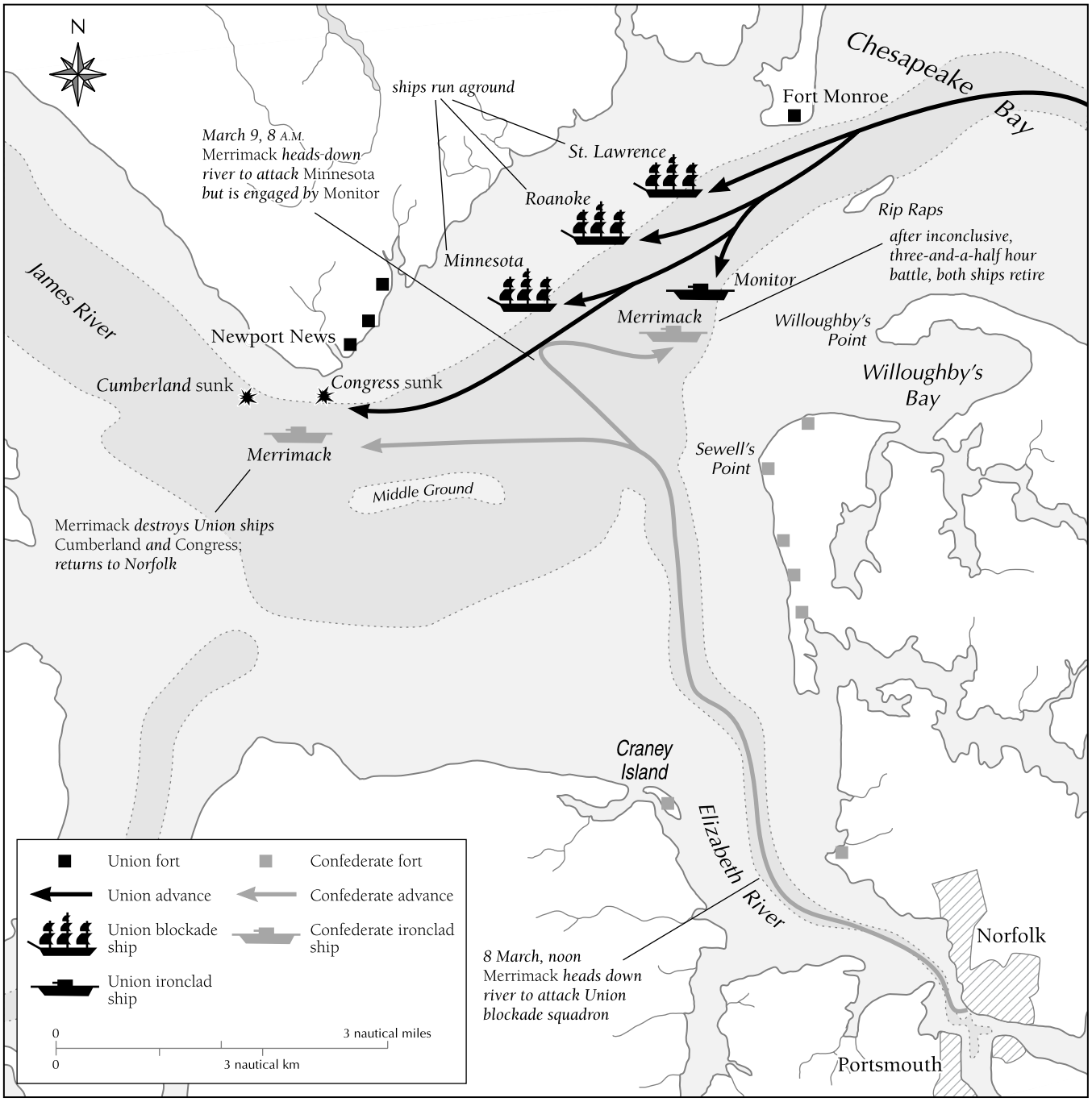
Meanwhile, the most famous sea battle of the Civil War had been shaping in Hampton Roads, Virginia. Out West, Ulysses S. Grant (1822–85) was taking forts and doing bloody work at Shiloh, while in the East, George McClellan (1826–85) was doing no more than jockeying for position, and Confederate blockade runners were active at sea. Thinly spread, the Union's "Anaconda" blockade had succeeded in capturing perhaps one in 10 rebel vessels (by the conclusion of the war, it was closer to one in three). But the embryonic Confederate Navy was not content with merely running the blockade. Its officers wanted to destroy it.

On the south shore of Hampton Roads was the Gosport Navy Yard, evacuated by Union forces at the beginning of the war. Before they left, they had scuttled the frigate *Merrimack* rather than let it fall into rebel hands. Northern naval officials had not thought the Confederates could do much with the *Merrimack* in any case, because the Union fleet was blockading the Roads, thereby sealing off the water route to Richmond.

Perhaps most Northerners shared the opinion voiced by William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91) to a classics professor at the Louisiana Military Academy in December 1860—that Southerners were neither technologically inclined nor capable. Although it was true that the South's industrial capacity was dwarfed by that of the North, factories such as the Tredegar Iron Works in Richmond, using slave labor, turned out cannon and other weaponry. The works could also produce iron plates, with which Confederate engineers clad a slope-sided superstructure they built over the cut-down hull of the *Merrimack* after they refloated it and rechristened it the *Virginia.*

The prospect of an ironclad was terrifying. In the 1860s, the world's navies were making a slow transition from sail to steam-powered craft. Most modern ships were hybrids, rigged for sail but also equipped with steam engines driving sidewheels or screws (propellers). But even these hybrids were based on wooden hulls, which were vulnerable to naval artillery and to being rammed by vessels equipped with special ramming bows. An ironclad vessel could withstand bombardment while delivering a lethal pounding.

Fortunately for the Union navy, word of the *Merrimack*'s resurrection and conversion leaked out. In response, a contract was let to John Ericsson (1803–89), a Swedish-born New Yorker, to design and build a ship capable of killing an ironclad. Ericsson designed an ugly, flat raft of a vessel, equipped with his own invention, a revolving turret sporting two 11-inch guns. Importantly, unlike the



Battle of Hampton Roads *(Monitor* vs. *Merrimack/Virginia),* March 8–9, 1862

Merrimack conversion, the *Monitor* (as Ericsson's ship was called—a name soon applied to all steel-built or ironclad vessels with gun turrets, especially those designed for coastal bombardment) was not merely clad in iron and steel; it was built of it, from keel to superstructure.

Construction was put on a 100-day rush schedule, which Ericsson failed to meet. But when news came (from a Union sympathizer resident in Norfolk) that the *Merrimack/Virginia* was nearing completion, Ericsson redoubled his efforts, and the *Monitor* was launched on March 6. Clumsy and barely seaworthy, likely to be swamped by anything resembling high seas, she looked, with her protruding turret, like a "tin can on a shingle" or a "cheesebox on a raft."

Franklin Buchanan (1807–74), the former commandant of the Brooklyn Navy Yard, was made skipper of the *Merrimack/Virginia.* On March 8, he took her out to meet the wood-hulled Union fleet blockading Hampton Roads. *Merrimack/Virginia* was no more attractive than the *Monitor,* looking (according to one Union sailor) "like the roof

of a very big barn belching . . . smoke" and to another like "a huge half-submerged crocodile." She had no turret; instead, her guns were fixed along her sides, poking out through narrow ports cut into her sloping ironclad sides. A stout iron ram was mounted on her prow.

The blockading vessels and the Union shore batteries opened fire on the *Merrimack/Virginia,* but the cannonballs bounced off her sides like rubber. The Confederate craft opened up on *Cumberland,* killing five marines, then rammed the ship, sending her to the bottom of the shallow water of the Roads. USS *Congress,* which had run aground and was immobilized, was the next to take *Merrimack/Virginia*'s fire. After the Union vessel burst into flame, it struck colors and surrendered.

Under fire from Union shore batteries, *Virginia* broke off the engagement at the end of the day, having by this time forced the USS *Minnesota* and two smaller Union frigates aground. In the meantime, as word of the battle traveled north, there was panic in Washington. It was reported that the invincible *Virginia* would now sail up the Potomac and train her guns on the capital. President Abraham Lincoln's (1809–65) cabinet convened for an emergency meeting and could think of nothing better to do than pray. However, on March 9, the new USS *Monitor* arrived in Hampton Roads and took up a position alongside the disabled *Minnesota.* At nine in the morning, the *Virginia* fired on the *Monitor,* and the two vessels pounded one another for the next three hours.

Encased within the *Monitor*'s iron pilothouse was the ship's skipper, Lieutenant John L. Worden (1818–97), who about noon put his face to one of the narrow observation slits in the pilothouse wall. At that moment, a shot exploded against the pilothouse, temporarily blinding him. The *Monitor* drifted out of control, and Lieutenant Catesby ap Roger Jones (1821–77), commanding the *Merrimack/Virginia,* assumed that his adversary was withdrawing. His own vessel damaged and taking on water, his crew exhausted, and his supply of powder almost gone, Jones also withdrew.

On balance, the duel of the ironclads in Hampton Roads was a draw—though the *Monitor* had saved the *Minnesota,* had prevented the Confederates from breaking the blockade of Richmond, and had averted another Union military disaster. The duel in Hampton Roads changed naval warfare forever, but more immediately, it determined the course of naval combat for the rest of the Civil War. The Union could—and would—build far more ironclads than the Confederacy, and they would become important additions to the blockade of the South.

THE FALL OF NEW ORLEANS

By the winter of 1862, the denizens of New Orleans—168,000 usually carefree people who made up the most populous city in the Confederacy—were worried. They had suffered much since the start of the war, and the troubles seemed to keep coming. Early the year before, U.S. warships had arrived to close the mouth of the Mississippi River 100 miles south of the city, and the naval blockade had grown increasingly effective as 1861 wore on, all but destroying the rich international trade of the South's major port. As the wealthy and the well-dressed eyed the practically deserted docks and levees, once home to tall ships loaded with cotton and sugar and rice, they talked with growing certainty of a Federal attack on their city aimed at opening the length of the Mississippi to Yankee commerce. On barren Ship Island, south of Biloxi, Mississippi, a Federal army had been growing and for months had posed a threat to New Orleans, Mobile, and the Texas coast. Now came news that an army under Brigadier General Ulysses S. Grant was pushing south through Tennessee and had captured the crucial strongholds of Forts Henry and Donelson. No doubt he had New Orleans in his sights.

In the North, however, the powers that be were worrying about the two mighty strongholds that constituted the city's defense. Seventy-five miles below the city, facing each other across the great river, were a citadel built by the Spanish in 1790 and expanded two decades later named Fort St. Philip, and a modern pentagonal structure called Fort Jackson. Their reputation as impregnable was the reason that the option of a large-scale land assault on New Orleans from the north had dominated Union strategy as it had Rebel fears. But Union operations had gotten off to a slow start in the West, and the U.S. Army was beset by logistical problems, which prompted the Union to take a fresh approach. War Department officials increasingly looked to the navy.

David Dixon Porter (1813–91), one of the U.S. Navy's senior commanders, worked in secret to plan the assault, invasion, and capture of New Orleans. To lead the assault he recommended David Glasgow Farragut (1801–70), more than 60 years old and at present a member of the retirement board at Brooklyn Navy Yard. Farragut was without doubt the navy's most experienced sailor.

The plan called for Farragut to assemble his fleet on the lower Mississippi and then sail it past Forts Jackson and St. Philip. As the fleet steamed upriver, troops commanded by Major General Benjamin Butler (1818–93) were to land along Isle au Breton Sound and advance overland to attack the two forts. New Orleans's only remaining defense would be the weak Chalmette-McGehee fortifications four miles below the city.

Farragut's fleet consisted of two steam frigates, seven screw sloops, and nine gunboats, plus 20 schooners converted to carry mortars, artillery pieces designed to fire heavy 13-inch projectiles in a high trajectory that would be devastating against walled forts. The mortar boats were commanded by Porter. Farragut sailed his fleet into the mouth of the Mississippi and in mid-April began a week-long bombardment of Forts Jackson and St. Philip. Then, at 2 A.M. on April 24, having put the forts out of action, the Union fleet steamed upriver, dodging the blazing

unmanned fire rafts the Confederates launched against it. Other Confederate vessels offered combat but were quickly disposed of. Farragut's fleet soon broke through all opposition and steamed past the forts, which, cut off, surrendered.

General Butler marched his troops in to take possession of the fallen forts and the now defenseless city. New Orleans, and with it the mouth of the Mississippi, belonged to the Union again. The defeat of the Confederacy in the West, which had begun with Grant's capture of Forts Henry and Donelson, had progressed another giant step.

MOBILE BAY

Having been the prime force in the capture of New Orleans in 1862, Rear Admiral Farragut was soon running out of patience as commander of the squadron blockading the Gulf Coast. With New Orleans gone, the Confederates' principal Gulf port was Mobile, and despite the blockade, plenty of shipping still made it in and out of the harbor.

The only way to bottle up Mobile Bay was to capture it, but that would not be easy. Thirty miles long, the bay was defended by three forts, three gunboats, and a mighty ram named the *Tennessee*. Moreover, the channel that gave passage into the harbor was mined with (what were called in the 1860s) torpedoes. These were not the projectiles that submarines and other war craft launched during the two world wars of the 20th century but mines—tethered kegs (often they were beer barrels) that bobbed just at the surface of the water, packed with black powder, and would explode on contact with a vessel. The entire network of Confederate defenses was commanded by Franklin Buchanan, a man who had before the war served with Farragut. They knew one another well.

The odds, certainly, were against the Union's success. But Farragut liked to make his own odds. He considered the situation and decided to run the gantlet of the bay with a flotilla of four ironclad monitors and 14 conventional wooden vessels. The latter he lashed together in pairs, so that they could better endure the pounding they would get from the forts. At six on the morning of August 5, Farragut led in the flotilla. At first, Farragut stood on the deck of his flagship, *Hartford*. When the firing became intense and visibility was at a premium, the 63-year-old admiral climbed the rigging and ordered a sailor to lash him to the mast, so he would not fall if wounded. When the smoke of battle grew too thick for him to see, he untied himself, climbed even higher, then lashed himself to the rigging again.

The do-or-die moment came when one of the Union's monitors, the *Tecumseh,* struck a torpedo and sank. This gave the other captains pause, and the advance through the bay slowed, even as the Confederate bombardment continued. Farragut shouted to his flag captain, Percival Drayton, a phrase that has echoed through history: "Damn the torpedoes! Full speed ahead, Drayton!" The rest of the flotilla followed. One of the Confederate gunboats was captured, and two more were damaged beyond use. Only the *Tennessee,* Franklin Buchanan commanding, remained in the fight.

Buchanan decided to use his ship for the purpose it was intended. He built up a head of steam and aimed his ram directly for the *Hartford*. Surprisingly, the collision caused little damage, and the Union vessels *Monongahela, Lackawanna,* and *Hartford,* rammed the *Tennessee* repeatedly, by turns, at five-minute intervals. The *Tennessee* withstood this, and at one point the Union's choreography became so confused that the *Lackawanna* accidentally rammed the *Hartford*—at almost exactly the point where Farragut was standing. The admiral narrowly escaped death.

Although the *Tennessee* endured pounding from the wooden ships, it could not survive long under fire from the ironclads. By 10 o'clock, the vessel was out of control, Buchanan had been badly wounded, his leg broken, and *Tennessee*'s new captain, J. D. Johnston (1807–91), struck her colors.

Within the next two days, two of the Mobile Bay forts fell to the Union, and the last fort, Fort Morgan, surrendered on August 23. Farragut's victory at Mobile Bay was important certainly because it cut off a major source of supply to the Confederacy. But of even greater consequence is what it did to improve Abraham Lincoln's prospects for renomination. Opposed by Salmon P. Chase (1808–73), a member of his own cabinet, Lincoln was faced with Republicans who wanted to nominate the abolitionist John C. Frémont (1813–80) and a powerful Democratic candidate, George B. McClellan. With the fall of Mobile Bay, Lincoln's political prospects considerably brightened.

SUBMARINE SIDESHOW

In 1863, the Southern financier H. L. Hunley (d. 1863) commissioned and funded what is generally acknowledged as the first full-fledged submarine. Thirty feet long, five feet deep, and less than four feet wide, the *H. L. Hunley* was driven by a propeller powered by the human muscle of an eight-man crew turning a crankshaft. When water was let into her ballast tanks, the *Hunley* submerged and could stay underwater for about two hours, which was as long as the air held out. There was no working snorkel.

At the end of a 200-foot line, the *Hunley* towed a "torpedo" packed with 90 pounds of black powder. The submarine was to pass under a surface ship, blow some ballast to elevate a bit, then drag the towline against the target's keel. When the bow or keel made contact with the torpedo, the charge would blow a hole in the hull. General P. G. T. Beauregard (1818–93) predicted that the *Hunley* would mean the end of the Union blockade.

But the *Hunley* proved a grisly failure. She submerged beautifully, but getting back to the surface often presented a problem. During one test, while she was on the surface with her hatches open, a steamer next to her got under

way, flooding her with her wake. The *Hunley* sank with the loss of six crewmen; two men and the skipper were able to jump overboard before she went under. The vessel was refloated, and Hunley himself took command for some practice dives. On October 15, 1863, she dived in a burst of air bubbles. She did not resurface. A hatch had sprung a leak, and all hands, Hunley included, had drowned.

She was refloated a third time. When the hatch was opened, and Beauregard beheld the bodies of the doomed crew, he ordered that, from then on, the boat would be used only as a surface ram. On February 17, 1864, at 8:45 P.M., the *Hunley* rammed the nine-gun Union sloop *Housatonic*. Pierced through to the powder magazine, *Housatonic* was rocked by an explosion, heeled to port, and sank stern first. Five crew members were drowned, but the water in this part of Mobile Bay was so shallow that most of the crew saved themselves simply by clinging to masts and rigging, which remained above the surface as the ship hit bottom. The *Hunley* did not fare as well as its victim. Apparently, a hatch was left open, and the boat, swamped, went down with all hands.

DUEL ON THE HIGH SEAS

The *Alabama*'s illustrious career also came to a close. On Sunday, June 12, 1864, the USS *Kearsarge,* an eight-gun, 1,083-ton sloop with a crew of 162, was at anchor off the Dutch coast when Captain John A. Winslow (1811–73) received word that the *Alabama,* which he had been chasing for the better part of a year, had steamed into the French port of Cherbourg to discharge prisoners and take on coal. Winslow set sail immediately, reaching Cherbourg two days later. In deference to international law, Winslow assumed a position in the English Channel, just beyond the three-mile territorial waters limit—and he waited.

Raphael Semmes, commanding *Alabama,* was determined to fight his way out, and by the time he set sail, at 9:45 on Sunday morning, June 19, crowds of French onlookers were on hand to watch the battle. At 10:57, when the two vessels were a mile apart, *Alabama* opened fire with a 100-pound cannon. Semmes fired again and again, but Winslow was closing so fast that *Alabama*'s shots were all too high; the gunners could not adjust their trajectories quickly enough. Only after he had closed to half a mile did Winslow open fire, and with deadly accuracy. As noon approached, the *Alabama* began to sink. It disappeared under the waves at 12:24. *Kearsarge* took aboard 70 men, French boats picked up a dozen more, and a nearby British yacht, *Deerhound,* saved 42, including Semmes, who thereby evaded capture. After a tour of the Continent, Semmes returned to the Confederacy as commander of the James River squadron.

Further reading: Bern Anderson, *By Sea and by River: A Naval History of the Civil War* (New York: Da Capo, 1989; Jack D. Coombe, *Gunsmoke over the Atlantic: First Naval Actions of the Civil War* (New York: Bantam, 2003; Richard Hill, *History of Warfare: War at Sea in the Ironclad Age* (New York: Sterling, 2000); Ivan Musicant, *Divided Waters: The Naval History of the Civil War* (New York: Book Sales, 2000); Spencer C. Tucker, *Short History of the Civil War at Sea* (Wilmington, Del.: Scholarly Resources, 2002).

United States Civil War: Eastern Theater
(1861–1865)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The United States of America vs. the Confederate States of America
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Maryland, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia
DECLARATION: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
OUTCOME: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* U.S. Civil War: Historical Background
CASUALTIES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
TREATIES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background

This entry focuses on the United States Civil War in the eastern United States—Maryland, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia: the makeup of the two armies, the war's major commanders, and the war's resolution. *See* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND for the causes and outbreak of the Civil War and major statistics relating to the war. For actions relating to the war in eastern Kansas, Missouri, Texas, and the Southwest, and for the role of Native Americans in the war, *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: TRANS-MISSISSIPPI THEATER. For actions relating to the war in Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: WESTERN THEATER. For actions relating to coasts and oceans *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: AT SEA.

On the face of it, the Civil War was simple enough. The Confederate States—by June 8, 1861, there were 11 of them—were fighting for independence, while the Federal army was fighting to get them all back into the Union. The South, with a much smaller population, a severely limited economy, and a comparatively puny industrial capacity, seemed doomed. But the situation was not as simple as it seemed. The North was hardly unified in its will to fight. President Abraham Lincoln (1809–65) needed to keep focus on preserving the Union, even though his more radical Republican colleagues wanted the war to be one against slavery. But Lincoln knew that the majority of northerners were not radical Republicans and, at least at this point, would probably not be willing to fight a war to

end slavery. The border states—uncommitted wholly to North or South—would likely embrace the Confederacy if the war became a struggle for abolition. The South enjoyed more unity, at least at first. Its people saw themselves as defending their homeland, and this gave them a strength and advantage beyond what their numbers or "national" economy would suggest.

WINFIELD SCOTT AND THE NORTH'S INITIAL STRATEGY

The fall of Fort Sumter on April 14, 1861 brought demands in the North for an immediate, sweeping, and decisive military action. However, no one knew better than General Winfield Scott (1786–1865) that the U.S. Army, which numbered a paltry 16,000 officers and men at the time, was inadequate to put down a rebellion of the South. Scott, hero of both the WAR OF 1812 and the UNITED STATES-MEXICAN WAR, was general in chief of the army, and he had more military experience than anyone else, North or South. Scott decided that he needed time—time to build up the Union army. He proposed a two-pronged blockade of the Confederacy. He wanted to cut off Atlantic and Gulf ports, simultaneously sending 60,000 newly recruited troops and a flotilla of naval gunboats down the Mississippi to take New Orleans. By these two means, Scott proposed to cut off the South economically (it would be unable to import or export goods) and cut it in two geographically, East severed from West. While the breakaway states thus slowly but surely suffocated, additional assaults and offensives could be planned and then launched at will. On the map, Scott's strategy was certainly sound. The only catch was that the Southern coastline, with all its gulfs, inlets, twists, and turns, was about 3,500 miles long and offered some 180 ports, while the Union navy had pitifully few ships. Still it was a plan, and Abraham Lincoln announced it on April 19. The press, on both sides of the Mason-Dixon Line, derided it as "Scott's Anaconda" or the "Anaconda Plan," criticizing it as not only impractical, but also inglorious. In fact, it would, over time, prove quite effective, albeit not decisive.

THE BORDER STATES

While buying time with the Anaconda, Lincoln and generals also had to move carefully with regard to the border states. Delaware, Kentucky, Missouri, and Maryland were slave states but had not voted to secede. For the Union, losing them might mean losing the war before it had hardly begun; for the Confederacy, gaining the border states would mean a great advantage. Although slavery was legal in Delaware, secession was never a significant issue, and the small state's loyalty to the Union was certain. Kentucky, however, sat on the fence. Its governor was inclined to secede, but its legislature was solidly pro-Union. The result was the state's declaration of neutrality, and neither Lincoln nor Confederate president Jefferson Davis (1808–89) wanted to risk disturbing this delicate situation, which might propel Kentucky into the other camp. Although both the Union and the Confederacy unofficially raised troops in Kentucky, officially they left the state alone.

Missouri was another matter altogether. As in Kentucky, the legislature favored the Union, while Governor Claiborne F. Jackson (1806–62) was a secessionist. Shortly after the fall of Fort Sumter, Jackson attempted to seize the federal arsenal at St. Louis. When an aggressive Union army captain, Nathaniel S. Lyon (1818–61), blocked this effort, the governor's troops set up Camp Jackson on the outskirts of the city and bided their time.

Francis Blair (1821–75), from a powerful Missouri family and a friend of President Lincoln, persuaded the authorities in Washington that the Union general in command of the area, William A. Harney (1800–89), was far too passive about the continued threat the pro-Confederate troops posed, and Lyon was put in temporary command of Harney's brigade. He was soon promoted to brigadier general of volunteers and, on May 10, 1861, moved against Camp Jackson. He arrested the state militiamen there and, as he marched his prisoners through Saint Louis, found that he had incited a riot. Civilians shouted catcalls and pelted the Union soldiers with rocks. After one drunken St. Louisan wounded an officer with a random pistol shot, the Union troops returned fire, killing more than 20 civilians.

General Harney's policy had been to maintain something between a standoff and a truce with the governor's pro-Confederate forces. As in Kentucky, neither side wanted to take action that might tip Missouri one way or the other. Thrust into a position of authority, the fiery Lyon now repudiated Harney's prudent arrangement and marched off into southwestern Missouri to confront Jackson and his forces, sparking the fighting west of the Mississippi.

In both Kentucky and Missouri, pro-Confederate governors rejected Abraham Lincoln's call for troops after the South had fired on Fort Sumter. Maryland's pro-Union head of state—faced with considerable sympathy in his state for the Confederate cause—vacillated, sending men only to defend Washington, not to fight in the South. Given the fate of the Sixth Massachusetts Regiment as it passed through Maryland, the governor was right to move cautiously. On April 19, 1861, Colonel Edward F. Jones (discharged 1862) and his Bay State troopers were on the rails, heading toward Washington to garrison the beleaguered capital. When the troops changed trains in Baltimore, they were mobbed by Confederate sympathizers—toughs called "plug uglies," after the plug-style hats they wore—who hurled stones and bricks at the troops of the Sixth Massachusetts and killed four of them. The soldiers opened fire, killing 12 Baltimoreans and wounding a score of others.

Three days later, a citizens' committee, whose members would never have deigned to speak to a plug ugly on

the street, called on President Lincoln to protest his "pollution" of Maryland soil. Lincoln retorted that his men were neither moles nor birds and could not get to Washington by digging under Maryland soil or flying over it; in response, Baltimoreans cut telegraph lines, sabotaged railroad tracks, and destroyed bridges. For a time, Washington was cut off from communication with the North. Lincoln ordered General Benjamin F. Butler (1818–93) to occupy Baltimore, empowering him to arrest and jail all pro-secessionists, including nine members of the state legislature and the city's chief of police.

Finally, there was Virginia. The state's mountainous western counties had long been hostile to the relatively prosperous Tidewater, the seat of government, which the struggling frontier people felt cared and did little for them. When Virginia seceded on April 7, 1861, the westerners seized the opportunity to break away. Adopting the Latin motto *montani semper liberi* ("mountaineers are always free"), they carved a new territory and tied their fortunes to its destiny and the Union's. A fortnight later, Major General George B. McClellan's (1826–85) small but significant victory against the Confederates at Philippi, (West) Virginia, on June 3 would make their choice secure, and two years later, West Virginia would be admitted into the United States as a new state.

Since Fort Sumter's fall, Northern newspapers, spearheaded by Horace Greeley's (1811–12) *New York Daily Tribune,* had been calling for decisive action. Instead, the secessions continued—Arkansas on May 6, North Carolina on May 20, deeply divided Tennessee on June 8. Meanwhile, Federal forces won another minor but promising skirmish in the future West Virginia but lost a third, the so-called Battle of Big Bethel (or Great Bethel) on the Virginia peninsula between the York and the James rivers on June 10. Then, at last, in July, with the Union army massed in Alexandria, Virginia, President Lincoln and Scott directed General Irwin McDowell (1818–85) to make a major move. He was to attack Confederate forces under P. G. T. Beauregard (1818–93) gathered on a creek called Bull Run, which was located athwart the best direct route to Richmond.

THE BATTLE OF BULL RUN (OR FIRST MANASSAS)

An almost carnival atmosphere pervaded the opening of the first major battle of the Civil War. On July 21, Washington's high society rode out to nearby Centreville, Virginia, in carriages filled with picnic baskets and bottles of champagne, to view through field glasses and telescopes the action three miles off. The Union troops, too, most of them volunteers, had seemed in good spirits on the two-day approach march to the battlefield through the sweltering summer heat. Every few miles, they broke ranks to pick blackberries or to gather water.

The Confederate commander, P. G. T. Beauregard, had been alerted to the Union advance by means of uncensored newspaper articles and spies. He had thrown up his defenses near a railroad crossing called Manassas Junction. There, across tiny Bull Run Creek, his 20,000 Rebels faced 37,000 Yankees under command of Irvin McDowell. The numbers would grow more equitable as Rebel reinforcements, led by General Joseph E. Johnston (1807–91), arrived from the Shenandoah Valley.

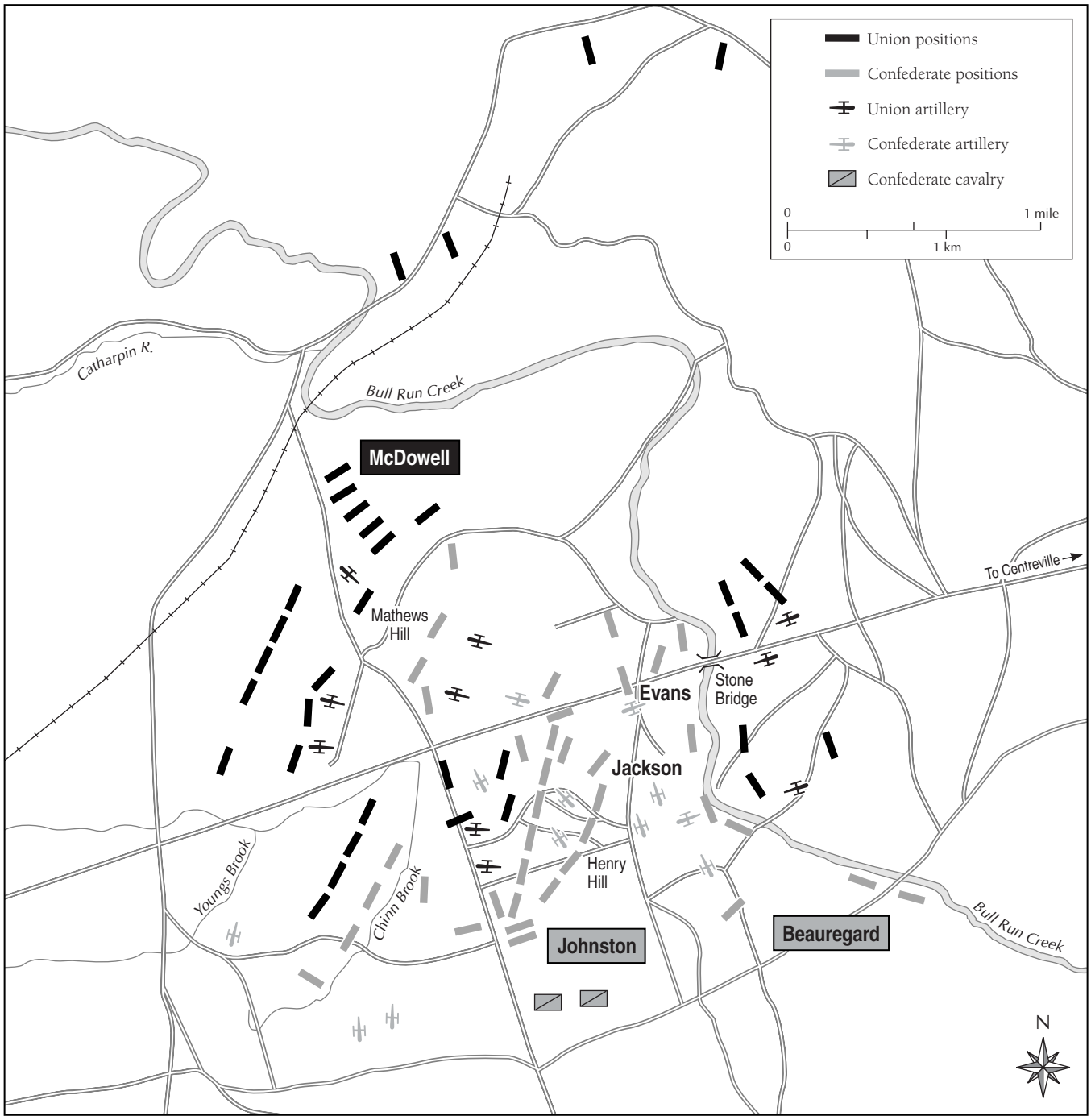
At first, the Northerners, cheered on by the civilian onlookers, seemed to carry the day, driving the Rebels from their positions and turning the Confederate left. But the Southerners took heart from the example of one Virginia brigade that held steadfastly to its position on a hill at the center of the Rebel line. The action earned the brigade's commander, General Thomas J. Jackson (1824–63), his nickname, "Stonewall." The Confederates rallied, and all afternoon the fighting seesawed back and forth. During a massive late-afternoon Confederate counterattack, the Union forces broke and ran—along with their noncombatant cheering section—all the way back to Washington. Jackson had ordered his men to "yell like Furies" as they chased the Yankees, and few of the latter ever forgot the first time they heard the eerie, high-pitched scream that came to be known as the "Rebel Yell."

McDowell's humiliating defeat would cost him his job. Yet the army of Beauregard and Johnston had not been much better organized, and Jefferson Davis, who would always tend to micromanage the South's military effort, refused to allow a pursuit of the routed Union forces, thereby neglecting to capitalize on the victory.

GEORGE McCLELLAN AND THE "SIEGE" AT YORKTOWN

George Brinton McClellan (1826–85) had won minor victories in western Virginia, at Phillipi on June 3, 1861, and at Rich Mountain on July 11. Although involving small numbers, Rich Mountain had secured for the Union the region that would become West Virginia.

In late October, McClellan sent a reconnaissance force under Brigadier General Charles P. Stone (1824–87) across the Potomac River to Ball's Bluff, a steep hill about 30 miles upriver from Washington. Pressing the reconnaissance aggressively, the Federal forces were trapped on the top of the bluff. Among the first to fall in the fighting on October 21 was Colonel Edward D. Baker (1811–61), a U.S. senator and a close personal friend of Lincoln. Demoralized by the sight of the colonel's body being carried from the front, a knot of inexperienced Union soldiers panicked and fled down the only path to safety—the bluff—and into boats that would take the men across the Potomac to the Maryland shore. The retreat became a rout, as, under intense fire from the Confederates, all tried desperately to find a place in the boats. Bunching together, the soldiers made an opportune blue-coated target. Federal losses were 49 killed, 158 wounded, and 714 captured or missing. Confederate losses were 33 killed, 115 wounded, and one missing.



First Battle of Bull Run, July 16–21, 1861

But McClellan emerged blameless from Ball's Bluff and was named first to replace McDowell as commander of the Army of the Potomac; he was subsequently named general in chief of all the Union armies, replacing the superannuated Winfield Scott.

In the wake of Bull Run, with its demoralization and shame, McClellan had reorganized, greatly augmented, and trained the Army of the Potomac and the rest of the Union forces. Yet as the final months of 1861 ticked away and dissolved into 1862, McClellan did nothing but continue to train and drill his army, giving Lincoln cause to doubt his general. On March 11, 1862, Lincoln formally relieved McClellan as general in chief of the armies, returning him to command of the Army of the Potomac only. When the president urged him to lead this now drilled and polished force from Washington to Richmond, McClellan proposed a more roundabout plan. Instead of driving directly overland from Washington to the rebel capital, McClellan proposed to transport his army in ships to a position below General Joseph E. Johnston's lines, outflanking him, as it

were, by sea—and thereby avoiding a major battle. By the time McClellan got under way, Johnston had left his position at Manassas (site of the First Bull Run battle) and moved south to the Rappahannock River, closer to Richmond. Not only did this require McClellan to rethink his plan, but when Union forces inspected the abandoned Confederate trenches, they discovered that what they had thought were cannon were nothing more than logs painted black to simulate cannon. "Quaker guns," the press called them. McClellan continued to delay his advance because he mistakenly believed that the Confederate army outnumbered him. However, if the enemy had moved south, so would he. McClellan decided to ferry his troops down to Fort Monroe, near Newport News and Hampton Roads, in the southeastern corner of Virginia, well below the Rebel capital. His plan was to land, then proceed north toward Richmond via the peninsula separating the York and James Rivers. That geographical feature gave the operation its name—the Peninsular Campaign.

The landing of the Army of the Potomac took place on April 4 under rainy, miserable conditions. Some 90,000 men slogged through the soup of a low-lying coastal mud flat; then, instead of attacking Yorktown—where George Washington had won the decisive battle of the AMERICAN REVOLUTION—McClellan's mud-soaked soldiers laid siege to the place, on April 5, the Union commander still believing himself outnumbered. In reality, Confederate general Joseph E. Johnston had only 15,000 men at Yorktown, while McClellan commanded about six times that number. By digging in instead of attacking, McClellan presented Johnston with ample time to reinforce his position. He also gave Robert E. Lee (1807–70), whose training was as a military engineer, valuable time to create elaborate permanent defenses around Richmond.

"STONEWALL" JACKSON IN THE SHENANDOAH

Robert E. Lee was a master at leveraging his small army in ways that tied down large Union forces. Recognizing that Union commanders would commit a disproportionate number of men to defend Washington, he assigned "Stonewall" Jackson to sweep through Virginia's Shenandoah Valley as if it were Washington's vast backyard, in order to persuade the North that an invasion of the capital, from the West, was imminent. Since classical times, victorious generals had devised strategies to "divide and conquer" their enemies. Jackson's Shenandoah Valley campaign was intended to compel the Union to divide its comparatively numerous forces, which could then be attacked and defeated in detail.

The first battle of the campaign was fought on March 23, at Kernstown, near Winchester. Jackson thought he was attacking the four-regiment rear guard of Union general Nathaniel Banks's (1816–94) army but found himself up against an entire 9,000-man division. Suffering a sharp defeat, Jackson retreated. Yet this immediate tactical defeat was quickly translated into a strategic triumph. For the battle convinced Northern leaders that an invasion was indeed afoot, and 35,000 men, under General Irvin McDowell, were detached from McClellan's peninsula command and dispatched to reinforce the defense of Washington. McClellan was left with 90,000 men.

On May 8, Jackson fought another tactically undistinguished battle, managing to repulse Federal forces at McDowell, Virginia, but suffering in the process twice the casualties (498 versus 256) of the attackers. From his costly but effective victory at McDowell, Jackson deployed his cavalry to deceive Banks into thinking he was moving west, toward Strasburg. However, after picking up reinforcements, Jackson marched the main body of his army, now about 17,000 men, to the Federal outpost at Front Royal, Virginia, which he attacked on May 23. Jackson easily outfought Banks, netting 904 prisoners and, even more important, two cannon and a cache of arms. The Confederates appropriated so much in the way of supplies from Banks's army that they dubbed him "Commissary Banks."

Banks retreated toward Winchester, Virginia, having divided his forces on May 24, when Jackson hit one of his columns at Middletown. It was a reduced army that Jackson attacked at Winchester on May 25, quickly overwhelming Banks and sending his army in full retreat back across the Potomac. Jackson pursued Banks to Harpers Ferry, then tweaked Union commanders and politicians alike by feigning a Potomac crossing before turning southward.

Banks's army was not the only Union force in the Shenandoah Valley. Some 16,000 men under General John C. Frémont (1813–90) attacked a Confederate bivouac at Cross Keys, Virginia, on June 8. His attack on Major General Richard S. Ewell's (1817–72) bivouac was readily beaten back. One of Frémont's abler subordinates, Brigadier General James Shields (1806–79), dispatched his vanguard under Colonel Samuel S. Carroll (1832–93) to raid Jackson's position at Port Republic on June 8. The Confederate general narrowly escaped capture, driving Carroll off with artillery and an infantry regiment. The next day, Jackson attacked Brigadier General Erastus Tyler (1822–91), who had reinforced Carroll northeast at Port Republic. At first Tyler's men seemed to prevail, but after hand-to-hand combat (a rare occurrence in this war), the Rebels captured an important Federal battery, while Frémont and his troops, stranded on the opposite bank of the flood-swollen South Fork, could only watch helplessly.

Despite his victory, Jackson realized that the columns of Shields and Frémont would unite; accordingly he pulled back, as did the Union forces. Jackson's Shenandoah Valley campaign, perhaps the most spectacular and brilliant military maneuver of the entire war, had come to an end. Jackson had used some 17,000 men to occupy and immobilize 50,000 Union soldiers, thereby denying to McClellan the overwhelming numbers he felt necessary to attack Richmond. The Confederate capital was spared.

Meanwhile news of Union success on the Mississippi had begun reaching the East (*see* U.S. CIVIL WAR: WESTERN THEATER), and McClellan decided he was finally ready to move against Yorktown. To his acute embarrassment, the Confederates, under General John Bankhead Magruder (1810–71) (nicknamed "Prince John," for his regal manner), had withdrawn from that position to move closer to Richmond. Cavalry commanded by General James Ewell Brown ("Jeb") Stuart (1833–64) covered the withdrawal, and, on May 4–5, McClellan's subordinates General George Stoneman (1822–94) and General Joseph Hooker (1814–79) engaged this rear guard at Williamsburg, the colonial capital of Virginia but now no more than a sleepy and rather decayed little town.

The battle was inconclusive, but McClellan claimed victory. He had, he claimed, chased Magruder out of Yorktown and chased Stuart out of Williamsburg. The northern press accepted "Little Mac's" interpretation and congratulated him. Lincoln, however, fretted, and McClellan himself was about to reap the harshest reality of his Peninsula Campaign in a grinding series of battles that would be remembered simply as "the Seven Days."

ROBERT E. LEE AND THE SEVEN DAYS (THE PENINSULA CAMPAIGN)

McClellan's counterpart in the South—and soon his nemesis—was Robert E. Lee. Before the Civil War, few people had known Lee, though he had served with distinction in the UNITED STATES–MEXICAN WAR. Lee's first field command, in western Virginia, proved worse than disappointing. On September 11, 1861, he attacked a Union position at Cheat Mountain in western Virginia, only to be tricked by some Union prisoners who persuaded him that the Cheat summit was held by 4,000 Union troops, far outnumbering him. In fact, only 300 Union soldiers held the summit, but Lee hesitated, lost the element of surprise, and soon found himself facing all-too-real Union reinforcements. After a two-day skirmish, Lee withdrew. Although his casualties were light, it had been a most inauspicious maiden battle for the general, whom the Richmond papers derided as "Granny Lee" and "Evacuating Lee." Though he then performed important, if not exciting, work improving the coastal fortifications, and though—as Jefferson Davis's personal military adviser—he had given Stonewall Jackson the idea and impetus for his Shendandoah Valley campaign, Lee was not personally garnering much glory.

All that would change in "the Seven Days." For the first time, Lee was placed at the head of a major army, which he renamed the Army of Northern Virginia and placed on the defensive against the ever-cautious McClellan. Lee had been given the command when Confederate general Joe Johnston was wounded during an early battle at Fair Oaks, a bloody draw on a rainy May 30, just outside Richmond, where 5,000 Union and 6,000 Confederate soldiers fell. In one of his first moves, Lee sent his cavalry, under Jeb Stuart, on a spectacular reconnaisance mission around the entire of the Union forces, after which Lee launched a series of daring attacks.

On June 26, McClellan had at last mustered the will to mount an attack on Richmond, but Lee hit him first, at Mechanicsville, in the first battle of the Seven Days. Lee struck the Union right; the attack cost him 1,500 men, but he pressed on, determined to drive McClellan off the peninsula entirely. The fighting lasted a full week at such backwater spots as Gaines's Mill and Savage's Station and Fraser's Farm. At Malvern Hill on July 1, Union artillery and rifle fire cut the Confederates to ribbons as they came charging up a long slope. During the course of the week, 15,000 bleeding Rebels were carried to Richmond, where every house was thrown open for the wounded.

By week's end, Lee had lost twice as many men as his adversary, but he had won the psychological advantage. Though all but one of the battles were Union victories, McClellan reacted as if they were defeats, allowing himself and his huge army to be backed down the peninsula until he reached the protection of the Union gunboats on the James River on July 3. Despite the urging of Union officers under his command, an unnerved McClellan refused to counterattack a foe weakened by the loss of 20,000 men.

Lincoln himself sailed down to see his commanding general three days later, only to hear from McClellan that he had not actually lost, only failed to win because of Lee's superior numbers. When he told his frustrated president that he needed 50,000, perhaps a 100,000 more men, Lincoln at length withdrew McClellan's army from the peninsula and took steps to replace its faint-hearted leader.

SECOND BATTLE OF BULL RUN (SECOND MANASSAS)

Fed up with McClellan's timidity after the Seven Days campaign, Lincoln finally relieved the "Young Napoleon," replacing him with two veterans from the West. Henry "Old Brains" Halleck (1815–72) became general in chief of the U.S. Army, and John Pope (1822–92) took over McClellan's troops north and west of Richmond. A condescending braggart, Pope was not only unpopular with his fellow officers but also was as despised by the common Union soldier as McClellan had been beloved. Confederate soldiers came to hate Pope for the harshness with which he treated Southern civilians. As soon as it was clear that McClellan no longer threatened Richmond, Lee—again defying traditional military doctrine—split his command in two and headed north to "surpress" the "miscreant" Pope.

Stonewall Jackson caught up with Pope's troops on August 9 at Cedar Mountain near Culpeper Courthouse in Virginia and fought them to a draw, which some authorities deem a Confederate victory. Jeb Stuart struck next, raiding Pope's headquarters, confiscating $35,000 in cash, a notebook indicating the disposition of Union troops, and Pope's dress coat. In a long, clockwise flanking march

that was fast becoming a typical Lee stratagem, Jackson first turned west, then east on August 26 to lead his 25,000 men on a remarkable two-day, 56-mile journey to cut Pope's railway communications. Although Herman Haupt (1817–1905), the North's railroading wizard, had the tracks repaired and the trains running within four days, Pope lost Jackson for two days, until he found him ensconced on Stony Ridge, overlooking the Manassas battlefield of the year before.

Boasting he would "bag the whole crowd," Pope launched an attack on August 29. The Rebels held, though late in the battle many of them were reduced to hurling rocks at the Yankees, having run out of bullets. Convinced they would flee, Pope was promising a relentless pursuit for the next day, just as the second half of Lee's command, under General James P. Longstreet (1821–1904), arrived at 2 P.M. Five divisions stormed into the Union flank along a two-mile front. By the time the fighting ended, the Union had suffered some 16,000 casualties, more than five times the number killed, wounded, or missing at the First Battle of Bull Run. Lincoln, his troops demoralized, his cabinet openly critical, his political enemies in an uproar, reluctantly sent the disgraced Pope off to fight Sioux in Minnesota (*see* UNITED STATES–SIOUX WAR [1876–1877]) and gave McClellan back his command.

ANTIETAM (SHARPSBURG)

In early September 1862, Lee invaded the North. The army he led looked like anything but an army of invasion. Ragtag and exhausted, many of his men lacked shoes and ammunition. Yet Lee understood that the South could not win a long war of attrition. The North, with more men, money, and munitions, would surely prevail if the struggle went on long enough. Lee saw that the best hope for the South was to win over the border states—of which Maryland was the most important—gain international credibility, and, in the process, destroy the North's will to fight. Lee had driven McClellan from Southern soil and now hoped by attacking Maryland to persuade the British to recognize the Confederacy as an independent nation. On the other hand, Lincoln badly needed a victory in order to emancipate the South's slaves without such action seeming an act of desperation in the face of the South's many victories on the battlefield hitherto. After several weeks of marching—outgunned, undermanned, and overextended—Lee was on the verge of calling off the invasion when Stonewall Jackson announced he had taken the Federal arsenal at Harpers Ferry. Lee came to a halt and turned to face McClellan.

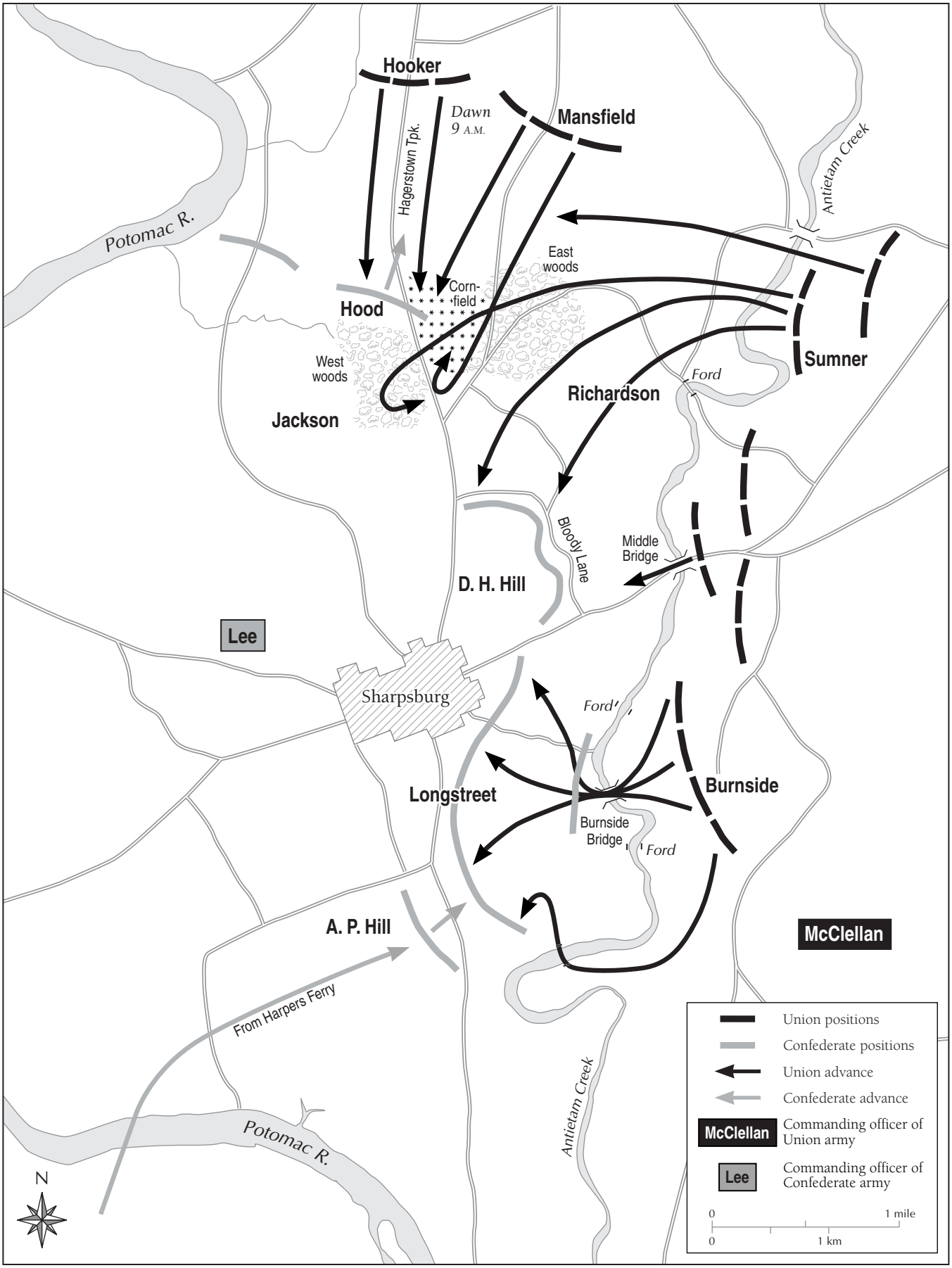
Meanwhile, something incredible had happened. Lee had earlier drawn up Special Order No. 191, which detailed his plan for opening the invasion of the North. Lee distributed copies of the document to his chief generals. Stonewall Jackson copied a set for General Daniel Harvey Hill (1821–89), who, having already been sent the orders by Lee, discarded the copy. (Recent scholarship suggests it may have been accidentally dropped by one of Jackson's staff.) On September 13, Union troops occupied the campground Hill had just vacated. There a Union private, W. B. Mitchell (d. 1883), found the discarded document wrapped around some cigars. Realizing he had found something more important than cigars, Mitchell passed the paper to his superiors, who sent it to McClellan.

McClellan saw that Lee's plan was a hazardous one: He would divide his forces in two, with Jackson heading toward Harpers Ferry and Longstreet toward Hagerstown. McClellan was initially thrilled by the discovery of the order, but then began to fear a trap. He mistakenly believed Lee had twice the number of men he actually commanded, and he therefore hesitated, moving with an excess of caution. A part of McClellan's army under General Alfred Pleasanton (1824–97) fought an engagement against Hill at South Mountain on September 14. Although the Confederates yielded, more precious time was lost, giving Lee the time he needed to set up a defensive line at the western Maryland town of Sharpsburg, behind Antietam Creek.

At dawn on September 17, the Union's General Joseph "Fighting Joe" Hooker led the attack against Lee at Antietam, coming out of the north down the Hagerstown Pike. He drove back Stonewall Jackson's brigade so far, so quickly that Lee was forced to order up reserves. D. H. Hill and James Longstreet's Rebels joined the battle in the woods and the cornfields around a church belonging to a pacifist sect called the Dunkers or Dunkards. In late morning, a Yankee division broke through the Confederate line, only to be destroyed in a surprise counterattack by troops just arrived from Harpers Ferry. At midday, the fighting came to center on a sunken farm road called ever afterward "Bloody Lane."

In the afternoon, Union troops under Major General Ambrose B. Burnside (1824–81) tried to take the only bridge across the Antietam, which was within Rebel rifle range, while Brigadier General Robert A. Toombs's (1810–85) Georgians, hiding behind trees and rock walls, used the Yankees for target practice. When Burnside's battered troops established their bridgehead in midafternoon, the weight of the Union forces finally drove the Rebels back to the outskirts of Sharpsburg. The Northern army was in a position to cut off a Confederate retreat across the Potomac, but McClellan failed to press his advantage and refused to commit the essential reserves. Before dusk, yet another Confederate division, led by General A. P. Hill (1825–65), arrived from Harpers Ferry and smashed into Burnside's flank, destroying the North's momentum.

By dark, an eerie silence had fallen on the center of the battlefield. On the killing fields 6,000 lay dead, another 17,000 wounded. With barely 30,000 men left in his entire army, Lee stayed on, as if to taunt McClellan, whose mind seemed an open book to the Rebel commander. When McClellan once again refused the challenge, Lee and all his men slipped away on the 18th. McClellan had won a costly, if strategically vital victory, but he now appeared reluctant even to give chase to Lee.



Battle of Antietam, September 17, 1862

Lincoln grew impatient. He visited Antietam to see the situation there for himself. After his return to Washington, on October 1, he ordered McClellan to cross the Potomac and give battle to the enemy, but McClellan did nothing. Lee, in the meantime, sent Stuart back into the North. This time, it was not into Maryland, a contested border state, but into Pennsylvania, a solid, nonslavery state of the Union. Jeb Stuart, who had famously ridden around McClellan's army before the Battle of Mechanicsville at the start of the Seven Days, rode around him a *second* time, during October 9–12, 1862, to raid the Pennsylvania town of Chambersburg. The raid was of no great military significance—500 horses were captured and a machine shop was wrecked, along with several stores—but it tweaked the collective noses of the North. Stuart's cavalry troopers had bivouacked openly in the streets of a Union town in a Union state.

On October 26, McClellan finally began to march, but so slowly that Lee was able to interpose his army between the Federal forces and Richmond. On November 7, 1862, President Lincoln relieved McClellan, replacing him as commander of the Army of the Potomac with Ambrose Burnside. Lincoln did make use of Antietam as the occasion on which to issue his preliminary Emancipation Proclamation.

AMBROSE BURNSIDE AND FREDERICKSBURG

Like McClellan, Ambrose Burnside was extremely popular with his troops, but, in contrast to McClellan, he was modest and self-effacing, with little confidence in his capacity for leadership. He twice declined Lincoln's offer of command of the Army of the Potomac, accepting, with great reluctance, only upon the president's third entreaty. Even before he ordered a shot fired, Burnside blundered. He reorganized the structure of the army into three two-corps divisions, commanded by generals Edwin V. Sumner (1797–1863), Joseph Hooker, and William B. Franklin (1823–1903). This gave the Army of the Potomac an impressively streamlined appearance on paper, but it made movement in the field unwieldy. Nevertheless, he was determined to be the aggressive general for whom his president longed. Burnside marched south toward Richmond with 120,000 troops. In late November 1862, he reached a line of hills overlooking Fredericksburg, Virginia. The bridges across the Rappahannock River had been destroyed, so Burnside was forced to await the arrival of pontoons before he could cross and take the town. By the time they arrived, 17 days later, Lee had managed to entrench 75,000 troops in a six-and-one-half-mile line along the crest of the hills.

On December 11, the Federal forces began shelling Fredericksburg, setting much of the town on fire. Against what seemed token resistance, the Union soldiers crossed the river on six pontoon bridges under cover of their artillery and fought house to house, dodging Rebel snipers, to assume control of the city, which they then looted. Burnside, believing that Lee expected him to cross the Rappahannock either above or below Fredericksburg, had opted for a frontal assault. Lee, hardly trusting his good fortune, had only lightly defended Fredericksburg in anticipation of this straight-ahead approach in order to reinforce Longstreet's men along the crest of Marye's Heights overlooking downtown. Now, Burnside had to face scaling those heights dead-on. The result was a disastrous Union defeat.

The Union assault came in two waves on December 13. Union general William Franklin attacked Stonewall Jackson on the left, while the main force under Hooker attempted to storm the heavily fortfied Marye's Heights in front. Fourteen charges later, 13,000 Union troops lay dead, dying, or wounded—the same number of casualties the Union army had suffered on the killing fields at Antietam.

THE MUD MARCH

In contrast to McClellan, Burnside wanted desperately to please the administration in Washington. Unfortunately, the action he proposed was desperate indeed. After the useless bloodshed of Fredericksburg, he was determined to try to cross the Rappahannock again. He started to turn back to cross the river downstream from Lee's strong position, but some of Burnside's alarmed subordinates alerted Lincoln, who vetoed the movement. So the Army of the Potomac huddled in winter quarters until January 20, 1863, when Burnside began to execute what looked to be a much sounder strategy. He would envelop Lee's army via a river crossing called Banks's Ford. But a two-day torrent of icy rain transformed the scarred landscape into a quagmire, and the movement became known as the "Mud March." The all-too-symbolic spectacle of an entire army bogged down in impassable mud was too much for the Union and Lincoln to bear. On January 26, 1863, the president relieved Burnside as commander of the Army of the Potomac and replaced him with Joseph Hooker.

FIGHTING JOE HOOKER AND CHANCELLORSVILLE

Hooker had graduated from West Point in 1837 and served in the Second Seminole War and in the U.S.-Mexican War, fighting alongside Lee and Jackson, long before anyone called him "Stonewall." Hooker now roused the Army of the Potomac out of its despair and restored its morale. He also revised and expanded role for the cavalry, fashioning it into a vitally important instrument of reconnaissance.

By the early spring of 1863, Hooker was in high spirits—his troops were well fed, well clothed, well armed, well trained, and in a state of restored morale. He had twice as many fighting men as Robert E. Lee's 60,000 troops, which stood uneasy guard outside Fredericksburg just across the Rappahannock River from Hooker's position. Boasting that he would show Lee no mercy, Hooker

split his force in three. He sent 10,000 cavalry upstream to cut Rebel supply lines. Another 70,000 infantry headed upriver to attack Lee's left, camping on the night of April 30, 1863, outside Chancellorsville. Hooker ordered his 40,000 remaining troops to feign an advance on Fredericksburg to keep Lee in place until the flanking attack was under way.

Lee, however, did not take the bait. Guessing correctly that the main threat lay at Chancellorsville, he left a mere 10,000 infantry under Colonel Jubal Early (1816–94) to hold Fredericksburg and marched the rest into battle on May 1. Hooker ordered his superior force to withdraw to defensive positions around the little Virginia crossroads after which the battle would be named. The next day, Lee split his troops again, sending Jackson and 30,000 foot soldiers—screened by Jeb Stuart's cavalry—on a flanking maneuver of his own across the enemy's front while holding his line against Hooker's main force with only 15,000 men. The battle lasted for two more days, until Hooker—seemingly mesmerized by Lee into never employing more than half his force at any one time—decided to retreat back across the river.

It was yet another remarkable but costly Southern victory. Although the Union had lost 17,000 men to Lee's 13,000, the figures represented only 17 percent of Hooker's army compared to nearly one-fourth of the Confederate forces. Among the 13,000 had been Stonewall Jackson, Lee's strong right arm, shot accidentally by his own pickets.

NEW STRATEGY, BRANDY STATION, WINCHESTER, AND STUART'S RAID

Lee saw that Chancellorsville had raised the spirits of the South, even as food, money, and men continued to dwindle away. He saw too that Chancellorsville had appalled and disheartened the well-fed and populous North. It was, he therefore decided, now or never. He had gambled at Second Bull Run and at Chancellorsville by doing what the textbooks said one must never do—divide forces in the face of the enemy—and he had won. Now he embarked on a gamble with even bigger stakes. He would again invade the North. His object was a swift, massive, and punishing raid to demolish the Union's will to continue the fight and thereby force a favorably negotiated peace. If Lee lost, the Confederacy might well lose its principal army and, with it, the war.

But there was one additional factor pushing Lee to an invasion of Pennsylvania. Lee recognized the significance of what Union general Ulysses S. Grant (1822–85) was accomplishing along the Mississippi. It was now almost June, and Lee understood that Vicksburg, last of the Confederate citadels on the great river, would ultimately fall. He knew that when it did, many of those western-based Union troops would be moved east. So Lee moved north, beginning on June 3. He divided his army into three corps. Leading the movement was a corps commanded by James Longstreet, who, of Lee's three lieutenants, was the only one to raise objections to the scheme of invading Pennsylvania. He thought it far better to launch offensives within Virginia, while reinforcing Bragg in the menaced area of Chattanooga and sending troops west in an effort to turn the tables on Grant. But he swallowed his doubts and marched in obedience to Lee's command, pausing with his corps at Culpepper Court House, Virginia, while another corps, under Richard S. Ewell, advanced against piecemeal Union detachments still in the lower Shenandoah Valley. The third corps, commanded by A. P. Hill, remained at Fredericksburg, eye to eye with the Yankees there.

Hooker had a plan for responding to these movements. He proposed to ignore Lee's move and advance against Richmond, reasoning that this would soon bring Lee marching back southward. Badly shaken by his performance at Chancellorsville, Lincoln and his advisers ordered Hooker to pursue instead a defensive course only and follow Lee. So, on June 5, doggedly following Lee, Hooker ordered General John Sedgwick (1813–64) to make a reconnaissance to determine if the Confederates had left Fredericksburg. The result was a skirmish at Franklin's Crossing, Virginia, after which Hooker ordered a full-scale cavalry reconnaissance under Alfred Pleasanton to ascertain the extent and significance of Lee's movements. The result of this, on June 9, was the Battle of Brandy Station, the first real cavalry engagement of the Civil War and the largest cavalry engagement ever fought in North America. Twenty thousand horsemen were engaged, charging and countercharging for a full 12 hours. Union casualties numbered 936 killed, wounded, and captured; Confederate casualties were 523. In terms of losses and because Confederate general Jeb Stuart remained in possession of the field after the battle, Brandy Station must be counted a Union defeat. Yet in an important sense it was a Union victory. For the first time in the war, the Union cavalry, neglected by McClellan but brushed up and bolstered by Hooker, had more than stood its own against Jeb Stuart, who was by now legendary and believed to be unbeatable.

But Brandy Station also alerted Lee to the fact that Hooker knew of his movements. With his usual strategic acuity, Lee concluded that Hooker might now turn to advance on Richmond—the very plan Hooker had, in fact, proposed, but which had been overruled. On June 10, Lee dispatched Ewell to attack the remaining Union garrisons in the Shenandoah Valley, which would (Lee hoped) force Washington to recall the Army of the Potomac for its defense. Ewell's forces clashed with Union troops at Berryville (June 13) and Martinsburg (June 14). Most of the Union soldiers managed to evade capture in these two places, but Ewell's attack on Winchester (June 13–15) was a Union disaster. The Confederates bottled up the Union garrison in the forts west of the town, with the result that 4,443 soldiers became casualties, of whom 3,538 were taken prisoner. Ewell's losses were a mere 269.

The first units of the Army of Northern Virginia crossed the Potomac into Maryland on June 15. Stuart used his cavalry to create a counter-reconnaissance screen to prevent Pleasanton's Union cavalry from discovering Lee's objective—Washington or Pennsylvania. This resulted in a series of cavalry duels at Aldie, Virginia (June 17); Middleburg, Virginia (June 19); and Upperville, Virginia (June 21). Following these engagements, Stuart, still smarting from Brandy Station, thought of a way to redeem himself. While the main body of Lee's army joined the advance detachments in crossing the Potomac, wheeling toward the east, Stuart was to serve as Lee's "eyes," moving along the army's right flank and front to report on the whereabouts of Hooker's forces. Stuart had a choice of taking a short, direct route across the Potomac or a longer route clear around Hooker's rear and flank. He secured Lee's permission to take the longer way around, which, he argued, would give him an opportunity to raid Hooker's supply depots and lines. One cannot help suspecting, however, that Stuart, as vainglorious as he was skilled, wanted yet a third opportunity to make a dashing and spectacular ride around a Union army.

Stuart's "Gettysburg Raid" did allow the cavalryman to cut across and disrupt Hooker's supply lines, and he was also able to capture 125 U.S. Army wagons at Rockville, Maryland, as well as take some 400 prisoners in skirmishes at Fairfax Courthouse, Virginia (June 27); Westminster, Maryland (June 29); Hanover, Pennsylvania (June 30); and Carlisle, Pennsylvania (July 1). Still, the Union army proved to be more spread out and active than had been expected. The result was that the ride around the army took much longer than Stuart had anticipated, and, for 10 critical days he was out of touch with Lee. Because Stuart's cavalry was Lee's eyes, this meant that Lee advanced into Pennsylvania blind.

Robert E. Lee rarely allowed himself to be surprised, but without reports from Stuart, he could only assume that Hooker had not yet followed him across the Potomac. Lee therefore dispersed his forces in a long line, with the rear at Chambersburg, Pennsylvania, and the front of the army at York, 50 miles to the east. The fact was that Hooker had crossed the Potomac during June 25–26; it was not until June 28 that Lee learned that the entire Army of the Potomac was concentrated around Frederick, Maryland, directly south of the 50-mile-long and highly vulnerable flank of the Army of Northern Virginia.

Lee learned one other thing as well. The Army of the Potomac was no longer under the command of Joseph Hooker. Despite opposition from Secretary of the Treasury (and major political rival) Salmon P. Chase (1808–73) and others, Lincoln relieved him with the curmudgeonly Major General George Gordon Meade (1815–72).

GEORGE MEADE AND GETTYSBURG

An irascible temperament is one thing when it is accompanied by genius. But Meade, though competent, was no genius. Yet he would find himself directing the great make-or-break battle of the war.

On June 30, 1863, the Confederates of A. P. Hill's division were foraging in the Pennsylvania town of Gettysburg in search of badly needed shoes and conducting reconnaissance. When the detachment reported that Gettysburg was occupied by Union cavalry, General Henry Heth (1825–99) secured General Hill's permission to take a brigade into town to clear it out.

The cavalrymen in Gettysburg were a division under General John Buford (1826–63). They were the advance guard of the main body of the Army of the Potomac, yet Lee, out of touch with the errant Stuart, was only just now learning how close that army was, thanks to a spy known to history only as Harrison. Based on Harrison's information, Lee decided that he must concentrate his army here, at Gettysburg. He reasoned that Meade's army was spread out, and that if he could quickly concentrate at Gettysburg, he could attack and destroy it in detail. With the Army of the Potomac battered on its own soil, the Northern will to fight might well collapse.

When John Buford reached Gettysburg, he immediately grasped the importance of holding the high ground called McPherson's Ridge, just west of town. He knew that he would be badly outnumbered, but he also knew that he would have the advantage of fighting from the high ground and that his men would be fighting with brand-new breechloading Spencer carbines, which would allow them to load and fire faster than the Confederates, who were armed with old muzzle-loading muskets.

The fighting began at 9:00 on the morning of July 1. Buford's dismounted cavalry held off the first waves of General Heth and General William Pender's (1834–63) Confederate infantry divisions while General John Fulton Reynolds's (1820–63) I Corps and General O. O. Howard's (1830–1909) XI Corps rushed to reinforce Buford. Reynolds's troops began to arrive by 10:30 in the morning, but by this time, the Confederates were massing and had built up superior strength. The I Corps commander took personal command of the celebrated 1,800-man "Iron Brigade" in McPherson's Woods, to the west of the ridge. Within minutes, the major general, the man many thought should have been in Meade's place, was shot through the head by a rebel sniper. John Reynolds died instantly.

After O. O. Howard and his XI Corps arrived, shortly before noon, the situation had become terribly confused. Union forces were repeatedly pushed back, only to rally and counterattack. When Howard, who assumed overall command in the field following the death of Reynolds, tried to join a division commanded by Major General Carl Schurz (1829–1906) to the beleaguered brigades of I Corps, the units failed to meet, and the combined strength of Confederate units under Generals Robert Rodes (1829–64), Jubal Early, and A. P. Hill at last drove the Union troops off McPherson's Ridge and their other positions west and north of Gettysburg. The blue-coated sol-

diers retreated into the town, fighting hand to hand near Pennsylvania College and ultimately retreating southeast of the town down the Baltimore Pike.

The first day's fighting ended in a Southern victory, but the battle was not over. The Union had lost the high ground of McPherson's Ridge, but rout of the Union forces had been stemmed, and what is more, it had been stemmed on yet more high ground: East Cemetery Hill, Cemetery Ridge, and Culp's Hill, running from due south to southeast of town. The Confederates occupied some high ground, too: Oak Hill, northwest of town, and Seminary Ridge, due west of Gettysburg.

Thus, toward the end of July 1 the armies were in place on hills separated by a mile of the fields and woods that lay to the southwest of town. It was not like Lee to leave a situation in such a static state, and indeed he had ordered Ewell to follow up on his initial rout of the Union army. Following up meant an attack, on July 1, against Cemetery Hill. But Lee's order was couched in ambiguous and indirect language, which was more of a request than a command. Ewell did not carry it out, because he believed his men needed a rest. The inaction would prove fatal.

Dawn of July 2 found Lee exhausted and sick, either with the diarrhea that was endemic in military camps or, some scholars have suggested, with the symptoms of a mild heart attack. Nevertheless, he met with his corps commanders to give detailed orders for an offensive he hoped would crush the enemy army. Stuart was still absent, and Lee was not fully aware of how many more Union troops were massing at Gettysburg, though he knew they were massing, and that made him all the more eager to strike vigorously to finish what had been started the day before.

As usual, it was Longstreet who dissented. He believed—rightly, as it turned out—that nearly all of the Army of the Potomac would be massing against the Confederates on this day. He feared that the Army of Northern Virginia would be overrun and overwhelmed. His advice was to pursue a policy of what he called "strategic offense—tactical defense." That is, he proposed to manipulate the Union army into attacking the Confederate army where and when it was strategically advantageous to the Confederacy and, when attacked, to defend, inflicting great losses on Union forces. But Lee believed that to withdraw his army after it had won a victory would demoralize the men and result in losing this opportunity to win a decisive triumph.

The Union line was deployed in the shape of a giant fishhook. The hook's barb was just south of Culp's Hill, its turn was at Cemetery Hill, and the end of its shaft—its tie-end—at two hills, well to the south of town, known as Little Round Top and Big Round Top. Lee directed Longstreet to attack the Union left, the shaft of the fishhook running along Cemetery Ridge and terminating at the Little and Big Roundtops. Lee was northwest of the fishhook, where the curve met the shaft. Ewell, to the north and northeast, above the curve of the fishhook, was to be prepared to swing down to smash into the Union's right.

Despite the defeat of July 1, Meade now had almost 90,000 men at Gettysburg, opposing 75,000 Confederates, and the Union army's central position, surrounded by the Rebels, actually magnified this numerical superiority.

The southernmost Union corps, the tie-end of the fishhook terminating at the Roundtops, was commanded by Major General Daniel Sickles (1825–1914). He advanced impulsively, leaving Little Round Top undefended, save for a few signalmen. General Gouverneur K. Warren (1830–82), Meade's chief engineer, noticed this and realized in an instant that General John Bell Hood's (1831–79) division would seize that high ground and thereby be in position to crush the Union's flank, traveling right up the shaft of the Union fishhook, beginning at the tie-end.

Warren hurriedly rounded up a brigade led by Colonel Strong Vincent (1837–63) and sent it to occupy Little Round Top. Vincent was soon killed in the action. A brigade under Brigadier General Stephen Weed (1834–63) also fought Hood, and at the extreme south end of the Union flank was the 20th Maine, a battle-battered regiment commanded by Colonel Joshua Lawrence Chamberlain (1828–1914).

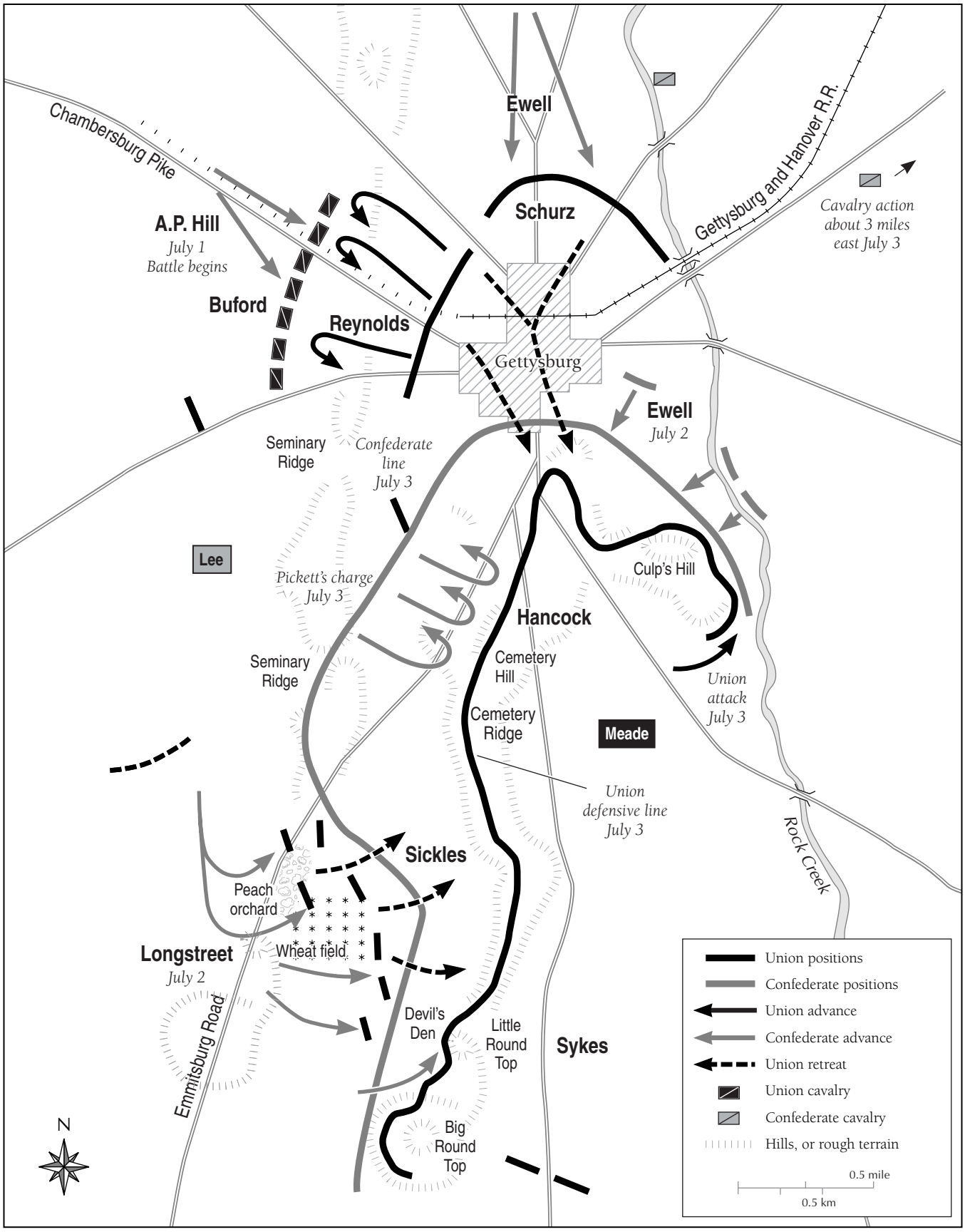
Chamberlain was not a professional soldier, but had been professor of rhetoric at Bowdoin College. He had taken a sabbatical in 1862 intending to study in Europe but joined the Union army instead, and now, with his regiment at less than half strength—under 500 men, including some deserters who had been put under his guard—he not only held off a superior force of Alabama troops but also defeated them. With his ammunition exhausted, a circumstance that would have prompted others to surrender, he led a fierce downhill bayonet charge, routing the Rebels.

The Confederates still held Devil's Den, below Little Round Top, and fired on the reinforced defenders of that hill from behind boulders. Action was hot too in the Peach Orchard and the Wheatfield, to the northwest of Little Round Top. In the Wheatfield, no fewer than six Confederate attacks were met by six Union counterattacks, leaving casualties and corpses thicker than any wheat harvest.

Sickles's impulsive advance might have meant Union defeat, but Longstreet was never able to coordinate his attacks—devastating as they were—to decisive effect, and Meade, as well as Major General Winfield Scott Hancock (1824–86), now leading II Corps, repaired Sickles's error by redeploying forces as needed to check each major Confederate attempt to break through.

At sundown, the Confederates attacked Cemetery, East Cemetery, and Culp's hills. The Union troops held on to all their positions except at Culp's Hill, but then counterattacked there at 4:30 on the morning of July 3 and, after seven hours of fighting, turned back the Confederates.

As July 2 melted into July 3, the Union army continued to hold its high ground, but, as Lee saw it, tenuously. For Lee, it was a most tempting situation. He had won significant victories on the first, and although he had failed to crush the Union army on the second, he believed that



Battle of Gettysburg, July 1–3, 1863

he had worn it down sufficiently to destroy it on the third. He now proposed an all-out attack. As usual, Longstreet protested the plan, but Lee insisted that too much blood had been invested to withdraw now.

Meade's forces had hardly been idle during the night and early morning. In addition to retaking Culp's Hill, they had improved their defenses and positioned final reinforcements, bracing for the attack. Both sides were bone tired as the warm morning of July 3 simmered into an oppressively sultry midday. The massive assault Lee had in mind was destined to be perhaps the single most celebrated operation of the war. It was also destined to be misnamed after the general assigned by Longstreet to form the brigades in preparation for the assault, Major General George Pickett (1825–75), a courageous and high-spirited officer, but hardly the most skilled of Lee's commanders. Pickett actually commanded just three of the nine brigades—nine brigades, a total of 15,000 men—massed for the attack.

By noon, they were arrayed—disciplined veteran soldiers perfectly aligned in battle ranks across an open field facing the Union soldiers dug in on Cemetery Ridge, a mile away. In preparation for the operation that came to be called "Pickett's Charge," 150 Confederate cannon pounded the ridge, only to be answered by equally devastating fire from Union artillery. Such a duel of cannon was unprecedented in this conflict.

At 1:45 in the afternoon, those 15,000 men, in closely formed ranks, advanced. The Union replaced its solid ammunition with cannister (shot consisting of iron balls packed into cans), which burst apart, spraying the field of fire with hundreds of deadly projectiles. Still, the gray-uniformed men—those who did not fall—advanced. When they were close enough, the Union infantry, from cover and from the high ground, opened up with musket fire.

Two of the three Confederate generals in command of brigades fell in the charge, and the third was gravely wounded. All 15 regimental commanders engaged were killed or wounded. At a place called the Angle, 150 men led by Brigadier General Lewis Armistead (1817–63) actually succeeded in raising the Confederate colors above Cemetery Ridge, but they were soon cut down or captured.

Fifteen thousand men had charged Cemetery Ridge. Only 5,000 returned to Seminary Ridge. The failure of Pickett's charge ended the battle. The Union fielded 88,289 men at Gettysburg, of whom 3,155 were killed and another 14,529 were wounded, mortally wounded, or captured; 5,365 went missing. Of 75,000 Confederates engaged, 3,903 were killed, 18,735 were wounded, mortally wounded, or captured, and 5,425 were reported missing in action. The Combined Union and Confederate casualties were 51,112.

Meade had won a great victory—"great" in that to have lost at Gettysburg might well have meant the downfall of Lincoln, an attack on Washington, and a negotiated settlement with an independent Confederate States of America. Yet Meade lacked the will to press his weary, battered army to pursue Lee's even wearier, more badly battered, and more greatly reduced forces. With the simultaneous collapse of Vicksburg in the West, Gettysburg was the irrevocable turning point of the war. On November 19, 1863, the president delivered a speech at the dedication of the Soldiers' National Cemetery at Gettysburg. Lincoln had been invited to speak at Gettysburg at the last minute. His appearance was an afterthought. The featured speaker was the great orator Edward Everett, whose remarks consumed two hours. But Lincoln's speech, concluded in two minutes, is beyond doubt the most profound oratorical monument ever erected to military achievement and human sacrifice.

GRANT TAKES CHARGE

Of all the men who had commanded the Army of the Potomac before him, George Meade was probably the most satisfactory. He led the army to victory at Gettysburg, one of the great turning-point battles of the war. Yet he too fell short, allowing Lee and the Army of Northern Virginia to limp away from what should have been total defeat. Only after three full years of war did Ulysses S. Grant emerge as the most adept practitioner of the "art" of this particular war, a general willing to fight, regardless of the cost. Recognizing this, Lincoln summoned him to Washington on March 9, 1864, to receive a commission as lieutenant general and to assume supreme command of all the Union armies. Grant understood that the taking of cities and strategic points and the occupation of Southern territory meant nothing as long as the principal Confederate armies remained in the field. Not with the occupation of land and the subjugation of cities would victory come, but only with the death of the Confederate armies. There were two main armies that needed to be killed: Robert E. Lee's Army of Northern Virginia and the Army of Tennessee, now under the command of Joseph E. Johnston, who had replaced Bragg after the loss of Chattanooga. Grant would attack Lee; he assigned William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91) to attack Johnston.

As Sherman would advance on Atlanta, forcing Johnston to fight him in order to defend the city, Grant would advance on Richmond, less with the object of taking the Confederate capital than with the purpose of destroying the Army of Northern Virginia, which would rush to the capital's defense. In addition to the main body of the Army of the Potomac, Grant aimed two other armies at Richmond: the Army of the James, 33,000 men under General Benjamin Franklin Butler (1818–93), and a force in the Shenandoah Valley, led by General Franz Sigel (1824–1902). For the very first time in this three-year-old war, the Union army would make a truly coordinated movement—one army against Atlanta, and three against Richmond. The grand operation began on May 4, 1864.

THE WILDERNESS, SPOTSYLVANIA, AND COLD HARBOR

Grant's advance units camped on May 4 on the old Chancellorsville battlefield among shallow graves opened by winter rains. The fighting began the next day, and chaos reigned. Units wandered about lost, firing on their own comrades, as benighted officers tried to maneuver by compass over a battlefield on which the opponents were intermingled. It was the first day of the six bloodiest weeks of the war, fought without break as Grant tried repeatedly to get around Lee's right flank, move on to Richmond, and end the war.

Grant lost 17,000 men during the first two days of the Wilderness Campaign. But instead of retreating, as others always had before him, he ordered his men south, much to their surprise and glee. Lee guessed correctly that he was headed for Spotsylvania and was waiting when Grant arrived on May 11. At dawn, Grant sent 20,000 men against the Confederate center and captured the Confederate breastworks along a curved salient called the Mule Shoe. Lee counterattacked and reclaimed the log works, but the battle continued, surging back and forth all day. The two armies lost 12,000 men, and Lee fell back; the fighting went on around Spotsylvania for several days.

Then the armies began to move again. Lee would seek to elude Grant for a while, then suddenly attack. Grant would try to skirt south and east to get around Lee, then stop and fight. For almost a month, the dogged Grant chased Lee through the wilderness down the length of Virginia. Then the two armies began a race for Cold Harbor, just off the Chickahominy River, southeast of Richmond.

Lee got there first and entrenched his troops for the all-out assault he knew the determined Grant would throw at him. Grant's buglers blew the charge at 4:30 A.M. on June 3, and 60,000 Union troops moved on an invisible enemy. The Confederate guns roared, and whole Union regiments disappeared in geysers of erupting dirt.

When it was over, not a Yankee was left standing. Counting casualties was almost impossible, but approximately 7,000 Union soldiers fell at Cold Harbor, the majority of them in the first eight minutes. Northern commanders refused to send any more of their soldiers to the slaughter, and for three days and three nights the two armies just sat there, neither commander willing to agree to a truce to collect the wounded or to bury the dead.

Nearly five acres were piled thick with the dead and the dying. A lucky few crawled to safety. At least one wounded soldier, unable to do so, slit his own throat in plain sight of his fellow combatants. By the time the litter bearers were finally let onto the battlefield, only two of the thousands of Union wounded were still alive. Grant himself later admitted that he regretted giving the order to attack at Cold Harbor as much as anything he had ever done.

SHERIDAN IN THE SHENANDOAH VALLEY

On June 27, 1864, Jubal Early set off from Staunton, chief town of Shenandoah Valley Virginia, with his army of 14,000, and invaded Maryland. It was not until July 5 that either Halleck or Grant took Early's offensive seriously and began scrambling to reinforce Washington's defenses. On July 9, Early's subordinate commanders attacked Union troops under Major General Lew Wallace (1827–1905) at Monocacy, Maryland, near Frederick, 40 miles northwest of Washington. The Union troops were routed, and the only reason Early did not pursue them was to avoid burdening his small force with Union prisoners. Of 6,050 Union troops engaged at Monocacy, 1,880 were wounded, killed, or missing. Early suffered fewer than 700 casualties out of the 14,000 troops he had in action. After Monocacy, Early menaced Baltimore with a brigade of cavalry, then marched with the main body of his army on Washington. Grant sent men from the Army of the Potomac to defend the capital, which also called on administrative troops and civilians to pitch in. Lincoln asked Grant to consider coming to Washington to direct its defense personally, but the commander persuaded the president that his presence at Petersburg was more important.

On July 11, Early reached the forts defending Washington itself. As the Confederates approached, the War Department cobbled together all available forces, including old soldiers from the Soldiers' Home and disabled veterans from the Invalid Corps. On the verge of ordering a general attack, Early was apparently dismayed by the appearance of the 25th New York Cavalry, a veteran unit, and suddenly withdrew. When the Army of the Potomac's VI Corps arrived on July 12, Early began a general withdrawal during the night of July 12–13, backtracking into the Shenandoah Valley.

Through the first week of August, Early harried Union units in the Shenandoah until Grant dispatched General Philip Henry ("Little Phil") Sheridan (1831–88) with 48,000 men to defeat Early and to neutralize the valley, taking the region out of the war once and for all. The valley was important for two reasons: First, it loomed as an avenue of invasion and a backdoor to Washington, as well as a means of access to Baltimore and Philadelphia; second, it served as the breadbasket of the Confederate armies.

This second reason required Sheridan to wage total war. Sheridan chased and pounded Early up the Shenandoah Valley while burning barns, burning crops, and destroying cattle. In turn, Sheridan's columns were continually harassed by guerrillas, the most famous of which was Colonel John Singleton Mosby (1833–1916), the "Gray Ghost of the Confederacy," leading the "Partisan Rangers."

Although Sheridan's forces outnumbered those of Early and guerrilla leaders like Mosby, combat was nevertheless sharp. At dawn on October 19, Early made at Cedar

Creek, Virginia, a surprise attack on the Union position so shocking that troops broke and ran in disordered retreat. Sheridan, who was just then riding back from a visit to Washington, ran into some of these soldiers and personally got them back into order and into the fight. By four that afternoon, he had staged a furious counterattack, turning a Union rout into a victory—Sheridan lost 5,665 men, killed, wounded, or missing, out of 30,829 engaged, and Early lost 2,910, killed, wounded, or missing, out of 18,410, as well as supplies and artillery—a successful conclusion to Sheridan's Shenandoah Valley Campaign.

PETERSBURG

The fighting in the Wilderness had ended when Grant slipped his army out of its trenches under the cover of darkness and crossed the Chickahominy, evidently heading toward Richmond. At least Lee thought so, and he rushed the majority of his troops to the outskirts of the city. Grant, however, actually had shifted left to the James River and to a new target, Petersburg, a communications center 30 miles south of the Confederate capital. If he took Petersburg, Grant reasoned, he could choke off Richmond just as he had Vicksburg the year before.

For once Lee was surprised, and when the first 16,000 Federal troops arrived at Petersburg on June 15, 1864, only 3,000 Rebels under Beauregard were on hand to defend it. The Union soldiers, commanded by General W. F. "Baldy" Smith (1824–1903), were combat weary, with the slaughter at Cold Harbor fresh in their memories, and they were slow to attack. When expected reinforcements got lost on the way and failed to arrive, Smith called off the fight with victory virtually in hand. Beauregard was reinforced, and the war went on as repeated assaults were beaten back and both sides settled in for a siege, which, it turned out, lasted 10 months.

Early in the campaign, toward the end of July, a regiment of Pennsylvania coal miners persuaded General Burnside to let them try a desperate gamble. They would dig a tunnel underneath the Confederate lines and blow a hole in them wide enough to march an army through. The first half of the plan worked remarkably well. The miners dug their tunnel, loaded it with explosives, and blasted a huge crater in the Rebel defenses that sent Southerners reeling back in terror. But an hour went by before the follow-up assault got started, and when it did, three divisions rushed into the hole instead of around it. They had forgotten even to bring ladders, and as they milled about in the 30-foot-deep pit, it occurred to both sides that they were trapped.

The Rebels regrouped and commenced firing, and that afternoon the Union troops surrendered. The Confederates took white troops captive, but they shot, bayonetted, and bludgeoned to death hundreds of black soldiers who approached them under a white flag.

As the siege continued, Union troops fought their way west, cutting off the last road into town from the south and threatening the last open railroad. Lee's army had by then begun to desert in large numbers, and as the spring of 1865 dried up the muddy roads after an exceptionally raw and wet winter, Lee realized it was only a matter of time; he knew he soon would have to abandon Petersburg—and with it, Richmond—if he wanted to keep his army from being encircled.

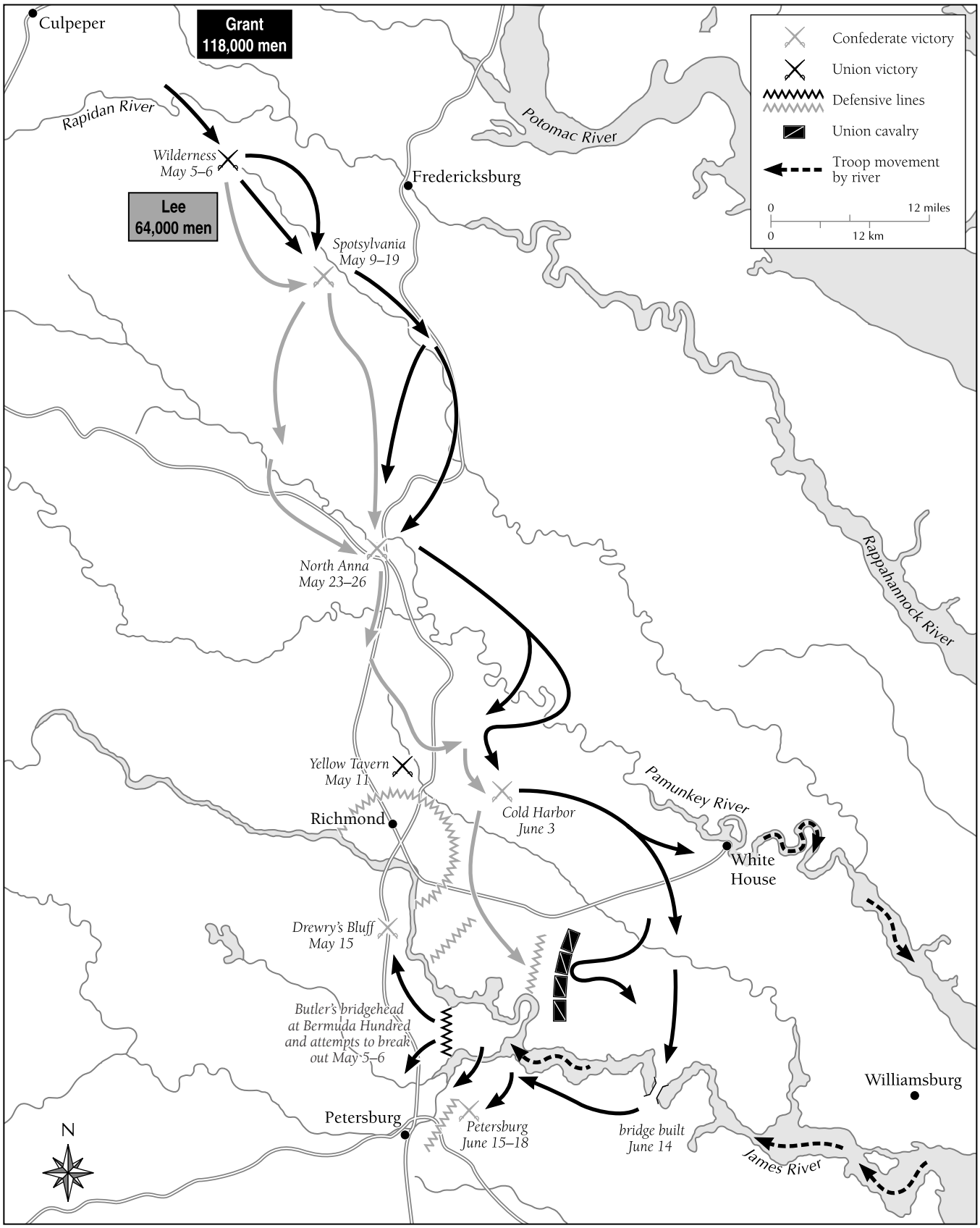
On March 24, 1865, he launched a surprise attack on Grant east of Petersburg in a desperate bid to force the Union commander to contract the Union lines blocking a Rebel escape. Instead, Grant counterattacked and captured many of the Rebels; Lee's own lines grew so thin that they could not hold. With the arrival of Sheridan's cavalry from the Shenandoah Valley, Grant attacked the Confederate right on March 29, a move that two days later resulted in the most one-sided Union victory since the beginning of the Wilderness Campaign 11 months earlier. When Grant heard that George Pickett's two divisions had collapsed in surrender and rout, he ordered an assault all along the line for the next morning.

It came at dawn on April 2. The Army of Northern Virginia fought desperately as the Yankees punched through Confederate lines, trying to hold its inner defenses until dark in order to escape. Lee sent a message to President Davis to flee Richmond, and the next day Lincoln himself followed his troops into the former Rebel capital.

APPOMATTOX

By early April of 1865, Lee, reduced to 35,000 starving and despondent troops, was all but surrounded by Grant's Union army, which outnumbered him almost five to one. When Grant sent him a note under a flag of truce calling on him to surrender, Lee responded with a request for terms. Lee toyed with the notion of a breakout against Phil Sheridan's troops, who were blocking the road from his position at Appomattox Courthouse. But he finally faced the inevitable, rejecting suggestions from subordinates that his men take to the woods as guerrillas. Grant's terms were generous. Lee's men were free to go home, taking their horses, and the officers their horses and firearms. They would not be held accountable for their role in the war so long as they abided by the peace and obeyed the laws of their own localities.

The two men met at the home of Wilmer McLean—whose former house at Manassas had been hit by a Yankee shell during the war's first major battle—to sign the peace. The formal ceremony of surrender three days later was conducted with suitable dignity. When Stonewall Jackson's old brigade stepped forward to stack arms and surrender flags, the Union bugler blew a call to shift from order arms to carry arms. Thus the Union troops gave their Southern foes the U.S. Army's salute of honor.



Grant's advance against Petersburg, May–June 1864

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United States Civil War: Trans-Mississippi Theater (1861–1865)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Confederate guerrillas vs. U.S. regulars and militia in Kansas and Missouri; Navajo, Apache, Comanche and other Indian tribe soldiers vs. U.S. and Confederate forces in Texas and the Southwest; CSA forces vs. U.S. forces throughout the trans-Mississippi region
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Kansas; Missouri; Texas and the Southwest
DECLARATION: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
OUTCOME: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
CASUALTIES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
TREATIES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background

This entry focuses on the United States Civil War in the trans-Mississippi region. *See* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: EASTERN THEATER for the causes and outbreak of the Civil War, major statistics relating to the war, and the war's resolution. For actions relating to the war in Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: WESTERN THEATER.

The Civil War in the trans-Mississippi American West was not like the epic struggle that raged east of the Mississippi. No great cities were lost or won, and no decisive strategic ends were achieved. Men fought, and men died—a great many of them Indians. In some places, most notably the far Southwest, withdrawal of Union troops to other battlegrounds gave Indians license to raid; in many other areas, residents took advantage of unsettled local conditions to settle old scores or to launch new attacks on Indians. These skirmishes led to Navajo wars and Apache wars that distracted Union forces in the West. Arkansas and Texas would join the Confederacy, but the rest of the trans-Mississippi West remained in the Union.

Kansas and Missouri had experienced a prelude to the war following the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act (*see* KANSAS-NEBRASKA BORDER WARS) and the violence that broke out in what became known as "Bleeding Kansas." For the most part, the warfare along the Kansas-Missouri border had abated by 1860. But on both sides of the line there were those who had not forgotten the destruction of the late 1850s, those who longed for revenge, and those who sought, in the new outbreak of hostilities, an excuse to resume the midnight raids, the bushwhacking, and the reign of terror.

Because Missouri never seceded from the Union, it escaped the harshest aspects of the military occupation visited on the South after the war and during Reconstruction. But because of its lawless past and the deep-seated hatreds of its divided population, it spent most of the war under martial law and witnessed within its own borders a struggle harsher than Reconstruction ever could have been. For that reason, the Civil War was more destructive in loyal Missouri than in most of the states—except Virginia and Tennessee—that actually joined the rebellion, and the scars were long in healing.

MISSOURI AND KANSAS

After South Carolina fired on Fort Sumter in 1861, Missouri's pro-Southern governor, Claiborne Fox Jackson (1806–62), called a convention to debate the possibility of secession. Owing mainly to the efforts of conservative St.

Louis attorney and former Missouri Supreme Court justice Hamilton R. Gamble (1789–1864), the convention refused to pass a resolution to secede, and two armed camps quickly appeared in St. Louis. Street fighting broke out and resulted in 28 deaths. The Unionists, supported by the state's large German population, lined up behind Francis Blair (1821–75), a close friend and confidant of Abraham Lincoln (1809–65), who had been authorized by the president to go to St. Louis and organize a pro-Union Home Guard; and behind Captain Nathaniel Lyon (1818–61), a short fiery-headed former New Englander and veteran of the 1850s border war who trusted almost no one in Missouri but Blair. Southern sympathizers organized military forces—the Missouri Guard—which Governor Jackson placed under the direction of Sterling Price (1809–67), a veteran of the UNITED STATES–MEXICAN WAR and himself a former Missouri governor. Bowing to the "western" thinking of Missouri's moderates, who still hoped to avoid conflict, Lyon and Blair met with Jackson and Price at the Planter's House in St. Louis on June 11, 1861, to discuss the growing tension in the state. The meeting degenerated into an exchange of threats as both sides held firm and vowed to take up arms. Afterward, Jackson and Price fled St. Louis by rail to Jefferson City, Missouri's capital, literally burning their bridges—those across the Gasconde and Osage rivers—behind them. Once there, Jackson called out 50,000 state troops to "repel the invasion" of Union forces under Lyon and abandoned the capital. Before the day had passed, Lyon was in hot pursuit. Against the will of the vast majority of the voters, hostilities were under way in earnest.

Finding Jefferson City deserted, Lyon struck northwest and caught up with Jackson's State Guard a few days later on June 17, 1861, at Boonville. Price was ill, so Jackson took command of the ill-trained Rebel troops himself, ordering a reckless headlong charge, which Lyon easily routed. Jackson ran, Lyon became an instant hero, and Gamble was appointed the new governor of Missouri. But the general's glory was short-lived. Sterling Price's plan had been to lead the militia toward the Arkansas border, where he could join forces with the regular Confederate army, raising volunteers as he went. From Jefferson City, Lyon detached the Home Guards under Colonel Franz Sigel (1824–1902) to cut off the retreating Confederate irregulars. By the time Sigel came face to face with Price at Carthage, Missouri, on July 7, he was outnumbered four to one. When he charged anyway, Price brushed him aside and continued on his way. Meanwhile, Lyon was facing political problems, and Lincoln placed him under a new commander, John Charles Frémont (1813–80), the western adventurer familiar to Missourians as the son-in-law of the great, now deceased, U.S. senator Thomas Hart Benton (1782–1858).

While Frémont dallied in St. Louis, Lyon had to deal with Sterling Price, who was determined to gain control of the Missouri River and free the state from Federal captivity. Price's confidence soared when he defeated Lyon at Wilson's Creek near Springfield on August 10, 1861. Lyon had desperately urged Frémont to send reinforcements, but Frémont instead ordered him to avoid the fight. With little love lost between the two Union officers, Lyon chose to ignore Frémont's orders, lost the battle, and died in the effort. Frémont, like many Northern commanders at the time, had been busy politicking, wrangling with Gamble, angering Missourians, and irritating the president. Declaring martial law, Frémont also proclaimed the emancipation of Missouri's slaves (something Lincoln would avoid for another three years) and began confiscating property of Southern sympathizers—actions that only encouraged the growing guerrilla warfare between Missourians. As a result, by the time Frémont finally decided to engage the enemy, Price was ready. Price's subsequent victory at Lexington on September 13 cost the blustering and militarily inept Frémont his perhaps undeserved reputation, and he was transferred from his short-lived command in the West to a short-lived command in West Virginia.

But radicals such as Blair and Lyon on one side, and Jackson and Price on the other, had always been at least a jump ahead of most Missourians, and when Jackson followed his victories with a general call to arms, few recruits appeared to rally to his cause. The call came after the pro-Southern members of the legislature had met in October in Neosho and, in the absence of a quorum, passed an act of secession. Although Missouri was immediately accepted into the Confederacy, Jefferson Davis (1808–89) was suspicious of Price—because of his former relationship with the Union general William A. Harney (1800–89) and possibly also because of reservations conveyed to him via Claiborne Jackson. Davis was reluctant to commit troops to help. Meanwhile, Union general Henry Wager Halleck (1815–72), who had replaced Frémont, ordered Brigadier General Samuel R. Curtis (1817–66) to drive the Confederates out of the state. When Curtis launched his offensive in February 1862, Price—without support from the Confederate States of America (CSA)—had no choice but to move south into Arkansas where his forces were soundly defeated at the Battle of Pea Ridge on March 7 and 8, 1862.

Price was transferred east of the Mississippi, and Jackson's rump government went into exile, first in Arkansas and then in Texas, by which time Jackson had died and had been replaced by his lieutenant governor, Thomas C. Reynolds (1821–87). After Pea Ridge, the Civil War in Missouri degenerated into the vengeful marauding of red-legged Jayhawkers and irregular guerrillas. But it was no less bloody and brutal for that. The first attacks had come in the summer of 1861. John Brown (1800–59) was dead, but his spirit lived on in crews of "Kansas irregulars," which, acting loosely as advance guards of the Union army, sacked Harrisonville in July. Because there were no Confederate troops anywhere near the town, western Missourians understood that the terror of the 1850s had returned. At the outbreak of war, Charles R. ("Doc") Jen-

nison's (1834–84) Independent Mounted Kansas Jayhawkers were commissioned as the Seventh Kansas Cavalry, and in the fall of 1861 they invaded Jackson County. The troops occupied the county seat and then sacked and looted at will. They murdered all they suspected of being Southern sympathizers and anyone else who dared to protest their actions or disobey their orders. On September 23, Sterling Price chased Jayhawk leader James Henry Lane (1814–66) back into Kansas, but the Jayhawkers returned as soon as Price moved his major forces to Lexington. "Red Legs" swept into the wealthy port of Osceola, stole some $1 million worth of goods, and burned the city to the ground. Next they pillaged Butler and then Parkville.

Perhaps not surprisingly, when a handsome, 24-year-old named William Clarke Quantrill (1837–65) gathered around him a few Missouri boys and struck back, he was seen at first as a savior not just also by the state's slave owners and Southern sympathizers but by the entire sullen, silent, and abused population. Quantrill's slight build, his boyish wavy hair, and his heavy-lidded pale eyes belied his ruthlessness. The son of a schoolmaster, and a former schoolmaster himself, Quantrill had moved to Lawrence, Kansas, at the height of the border war, joined in several raids on Missouri, and even freed a few slaves. Now he changed sides and led his band against Doc Jennison's raiders in mid-December as they looted a farmhouse in Jackson County. Soon Quantrill was Missouri's most notorious bushwhacker, for which he received a commission as a captain in the Confederate Army. Quantrill was recruited by Major General Thomas C. Hindman (1828–68), commanding the District of Arkansas, under the Confederate Partisan Ranger Act of April 21, 1862. In addition to Quantrill, Hindman commissioned at least a dozen other Missouri officers early that summer to return to their respective areas and recruit both Confederate regulars and guerrillas who could be left behind.

Men such as William C. ("Bloody Bill") Anderson (1840–64) and Cole Younger (1844–1916) joined Quantrill to wreak havoc on the Kansas border patrols and Missouri's Union militia. In March of that year, Quantrill's Raiders sacked Aubrey, Kansas, and in October, they hit Olathe. Quantrill stopped at nothing to accomplish his objective, including wearing captured Union uniforms to surprise the enemy. At Baxter Springs, Kansas, 65 of 100 Union troops were slain when Quantrill and his men approached them in Union blue. (Quantrill himself would be killed on May 10, 1865, by Union guerrillas as he traveled through Kentucky, reportedly on his way to Washington, D.C., where he had planned to assassinate Abraham Lincoln, slain the previous month by John Wilkes Booth [1838–65]).

As the depredations mounted on both sides, Union general John Schofield (1831–1906), replacing Henry Halleck and charged with pacifying the Missouri countryside, mulled over a plan by his subordinate, General Thomas Ewing (1829–96). Ewing's job was to guard the long boundary between Kansas and Missouri, and he had grown to distrust the citizens he was bound to protect. He proposed to Schofield that they try to control the guerrillas by mass evacuation, removing everyone known to have aided or abetted the guerrilla cause. Although reluctant, Schofield approved the plan on August 14, 1862, with the provision that the evacuation be limited to the smallest number of people possible. Ewing had already rounded up the wives, mothers, and sisters of suspected guerrillas and jailed them in a decrepit three-story brick building in Kansas City. The same day Schofield approved his evacuation plan, the makeshift prison collapsed from overloading. Several of the women were severely injured, and five were killed, among them the sister of "Bloody Bill" Anderson, one of Quantrill's most effective guerrilla leaders. Immediately, the rumor spread that Ewing had engineered the outrage from the start.

With 450 men, Quantrill took his revenge on Lawrence, Kansas. Riding all night, the raiders hit the town at dawn with Quantrill's order to "kill every man big enough to carry a gun." Moving from house to house, they murdered 150 men, often deliberately in front of their wives and children. Eighty widows and 250 orphans fled into the streets as Quantrill's men set more than 185 buildings ablaze. While $2 million worth of property burned to the ground, Quantrill sat in the dining room of a Lawrence hotel, enjoying his breakfast and complaining that Jim Lane had escaped a Missouri hanging by springing from his bed in a nightshirt and running into the nearby cornfields. As suddenly as they had appeared, the guerrillas vanished. They lost only one man, a drunk who had lingered long enough to be gunned down by an Indian. A bereaved mob dragged his dead body into the street and tore it to pieces—which is what everybody in Kansas and, shortly thereafter, in the rest of the nation, wanted to do with Quantrill. Because Quantrill was unavailable, Jim Lane turned on those who were. He blamed Schofield. He blamed Governor Gamble. He blamed the people of Missouri. They were too lax, or too softhearted, or too treasonous, he said. Soon the radical press picked up Lane's complaint and lay the responsibility at the feet of Governor Gamble. The *Missouri Democrat* even charged him with personally supporting Quantrill.

Schofield rushed to the border to take charge of the situation, but he was too late. Without waiting for his commander, Ewing instituted a general evacuation policy, one much harsher than Schofield had authorized. Vindictively placing Lane in command of the evacuation, Ewing proclaimed General Order No. 11, perhaps the most controversial of the war. The edict ordered everyone in Jackson, Cass, Bates, and the northern half of Vernon counties who lived one mile's distance from a Union military post to leave their homes within 15 days. Those who could prove their loyalty might remain in a post in the area; all other people would be forced to move completely out of the military district. The order also required them to take all grain

and hay from their farms to the nearest military post. Their other crops and perishable goods would be destroyed.

Doc Jennison and his hated Kansas cavalry went to work enforcing the order. Ruthlessly driving farmers off their homesteads, Jennison forced many to leave without adequate clothing or transportation. The Kansas troops stole whatever furniture, household goods, and livestock the farmers left behind. Everything else the troops put to the torch. For 100 miles around, the wind swept the fires across the prairie and left in their wake only smoke-stained chimneys, blackened stumps, and the scorched earth. Within two weeks, much of the border area lay in ruins. For decades afterward, it was referred to acidly as the "Burnt District." By mid-September, 5,000 refugees a week were crossing the Missouri River at Lexington. Of the 10,000 people who lived in Cass County when the war began, only 600 remained. Bates County was hit even harder.

Union generals, whether battling Price's forces early in the war or hunting down guerrillas thereafter, were notoriously lax with their men, often allowing them unlicensed and indiscriminate raiding and pillaging. Like Major General John Pope (1822–92), who patrolled northern Missouri, they would move into an area, set up committees of public safety in each county, and fully expect communities to call out their citizenry as militia when trouble started. When they failed to respond, the Union commander automatically assumed Rebel sympathies. The county would be occupied by Union troops, and countywide levies would be placed on local resources to sustain them. If county officials could not meet the levies, the general simply ordered his troops to take what they needed, regardless of the owners' political leanings.

While he was still alive, Governor Gamble protested the abuses visited on Missouri civilians, and when he was still in command, General Halleck acknowledged the justness of Gamble's protest. Schofield too had made a real effort to curb excesses, but the truth was that maintaining order in a bitterly divided society during the middle of a civil war was no easy task. Honest differences of opinion that might once have caused little more than a heated debate now led almost inevitably to bloodshed. For example, even after the Union army began relying more heavily on the state militia, commanders found that militiamen often used their new power to settle old grudges, political or otherwise. Sensitivity to the rights of citizens is not the long suit of military men facing a hostile civilian population under conditions of civil war and martial law.

In the countryside, the abuses grew increasingly worse. A guerrilla, a militiaman, or an army regular might show up at a farm with demands. None of them considered property sacrosanct any longer, and to say life was cheap would be an understatement. As pillage and assassination became commonplace, Missouri's refugee problem assumed major proportions. Because it was big, safe, and well located, St. Louis turned into a mecca for the state's homeless masses. The first wave came in the winter of 1861–62 from the southwest. Many died on the way in the bitter cold. Those who made it had often been robbed by various vigilante groups of the few possessions they had managed to cart from the homes burning behind them. To care for these victims of the war, the women of St. Louis formed the Ladies Union Aid Society to establish a number of refugee homes supported by voluntary contributions and compulsory assessments on Southern sympathizers. When Lincoln suspended the latter source because of the corruption associated with it, the federal government underwrote the costs of the homes. By then, houses like those in St. Louis had sprung up in Pilot Knob, Rolla, Springfield, and Cape Girardeau. Agents of the Western Sanitary Commission supervised them all. But by 1863, in the darkest of the war years, a vast number of Missourians had simply decided to pull up stakes and head farther west. By the thousands, they joined wagon trains leaving for California and points in between—anywhere, just out of Missouri.

In January 1864, Sterling Price, now something of a hero in the state, led one last invasion of Missouri. Accompanied by a colorful fellow Missourian, General Joseph O. Shelby (1830–97), a cavalry leader who rode a Missouri mule, Price had sent orders to guerrilla leaders to attack north of the Missouri River in order to draw troops from St. Louis and the south. Once again the terror raged. "Bloody Bill" Anderson led the most effective of the bands, dashing here and there through central Missouri a step ahead of pursuing Union troops and militia. On September 27, Anderson and 30 of his men rode into Centralia on the North Missouri Railroad. As they bullied and tortured Centralia's citizens, robbed its homes, and looted its stores, the Columbia stage rolled into town. On board was Missouri congressman James S. Rollins (1812–88). They pulled him from the stage, stuck a gun under his nose, and let him go only after he pledged his love of the rebellion. Hiding in a nearby attic, Rollins could hear the noon whistle of a train coming from the east.

The raiders blocked the tracks with railroad ties and then hid from view till the train had stopped. They jerked helpless citizens from the cars and relieved them of their valuables. Then they came across 25 unarmed Union soldiers headed home to Iowa on furlough. Anderson lined them up on the station platform, demanded they strip off their uniforms, and asked any officers to step forward. A sergeant, Thomas Goodman of the Missouri Engineers, defiantly did so. "Bloody Bill" Anderson laughed and ordered him to move aside. Then he turned to Little Archie Clemens, his second in command, whose pathological grin played permanently on his lips. "Muster out the troops," Anderson told him. The shots came at point-blank range, Clemens firing with a pistol in each hand, the others blasting away at will, murdering 24 Union soldiers. Guerrilla leader Cole Younger's 15-year-old cousin, Jesse James (1847–82), already a killer, watched as Anderson told Goodman he was free to go on home and enjoy his furlough.

Price and Shelby reached Jackson County before they were defeated at Westport on October 23 in a decisive three-day battle, a kind of engagement rare in the trans-Mississippi West's war history. The Centralia Massacre was much more typical, and therefore a more fitting end—a futile and senseless slaughter in a theater of the war that had not counted strategically to North or South for nearly three years. After Price recognized he was beaten and scurried south across the Arkansas border, the irregular Confederate bands began to break up. But robbery and murder had become a way of life for them, the only vocation a goodly number would ever know. Many of them teenagers when the war started, they had lost their innocence in the 1,162 battles or skirmishes fought on Missouri soil, 11 percent of all the engagements in the Civil War, the third-highest number in the entire nation—a savage passage to manhood.

TEXAS AND THE SOUTHWEST

At the start, Texas, too, was a major problem for the North. Pro-Union governor Sam Houston (1793–1863) was forced out of office when the state seceded in February 1861, and General David E. Twiggs (1790–1862), commander of the Union Army's Department of Texas, soon surrendered all property and supplies to the Confederates. Union forces enjoyed a temporary victory in October 1862, when a seaborne squadron captured Galveston. The town, a crucial Confederate supply point, was occupied by Union troops in December but was quickly retaken by Confederates aboard riverboats that had been converted to gunboats. By 1863, the Union threw a blockade around Galveston, which reduced but did not stop the flow of Confederate supplies. Combined with Admiral David G. Farragut's (1801–70) capture of New Orleans in April 1862, however, the blockade ultimately helped sever Texas and the rest of the Confederate West from the Confederate states east of the Mississippi.

The outbreak of the Civil War had a major impact on the Union army, especially its officer corps. In the West, 313 officers, one-third of the army's officer corps, left commands to take up arms for the Confederacy. "We were practically an army without officers," one Union soldier complained. Unionists in the West feared that the Confederates would actively cajole or purchase Indian allies in the struggle. In fact, the Confederacy did find some recruits among the Caddos, Wichitas, Osages, Shawnees, Delawares, Senecas, and Quapaws. Both the North and the South recruited some troops from tribes who had been removed to the Indian Territory, including the Cherokees, Chickasaws, Choctaws, Creeks, and Seminoles. The Cherokee leader Stand Watie became a Confederate general of considerable tenacity; his command was the last Rebel unit to lay down arms, fully a month after Appomattox. It is also true that for a time the Confederates armed the Comanches and Kiowas on the southern Plains. For the most part, however, Indian-white conflict during the period of 1861 to 1865 had little to do directly with the white man's war against himself, except that in the far Southwest, the withdrawal of Union troops to fight elsewhere unleashed a torrent of Indian raids, and in many other places the massed presence of troops provided sufficient excuse for local settlers to bring the war to the Indians. Many soldiers and settlers believed—or convinced themselves—that the Indians had sided with the Confederacy.

Early on in the Southwest, Confederate lieutenant colonel John Robert Baylor (1822–94) took advantage of the Union's weakened position to sweep up from the Rio Grande into southern New Mexico Territory. Fort Bliss in El Paso fell to him in July 1861. He marched into the Mesilla Valley of New Mexico and took Fort Fillmore and Fort Stanton, whereupon Baylor grandiosely proclaimed the Confederate Territory of Arizona (which, in theory, included all of present-day Arizona and New Mexico south of the 34th parallel) and named himself governor.

Santa Fe was the headquarters of Union colonel Edward Richard Spring Canby (1817–73), commander of the Department of New Mexico. As the Texas invaders threatened, Canby had his hands full with Navajo raids in New Mexico and unauthorized, highly provocative New Mexican counter-raids. Indeed, the very people he was trying to protect, the citizens of New Mexico, repeatedly provoked the Navajos by raiding and taking captives, who were subsequently sold as slaves. In retaliation, the Navajos (as well as Mescalero Apaches, Utes, Comanches, and Kiowas, for their own reasons) ravaged the countryside. Learning that the majority of New Mexicans were loyal to the Union, Canby hastily sought to organize them as the First and Second Regiments of New Mexican Volunteers. This gesture, however, failed to bring the volunteers under Canby's control.

One episode suggests something of the tenor of white-Indian relations during the war. Lieutenant Colonel Manuel Chaves (1818–89), second in command of the Second Regiment, was placed in charge of Fort Lyon at Ojo del Oso on August 9 with a detachment of 210 officers and men. As the Canby Treaty of February 1861 had promised, Chaves's men began distributing rations, including liquor, to the Navajos in August and September. Along with the liquor came gambling. A series of horse races were run, the featured event being a contest between Chief Manuelito on a Navajo pony and an army lieutenant on a quarter horse. Many bets were laid. Early in the race it was apparent that Manuelito had lost control of his mount, which soon ran off the track. The horse's reins and bridle, the Indians claimed, had been slashed with a knife. Despite Indian protests, the "judges"—all soldiers of the Second New Mexican Regiment—declared the quarter horse the winner. The soldiers formed a victory parade into the fort, as the angered Navajos stormed after them, only to have the gates shut in their faces. One Navajo tried to force his way into the fort. A sentinel shot and killed him. Then Colonel

Chaves turned his troops on the 500 or so Navajos gathered outside the fort and opened fire. Thirty or 40 Navajos were killed. The rest fled and began a campaign of raiding.

After relieving Chaves and arresting him, Canby ordered John Ward, the Indian agent, to attempt to persuade the Indians to gather at Cubero, where they could be given the "protection" of the government during the impending Confederate invasion. Canby's primary aim, of course, was to concentrate the Indians where they could be watched and kept from alliances with Rebel forces. Canby dispatched the celebrated Christopher Houston ("Kit") Carson (1809–68), commander of the First Regiment of New Mexican Volunteers, to move vigorously against any Navajos who persisted in raiding. Carson was ordered to take no prisoners.

On the Confederate side, Baylor was having his own problems with the Indians. While his troops were suffering through an epidemic of smallpox, Chiricahua and Mimbres Apaches, convinced that the Union soldiers had permanently withdrawn from the region, intensified their raids in the new Confederate territory. Blue-clad or gray, the white men who had invaded their country were all fair game. Confederate authorities organized a company of Arizona Rangers to punish the Indians. This unit was soon augmented by a volunteer group calling itself the Arizona Guards. Neither was very effective at halting the raids.

If soldiers ostensibly under Canby's command had created an outrage at Fort Lyon, Baylor soon proved that the Confederates could be equally vicious. Angered by the poor showing of the Arizona Guards, Baylor sent their commander a letter announcing that the Congress of the Confederate States had passed a law declaring extermination of all hostile Indians. Baylor ordered his subordinate commanders to kill all adult Indians and take the children prisoners. When Baylor's order was made public, it not only caused great embarrassment to the Confederacy, but also destroyed Southern efforts to win allies among the tribes.

Baylor's operations were followed during the winter of 1861–62 by a larger Confederate invasion led by General Henry Hopkins Sibley (1816–86) and aimed at seizing the Colorado gold mines (and eventually all of New Mexico). Once again, Indian troubles figured in the mix. Tucson, Arizona, which had come into existence in the decade before the Civil War as a mining boom town, lay deep in the heart of Apache country and depended for its survival on a garrison of Union troops. When these men were withdrawn at the outbreak of the war, the town and its strongly pro-Confederate miners were virtually besieged by raiding Apache bands. Late in January 1862, Sibley sent a detachment of 54 men to Tucson, whose citizens greeted the troops as saviors.

Sibley, in the meantime, turned his principal attention not to the Indians but to Colonel Canby, engaging his forces at Valverde, New Mexico, on February 21, 1862. Victorious here, Sibley next took Santa Fe and pressed on toward Fort Union, the best-provisioned Union post in the Southwest. En route, at La Glorieta Pass, the Confederates encountered a Union force under the command of Colonel John Slough (1829–67). In a battle sometimes called "the Gettysburg of the West," from March 26 to 28, Slough's regulars, reinforced by Colorado volunteers, defeated the Texans. Major John M. Chivington (1821–94)—soon to become infamous for his unbridled policy of Indian extermination—led a flanking party that destroyed the Confederates' supply train. Sibley's invaders, who had seemed unstoppable, were forced to retreat from New Mexico.

Simultaneously with the victories of Slough and Chivington, James H. Carleton (1814–73) was sweeping through the Southwest. Carleton commanded a volunteer outfit, the First California Regiment of Infantry, which, when mustered into the Federal army, became known as the "California Column." A colonel when he raised his regiment in California, Carleton was promoted to brigadier general before he reached New Mexico Territory. With the California Column newly designated by the War Department as Union regulars, General Carleton now pushed the Confederates out of present-day Arizona—fighting the westernmost battle of the Civil War, at Picacho Peak on April 15, 1862—and southern New Mexico. By the end of 1862, the short-lived Confederate Territory of Arizona was no more, and both Arizona and New Mexico were securely in Union hands.

Back in Texas, the Gulf Squadron had been unable to check Rebel blockade runners and in January 1863 had seen two Union navy vessels overpowered by Confederate river boats at Sabine Pass, Texas. Finally, the squadron managed to take control of the Mississippi River late in 1863 and cut Texas off from the South. West of the river, it became the job of Union troops to keep Confederate forces in Arkansas and western Louisiana from reinforcing their beleaguered compatriots to the east. President Lincoln had long believed cotton vital to the Union war effort, and grew frustrated when the unofficial and limited trade he had permitted with Southern cotton planters degenerated into scandalous abuse by speculators in the cotton trade. He accordingly turned General Nathaniel P. Banks's (1816–94) Red River campaign, from March to May 1864, into a long cotton raid. Designed to take Shreveport and gain control over East Texas, the expedition became a farce. A joint U.S. Army-Navy action floundered in the tricky river waters, Confederate general Edmund Kirby Smith's (1824–93) troops escaped defeat, and Rebels burned their cotton rather than see it fall into the hands of the Yankee soldiers on Banks's clumsy boats. The Confederates routed Banks's troops at both Sabine Cross Roads and Pleasant Hill; the overloaded Union armada was lucky to avoid running aground in a fast-flowing river.

Smith managed to keep his soldiers fighting with money from the sale of Southern cotton to Northern traders. He also used the money to purchase supplies from throughout Mexico, all under the winking eyes of the "10

percent" governments (so called because 90 percent of the populations governed by Union puppet regimes supposedly remained in rebellion) that Lincoln had set up in Louisiana and Arkansas. When General Canby took over from Banks in May 1864, he complained mightily about both the trade policy and the rump rule, but his complaints fell on deaf ears. Smith finally surrendered to Canby on May 26, 1865, about a month after Appomattox, and Galveston formally capitulated a few weeks later in June. The war in the West, finished years before strategically, finally came to an end in fact.

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United States Civil War: Western Theater
(1861–1865)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States of America vs. the Confederate States of America
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, South Carolina, Tennessee
DECLARATION: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
OUTCOME: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
CASUALTIES: *See* United States Civil War: Historical Background
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This entry focuses on the United States Civil War in Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Tennessee. *See* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND for the causes and outbreak of the Civil War and major statistics relating to the war. For actions related to the war in Pennsylvania, Virginia, and the Carolinas, and the makeup of the two armies, the war's major commanders, and the war's resolution *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: EASTERN THEATER. For actions related to the war in eastern Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Texas and the Southwest, and for the role of Native Americans in the war, *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: TRANS-MISSISSIPPI THEATER. For actions relating to coasts and oceans *see* UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR: AT SEA.

GRANT'S EARLY CAREER IN THE WEST: BELMONT AND FORT DONELSON

If, before the Civil War, few people had heard of Robert E. Lee (1807–70), far fewer knew of Ulysses S. Grant (1822–85). Like Lee, Grant had served with distinction in the UNITED STATES–MEXICAN WAR, and he had been breveted captain. But whereas Lee, praised by that war's commander, Winfield Scott (1786–1866), as the best soldier he had ever met, rose steadily through the ranks of the peacetime army, Grant had settled into a dreary assignment at Fort Humboldt, California, where he acquired a reputation for heavy drinking, finally resigning his commission in 1854 to take up farming and then real estate. Failing miserably at both, he became a clerk in a Galena, Illinois, leather goods business owned by his father and operated by his brothers. It was the Civil War that rescued Grant from obscurity and made him the highest ranking officer in the American army since George Washington (1732–94) and, later, president of the United States.

From the beginning of the war, the attention of most Americans, North and South, was fixed on the East Coast. Being assigned to an army command in and about Virginia was prestigious, whereas leading soldiers into battle in the war's western theater—that is, west of the Appalachians—was regarded as something of a backwater assignment. In the opening months of the war, the Union entrusted command of operations in the area to John Charles Frémont (1813–80), a western explorer who had fought in the U.S.-Mexican War, but who was at best a marginally competent commander. Frémont did have sufficient intelligence to order the construction of a gunboat fleet, invaluable in a region watered by the Mississippi, Tennessee, and Cumberland Rivers, and he also elevated Grant to command the key position of Cairo, Illinois, where the Ohio River joins the Mississippi. Had not the North been

so pressed for officers following the exodus of its top personnel to the Confederacy, Grant might not have seen action so soon, if ever, and, as it was, he would literally have to fight his way on to the stage of world history.

Grant's first new step toward that stage was not an impressive one. Leading some 3,000 troops on riverboats out of Cairo across the Mississippi to Belmont, Missouri, he defeated Confederate forces under General Gideon Pillow (1806–78). It indeed seemed a victory—Grant suffered 607 casualties out of 3,114 engaged at Belmont, whereas the Confederates lost 642 (killed, wounded, and missing) out of 4,000 engaged—but besting Pillow was not the path to glory. Although the Union army became notorious for harboring large numbers of incompetent "political generals," few could match in sheer ineptitude Confederate general Pillow, a Jefferson Davis (1808–89) political appointee. In any event, Grant allowed his men to revel in their achievement by looting the abandoned Confederate camp. At this point, General Leonidas Polk (1806–64), a close friend of Davis's (but a West Pointer and no political hack), trained his artillery against Grant's men, then massed some 10,000 troops below Belmont in an attempt to cut Grant off from his river transports. The Union commander was almost—and embarrassingly—trapped. But if Grant had made a terrible mistake in this, his first engagement with the enemy, he also demonstrated a remarkable presence of mind in recovering from it. Grant gave up the camp but preserved his command.

In September 1861, Kentucky ended its neutrality and declared itself for the Union, whereupon Polk invaded the state and occupied Columbus, situated on commanding bluffs above the Mississippi. Grant answered by taking Paducah, which controlled the mouths of the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers. At this time (September), Davis appointed Albert Sidney Johnston (1803–62) (no relation to Joseph E. Johnston [1807–91], the ranking officer at First Bull Run), at the time considered the most capable of the Confederate army's officers, to command in the West. Johnston understood the vital importance of the rivers in the area. He secured the Mississippi by reinforcing Columbus, and he fortified the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers, which Johnston figured to be principal highways of Northern invasion. He built Fort Henry on the Tennessee and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland.

In November 1861, the Union made some command changes of its own. Major General Henry Wager Halleck (1815–72)—known as "Old Brains," because back in 1846 he had written a textbook called *Elements of Military Art and Science*—was put in charge of the area west of the Cumberland, and Brigadier General Don Carlos Buell (1818–98) was given command east of that river. Between them, Halleck and Buell commanded more men than Johnston, but neither of the Union generals was very aggressive, and even worse, neither liked the other. They consistently failed to coordinate plans and movements. Nevertheless, the first assault on Johnston's army went well; Union general George H. Thomas (1816–70) defeated Confederates under the command of George B. Crittenden (1812–80) at Mill Springs, Kentucky, on January 19, 1862. After this, Halleck dispatched Grant with 15,000 men and a squadron of ironclad gunboats under Flag Officer Andrew Foote (1806–63) against Fort Henry on the Tennessee. That bastion fell quickly, on February 6.

Wasting no time, Grant turned to the east and marched to the Cumberland for an attack against Fort Donelson, again coordinated with Foote's gunboats. Johnston did not wish a repeat of Fort Henry, so he had reinforced the Cumberland River position with some 15,000 troops pulled out of Bowling Green, Kentucky. In consequence, Fort Donelson held out against the Union onslaught for three days, until Grant received reinforcements and was able to pound the position with artillery. Generals John Buchanan Floyd (1806–63), Gideon Pillow, and Simon Bolivar Buckner (1823–1914) argued over which of them would have the duty to surrender to Grant. General Nathan Bedford Forrest (1821–77), however, departed with his command to fight another day. Floyd and Pillow fled to evade capture, and Buckner surrendered.

BLOODY SHILOH

Grant and Foote had won a significant victory. With the fall of the river forts, General Johnston was forced to evacuate Nashville, leaving behind supplies the Confederacy could ill afford to lose. The strongly fortified and strategically critical position at Columbus was also abandoned. P. G. T. Beauregard (1818–93), transferred from Virginia, arrived as Johnston's second in command; his first assignment was to take the Columbus garrison south to join up with Johnston's troops—and whatever reinforcements could be found—at Corinth, Mississippi, a key rail connection. With luck, Johnston and Beauregard would be able to field about 50,000 men.

Of course, it was the job of the Union army to meet this combined force with overwhelming numbers. If Halleck and Buell managed their movements swiftly and efficiently, they could hurl some 70,000 troops against the Confederates' 50,000. Yet, the Union failed to capitalize on the gains it had made. Grant, having been promoted to major general, was still subordinate to Halleck. He urged "Old Brains" to press the pursuit of the retreating rebels, but Halleck and Buell moved slowly, giving Beauregard and Johnston ample time to meet and regroup at Corinth.

Grant established his camp with some 42,000 men at Pittsburg Landing, Tennessee, on the west bank of the Tennessee River, northeast of the Confederate position at Corinth, Mississippi. Nursing a badly sprained ankle, Grant set up his headquarters tent next to a log-built Methodist meeting house called Shiloh Chapel (after the Canaanite town mentioned in the Old Testament as the place where the Tabernacle and the Ark of the Covenant

were lodged). The name means "place of peace," and that is precisely what Grant expected. Believing the Confederates would stay in Corinth for the present, Grant did not adequately defend his camp: no entrenchments, no cavalry patrols, and no remote pickets. On Sunday morning, April 6, Albert Sidney Johnston and P. G. T. Beauregard attacked.

Panic shot through Pittsburg Landing as surely and as violently as Confederate bullets. Many of the disorganized Union troops sought places to hide rather than fight. For the first 12 hours, the battle was a one-sided pounding of Confederates against Union troops, and by the end of Sunday the army in gray had captured the key position of Shiloh church and had pushed the Union lines nearly into the river. Union defeat seemed certain, but Sherman, whose troops had received the first full brunt of the attack and had broken and ran, now rallied and regrouped his forces.

Others also fought heroically to save the day for the Union. General Benjamin M. Prentiss (1819–1901) made an extraordinary stand on a wooded elevation in the heart of the Union's position. The Confederate attackers called it the Hornet's Nest, because of its stubborn resistance. Although the stand was costly—and the press later pilloried Prentiss for it—it bought time until the arrival of Buell's Army of the Ohio and a division under Lew Wallace (1827–1905), who in 1880 would win fame not as a military commander but as the author of the novel *Ben-Hur*.

Despite their initial triumph, the Confederates suffered one loss more damaging than all the others, that of Albert Sidney Johnston. Then, on Monday morning, the reinforced Union army counterattacked and Beauregard, after a 10-hour fight, withdrew his army to Corinth.

Assessed in isolation, Shiloh might be considered a narrow Union victory or even a draw, but looked at in the broader context of its impact on Confederate operations in the western theater, the battle turned the tide of the war in that region in favor of the Union. This trend was reinforced in part by the ingenuity and initiative of another of Halleck's generals, the surly and arrogant John Pope (1822–92). He had begun methodically attacking the Mississippi River defenses in March. The toughest of these was Island No. 10, at the extreme northwestern edge of Tennessee at the Kentucky line, which bristled with 50 guns and which occupied a seemingly unassailable double hairpin turn of the river. Flag Officer Foote thought it suicide to run past the Island No. 10 batteries with ironclad gunboats, let alone with unarmored troop transports. Pope was not stymied for long, however. He had his engineers dig a shallow canal connecting the Mississippi to a Kentucky stream called Wilson's Bayou, which joined the river below Island No. 10. This enabled Pope's transports simply to bypass the Confederate defenses, which they did on April 7. The canal was too shallow, however, for the ironclad gunboats Pope still needed as artillery support for his land force. But on April 4, under cover of night, one of Foote's captains, Henry Walke (1809–96), made a harrowing run past the island, and on April 6 another vessel made it past. Not only did Pope succeed in cutting off the Confederate line of retreat from Shiloh at Tiptonville, Tennessee, resulting in the capture of 3,500 men, but also by neutralizing the Mississippi defenses he opened the river downstream clear to Fort Pillow, which was destined to fall in June.

Shiloh was certainly the bloodiest battle fought to that date in North America. If it was effectively a Union victory, it came at the staggering cost of 13,000 killed, wounded, captured, or missing out of an army of 55,000. Confederate losses were 11,000 killed, wounded, captured, or missing out of 42,000. It was a bloodbath without precedent.

INVASION OF KENTUCKY

On August 14, 1862, shortly after Grant had won his victories over the rebel forts on the Mississippi, and while George B. McClellan (1826–85) was entrenching on Virginia's James River after the failure of his Peninsula Campaign, Confederate major general Edmund Kirby Smith (1824–93) left Knoxville, Tennessee, to invade central Kentucky. Two weeks later, Confederate general Braxton Bragg (1817–76) left Chattanooga to join Kirby Smith in Kentucky. On August 30, Buell ordered the pursuit of these Confederate invaders.

The little town of Munfordville, Kentucky, was hotly contested between September 14 and 17, 1862. A premature Confederate assault on the town was repulsed with heavy losses on the 14th. Then, as the Union troops reinforced the town, Bragg mounted a much larger attack; by the 16th, he had surrounded the Union garrison there. It was Buckner who formally demanded and received its surrender.

The fall of Munfordville temporarily cut Buell's communications with Louisville, but Bragg did not press this advantage and sought instead to avoid further battle until he united with Kirby Smith. Meaning to occupy Kentucky, he wanted to recruit troops in this border state and to establish supply depots before he engaged in large-scale combat.

In the meantime, however, on September 19, General William S. Rosecrans (1819–98), under Grant, had defeated 17,000 Confederate troops commanded by General Sterling Price (1809–67) at Iuka, Mississippi. Price withdrew southward and Confederate general Earl Van Dorn (1820–63) moved to join him. Believing, however, that Corinth, Mississippi, was lightly held by a handful of Union troops, Van Dorn attacked the town on October 3. To Van Dorn's surprise, the town was actually held by 23,000 of Rosecrans's troops (versus Van Dorn's 22,000), and Grant quickly reinforced it with more. Union losses at Corinth were 2,520 killed, wounded, and missing; Confederate losses were 2,470 killed and wounded, with an additional 1,763 missing in action. Fighting was heaviest on October 4; the result was Van Dorn's withdrawal to Holly Springs.

The defeat of Van Dorn cut off Bragg in Kentucky from any hope of reinforcement, and Buell maneuvered the now-vulnerable Bragg into battle at Perryville, Kentucky, on October 8. With Buell's combined forces amounting to 36,940 men, and Bragg having only about 16,000 available at Perryville, there should have followed a glorious Union victory. A victory it was, but hardly glorious. Buell was unable to bring all of his forces to bear, and although he pushed Bragg and Kirby Smith out of Kentucky and into eastern Tennessee, he failed to pursue the retreating Confederates. The opportunity for a truly decisive Union victory was again lost, and Buell was replaced as commander of the Department of the Ohio by Rosecrans.

Following Grant's initial victories against the Rebel forts on the Mississippi River, "Old Brains" Halleck, in overall charge of operations in this theater of the war, had made the mistake of dispersing his forces in order to occupy enemy territory. The effect of this was to forfeit the initiative to the Confederates and to assume a defensive posture. Had Halleck instead consolidated his forces—about 100,000 strong—he could have mounted a powerful offensive deep into Southern territory. The war would have been shortened.

As it was, by the middle of October the Union had at least beaten back the Confederate invasion of Kentucky, and Grant could turn his attention once again to the drive down the Mississippi. He understood that complete control of the river—and, with it, the final isolation of the western from the eastern Confederate states—required the capture of Vicksburg. But the Confederacy was also well aware of the strategic importance of Vicksburg. They transformed it into fortress town, heavily defended by artillery. Occupying a high bluff overlooking the river, it was virtually impregnable. Grant proposed an all-out combined water and land assault.

HOLLY SPRINGS AND CHICKASAW BLUFFS

In December, Grant established an advance base at Holly Springs, Mississippi, preparatory to a planned movement of some 40,000 troops down the Mississippi Central Railroad to link up with 32,000 riverborne troops led by William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91). Confederate cavalry under Van Dorn raided Holly Springs on December 20, catching the Eighth Wisconsin Regiment asleep. After destroying $1,500,000 worth of supplies at Holly Springs, Van Dorn raided one Union outpost after another. In the meantime, Forrest led his cavalry against the railroad, destroying 60 miles of it. The actions of Van Dorn and Forrest stopped Grant's advance, and Sherman, without Grant's support at Chickasaw Bluffs (just a few miles north of Vicksburg), failed as well.

Grant next took a leaf from John Pope's book and decided to dig a canal to avoid the guns of Vicksburg, as Pope had done to get behind the guns of Island Number 10. But heavy rains and high water during February 1863 prompted Grant to drop the project in March. Shortly afterward, Grant tried a more ambitious canal at Duckport. He managed to get a small steamer through the canal-connected bayous, but it soon became clear that the canal approach was impractical.

Grant ordered General James B. McPherson (1828–64) to open up a 400-mile route through Louisiana swamps, lakes, and bayous to a point on the Mississippi below Vicksburg. This laborious process was successfully under way when, in March, it was abandoned in favor of a more roundabout water route through the Yazoo Pass. The Confederates built a fort to block the pass 90 miles north of Vicksburg, and on March 11 the Yazoo Pass Expedition was also abandoned.

Yet another water route, through Steele's Bayou, was attempted. Admiral David Dixon Porter (1813–91) led 11 Union vessels through the difficult waterways, with Sherman's infantry following. On March 19, at Rolling Fork, Mississippi, due north of Vicksburg, Confederate forces stopped Porter's boats and might have destroyed the fleet had Sherman not arrived in the proverbial nick of time. While Steele's Bayou expedition was yet another failure, Sherman's rescue was brilliant and daring, his entire unit marching through the swampland at night, its path lighted only by candles inserted in rifle barrels.

JACKSON AND CHAMPION'S HILL

Grant probably had little hope that the preliminary expeditions against Vicksburg would succeed, but he understood the importance of keeping the offensive alive and keeping the enemy guessing. He kept his own superiors guessing as well. Grant had been ordered to move south once he had crossed the Mississippi to link up with forces under General Nathaniel Banks (1816–94) for a joint assault on Port Hudson, Louisiana. Learning that Banks was bogged down in his fruitless Red River campaign, however, Grant boldly decided to move immediately against Jackson, Mississippi, where he knew Confederate reinforcements were being assembled.

On May 14, 1863, corps under McPherson and Sherman took Jackson. This paved the way on May 16 for the bloody Battle of Champion's Hill, which fell to the Union after heavy losses on both sides. Fighting at Champion's Hill was the most severe of the Vicksburg campaign. Of 29,373 Union troops engaged, 410 were killed, 1,844 wounded, and 187 went missing. Of 20,000 Confederates, 381 died, about 1,800 were wounded, and 1,670 were missing.

The hard-won victories at Jackson and Champion's Hill put Grant in position for an assault on Vicksburg. He ordered a frontal assault on the city on May 19 but was repulsed. He tried again on the 22nd and was again repulsed with some 3,200 casualties. Grant settled in for a prolonged siege. From late May through the beginning of July, 200 heavy Union artillery pieces and siege mortars continuously pounded Vicksburg.

SIEGE OF VICKSBURG AND AFTERMATH

Vicksburg was the South's "Gibraltar of the West," a military fortress as well as a city populated by men, women, and children. The citizens of Vicksburg responded to the siege heroically. They dug caves into the yellow-clay hillsides, then furnished them with finery dragged out of their ruined houses. Weeks crawled by under the pounding shells. The cave dwellers fought lice, rats, disease, boredom, and despair, eating their emaciated mules, horses, and dogs when all the food ran out. Surrender finally came on July 4, 1863, a day after the Union's victory at Gettysburg. With Gettysburg, Vicksburg was the most important victory of the war. The Mississippi River was now in Union hands, and the backbone of the Confederacy was broken.

In the aftermath of the Union victories at Vicksburg and Gettysburg, the pace of the war slowed to an exhausted crawl. Confederate guerrilla John Hunt Morgan (1825–64) led a dashing cavalry raid across Ohio, but it accomplished nothing. Half of Morgan's men were captured on July 19 at Buffington, Ohio, and Morgan himself surrendered on the 26th at Lisbon, Ohio. Slowly, the action shifted from Mississippi and Pennsylvania to central Tennessee and northern Georgia.

Ulysses S. Grant and his men may have been tired and worn after the fall of Vicksburg, but Grant was all for pushing on through southern Mississippi and Alabama. He could take Mobile; that would bring Bragg running down from Chattanooga, leaving that key city along the Moccasin Bend of the Tennessee River firmly in Union hands. Grant wanted to push on because there was no one to stop him.

But Halleck could stop Grant. He was a by-the-book general, and the book said that it was important for a victorious army to occupy the territory it took. This meant dispersing Grant's forces to various places in Louisiana (for an invasion of Texas), to Missouri, to Arkansas, and to garrisons in occupied Tennessee and Mississippi. As the action moved east from Mississippi and west from Virginia, concentrating in middle Tennessee, it came to center on General Rosecrans, who was at the head of the Army of the Cumberland. His opponent was Bragg.

CHATTANNOGA

"Old Rosy," as his troops called Rosecrans, had been sparring with Bragg since the end of October 1862 without taking the initiative. It is true that Rosecrans avoided disaster during the Battle of Stones River, Tennessee, during December 30, 1862–January 3, 1863, but he had lost ground to Bragg. Tennessee, Lincoln was well aware, harbored strong Union feeling, and seizing Chattanooga would make it possible to take Knoxville and thereby gain control of the entire eastern portion of the state.

After Grant crossed the Mississippi below Vicksburg on May 1, 1863, Union strategists realized that Bragg would most likely want to send reinforcements to the beleaguered river stronghold. Rosecrans's mission was to bottle up Bragg in Tennessee to prevent Bragg's releasing any troops for Vicksburg duty, but the Union general did not get under way until mid-June. Still, his deliberation proved effective: His maneuvers forced Bragg to withdraw south of the Tennessee River.

Through a series of brilliant feints and deceptions, all carried out during 17 consecutive days of driving rain, Rosecrans moved his troops behind Bragg's right flank near Tullahoma. By July 4, after another flanking movement, Rosecrans forced Bragg, outnumbered, to retreat from Tullahoma and withdraw to Chattanooga. At this point, Rosecrans begged for reinforcements, in order to take Chattanooga. None were forthcoming, so Rosecrans decided to keep maneuvering; he executed a surprise crossing of the Tennessee River 30 miles west of Chattanooga. Were Rosecrans a Burnside, he would have launched a desperate frontal assault on Bragg's defensive positions in Chattanooga—and, like Burnside, he would have gotten his men slaughtered. Instead, Rosecrans marched through a series of gaps in Lookout Mountain, the long ridge south-southwest of Chattanooga, and targeted the Western and Atlantic Railroad. This was Bragg's supply and communications line to Atlanta. With it severed, Bragg would have no choice but to evacuate Chattanooga.

CHICKAMAUGA

Up to this the point, slow, deliberate Rosecrans had pulled off one of the most brilliant and remarkable campaigns of the war. After two and a half years of combat in which each small gain was paid for by a torrent of blood, Rosecrans had taken the prize of Chattanooga, shedding hardly any blood at all. But if there was one quality that dominated the strategic thinking of William S. Rosecrans, it was inertia—the tendency of a body at rest to remain at rest, or, if in motion, to stay in motion. Rosecrans was slow to start his campaign, reluctant to accelerate his campaign, and now that it was in full swing, he was not about to stop. He should have. He held Chattanooga now. He could concentrate his forces there, rest them, and resupply them, then resume the offensive against Bragg. Instead, Rosecrans kept going, his three tired corps becoming separated in the mountain passes.

Bragg, in the meantime, halted at La Fayette, Georgia, 25 miles south of Chattanooga, where he was met by substantial reinforcements, including two divisions commanded by James Longstreet ([1821–1904] newly arrived from the East). Reinforced, Bragg moved in for a counterattack. The place was Chickamauga Creek, in Georgia, just 12 miles south of Chattanooga, Tennessee. The date was September 19.

During the night before the battle, both sides shifted their troops. In the thick woods, neither side knew the other's position. Worse, neither side was fully aware of the

disposition of its own troops. With daybreak, Union general George Thomas ordered a reconnaissance near Lee and Gordon's Mill, a local landmark on Chickamauga Creek. These troops, led by Brigadier General John Milton Brannon (1819–92), encountered and drove back the dismounted cavalry of Nathan Bedford Forrest. Forrest called on nearby infantry units for help, and an all-out battle exploded. Every division of the three Union corps was engaged; the Confederates held only two divisions in reserve.

The fighting lasted all day and was some of the bloodiest in the war's western theater, more than making up for Rosecrans's relatively pacific capture of Chattanooga. Yet for all the bloodshed, neither side had gained an advantage by day's end. Applied to the site of the contest at Chickamauga, the word "battlefield" was a misnomer. A field it was not, but heavily forested and difficult terrain that had been turned into muddy soup by heavy rains. On the night before the second day of battle, both sides hastily tried to improve their positions, and Rosecrans's men dug in as best they could. That night, too, Bragg received reinforcements in the form of the rest of Longstreet's divisions.

At nine o'clock on Sunday morning, September 20, the Confederates attacked, and for the next two hours Union troops held them off.

Rosecrans was nothing if not a careful planner, but the terrain of Chickamauga could confuse any commander and confound any plan. The fact was that Rosecrans did not have an accurate understanding of how his own units were deployed. His object, by midmorning of this second day of battle, was to fill what he thought was a gap in his right flank. Accordingly, he ordered troops from what he thought was the left to plug it. But there was no gap. Worse, thinking he was moving troops from the left to the right, Rosecrans actually moved them out of the right flank, thereby creating the very gap he had meant to plug. At 11:30, Longstreet attacked at precisely the gap Rosecrans had created, hitting divisions commanded by Major General Philip Sheridan (1831–88) and by Brigadier General Jefferson Columbus Davis (1828–79), shattering them, and driving the Union right onto its left.

The Battle of Chickamauga was rapidly disintegrating into a disaster as bad as any that had ever befallen the Union army. Rosecrans and two of his corps commanders, Thomas Crittenden and Alexander McDowell McCook (1831–1903), unable to rally their routed forces, believed the entire army was being destroyed. They fled to Chattanooga.

But Major General Thomas did not run. He rallied units under General Thomas John Wood (1823–1906) and Brannon to block Longstreet on the south. Because Bragg had not held any men in reserve, he had nobody to send in to exploit Longstreet's initial breakthrough. In the meantime, Union general Gordon Granger (1822–76) deliberately violated his orders to remain in place to protect the army's flank and instead rushed to the aid of Thomas with two brigades. This action proved a splendid example of initiative on the field. Thomas—later hailed as the "Rock of Chickamauga"—was able to hold the field until nightfall and thereby save the Army of the Cumberland from destruction.

The name "Chickamauga" is derived from a Cherokee word meaning "river of death." Of 58,222 Union troops engaged, 1,657 were killed, 9,756 wounded, and 4,757 went missing. Confederate losses were 2,312 killed, 14,674 wounded, and 1,468 missing out of 66,326 engaged. Chickamauga was the costliest battle of the war's western theater. It was a tactical victory for Bragg, in that he had driven Rosecrans from the field. However, Confederate losses were greater than those of the Union, and even worse, Bragg had coordinated the attack poorly. Even after Longstreet found the nearly fatal gap in the Union line, the Confederate assaults were piecemeal. Without a reserve, the Confederate gains could not be exploited to the point of strategically decisive victory.

THE CRACKER LINE

Following Chickamauga, the Union's Army of the Cumberland was holed up in Chattanooga, to which Bragg's Confederates were laying siege. Starvation and capture were staring at the Union forces. In a sense, this desperate situation was a boon to the Union cause. It suddenly riveted Washington's focus on this neglected theater of the war. In consequence, two entire army corps were detached from the Army of the Potomac and dispatched west under the command of General Joseph ("Fighting Joe") Hooker (1814–79). In the war's most dramatic demonstration of the strategic importance of rail transportation, they were transferred from the banks of eastern Virginia's Rappahannock River to Bridgeport, Alabama, in the space of eight days, arriving on October 2. In the meantime, Sherman led part of the Union's Army of the Tennessee east from Memphis, and Grant was given command of all military operations west of the Alleghenies (save Nathaniel Banks's campaign along the Louisiana-Texas border).

Grant took charge as only he could. Through a series of complex operations planned and executed with great vigor and precision, the new commander efficiently punched through a Confederate outpost on the Tennessee River west of Lookout Mountain and opened up a supply route to beleaguered Chattanooga. By this time Major General Thomas had taken over command of the Army of the Cumberland from Rosecrans, and Thomas's miserable, hungry, lice-infested troops gratefully dubbed the new stream of supplies the "Cracker Line." The line, 60 miles long, was cobbled together of steamboats and scows, a pontoon bridge, and wagons.

On October 19, after turning the command over to Thomas, General Rosecrans quietly slipped away from the army. As for Bragg, his plan had been to starve the Yankees

out. When that seemed not to be working, he ordered raiding operations against the Union lines of communication (General Joseph ["Fighting Joe"] Wheeler's Raid of October 1–9 and General Philip D. Roddey's [1820–97] Raid of October 7–14), but these actions, while disruptive, were not decisive. Bragg was not beloved by his command, officers or men. Both Longstreet and Forrest reviled him for his failures at Chickamauga and for his long inaction at Chattanooga. The troops now laying siege against Chattanooga were almost as hungry as the city's Union defenders.

LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN AND MISSIONARY RIDGE

Sherman did not reach the Union rallying point at Bridgport, Alabama, until November 15, having been delayed by Halleck's frustrating insistence that he pause to repair rail lines into Nashville. It was perhaps just as well, for now the defenders of Chattanooga, fed by the Cracker Line, were refreshed and ready to fight. Grant too was in position, and after a delay imposed by heavy rains, Sherman prepared to attack as well. The fight was set for November 24.

November 24, 1863, dawned in heavy overcast and fog. Joseph Hooker, due to a failure in command at Chancellorsville, was now subordinate to Grant. Ordered to take Lookout Mountain, the 1,100-foot prominence standing guard over the Tennessee River just outside Chattanooga, Hooker commenced an uphill battle from eight in the morning until after midnight. Early on the morning of the 25th, soldiers from the Eighth Kentucky Regiment scrambled up to the summit and planted the Stars and Stripes. The sun had come out by then, and the spectacularly dramatic effect was not lost on war correspondents, who dubbed the Battle of Lookout Mountain the "Battle Above the Clouds." Joe Hooker was "Fighting Joe" again, a national hero.

Sherman did not fare as gloriously. He took his units upstream on the Tennessee and hit the Confederate right but made little headway. Finally, on the afternoon of November 25, Grant ordered Thomas to lead the men of the Army of the Cumberland forward to take the Confederate rifle pits at the base of Missionary Ridge south of Chattanooga and just to the east of Lookout Mountain. Grant's object was to put enough pressure on Bragg to force him to recall troops from Sherman's front and possibly allow Sherman to break through.

The men of the Army of the Cumberland had been bottled up in Chattanooga for a long time, and they had been given a hard time by the soldiers under Hooker and Sherman, who took every available opportunity to remind them that it was because they had lost at Chickamauga that they had had to be rescued. Clearly feeling it had something to prove, the Army of the Cumberland advanced, took the rifle pits, thereby accomplishing the mission Grant had assigned them—but then, with orders neither from Grant nor Thomas, kept going, charging up the steep slope of Missionary Ridge and sweeping all before them. Incredibly, the Army of the Cumberland broke Bragg's line where it was the strongest, sending the Confederates into full retreat. Thus the Chattanooga campaign came to a victorious conclusion for the Union. The assault on Missionary Ridge was a "soldier's battle," an explosion of fury, frustration, and a burning desire to avenge defeat at Chickamauga.

THE ATLANTA CAMPAIGN

Most important towns and cities usually develop near great rivers or other bodies of water, but not landlocked Atlanta. It owed its existence to the railroads. By the Civil War, several key Southern rail lines converged on Atlanta. Certainly, then, the city and its railroads qualified as "war resources," and Atlanta became Sherman's objective. He began his advance from Chattanooga into Georgia on May 7, 1864. Confederate general Joe Johnston had assumed command of the Army of Tennessee from Bragg at Dalton, Georgia, a few miles below the Tennessee state line.

Although Sherman commanded 100,000 men against Johnston's 62,000, he realized that the Confederate defensive position at Dalton was too strong to attack head-on. He sent a division under McPherson, preceded by a cavalry division under Brigadier General Hugh Judson Kilpatrick (1836–81), to force Johnston to turn his vulnerable flank as Thomas—"The Rock of Chickamauga"—proceeded frontally, and John M. Schofield (1831–1906) menaced the Confederate right.

At Resaca, Sherman once again maneuvered to envelop Johnston from the west, and once again Johnston wriggled out of a major engagement, although the armies skirmished during May 13–16. Johnston retreated farther south down the railroad, about 25 miles, to Cassville. He decided to concentrate and counterattack Sherman's widely separated corps. He planned to send Generals William J. Hardee (1815–73) and Joseph Wheeler against McPherson and Thomas, and John Bell Hood (1831–79) against Schofield. Hood was a singularly courageous and daring commander, but he was not a sophisticated tactician. Deceived by the positioning of Union cavalry, he mounted his attack from the wrong direction, creating a delay that fouled the timing of Johnston's intricate plan of coordinated attack. Johnston could do nothing other than order a withdrawal to Allatoona Pass, about 12 miles south of Cassville.

Once again, Sherman realized that the Confederates had withdrawn to a point too strong to attack frontally. His army was tired from so much fruitless pursuit; he rested his troops for three days, then undertook a series of maneuvers and skirmishing actions that pushed Johnston to Kennesaw Mountain.

The twin peaks of Big and Little Kennesaw are landmarks just north of Atlanta—uncomfortably close landmarks, as

far as the citizens of the city were concerned—but in withdrawing to Kennesaw, Johnston had found a very strong position indeed. Using tow ropes, he hauled up his artillery, which thereby commanded the railroad below and much of the level area between Kennesaw and Pine and Lost mountains.

On June 19, Sherman ordered his forces into a position from which he hoped to flank Johnston. Critical to his plan was getting troops south of the Confederate left and in secure possession of the road leading to Marietta. Johnston, however, grasped the situation as well as Sherman did and ordered Hood to defend the road at the farm of the widow Valentine Kolb. On June 22, Union forces found themselves checked by Hood at this position.

Then Hood did what he was all too apt to do—he acted rashly and with blind aggression. Instead of holding his strong defensive position, as ordered, he attacked. The result was heavy casualties in a totally unnecessary action. The result too was friction within the Confederate as well as Union armies. Johnston reprimanded Hood, who chafed under his commander's apparent reluctance to offer battle as the Yankees drew closer and closer to Atlanta. On the Union side, Sherman scolded Hooker, who, he said, had grossly overestimated the enemy at Kolb's Farm, thereby relinquishing the initiative to the rebels.

Sherman was in ill humor. Even as Johnston was being criticized in the Southern press for failing to make a stand and stop Sherman, so the Northern press began printing its doubts that Sherman was a "fighting general." Frustrated, pressured, Sherman decided to risk a frontal assault on Kennesaw Mountain.

The attack came at 8 A.M. on June 27. Miserable weather and tangled underbrush made the uphill assault even more difficult than it would have been under the best conditions. The attack failed with very heavy losses. Of 16,225 Federals engaged at Kennesaw, 1,999 were killed or wounded, and 52 went missing. Of the 17,333 Confederates engaged, 270 were killed or wounded, with 172 missing.

Sherman gained nothing at Kennesaw, but there was no such thing as retreat now. Johnston made yet another "retrograde" move, to the Chattahoochie River at the outskirts of Atlanta. With each withdrawal, Johnston picked up reinforcements. He was now stronger than ever, but he had allowed the enemy to approach the threshold of the city. Johnston had taken the measure of his man and knew that Sherman was no McClellan, Burnside, or Hooker. Johnston knew he could not beat Sherman, but what he could do was keep his own army intact and delay the taking of Atlanta long enough to cost Lincoln reelection, thereby bringing in a Democratic administration willing to negotiate a favorable peace.

Under the circumstances, it was a sound strategy. The only ally the South had now was time. If it could use up enough time, the North might lose patience. But the government of Jefferson Davis did not see it this way; it saw only a Yankee army on Atlanta's doorstep. On July 17, 1864, Davis replaced Johnston with Hood and ordered him to keep Sherman from taking Atlanta.

Ringed with earthworks, Atlanta was a formidable objective. Sherman's strategy was not to assault these but to cut the four rail lines into the city, thereby forcing the Confederates to come out to fight or retreat. While Schofield and McPherson approached the city from the east, Thomas was crossing Peachtree Creek, north of the city. But in executing his plan Sherman had left a gap, between McPherson's Army of the Tennessee and Schofield's Army of the Ohio on the one hand and Thomas's Army of the Cumberland on the other. It was at this gap that Hood chose to attack, and on July 20 the savage Battle of Peachtree Creek was fought. Fortunately for Sherman, Thomas successfully defended against the attack, which might otherwise have destroyed his army before he could join the armies of McPherson and Schofield.

Then, on the 22nd, Hood attacked McPherson's Army of the Tennessee, nearly flanking it by swinging around it to the east. This was the beginning of the Battle of Atlanta, and it was one of the hardest-fought engagements of the war. McPherson died in the struggle; his army was attacked simultaneously from the front and the rear. Still, the Union rallied and, with superior numbers, forced Hood back into his defensive works.

Having cut the rail lines north and east, Sherman brought his army down around to the southwest, to seize the Macon and Western Railroad. On July 28, Hood emerged again and attacked the Army of the Tennessee, now commanded by O. O. Howard (1830–1909), at Ezra Church, west of the city. In a hard fight, Howard repulsed Hood, inflicting heavy losses. Sherman had Atlanta within his grasp. Yet he also knew that in a sense he was failing. Johnston's (now Hood's) army was still intact. Worse, if Hood could keep Sherman out of Atlanta sufficiently long, Sherman realized, the Union rear was vulnerable to Sherman's nemesis, Nathan Bedford Forrest, who on July 15 had forced Union major general A. J. Smith (1815–97) to withdraw from Tupelo, Mississippi.

Then, on August 25, Sherman summarily halted bombardment of Hood's entrenchments. The next day, most of his army disappeared. Hood rashly concluded that Sherman had retreated. Perhaps it was wishful thinking.

What Sherman had done was to swing far to the south, cutting the Macon and Western Railroad, the last rail connection into the city. Forrest, far to the northwest, had indeed performed brilliantly, but even in defeat the Union force there kept him occupied, and he was unable to come to Hood's aid. On September 1, Hood realized that Sherman had swung south, and to avoid being trapped in Atlanta, the Confederate commander evacuated the city. On September 2, the bluecoats marched in. For his part, Sherman was not gentle with citizens who had chosen not

to leave their homes. He sternly ordered the city evacuated of noncombatants.

A NEW PLAN

With the citizens of Atlanta evacuated (only about half actually left), Sherman set about transforming the Southern city into a Northern fortress. Sherman's victory at Atlanta accomplished three things, two of which Sherman and Grant had foreseen: The South was deprived of a major rail hub and industrial city, and Lincoln was assured of reelection. Further, however, Sherman found himself unexpectedly rethinking basic strategy. He had previously concurred with Grant that the war would likely continue as long as the South had armies to fight it. Destroy those armies, he had been convinced, and the war would end.

Now, however, having taken Atlanta, he saw that the Confederacy was not merely weak but hollow. He therefore proposed to Grant a reversal of strategy. He would shift his principal objective away from the destruction of Hood's army; in fact, he would effectively ignore that army and, instead, advance with 60,000 of his troops southeast to Savannah in a "march to the sea." This, he proposed to Grant, would accomplish two immediate military objectives. First, it would cut the Confederacy in two, north and south, just as the victories along the Mississippi River had severed it east from west. Second, it would allow Sherman to come at Lee's Army of Northern Virginia from the south even as Grant continued to bear down on it from the north—a classic pincers movement.

But the March to the Sea would accomplish another, even more important, but less immediate, military objective. The Union soldiers would live off the land and would wreck or burn whatever they left, thereby adding to the Confederacy's economic ruin and to its psychological destruction. This would be total war, just as Clausewitz had conceived it. The armies of Hood and Forrest would be able to accomplish little; Sherman would demonstrate to the people of the North as well as the South that the Confederate army was powerless to defend the lives, homes, and property of the so-called Confederacy. After some soul searching, Grant approved Sherman's revised strategy.

ALLATOONA PASS

Early in October, leaving a corps in Atlanta to hold the city, Sherman chased Hood, who was trying to disrupt the Union army's greatly extended lines of supply even as Sherman was trying to pin him down for a fight to the finish. At Allatoona Pass, on October 5, Hood menaced a Union supply depot commanded by Brigadier General John M. Corse (1835–93). Hood demanded Corse's surrender—"to avoid a needless effusion of blood." The Union brigadier replied that he and his men were ready to shed blood "whenever it is agreeable to you." Sherman, in the meantime, signaled Corse: "Hold the fort." (The phrase immediately entered the language as a common figure of speech and became the subject and title of a popular ballad of the day.) Corse held, and Hood withdrew.

At last, by the middle of November, the armies simply turned away from each other, Sherman to the sea and Hood toward Nashville. Hood's plan now was to work with Forrest to overwhelm the 30,000 men under Thomas, who had been sent to clear the Confederates out of Tennessee. This, Hood reasoned, would draw Sherman out of Atlanta to rescue Thomas. At the very least, it would halt Sherman's raid of the deep South. In the best-case scenario, it might even recover Tennessee for the Confederacy and give Hood a base of operations in Nashville, from which he could launch an invasion of Kentucky and knock at the door of Cincinnati. He might even be able to attack Grant's army from the rear, thereby relieving Lee and Richmond.

It was less a bold plan than a desperate and doomed one. In the meantime, on November 11, Sherman ordered everything of military significance in Atlanta to be destroyed. It was not a precision operation, and when Sherman marched out of the city during November 16, virtually all of Atlanta was ablaze.

FRANKLIN AND NASHVILLE

In Nashville, during early November, Thomas strengthened and augmented his forces to some 50,000 men. He was braced for an attack by Hood and Forrest. Hood had been advancing against Schofield, maneuvering him on November 29 into a vulnerable position at Spring Hill, Tennessee, that could have cut off his retreat from Columbia, Tennessee, to Franklin, just south of Nashville. But Hood's plans of envelopment failed, and Schofield's army continued its withdrawal.

At Franklin, on November 30, a frustrated Hood ordered a frontal assault on Schofield's well-defended position. The assault was both stupid and futile. Of the 18,000 men he fielded in this attack, more than 6,000 were killed or wounded. Schofield continued his withdrawal to Nashville, where he combined with Thomas's force. Hood had had fewer men than Thomas to begin with; now he had fewer still and was outnumbered two to one.

No one could doubt the courage of George Thomas, but, in contrast to Hood, Thomas did not confuse rashness with courageous action. He understood that he was in control of the situation around Nashville, and he took his time organizing an attack. When it was delayed by an ice storm, however, Grant, back in Virginia, was seized by doubt and became alarmed lest Thomas allow Hood to slip away. Accordingly, he dictated an order relieving Thomas of command; just before he transmitted it, during December 15–16, Thomas attacked, decisively defeating Hood. Although a brilliant rearguard action by Forrest prevented its outright destruction, the Army of Tennessee was driven from the field, routed, and finished as an effective fighting force.

SHERMAN'S MARCH TO THE SEA

During this period, Sherman marched southeast from Atlanta toward Savannah, Georgia, cutting a broad, burned swath of destruction and misery as he went, picking up so-called "bummers" along the way: freed slaves, criminals, land-based pirates, and out-and-out scoundrels who reveled in the bounty of looting and havoc. Attaching themselves to Sherman's columns during the March to the Sea, they partook in the looting and destruction visited by the Union army.

On December 22, 1864, Sherman's forces reached the Georgia port city of Savannah. The town surrendered without a fight. Shortly before Sherman's forces left Savannah to invade South Carolina, a fire broke out—apparently set by accident—and spread to a Confederate arsenal. It exploded, touching off a blaze that engulfed much of the city, despite the efforts of citizens, freed slaves, and Union troops to put the fires out.

On February 16, 1865, Sherman's army reached the South Carolina capital of Columbia. The mayor surrendered the city on the next day, whereupon fires broke out, razing half the town. Confederate general Wade Hampton (1818–1902), accused Sherman of deliberately burning Columbia to the ground. Sherman responded that the fires had been started by Confederates in an attempt to destroy valuable cotton bales in order to keep them out of Union hands.

On February 18, the day after Columbia was occupied, the Confederates abandoned Fort Sumter as Union troops closed on Charleston. This city had stoutly resisted all Union attempts to capture it, but now, with the interior of South Carolina a hollow shell, there was no point in making a stand. Charleston surrendered, and the Stars and Stripes were raised above Fort Sumter for the first time since April 13, 1861. There was no time for ceremony—Sherman needed to continue his drive northward, toward the rear of Lee's army—but on April 14, 1865 (a matter of hours before John Wilkes Booth (1838–65) murdered Lincoln), Major General Robert Anderson (1805–71), who had valiantly, if reluctantly, defended Sumter in the early spring of 1861, returned to raise over the fort the same flag he had taken down four years earlier.

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United States Invasion of Panama
(Operation Just Cause) (1989)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Manuel Antonio Noriega, the president of Panama, and his Panamanian Defense Force vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Panama
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In a climate of deteriorating relations between the United States and Panama's dictator, the United States supported an alternative Panamanian government, then invaded the nation to arrest Noriega on drug-trafficking charges.
OUTCOME: Noriega was apprehended, brought to the United States for trial, convicted, and imprisoned.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: U.S. forces, 24,000; unspecified number of Panama Defense Force (PDF) troops
CASUALTIES: United States, 19 killed, 303 wounded; PDF, 314 killed, 124 wounded, 5,313 taken prisoner; numerous collateral civilian casualties
TREATIES: None

The 1989 invasion of Panama was unique in American military history as an act of war essentially directed against an individual, Manuel Antonio Noriega (b. 1938), the president of Panama. In 1988, Noriega had been indicted by a U.S. federal grand jury for drug trafficking. Following this, the administrations of both Ronald Reagan (1911–2004) and George H. W. Bush (b. 1924) used economic and diplomatic sanctions to pressure the dictator

into resigning. When these failed, the United States, in the spring of 1989, deployed additional marine units and army and air force units to U.S. installations in Panama. Noriega failed to take the hint. In October 1989, a coup attempt against Noriega by members of the Panamanian army was put down by troops loyal to him. This failure was followed by several incidents of harassment against U.S. citizens and then by Noriega's issuance of a "declaration against the United States." Shortly after this call to arms, Panamanian soldiers killed an off-duty U.S. Army officer. The events precipitated, on December 19, 1989, the U.S.-sanctioned creation of an alternative government for Panama, led by President Gullermo Endara (b. 1936), who was sworn in by a Panamanian judge at a U.S. military base. Early the next morning, December 20, Operation Just Cause began.

It began when U.S. F-117 stealth fighters bombed the Panamanian Defense Force (PDF) barracks. The raid was the combat debut of the new fighter, and Operation Just Cause would also serve as the maiden battle of the army's innovative light infantry and special operations forces, which had been trained specifically for such operations. The army would be responsible for the major aspects of the operation, but among the 24,000 troops, navy SEALs, air force personnel, and Air National Guard units also participated.

The object of the operation was to capture Noriega. Marines were assigned to guard the entrances to the Panama Canal and other U.S. defense sites located in the Canal Zone. Rangers and other special task forces were dropped by Apache attack helicopters over key points in the Canal Zone. Troops aboard M-113 armored personnel carriers emerged from Fort Sherman and rode through the streets of Panama City, engaging whatever PDF units they encountered. The Rangers, reinforced by marines, moved toward the central Canal Zone, pausing to attack the Commandancia, headquarters of Noriega and the PDF. Simultaneously, other task forces guarded the western entrances of the Panama Canal opposite Balboa and Panama City as well as other U.S. defense sites located in the Canal Zone. These forces were assigned to block the PDF from infiltrating the Canal Zone and from moving reinforcements from Panama City. American units also took and held Torrijos International Airport, the Bridge of the Americas, and Rio Hato airfield, 90 miles south of Panama City. Another task force secured all U.S. military bases, and yet another was assigned to free prisoners taken by the PDF. Air force and Air National Guard units provided continuous close-air support for the ground troops.

For the first time in its history, the Panama Canal was closed; it would reopen on December 21. Fighting continued for five days, house to house, as marines conducted a manhunt for PDF troops as well as for Noriega, who had disappeared. In the meantime, a special civil-affairs Rangers battalion was airlifted to Panama City to assist President Endara in establishing order. The civil-affairs Rangers also went about creating a new police force, the Panama Public Force, to preserve civil order after U.S. troops withdrew.

By this time, the United States had learned that Noriega had sought refuge in the Vatican embassy in Panama City, but was refused sanctuary. Not until January 1990 was he located, arrested, and transported to the United States for trial, which began in Miami in the fall of 1991. Witnesses testified that Noriega had laundered Colombian drug money in Panama and had used his country as a clearinghouse for cocaine on its way to the United States. On April 10, 1992, Noriega was convicted on eight counts of cocaine trafficking, racketeering, and money laundering. He was sentenced to 40 years' imprisonment. For the first time in history, the United States had captured, tried, convicted, and punished a head of state for criminal wrongdoing.

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United States–Iraq War ("Operation Iraqi Freedom") (2003–ongoing)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States and Great Britain vs. Iraq
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Iraq
DECLARATION: No formal declaration, but the war commenced pursuant to a U.S. presidential ultimatum of March 16, 2003.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: U.S. president George W. Bush initially stated as the objective the removal of weapons of mass destruction from Iraq, then subsequently declared the objective to be the removal of Iraqi president Saddam Hussein from power.
OUTCOME: Militarily, the United States and Great Britain prevailed, Saddam Hussein was removed from power and captured in December 2003; however, as of spring 2004, no weapons of mass destruction had been discovered in Iraq, and political instability verging on chaos, accompanied by widespread violence, pervaded the nation.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: U.S., 466,985 (includes combat and support troops, not all deployed in theater); British, 40,906 (includes combat and support troops actually deployed); Iraqi forces, numbers actually and actively engaged unknown, but available military personnel numbered more than 500,000
CASUALTIES: U.S., 139 killed and 553 wounded from the beginning of the war to May 2, 2003 (end of major combat phase); by September 14, 2004, 1,018 U.S. service members had been killed and 7,245 had been wounded in

hostile action; total British casualties included 65 killed; total Iraqi casualties were estimated at 6,100–7,900 military and police killed or wounded, and perhaps as many as 20,000 civilians injured or killed
TREATIES: None

Although the PERSIAN GULF WAR (1990–91) ended in a disastrous defeat for the Iraqi military, the regime of the anti-Western, anti-American dictator Saddam Hussein (b. 1937) remained in place. A decade after the end of the war, the United States was attacked by suicide terrorists associated with the Islamic al-Qaeda terrorist organization. As part of the UNITED STATES'S WAR ON TERRORISM that followed these attacks, President George W. Bush (b. 1946) almost immediately authorized an undeclared war on al-Qaeda and its host, the Taliban government in Afghanistan. Also on the table for discussion among top U.S. government officials was another war, this one directed against Saddam Hussein and his regime in Iraq. Although there was no evidence implicating Hussein or his nation in the terrorist attacks on the United States, President Bush and his administration argued that the regime supported anti-Western and, in particular, anti-American terrorism and that Hussein possessed weapons of mass destruction (perhaps nuclear, but certainly chemical and biological) with which he planned either to attack U.S. interests or aid others in doing so.

On September 12, 2002, President Bush addressed the United Nations General Assembly, declaring that Iraq presented a threat to the United States and other nations and that the Iraqi regime was also a threat to the authority of the United Nations. Bush secured congressional resolutions authorizing the use of U.S. military forces against Iraq (the final vote came on October 11, 2002), and on November 8, 2002, the United Nations approved Resolution 1441, pressuring Iraq to comply with its disarmament obligations or to prove that it had divested itself of all weapons of mass destruction. UN inspectors were dispatched to Iraq, which submitted an apparently evasive disclosure report. Although the inspectors found nothing of significance in Iraq, the Bush administration persisted in its assertions that Iraq possessed the weapons; on February 5, 2003, U.S. secretary of state Colin Powell (b. 1937) presented the Bush administration's case to the UN Security Council. Despite this presentation, most of the international community was reluctant to support a war against Iraq. Some nations, most notably France and Germany, actively opposed such a war. Others did not directly oppose the war but declined to commit any substantive support to it; still others, notably Spain, voiced support and pledged logistical and humanitarian assistance but likewise withheld active military forces. Only Great Britain strongly endorsed the position of the Bush administration and resolved to participate in military action.

While international and (highly divisive) domestic debate continued, the Bush administration suddenly shifted its definition of what constituted an appropriate cause for war. Whereas previously the president had proposed war as a consequence of Iraq's failure to reveal what, despite an absence of evidence, he asserted to be Iraq's stockpile of weapons of mass destruction, on March 16, 2003, the president issued an ultimatum to Saddam Hussein demanding that he and his immediate cohorts (including his sons, Uday [1964–2003] and Qusay [1966–2003]) permanently leave Iraq within 48 hours. When this deadline passed, on March 19, President Bush authorized a "decapitation" attack on the Iraqi leadership, an aerial bombardment of a bunker in Baghdad believed to shelter Saddam. This attack was the commencement of the undeclared war called Operation Iraqi Freedom. Saddam Hussein was uninjured in the attack.

The evening of the 19th was the beginning of a series of very carefully targeted air strikes, using satellite-guided Tomahawk cruise missiles fired from American warships in the Red Sea and Persian Gulf, and bombardment by guided "smart weapons" launched from aircraft. The object, U.S. military officials said, was to produce "shock and awe" in the Iraqi people and their armed forces, prompting a quick surrender. In fact, however, the attacks were surgical in nature, pinpointing only military and governmental targets, not civilian structures.

On March 20, while the air attacks were under way, the ground war commenced as U.S. Army troops and marines captured strategically vital oil fields. The ground war progressed rapidly, and U.S. and British Marines and army troops advanced against major Iraqi cities, including the capital, Baghdad. All through the campaign, British and American military leaders anticipated that the Iraqis would unleash chemical or even biological weapons against the invaders. Iraq never did so.

On March 25, battles for the southern town of Najaf and the southern port city of Basra began. On the next day, U.S. paratroopers began the process of securing northern Iraq. By March 28, U.S. Marines were engaged in a heavy firefight for the important city of Nasiriya. On April 2, U.S. forces began taking Karbala, 50 miles from Baghdad. The attack signified the opening of the "Battle of Baghdad." The town of Karbala soon fell, and on April 3 U.S. Special Forces troops seized the Thar Thar presidential palace, just northwest of Baghdad. Simultaneously, an attack was launched against Baghdad's Saddam International Airport. That same day, the holy city of Najaf fell to the U.S. 101st Airborne Division. On April 4, American forces secured Saddam International Airport, renaming it Baghdad International Airport. From this base of operations, the occupation of Baghdad proper began.

On April 6, U.S. and British troops commenced maneuvers to encircle the Iraqi capital, and on the 7th U.S. forces advanced into the city itself, seizing presiden-

tial palaces. The same day, an air strike was made against a building in a residential neighborhood of Baghdad said to harbor Saddam Hussein. Once again, however, the dictator evaded death. By then, too, after a long struggle, the British had finally taken control of the important port city of Basra. On April 9, international television broadcasted images of massive statues of Saddam Hussein being pulled down in Baghdad and other cities, by apparently jubilant Iraqis. In some places, U.S. and British soldiers were clearly welcomed as liberators. In other places, they found themselves the targets of gunfire, booby traps, and explosive devices. By the 10th, however, President Bush confidently announced that the regime of Saddam Hussein was indeed being removed from power.

With Baghdad occupied, more military attention was focused on Tikrit, the hometown of Saddam Hussein and a stronghold of his Ba'ath political party. The U.S. military issued a deck a playing cards bearing the pictures and names of 55 of the most wanted members of Iraq's former regime. The cards were distributed to U.S. troops in the field to help them identify the senior members of Saddam Hussein's regime, and descriptive posters and handbills were also displayed for the Iraqi public. Monetary rewards were posted for information leading to the capture or killing of Hussein, his sons, and others. By April 11, U.S. military officials were sufficiently confident to announce that Baghdad had been secured. The city of Al Kut fell the next day, and Tikrit was put under heavy attack on April 13.

On April 14, 2003, the Pentagon announced that while some fighting continued, the major combat phase of Operation Iraqi Freedom appeared to have ended. All over the country, Iraqi officials, including many appearing in the U.S. deck of cards, were being taken into custody, and on April 20, the U.S. Marines left Baghdad, turning it over to U.S. Army occupying forces. Lieutenant General Jay Garner (Ret.) (b. 1938) arrived in the capital to lead U.S. reconstruction efforts in Iraq and arrange for an interim civil authority in Baghdad. However, these efforts got off to a slow and unsteady start and, on May 11, 2003, Garner was replaced by a new administrator, diplomat L. Paul Bremer (b. 1941).

On May 2, 2003, President Bush personally announced from the deck of the aircraft carrier *Abraham Lincoln* that major combat had been concluded in Iraq. At this point, Saddam Hussein and his sons were still at large. The latter two, Uday and Qusay Hussein, would be killed in a July 22 raid, leaving their father somewhere in hiding. As of May 2, 139 U.S. military personnel had been killed and 553 wounded in combat. Yet despite President Bush's announcement of victory, combat continued; by August 28, 2003, another 142 U.S. service personnel had been killed and 490 wounded. No official estimates of Iraqi casualties exist, but unofficial estimates as of the beginning of September 2003 ranged from 6,100 to 7,900 military and police casualties, killed and wounded. As many as 20,000 Iraqi civilians may have been injured or killed.

On December 13, 2003, U.S. forces captured Saddam Hussein, who had been hiding near his hometown, Tikrit. He was imprisoned, to await trial for war crimes. Despite the capture, United States, British, and (in very small number) Polish military forces continued to struggle to impose, restore, or maintain order throughout Iraq, which was chronically subjected to booby-trap bombing, suicide bombings, and other guerrilla-style attacks. In the spring of 2004, resistance to the U.S.-led occupation intensified in the towns of Najaf, Karbala, Kirkuk, Fallujah, and Ramadi, as well as in parts of Baghdad. Complicating the occupation further was a growing scandal over the abuse of Iraqis detained by U.S. and British forces. As of September 2004, there was no estimate as to how long the occupation of Iraq would continue.

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United States–Mexican War (1846–1848)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States vs. Mexico
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Texas, California, New Mexico, and Mexico
DECLARATION: United States on Mexico, May 13, 1846
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The principal U.S. motive for war was western expansion at Mexico's expense. Mexico wished to restrain this expansion and punish U.S. "insolence." The proximate issues were Mexico's failure to make restitution for losses suffered by U.S. citizens during various Mexican uprisings and civil conflicts, a feeling in the United States that the Mexican government espoused a policy of barbarism, and the Mexican government's rebuff of a U.S. mission to negotiate the purchase of California.
OUTCOME: A decisive Mexican defeat resulted in the cession of New Mexico (which also included parts of the present states of Utah, Nevada, Arizona, and Colorado) and California to the United States and relinquishing of claims to Texas above the Rio Grande; in return for territorial cessions, the United States paid $15 million and assumed claims of U.S. citizens against Mexico ($3,250,000).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mexico, 36,000 regulars; United States, 31,000 regulars and marines plus approximately 73,000 short-term volunteers

CASUALTIES: Mexico, approximately 5,000 killed, approximately 8,000 wounded; United States, 1,721 killed (11,155 died of disease), 4,102 wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Cahuenga (January 13, 1847; United States-Mexican insurgents in California); Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (February 2, 1848; United States-Mexico)

The second war the United States fought to achieve expansionist objectives (the WAR OF 1812 was the first), the U.S.-Mexican War resulted in the acquisition of vast western territories that brought the continental United States essentially to its modern configuration.

The Mexican state of Texas had been colonized chiefly by Americans beginning in the 1820s and had won a stirring war of independence in 1835–36 (*see* TEXAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE), but the United States was at first reluctant to accept the newborn republic's bid for annexation. Statehood for Texas would mean not only war with Mexico but, during the tense decades leading up to the Civil War, would also entail admitting into the union another slave state. In the late 1840s, on the other hand, both France and England were openly working to maintain an independent Texas as a profitable market for export goods. England in particular envisioned Texas as a potential ally against the United States should some future conflict develop.

In the context of such foreign interest, outgoing President John Tyler (1790–1862) urged Congress to adopt an annexation resolution. Three days before the expiration of his term, Tyler signed the resolution. On June 16, 1845, the Congress of the Republic of Texas accepted, and President James K. Polk (1795–1849) admitted Texas to the Union on December 29.

England and France seemed also to have designs on California, held so feebly by Mexico that it looked to be ripe and ready to fall into the hands of whoever was there to catch it. Once again, in the face of perceived interest from abroad, the president was prompted to action. Polk offered Mexico $40 million for California, but Mexican president José Herrera (1792–1854) refused to receive Polk's minister, John Slidell (1793–1871). Thereupon Polk commissioned the U.S. consul at Monterey, Thomas O. Larkin (1802–58), to organize California's small but powerful American community into a separatist movement sympathetic to annexation.

In the meantime, John Charles Frémont (1813–90), the intrepid western explorer surveying potential transcontinental railroad routes for the U.S. Bureau of Topographical Engineers, led the so-called BEAR FLAG REBELLION, which gained California's independence from Mexico. At this point, on May 13, 1846, the United States declared war on Mexico, and on July 7, 1846, Commodore John D. Sloat (1781–1867) landed at Monterey. He took the harbor and the town without firing a shot, raised the Stars and Stripes, and claimed possession of the newly independent California in the name of the United States. Frémont was named commander of the California Battalion and would fight in the larger war into which the Bear Flag Rebellion had suddenly escalated.

Yet it was Texas, not California, that had provided the immediate pretext for the war. When it was part of Mexico, Texas's southern boundary had been the Nueces River. But the independent Texas claimed the Rio Grande as its southern boundary, a claim the United States chose to enforce when the republic entered the Union. By the end of July 1845, 1,500 American troops commanded by General Zachary Taylor (1784–1850) occupied the country south of the Nueces. After Slidell's mission was rebuffed, in January 1846, President Polk ordered Taylor to advance all the way to the north bank of the Rio Grande. By the end of March, Taylor's force had been increased to 4,000 men. In April, 5,700 Mexican troops under General Pedro de Ampudía (1803–68) were quartered across the river at Matamoros.

The powder was packed in the keg, and Mexican general Mariano Arista (1802–55) (who had replaced Ampudía) lit the fuse. Under orders, he sent his cavalry upriver and crossed to the north bank. Sixty-three of Taylor's dragoons encountered the vastly superior force of 1,600, trading fire with it. Eleven dragoons were killed, five wounded, and most of the remainder captured. Those who escaped rode back to the general with news that the Mexicans had invaded American territory. On April 26, Taylor sent Polk the message that "hostilities may now be considered as commenced."

On the first of May, Mexican forces laid siege against Fort Texas (present-day Brownsville). Taylor, marching south with a force of 2,000 to relieve the fort, encountered 6,000 Mexican troops at a waterhole called Palo Alto on May 8. Fortunately for the Americans, the engagement began as an artillery duel; the Mexicans' powder was so unreliable that their cannonballs fell short or merely bounced behind the American lines and could readily be dodged. There was nothing wrong with the Americans' powder; Taylor's fire was withering. When General Arista attempted to change the mode of battle by rallying for a charge, his troops got bogged down in a morass, panicked, and retreated—whereupon Taylor resumed cannon fire.

At battle's end, 400 Mexicans lay dead, whereas only nine American lives were lost. But Taylor, who was repeatedly to prove himself an overcautious commander, failed to capitalize on his victory. Instead of charging the Mexican ranks, he continued to cannonade them until nightfall, when he broke off the engagement. By daybreak the Mexican force had disappeared. However, later in the day, the Americans engaged the Mexicans at Resaca de la Palma, a dry riverbed just north of the Rio Grande. In mostly hand-to-hand combat, 547 Mexicans were killed or wounded, whereas American casualties numbered 122. But again Taylor failed to pursue the routed enemy. It was

not until May 18 that he crossed the Rio Grande and occupied the now-undefended town of Matamoros.

U.S. action commenced against the Mexicans in California early in June. Stephen Watts Kearny (1794–1848), already a popular western leader, was put in command of the "Army of the West," which mustered at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, and began moving westward at the end of July. The various units of Kearny's force made their rendezvous at Bent's Fort on the Arkansas River and escorted the annual caravan to Santa Fe.

As Kearny's army approached, New Mexico's governor Manuel Armijo (c. 1792–1853) at first attempted to rally resistance. Kearny sent word to the citizens of Santa Fe—via captured Mexican spies—that those who surrendered would be protected. He also sent emissaries to Armijo in order to convince him to surrender the entire province. The talks that ensued were cordial, but Armijo led an army of 3,000 out of Santa Fe on August 16 and took up a position at steep-walled Apache Canyon, through which Kearny's columns would have to pass on their way to Santa Fe. It was an ideal point from which to defend the town. Unfortunately, Armijo's ill-disciplined and ill-equipped troops panicked at the approach of the Americans. The governor loudly quarrelled with his officers and finally commanded the entire army to disperse. Kearny passed through the canyon unopposed, Santa Fe was taken, and, on August 15, New Mexico was annexed without a shot having been fired.

Kearny pressed on to California but was intercepted en route by a band of frontiersmen led by Kit Carson (1809–69), who told him that victory had already been achieved there; on August 17, Commodore Robert F. Stockton (1795–1866) had announced the annexation of California. Commodore Sloat had taken Monterey, but, due to retire from the navy, he had been replaced by Stockton, who sent Frémont and his California Battalion south to San Diego in pursuit of the retreating forces of Mexican governors Pío Pico (1801–94) and José María Castro (1810–60), and who took possession of Santa Barbara and Los Angeles.

The victories in California and New Mexico did not go unchallenged. Frémont was charged with defending the northern half of California, while the southern portion was administered by Lieutenant Archibald Gillespie (1812–73), with a force of only 50 men. On the night of September 22, 1846, rebels—poorer Californians and Mexicanized Indians led by José María Flores (1781–1836)—attacked Gillespie's small troop, which surrendered and fled north to Monterey. Flores next retook Santa Barbara, Los Angeles, and San Diego. In December, Kearny and 100 dragoons, reinforced by 38 men under Gillespie, engaged a force of 80 rebels at San Pasqual and were defeated with the loss of 18 dead and 15 wounded; the wounded included both commanders. Commodore Stockton, anchored off San Diego, had been awaiting the arrival of Frémont's overland force of 428 men. At the news of Kearny's defeat, Stockton decided to wait no longer and landed his sailors immediately. Four hundred of them attacked and overran the rebel position on the San Gabriel River near Los Angeles. Stockton retook Los Angeles on January 10 and was at last joined by the recently arrived Frémont. The Americans granted the insurgents such generous surrender terms that resistance evaporated. California was secure.

In New Mexico, the winter of 1846–47 also brought rebellion. The army of occupation often abused citizens and indulged in drunkenness, brawling, and general looting. Citizens began plotting revolt in December and made their move in Taos on the night of January 19, 1847, killing the sheriff and a deputy, then Governor Charles Bent (1799–1847) (whose body was paraded through the town), and finally any other Americans they could find; in all, 15 were killed. Colonel Sterling Price (1809–67) responded with five companies of soldiers. On their way to Taos, Price's men engaged and dispersed rebels at La Cañada and elsewhere. In Taos itself, the Americans had to face a rebel force barricaded behind the adobe walls of the seven-story-high Taos pueblo. When artillery proved useless against the pueblo, Price ordered a charge. His men breached the wall with axes, engaged the enemy within, killed 150 of them, and the Taos Rebellion was quelled.

Although the "Army of the West" was engaged in securing what had been Mexico's northern provinces, Zachary Taylor's "Army of the Center" had secured the borderlands, and now his "Army of Occupation" was thrusting deep into Mexico itself. His object was the capital, Mexico City, but first he would have to take the Mexican towns of Monterrey and Buena Vista. Two smaller forces, one commanded by Brigadier General John Ellis Wool (1784–1869) and the other by Colonel Alexander W. Doniphan (1808–87), guarded Taylor's right flank. Wool succeeded in taking the city of Monclova without firing a shot and then rejoined Taylor's main force. The career of Doniphan's First Missouri Regiment—"ring-tailed roarers," these backwoodsmen called themselves—was far more involved.

Doniphan set off from Santa Fe in November 1846 with 856 men accompanied by a 315-wagon caravan of Santa Fe traders seeking to sell their wares, war or no war. After crossing the Jornado del Muerto, the desert expanse dreaded by all those who plied the Santa Fe trade, marching three days without water, they encountered 1,200 Mexican soldiers near El Paso. The gorgeously outfitted Mexican regulars summarily demanded the surrender of Doniphan's ragtag army. "Charge and be damned," Doniphan replied, according to contemporary newspaper accounts. Charge they did—and, with devastating calm and accuracy, the First Missouri picked off rank after charging rank. Doniphan's jubilation was short-lived, however, as he next learned that the rebellion at Taos had cut off his supplies. The men pressed on, foraging for what they needed. On February 27, 1847, they reached Chihuahua,

where Doniphan received his next piece of distressing news. The town was defended by 2,700 Mexican regulars and an additional 1,000 rancheros. They were perched on a rise of land where the Sacramento River joins a canyon called the Arroyo Seco and were certain of victory, in anticipation of which they were preparing short lengths of rope to bind their prisoners and were already dividing the anticipated spoils of the Santa Fe traders.

Attacking such a force head-on, Doniphan knew, would indeed ensure a Mexican triumph. Instead, he ordered his Missourians to cross the arroyo and labor up a steep bank beyond it so that they could face the Mexican force in the open. The engagement began with an artillery duel, and yet again the Mexicans' powder failed them. As had Taylor's men at the battle of Palo Alto, Doniphan's Missourians simply dodged slow-moving cannonballs while they returned fire with devastating chain shot.

When the Mexicans began their retreat, Doniphan ordered a charge. The Battle of Sacramento had begun at three in the afternoon; by five it was over. The First Missouri's 800 had defeated a force of 4,000. The troops, deep behind the enemy lines now, marched 1,000 miles across completely unfamiliar country to rendezvous with Taylor's main force at Saltillo. When they arrived on May 21, 1847, Taylor had already moved on. The First Missouri caught up with him at Monterrey, some 60 miles distant.

Taylor's far more conventional army had attacked Monterrey on September 20, 1846, driving the Mexican defenders under General Ampudía deeper and deeper into the town. After a four-day siege, Ampudía, fearful that American artillery would touch off his own powder magazines, surrendered. Yet again Taylor declined to capitalize on what he had gained. He allowed Ampudía's forces to withdraw—armed—and promised not to advance deeper into Mexico for two months.

In July 1846 the ever-resilient Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna (1794–1876), exiled in Cuba after a rebellion had ended his dictatorship of Mexico, made a proposal to the government of the United States, pledging to help it win the war, to secure a Rio Grande boundary for Texas, and to secure a California boundary through San Francisco Bay. His price was $30 million and safe passage to Mexico. The United States was prudent enough not to pay him, but Santa Anna was allowed to return to his homeland—whereupon he began to organize an army to defeat Zachary Taylor, making especially good use of the eight-week armistice the general had imposed on himself. By January 1847, Santa Anna had gathered 18,000 men, about 15,000 of whom he hurled against Taylor's 4,800-man force at Buena Vista after the American declined a demand for unconditional surrender. Two days of bloody battle ensued, and when it seemed certain that the far more numerous Mexicans would break through the American lines, Taylor brought up his highly mobile artillery, which fired on Santa Anna's troops at point-blank range and forced their withdrawal on February 23.

President Polk replaced General Taylor with General Winfield Scott (1786–1866), who had distinguished himself in the War of 1812, and who adopted a far less cautious approach than Taylor. On March 9, Scott launched an invasion of Veracruz, beginning with the first amphibious assault in U.S. military history. He laid siege against the fortress at Veracruz for 18 days.

Santa Anna next withdrew to the steep Cerro Gordo canyon with 8,000 of his best troops. Like Doniphan at the Battle of Sacramento, Scott declined the frontal attack the Mexicans expected. Instead, he sent part of his force to cut paths up either side of Cerro Gordo and attacked pincer-style. Panic gripped Santa Anna's troops, who, skirmishing all the way, retreated to Mexico City. Scott boldly severed his rapidly pursuing army from its slower-moving supply lines and embarked on a three-month cycle of pursuit, engagement, and pursuit until he reached the gates of the Mexican capital.

On September 13, Chapultepec Palace, the seemingly impregnable fortress guarding Mexico City, now defended by a force that included teenage cadets from the Mexican Military College, fell to Scott. Hand-to-hand combat followed in the streets of the city itself until, on September 17, Santa Anna surrendered.

Peace talks, which had been commenced before the invasion of Mexico City, on August 27, and which were broken off by the Mexicans on September 7, resumed on November 22. On March 10, 1848, the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was ratified by the U.S. Senate. The United States gained New Mexico (which also included parts of the present states of Utah, Nevada, Arizona, and Colorado) and California as well as Mexican renunciation of its claims to Texas above the Rio Grande.

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United States–Sioux War (1854–1857)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The United States vs. the Lakota People (also called the Teton Sioux, and consisting of the Brulé, Hunkpapa, Miniconjou, and Oglala tribes, among others)

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern and Central Great Plains

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: In the wake of the "Grattan Massacre," a punitive expedition under General William S. Harney was sent to assert the sovereignty of the United States over the lands of the Lakota tribes.
OUTCOME: Following a decisive victory in the Battle of Ash Hollow, Harney was able to conclude an uneasy truce with the Teton Sioux, establish Fort Randall, and for a time protect the emigrant traffic along the Platte River.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States: 1,000; Lakota: 250
CASUALTIES: 85 Lakota killed; U.S. troops, 4 killed, 7 wounded, 1 missing
TREATIES: A treaty negotiated by Harney was signed by the Lakota chiefs but was not ratified by the U.S. Senate.

Forty years of warfare on the central and northern plains began on August 18, 1854, when a Miniconjou Sioux, traveling with a Brulé hunting party, shot an arrow into the flank of an ox belonging to a wagon train passing through the North Platte valley of Wyoming, near Fort Laramie. The Mormon owner of the ox put in a complaint at the fort, and, the next day, Lieutenant John L. Grattan (d. 1854), eager to show the Sioux what the U.S. Army could do, was dispatched to the Indian camp commanded by Brulé chief Conquering Bear (d. 1854). A brief parley, marred by the aggression of Grattan and his interpreter, led to a quick battle in which one Sioux, Conquering Bear, and all of Grattan's troop of 30 were killed. (One trooper survived long enough to return to Fort Laramie, where he later died of his wounds.) Seizing upon the GRATTAN MASSACRE as sufficient cause, Secretary of War Jefferson Davis (1808–89) ordered General William S. Harney (1800–89) to "punish" (that favorite word of the military with regard to the Indians) the Brulé. Leading 600 men out of Fort Kearny, Nebraska, he was heard to declare, "By God, I'm for battle—no peace."

What happened was called the Battle of Ash Hollow, but was not much of a fight. Chief Little Thunder (d. 1855), successor to Conquering Bear, gathered his band of 250 about him and simply waited for Harney's approach. For, although his camp harbored those who had participated in the Grattan massacre, he considered himself peaceful. He gave an old fur trapper named Louis Vasquez (1798–1868) a message to deliver to Harney: The general could have peace or war, whichever he wished. Apparently this was a rhetorical offer by Little Thunder, who assumed that any rational man would want peace. Little Thunder was tragically mistaken.

On September 3, 1855, Harney and his infantry approached from the south, and his two companies of dragoons and two mounted-infantry companies, under Colonel Philip St. George Cooke (1809–95), moved in from the north, approximately 1,000 troopers in all. Under a flag of truce, Little Thunder approached Cooke. Cooke did not want to talk. Instead, he offered a stark ultimatum: Give up those responsible for the Grattan Massacre or die. The chief and his party rushed back to their people. Neither Harney nor Cooke waited for any further reply. They opened fire and charged. A rout followed amid murderous fire, and the mounted troops, too far advanced to hear Harney's bugler sound recall, mercilessly cut down survivors from the initial onslaught. By the time it was over, 85 Indians had perished and 70 women and children were taken captive. The Sioux would learn to call Harney "The Butcher."

Following his victory in the Battle of Ash Hollow, Harney continued his march to carry the sovereignty of the United States into the very heart of Sioux country, the Black Hills. No Indians offered a fight as Harney took up camp at the decaying palisade of Fort Pierre, a former fur-trading post, where he planned to station 10 companies of infantry and cavalry. Instead, threatened by the mass of Sioux surrounding him, Harney the next year retreated downstream on the Missouri River to the outer edge of Sioux country. Officially explaining the move as an abandonment of dilapidated facilities with little access for steamboats, Harney built Fort Randall on the new, more advantageous site, where a well-known natural tower marked a narrow point in the Missouri Valley at the crossroads of two overland trails. Here, the rushing water offered a potential landing site for steamboats and Harney's troops could rest secure because they had an avenue of escape.

At the new post, Harney began to harrass the Lakotas, rattling his saber in the face of the far superior forces of the Teton Sioux without much risk. Setting up a peace conference, he attempted to renegotiate the rights of passage for white emigrants with the Lakota chiefs, who signed a treaty. Even though the U.S. Senate declined to ratify the terms of the new understanding, the treaty actually endured for a number of years, as Harney—by his presence, at least—contained further interruptions in the traffic along the Platte. He was also able to provide protection to teams of surveyors, who—under G. K. Warren (1830–82) and William F. Raynolds (1820–94)—modified tribal trails into a map of suitable routes across Lakota land, creating further cause for the cross-cultural conflicts with the Sioux that marked the second half of the 19th century.

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United States–Sioux War (Minnesota [Santee] Sioux Uprising) (1862–1864)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Santee Sioux vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Minnesota and Dakota Territory
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Sioux rose in anger and protest over mistreatment under the U.S. government's new policy of concentrating Native Americans on reservations; the United States fought to protect settlers from Indian attack and to return the Sioux to reservations
OUTCOME: Although terrifying and costly to white settlers in the region, the uprising was crushed at great cost to the Sioux.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sioux, 4,500–6,000 warriors; United States, 5,000 troops
CASUALTIES: Sioux, 500+ killed, 39 executed, 2,000+ captured, wounded unknown; United States, 800 settlers killed, 100+ troops killed, 150+ wounded, 650 settlers taken captive
TREATIES: None

The Santee Sioux of Minnesota were a division of the Sioux (or Dakota, as they called themselves) consisting of the Mdewakantons, Wahpekutes, Sissetons, and Wahpetons. The Santee had at first accepted the federal government's newly developing policy of "concentration" on reservations, but by 1862, as more and more Scandinavian and German immigrants crowded the Santee into a narrow strip along the upper Minnesota River, hatred smoldered. Worse, a combination of incompetence, indifference, and corruption delayed the distribution of government rations and funds guaranteed by treaty. On August 4, 1862, after enduring these delays for some time and on the brink of starvation, a band of mounted warriors broke into the Indian Agency warehouse and began carrying away sacks of flour.

The agency's garrison narrowly prevented a riot, and a meeting between the agency officials, local traders, and Little Crow (c. 1803–63), chief of the Mdewakanton villages and highly influential among the Sioux generally, was called. He forcefully but reasonably represented the Indians at the council, warning that his people were growing desperate from a lack of food. The agent turned to the assembled traders, who, at their option, could distribute provisions on credit. They deferred to the most prominent trader, Andrew J. Myrick (d. 1862), who declared that as far as he was concerned the Indians could eat grass if they were hungry. Myrick's words were to trigger the most destructive Indian uprising in American history. The agency promised to distribute funds and rations as soon as possible, but it then found further excuse to delay.

The situation was explosive. On August 17, 1862, four young Mdewakanton men were returning dejectedly from a fruitless hunting trip. At Acton, Minnesota, one of them stopped to steal eggs from the nest of a hen belonging to a white man. Another of the hunters warned him against taking the eggs. The other three taunted the first man, calling him a coward, whereupon, to prove his prowess, he incited his companions to kill a local farm family, five persons in all.

Hearing what they had done, Little Crow was thrown into despair. With the rest of the tribe spoiling for a fight, he declared to them: "You are little children, you are fools. You will die like rabbits when the hungry wolves hunt them in the Hard Moon. Taoyateduta [Little Crow] is not a coward; he will die with you!"

Their first target was Andrew Myrick, whose store they attacked on August 18, killing him and, in symbolic rebuke, stuffing his mouth with grass.

Other war parties swept the countryside, sending a stream of white refugees into Fort Ridgely. The garrison there consisted of a mere 76 men and two officers. John S. Marsh (d. 1862), the captain in command, dispatched a messenger to one of his lieutenants, who was taking 50 men to nearby Fort Ripley. In the meantime, Marsh headed out of Fort Ridgely with a detachment of 46 men to investigate the situation. At the Redwood Ferry, which crossed the Minnesota River, they found the body of the ferryman and were suddenly ambushed. Twenty-five of the 46 men died, five were wounded, and Marsh himself drowned in the river.

The survivors reached Fort Ridgely, now commanded by future Medal of Honor recipient Lieutenant Thomas P. Gere (1842–1912), who could muster only 22 able-bodied men. He sent to Fort Snelling (Minneapolis), requesting reinforcements; the messenger overtook a volunteer force called the Renville Rangers, who rode back to Fort Ridgely. But even with reinforcements, the fort, nothing more than a collection of buildings without a stockade, stood little chance of long resisting an attack.

On August 19, Chiefs Little Crow, Mankato (d. 1862), and Big Eagle (c. 1827–1906) led an assault just short of Fort Ridgely. In full view of the fort, the Indians halted, held a council, then turned to the village of New Ulm, which they attacked on August 20.

On August 21, Little Crow returned to Fort Ridgely with 400 warriors opposing about 180 soldiers and civilians now defending the fort. The fort's artillery drove the attackers back, but on August 22 they returned with an additional 400 Sisseton and Wahpeton Sioux warriors. Again artillery drove the attackers off. On the 23rd, Little Crow attacked New Ulm again. At great cost, the Indians

were driven off, but not before most of the town had been destroyed. Two thousand residents fled to Mankato.

By August 27, the entire Sioux nation in Minnesota had been inflamed, between 350 and 800 settlers had been killed, and fully half the state's population were in flight. At the end of August, Minnesota's territorial governor and militia colonel Henry Hastings Sibley (1811–91) marched with reinforcements into the Minnesota River valley. On August 31, Sibley sent 150 men under Captain Hiram P. Grant (1828–97) to the Redwood Agency to reconnoiter and to bury the dead. At dawn on September 2, warriors led by Big Eagle, Mankato, and Gray Bird (fl. 1860–70) attacked Grant's camp at the head of Birch Coulee, killing 22 troopers and wounding 60. The remainder were saved by reinforcements under Colonel Samuel McPhail—who, however, soon found themselves surrounded as well. It was not until the next day that the main body of Sibley's force arrived, relieving McPhail and Grant—the latter having suffered through 31 hours of battle.

By September 19, Sibley's forces had been augmented by the addition of officers and men from the Third, Sixth, Seventh, and Ninth Minnesota Infantry and a mounted company of Renville Rangers. Now commanding 1,619 men, Sibley advanced.

On September 23, as he was advancing near Wood Lake, Sibley accidentally discovered Little Crow lying in ambush with a large contingent. He was able to surprise the would-be ambushers in the ensuing Battle of Wood Lake, which resulted in the deaths of 30 Indians but, more importantly, suddenly dissolved Little Crow's army. Beginning on September 26, Sibley accepted the surrender of 2,000 hostiles.

Sibley, who had moved with painful slowness and deliberation in battle, rushed to punish those found guilty of having participated in the uprising. By November 3, a military tribunal had sentenced a total of 303 Santees to be hanged. Seventeen hundred other prisoners were transferred to Fort Snelling. President Abraham Lincoln (1809–65) personally reviewed the 303 death sentences, and on December 6 he overturned all but 39 of the sentences. Still, the 38 hangings (one Indian was given a last-minute reprieve) at Mankato stand as the largest mass execution in American history.

The Battle of Wood Lake ended the Santee Sioux Uprising, but it also raised the curtain on decades of more or less continuous warfare with the Sioux (*see* Bozeman Trail, War for the; Ghost Dance Uprising; United States–Sioux War [1854–1857]; United States–Sioux War [1876–1877]). Most immediately, however, the theater of battle shifted from Minnesota to Dakota territory, where Sibley—who, despite his request that he be allowed to retire to his home, was now commissioned a brigadier of U.S. Volunteers—and another general, Alfred Sully (1821–79), succeeded in stirring to war Santee Sioux refugees and the Teton Sioux as well as the Cheyenne.

In the spring of 1863, General John Pope (1822–92), who had been put in charge of the new Department of the Northwest the month after the Santee uprising began, ordered Sibley to travel up the Minnesota River, crossing into Dakota Territory to Devil's Lake, while Sully went up the Missouri and turned northeast to meet him. It was intended as a show of force that would discourage Santee and Yanktonai Sioux from massing for another uprising. Neither Pope, Sibley, nor Sully were aware that Little Crow had repeatedly failed in efforts to garner renewed support for the war against the whites. In June, a disappointed Little Crow and his son disappeared into Canada, where, near the town of Hutchinson, Little Crow was shot and killed while picking berries. The Indians who were gathered near Devil's Lake were Sisseton Sioux led by Standing Buffalo (1833–69), who considered himself at peace. Not far from them were Indians of the same tribe who were followers of Inkpaduta (1815–82), a hostile chief, as well as Teton Sioux (including Hunpapas and Blackfeet), who were potentially hostile.

Between them, Sibley and Sully commanded about 4,200 troopers. Hampered by supply problems—riverboat traffic was snarled by low water in the Missouri—the columns made slow progress. By the time Sibley reached the Devil's Lake area, Standing Buffalo had left, joining Inkpaduta's people in search of buffalo. On July 24, 1863, Sibley at last made contact with Standing Buffalo and Inkpaduta's followers and arranged a parley near Big Mound, northeast of present-day Bismarck, North Dakota. Clearly, Standing Buffalo wanted no war, but at the start of the parley a young partisan of Inkpaduta shot and killed the surgeon of the rangers.

At this, Sibley's artillery opened fire on the Indians, whom the cavalry routed from one defensive position to the next until nightfall. On July 26, Sibley pressed the pursuit, burning villages and using his artillery to counter Sioux attacks. On July 28, at Stony Lake, a large body of Sioux charged for a head-on attack, which was successfully parried. Sibley resumed the pursuit until the next day, July 29, when he decided that 150 Indians killed (at a cost of a dozen Minnesota casualties) was sufficient.

Sully, who had been more seriously delayed than Sibley, met Sibley's command in August, long after the action was over. Sully dispatched elements of his command to search for Inkpaduta, and that is exactly whom four companies of the Sixth Iowa Cavalry, commanded by Major Albert E. House, found on September 3 near Whitestone Hill (northwest of present-day Ellendale, North Dakota).

Badly outnumbered, House seemed destined for certain destruction—and would have been annihilated had he not managed to get a message to Sully, who brought the rest of the brigade to his rescue. A savage battle ensued in which 22 soldiers fell, 50 were wounded, and 300 warriors died. Two hundred fifty women and children were taken captive. What had begun as a virtually certain triumph for

Inkpaduta ended as disaster for the Sioux. Yet it prompted few Indians to seek peace. When the spring of 1864 brought rumors of Sioux resistance along the Missouri and the routes of Montana-bound prospectors, the army's general in chief, Henry Halleck (1815–72), warned Pope that the exigencies of the Civil War in the East left him few resources with which to prosecute an Indian campaign. He urged Pope to seek peace.

Peace, however, was far from Pope's mind. He ordered Sibley to establish forts on Devil's Lake and the James River. Sully would also increase military presence in the Dakotas and was directed to hunt for Sioux. Between them, Sibley and Sully mustered about 3,400 troops, though the entire command for this campaign would be under Sully—Sibley having secured Pope's permission to remain in Minnesota. Despite the number of troops, conditions were hardly ideal for undertaking a campaign of pursuit and punishment. One of the volunteer groups assigned to Sully's command arrived with 123 immigrant wagons in tow. Close behind this unit was another train of gold prospectors. Not only would these civilians get in the way of military operations, but also the officers and men resented the prospectors, whom they regarded either as draft evaders or Rebel sympathizers. Sibley was compelled to detach 400 of his men to escort the wagons.

On July 28, the remaining 3,000 of Sully's troops reached Killdear Mountain, site of hostile camps. Sully estimated the enemy's strength at 6,000 warriors, whereas the Indians themselves claimed no more than 1,600. The wooded, hilly terrain made a cavalry assault impractical, so Sully dismounted his men and formed them into a hollow square that enclosed artillery and horses. Remaining in formation, the men advanced on the Indian camp. The advancing troops continuously exchanged fire with the Indians. When things got too hot, howitzers were brought to bear. On one occasion, Major Alfred B. Brackett led an effective cavalry charge into the woods, but with the loss of two killed and eight wounded. Sully decided that it was safer simply to bombard the Indians with the howitzers. Sully's total losses were light—five killed and 10 wounded—and he estimated that he had killed 150 warriors (the Indians put the figure at 31). The Battle of Killdeer Mountain resulted in something worse for the Sioux, however. Forced to run, they abandoned a vast store of food and provisions, which the soldiers promptly destroyed.

After the battle, Sully turned to escorting the emigrant train west to the Yellowstone River, crossing the Little Missouri Badlands and enduring the early August heat, thirst, hunger, and repeated Indian attacks. After depositing the emigrants on the banks of the Missouri River, Sully marched far and wide in a fruitless search for more Sioux. This, indeed, would be the character of the Indian wars throughout the balance of the century: interminable marches and empty-handed searches punctuated by brief, sharp, bloody battles. At Fort Rice, North Dakota, Sully was called to rescue a group of emigrants who were under Indian attack, and he sent a detachment of 850 men, who successfully lifted the siege.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Alvin M. Josephy, Jr., *The Civil War in the American West* (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1991); Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod, *Encyclopedia of the American West,* 4 vols. (New York: Macmillan Reference USA, 1996); Robert M. Utley, *Frontiersman in Blue: The United States Army and the Indian, 1848–1865* (New York: Macmillan, 1967).

United States–Sioux War (Great Sioux War) (1876–1877)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sioux and Cheyenne vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Black Hills, Dakota Territory
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Sioux and the Cheyenne, refusing to settle on to a reservation, fought to keep whites out of their sacred lands in the Black Hills when gold was discovered there in 1876; the United States, claiming to fight in defense of settlers, actually launched a punitive war aimed at forcing the remaining Sioux and Cheyenne to give up their nomadic hunting (and hunting grounds) and retire to reservations.
OUTCOME: The Indians, forced onto reservations or chased into Canada, ultimately surrendered; the U.S. Army suffered its most famous defeat at the hands of Native Americans, in the Battle of Little Bighorn.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sioux and Cheyenne, 2,500 to 6,000; United States, approximately 3,200
CASUALTIES: Sioux and Cheyenne, 220 killed; United States, 238 killed, 125 wounded
TREATIES: None

After the War for the BOZEMAN TRAIL, various Sioux, Cheyennes, and Arapahos retired to the reservations, resigned to live on the government dole, abide by the terms of the Fort Laramie treaties of 1867, and remain at peace with the United States. Red Cloud (1822–1909) and Spotted Tail (1823–81)—Brulé Sioux—became leaders of these "reservation Sioux," locked into a seemingly perpetual contest with the Indian agency on the one hand and their own restless young warriors on the other. The reservations, always places of despair, were often places of violence as well.

Those groups that shunned the reservation—mainly the Oglala, Hunkpapa, and Miniconjou Sioux and factions of the Northern Cheyennes, as well as some Yankton,

Teton, and Santee Sioux—remained openly and defiantly militant. Among them, Crazy Horse (c. 1849–77), an Oglala, and Sitting Bull (1834–90), of the Hunkpapas, were gaining legendary status as warrior chiefs. Indeed, the very name of Sitting Bull had become among the Indians a word (as one white scout observed) for "all that was generous and great." In his 40s during the 1870s, swarthy and broad-shouldered, with a penetrating gaze, Sitting Bull had nothing but contempt for his reservation brethren, who, he believed had traded freedom and honor for government rations.

Provoked by the inexorable white incursion into their lands, the Sioux of the northern Plains raided settlements in Montana, Wyoming, and Nebraska. Sitting Bull, in particular, menaced survey parties laying out the Northern Pacific in 1873. A year later, Colonel George Armstrong Custer (1839–76), leading a military expedition in the Black Hills, discovered gold. Within another year—and in flagrant violation of treaty—thousands of whites swarmed the Black Hills in search of ore. The army made some gestures of interference, but the high command was not about to incur the public's censure for vigorously defending Indians against whites. The only real hope for a peaceful resolution of the crisis was government purchase or lease of the Black Hills. Accordingly, a commission chaired by Senator William Allison (1829–1908) attempted negotiation, but as the ground most sacred to the Sioux people, the Black Hills were neither for rent nor for sale. At the end of 1875, therefore, the federal government dropped all pretext of fair dealing by issuing the tribes an ultimatum: Report to an agency and reservation by January 31, 1876, or be hunted and killed as hostiles.

The deadline came and went. Even if the Indians had decided to leave—and it is doubtful many would have—they could hardly have done so on such short notice and in the middle of a cruel northern winter. Indian Bureau inspector E. C. Watkins (fl. 19th century) had furnished justification for a campaign against the Sioux by citing various depredations committed by Sitting Bull and his followers. He recommended a winter campaign to inflict the greatest hardship, and that is precisely what General Philip H. Sheridan (1831–88), commander of the Division of Missouri (including the Great Plains and the U.S. Army's departments of the Missouri, Platte, Dakota, and Arkansas), prepared to do.

The first planned winter campaign, however, failed even to get under way. Acting under orders from General Alfred H. Terry (1827–90), Custer was supposed to lead his 7th Cavalry westward from Fort Lincoln but was repeatedly foiled by heavy snow. General George Crook (1829–90) led 900 men out of Fort Fetterman, Wyoming, on March 1, 1876, and, battling storms and cold, scoured the Powder River country for Indians. After three discouraging weeks, a trail was found, and Crook dispatched Colonel Joseph J. Reynolds (1822–99) with a large complement of cavalry—about 300 men—to attack a village of 105 lodges beside the Powder River. Although taken by surprise, the Oglalas, under He Dog (c. 1838–1938), and the Cheyennes, led by Old Bear, counterattacked so effectively that Reynolds was forced to withdraw back to Crook and the main column. Only one of Reynolds's squadrons had managed to penetrate the village; another had seized the pony herd. But the first squadron had barely begun their work of destruction before withdrawing under the counterattack. As to the ponies, the warriors managed to recover most of them.

Reynolds in tow, Crook retreated to Fort Fetterman, where he brought charges against his subordinate for mismanaging both the attack and the retreat. General Sheridan ascribed Reynolds's poor showing to the weather and dismissed the charges. If winter combat made the Indians more vulnerable, as Sheridan believed, it also took a terrible toll on the attackers. Reynolds complained to the chief commander of the U.S. Army, General William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91), that winter campaigns in those latitudes should be prohibited. Indeed, Crook's abortive winter campaign did little damage to the Indians; if anything, it galvanized them into a large fighting force under the inspired leadership of Crazy Horse and Sitting Bull.

Late in the spring of 1876, Sheridan initiated another campaign of convergence: General Terry led a force from the east (including Custer and his 7th), Colonel John Gibbon (1827–96) approached from the West, and Crook marched out of Fort Fetterman. They converged on the Yellowstone, even as the Indians were traveling that way. Early in June, on the Rosebud Creek, the Indians held a religious ceremony known as a Sun Dance, at which Sitting Bull announced that he had had a vision. It was of many, many soldiers "falling right into our camp."

On the morning of June 17, General Crook, with more than 1,000 men, halted for a rest at the head of the Rosebud. Crow and Shoshoni scouts attached to Crook's column sighted Sitting Bull's Sioux and Cheyennes as they descended upon Crook's position. The scouts gave sufficient warning to avert disaster, but, even so, the Indians withdrew only after a six-hour fight. Crook's column had taken severe punishment and was also forced to retreat. The battle was harder than most; more significantly, it was characterized by an unusual degree of coordination and unity of action on the part of the Indians, whose style of fighting customarily sacrificed cooperation to acts of individual heroism and prowess. Under the likes of Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse, these Plains warriors had become a militarily effective unit.

Following the Rosebud battle, the Indians established a camp. In the meantime, General Terry's column united with Colonel Gibbon's at the mouth of the Rosebud. Both men were unaware of Crook's retreat. The officers of both commands, including Custer, convened in the cabin of the Yellowstone steamer *Far West* to lay out a campaign

strategy. They figured they would find the Sioux encampment on the stream that the Indians called the Greasy Grass and that white men called the Little Bighorn. What they had no notion of was the size of the camp. Augmented by the arrival of agency Indians who left the reservation for the spring and summer, the Rosebud village now consisted of about 7,000 people.

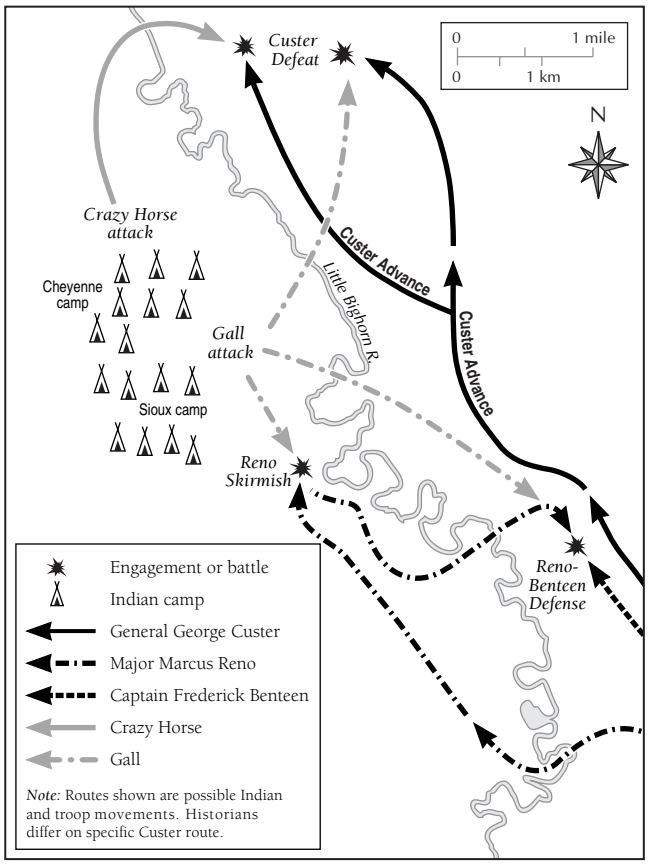
The *Far West* plan called for Custer to lead the 7th up the Rosebud, cross to the Little Bighorn, and proceed down its valley from the south as Terry and Gibbon marched up the Yellowstone and Bighorn to block the Indians from the north. In that way, Sitting Bull's forces would be caught between the two columns of a classic pincers movement.

On the morning of June 22, to the tune of "Garry Owen," the 600 men of the 7th passed in review before Terry, Gibbon, and Custer. Shaking hands with his fellow officers, Custer set off to join his men.

Custer was supposed to follow the Rosebud beyond the point where the Indians' trail was expected to turn west, so that he would cross to the Little Bighorn Valley south of the Indians' position, thereby ensuring the enemy would be caught between the 7th Cavalry and the forces of Gibbon and Terry. Custer departed from the plan. He found the Indian trail, but it was much fresher than anticipated, which meant that the Indians were not in the upper valley of the Little Bighorn but close by. To continue up the Rosebud would carry the 7th far from the Indians' position. Instead, Custer sent out scouts to follow the trail and locate the Indian village.

He planned to attack on June 26, the day Gibbon and Terry were scheduled to reach their position at the mouth of the Little Bighorn, but on June 25 the scouts discovered not only a Sioux camp but also warriors lurking nearby. Custer did not choose to amplify this intelligence. He made no attempt to ascertain the numbers of Indians involved. All he was certain of was the consequences of delay. If he waited even one day to attack, he believed, the Sioux would spot him and flee. Then this campaign, like so many others, would degenerate into days of weary, fruitless, thankless pursuit. He decided to act.

Custer led his men across the divide between the Rosebud and the Little Bighorn, dispatching Captain Frederick W. Benteen (1834–98) with 125 men in three troops to the south, in order to make sure that the Sioux had not in fact moved into the upper valley of the Little Bighorn. As Custer approached the Little Bighorn River, he spotted about 40 warriors and sent Major Marcus A. Reno (1834–89), with another three troops, after them. The plan was for Reno to pursue the warriors back to their village while Custer, with his remaining five troops, charged the village from the north. Custer had not actually seen the village, and he was maneuvering in entirely unfamiliar terrain. Neither Custer nor his commanding generals had any idea of how many warriors they were going up against.



Battle of the Little Bighorn, June 25, 1876

Later estimates put the number at anywhere from 2,500 to 6,000. Custer's combined strength was 600, and that force had been split up.

Reno's squadron of 112 men, in pursuit of those 40 warriors, was rapidly overwhelmed by masses of Sioux. He ordered his command to dismount and set up a skirmish line. When his left flank came under attack, he ordered a retreat to a cottonwood grove. Again his position was infiltrated. He ordered his men to remount for a run to the bluffs across the river. By the time Reno's troopers had reached this position—45 minutes after they had first engaged the enemy—their number had been reduced by about half.

Where—Reno must have agonized—was Custer? The colonel had ascended a bluff, had seen the vast Sioux encampment, and had seen Reno advancing for the attack. Custer called for his trumpeter, Giovanni Martini, and handed him a note to deliver to Captain Benteen, ordering him to bring the ammunition packs and join the fight. Martini was the last surviving cavalryman to see Custer alive. Warriors led by a Hunkpapa chief named Gall (c. 1840–94) surged across the Little Bighorn, pushing the troopers back. As Gall pressed from the south, Crazy Horse pushed in from the north. Within an hour, Custer and his men were dead.

In the meanwhile, Benteen, having received Custer's note, united with the remnant of Reno's command as it withdrew from the Little Bighorn Valley. When the sound of firing was heard signifying that Custer was engaged, a number of officers wanted to ride off to his support. Reno refused—but some did go, only to return when warriors riding back from the Custer fight blocked their way.

The combined forces of Reno and Benteen—368 officers and men—dug in on the bluffs and fought off a day-long siege. On the next day, June 26, the siege was renewed, continuing until early afternoon. Finally, the entire village moved off to the south as Generals Terry and Gibbon at last approached from the north. Casualties among the combined commands of Reno and Benteen were heavy. Far grimmer, of course, was the Custer battlefield, strewn with the naked and mutilated corpses of 263 men. The body of Custer, found near his personal pennant—beside which he had taken his "last stand"—had been stripped naked. But the attackers in this one instance had refrained from scalping and other mutilation.

The debacle of Little Bighorn moved Congress to increase army strength in the West by 2,500 cavalry privates. It also won for the military control of the Sioux agencies. However controversial, Custer had been, after all, young, dashing, and a hero of the late Civil War. His death and that of his command gave the military in the West what it had long wanted: support from the civilian government. But the disaster also seemed to transform the army. Crook and Terry, both excellent officers, were demoralized, even unmanned by the Little Bighorn. They spent the rest of the summer of 1876 in desultory and mostly futile pursuit of Sioux, who had already scattered and headed east after the Custer fight. One of Crook's officers, Captain Anson Mills (1834–1924), leading 150 men of the 3rd Cavalry, destroyed a Sioux camp of 37 lodges on September 9 in the sharply fought Battle of Slim Buttes. Mills's attack scattered the Indians into the hills, from which they returned fire, pinning down the attackers until Crook himself arrived with the main column. The important war chief American Horse (1846–76) was killed in the battle. But there was no followup to the battle until November, when the able commander of the 4th Cavalry, Ranald Mackenzie (1840–89), won a significant victory in the Bighorn Mountains against a Cheyenne band led by Dull Knife (c. 1808–83) and Little Wolf (c. 1830–1904). With 1,100 troopers and Indian scouts out of Fort Fetterman, Mackenzie surprised a village of 200 lodges in a canyon of the Powder River's Red Fork on November 25. Four hundred warriors defended the village in fierce combat, often hand to hand. By afternoon, however, Mackenzie had taken the village, destroyed provisions, and appropriated 700 horses. He also found souvenirs of Custer's defeat at the Little Bighorn. Forty Cheyenne died in the battle, but far more would suffer and die, provisionless and without shelter, in the intense cold—30 below zero—that followed the battle. Mackenzie lost one officer, five enlisted men, and sustained 26 wounded. Apparently, no record exists of the number of allied Indian scouts killed, though they had absorbed the first shock of the battle.

As great an asset as the Indian scouts were, they also had their own agenda, which was beyond the control of the military. Following Mackenzie's November 25 assault, a delegation of Cheyenne, Miniconjou, and Sans Arc chiefs came to talk peace with Colonel Nelson A. Miles (1839–1925). They approached his Tongue River cantonment on December 16, only to be attacked by the general's Crow scouts, who killed five. Miles sent the Sioux the Crows' ponies as atonement and apology, but the incident had been quite enough to discredit the peace faction among the assembled Sioux, and the Indians harried the Tongue River cantonment throughout the balance of the month. In response, Miles took five companies of the Fifth Infantry and two of the 22nd—about 350 men and two artillery pieces—up the Tongue Valley in search of the hostiles.

In fact, the Indians wanted to be found; they were planning an ambush. But, as often happened, the young warriors could not be restrained from acting prematurely. On January 7, 1877, Miles's scouts captured a party of Cheyenne women and children. About 200 warriors attempted to recover them; they not only failed in this but also alerted Miles to the presence of a large party of warriors. Miles was prepared for the 500 Sioux and Cheyenne, led by Crazy Horse, who attacked his camp the next day. The Battle of Wolf Mountain was fought in a severe snowstorm, which hampered the attackers more than the soldiers. When it was over, Miles was able to boast that he had taught the Indians that his small command could whip them as long as they dared face it.

Actually, casualties were light on both sides. But in the wake of indecision that followed the Custer debacle, the victory was significant. Once again, the peace faction among the Sioux and Cheyenne gained the ascendancy. Unfortunately, Bear's Coat, as the Cheyenne called Miles, and other military commanders responded to Indian peace feelers with nothing but stern demands for absolute and unconditional surrender. Sitting Bull decided to take his Hunkpapa Sioux north into Canada. The Miniconjous, Oglalas, Sans Arcs, and Cheyennes scattered. By mid-February of 1877, however, the army had softened its position somewhat and persuaded Spotted Tail (1823–81) to undertake a peace mission. By early April, large groups of Cheyenne had surrendered to officials at the Indian agencies. Crazy Horse brought the Oglala to the Red Cloud Agency and surrendered there, dramatically throwing his Winchester to the ground.

The great Sioux War was not yet over, however, as 51 lodges of Miniconjous under Lame Deer (d. 1877), pledging never to surrender, made for the Rosebud to hunt buffalo. Miles gathered to himself a squadron of 2nd Cavalry

and six companies of infantry and, on May 1, marched up the Tongue River in search of Lame Deer. Soon feeling hampered by the slow-moving infantry, Miles took four cavalry troops west and, on May 7, acting on information from his scouts, he surprised Lame Deer's camp on Muddy Creek, a Rosebud tributary. One of Miles's scouts, a Miniconjou known as Hump (1848–1908), until recently an adversary, persuaded Lame Deer and his head warrior, Iron Star (d. 1877), to give up. Shaken by the presence of Hump, the two Indians laid their rifles down and approached Miles. The tension, however, was terrific; when a scout rode up, drawing his rifle on Lame Deer and Iron Star, apparently intending nothing more than to keep them covered, the two Indians went for their own weapons. Lame Deer fired at Miles, who dodged the shot (which struck an unfortunate cavalryman behind the general). The soldiers opened fire and killed Lame Deer. Iron Star fell next. So the Battle of Muddy Creek ended: 14 Sioux dead, including the chief and the head warrior; four enlisted men were also killed, and another seven of Miles's command wounded. The general pursued the fleeing Sioux to the Rosebud before returning to burn the village and appropriate the ponies.

Throughout the summer a series of skirmishes followed, but the greatest threat to an uneasy peace was Crazy Horse, who proved restive on the reservation—an "incorrigible wild man, silent, sullen, lordly and dictatorial," as the Indian agent described him. Fearing that Crazy Horse would stir the reservation to revolt, General Crook ordered his arrest and confinement. Taken into custody on September 5, 1877, he was stabbed to death in a scuffle involving soldiers and Indians. It is unclear whether he was mortally wounded by his own hand, the knife of another Indian, or a soldier's bayonet.

To the army's way of thinking, the last remaining loose end in the Sioux War was Sitting Bull, who was living in Canada with approximately 4,000 Hunkpapa, Oglala, Miniconjou, Sans Arc, and Blackfoot Sioux as well as a handful of Nez Percé. In October 1877, General Terry, with the cooperation of the North-West Mounted Police, located Sitting Bull in Canada and attempted to persuade him to come back to a reservation in the United States. Faced with winter famine and not welcomed by Canadian tribes, who did not want to share with them the little game that was available, the Hunkpapas and members of the other tribes that had gathered around Sitting Bull were beginning to defect in small bands. But according to others Sitting Bull spat at Terry in 1877: "You come here to tell us lies. Go home where you came from." Within a very few years, however, only 200 people remained with Sitting Bull. On July 19, 1881, he and Little Bighorn veteran Gall traveled with their followers to Fort Buford, Dakota Territory, where they surrendered. Both were pardoned, and Sitting Bull continued to wield much prestige among the Sioux, encouraging them to resist the "civilizing" programs of the reservations and becoming not only the most famous Indian chief of the late 19th century but also something of a hero to the American public.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); John Gray, *Centennial Campaign: The Sioux War of 1876* (Fort Collins, Colo.: Old Army, 1976); Royal B. Hassrick, *The Sioux: Life and Customs of a Warrior Society* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1964); Paul A. Hutton, *Phil Sheridan and His Army* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1985) and (ed.) *The Custer Reader* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1992); George Hyde, *Red Cloud's Folk: A History of the Oglala Sioux Indians* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1937), *A Sioux Chronicle* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1956) and *Spotted Tail's Folk: A History of the Brule Sioux* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1961); Jerome A Greene, *Colonel Nelson A. Miles and the Great Sioux War* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1991); C. M. Oehler, *The Great Sioux Uprising* (New York: Da Capo, 1997); Edward Lazarus, *Black Hills, White Justice: The Sioux Nation versus the United States, 1775 to the Present* (New York: HarperCollins, 1991); Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod, *Encyclopedia of the American West,* 4 vols. (New York: Macmillan Reference USA, 1996); Robert M. Utley, *Cavalier in Buckskin: George Armstrong Custer and the Western Military Frontier* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1988), *Frontier Regulars: The United States Army and the Indian, 1866–1865* (New York: Macmillan, 1973), *The Lance and the Shield: The Life and Times of Sitting Bull* (New York: Henry Holt, 1993), and *The Last Days of the Sioux Nation* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1963).

United States's Slave Rebellions

See Gabriel's Rebellion; Murrel's Uprising; Turner's Rebellion; Vesey's Rebellion.

United States War of Independence

See American Revolution (1775–1783): Overview; American Revolution (1775–1783): Coastal Theater; American Revolution (1775–1783): Frontier Theater.

United States's "War on Terrorism"

(2001–ongoing)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Al-Qaeda terrorists and Afghanistan's Taliban government vs. the United States and Afghan anti-Taliban forces (mainly the Northern Alliance)

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): New York City, the Pentagon, rural Pennsylvania, Afghanistan

DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Terrorist objectives: related to U.S. support for Israel against the Palestinian state; also related to a general religious opposition of Islam against the "Western" religions (Christianity and Judaism); U.S. objectives: to destroy the al-Qaeda and other international terrorist networks and to "bring the terrorists to justice"
OUTCOME: The Taliban was overthrown; however, as of the end of 2004, a low-level insurgent war was still being fought, and Americans remained anxiously watchful for future terrorist attacks.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: September 11, 2001, attacks: at least 16 suicide terrorists directly involved; size of U.S.-based terrorist network, unknown. In Afghanistan: Taliban forces, about 40,000; Northern Alliance, 15,000; U.S. troops, about 1,000 deployed on the ground, many more personnel at sea and in the air
CASUALTIES: September 11, 2001 attacks: about 3,190 killed; in Afghanistan, large but unknown number of Taliban fighters killed, wounded, or captured; Northern Alliance casualties unknown; U.S. casualties, 5 killed; fewer than 50 wounded or injured
TREATIES: None

AT 8:45 (EDT) on the morning of September 11, 2001, a Boeing 757 passenger jetliner—later identified as American Airlines flight 11 out of Boston—crashed into the north tower of the World Trade Center in New York City's Lower Manhattan. At 9:03, as the news agencies' cameras rolled, a second 757, United Airlines flight 175, also out of Boston, hit the as-yet-undamaged south tower. At 9:40, the Federal Aviation Administration shut down all U.S. airports, but three minutes later, American Airlines flight 77 crashed into the Pentagon, the U.S. military headquarters. At 10:05 in New York, the 110-story south tower of the World Trade Center collapsed. At 10:10, a portion of the Pentagon collapsed. At almost precisely the same time, United Airlines flight 93 crashed in rural Somerset County, Pennsylvania, outside of Pittsburgh. At 10:28, the north tower of the World Trade Center collapsed.

The United States had been attacked by terrorists. Four small groups of Middle Eastern men, most of them Saudis, apparently members of a terrorist organization called al-Qaeda ("The Base") and trained in the rudiments of flight, had hijacked four U.S. commercial jetliners. They had used them as suicide missiles, directing them to the World Trade Center and the Pentagon. The hijackers on the fourth aircraft, which crashed in Pennsylvania, were overpowered by passengers, who, via cell phone conversations, had heard of the attack on the World Trade Center. Tragically, a crash could not be averted, but the plane had been most likely headed for the White House or Capitol. The attacks were the first time mainland America had been struck by a foreign power since the WAR OF 1812 and the first peacetime assault against U.S. territory since the attack on Pearl Harbor, December 7, 1941. The combined death toll in New York, the Pentagon, and Pennsylvania was 3,190.

Al-Qaeda, the terrorist organization that apparently sponsored the attacks, was financed in large part by Osama bin Laden (b. 1957), a 44-year-old multimillionaire, Saudi by birth, and at the time living in Afghanistan, where he enjoyed the protection of the radical Islamic Taliban government. He was implicated in earlier terrorist attacks, including the bombings of two U.S. embassies in 1998 and an attack on the U.S. guided missile destroyer *Cole,* in port at Yemen, on October 12, 2000. His al-Qaeda served as a center for the indoctrination, training, coordination, and financing of Muslim terrorists dedicated to carrying out jihad (holy war) against Israel and the West, especially the United States.

In the days following September 11, the United States deployed its military in an undeclared "war against terrorism," beginning with a campaign to capture or kill bin Laden, destroy al-Qaeda, and overthrow the Taliban government of Afghanistan. A rapid diplomatic effort forged a loose coalition of key nations pledged to support the war against terrorism. Pakistan, which shares a border with Afghanistan and had been a supporter of the Taliban regime, cooperated closely, and even Iran, hostile to the United States since the fall of the shah and the hostage crisis of 1979–81, agreed to allow flyovers and to accept emergency landings. Only Iraq (*see* PERSIAN GULF WAR) refused cooperation.

The first attack against the Taliban government of Afghanistan was launched at 16:38 Greenwich Mean Time, October 7—nighttime in Afghanistan. Supported by British air units, the United States attacked with B-1 bombers, B-2 "stealth" bombers, and venerable B-52s, as well as ship-launched cruise missiles. After less than a week of bombardment, the United States had achieved "air supremacy," and daylight raids were added to those at night. High-altitude bombers were replaced by lower-altitude strike aircraft, capable of close ground support. Simultaneously with the air raids, U.S. cargo transports dropped food packages intended for Afghan civilians.

The U.S. air strikes were coordinated with action on the ground by anti-Taliban Afghan forces, primarily the Northern Alliance, which fielded about 15,000 men against the 40,000-man Taliban army. On October 20, the Northern Alliance ground forces were joined by about 100 U.S. Special Forces commandos, who staged the first U.S. raid on the ground, destroying some Taliban facilities and obtaining Taliban documents.

While the war was being fought in distant Afghanistan, in the United States a new form of terrorist attack was unleashed. On October 4, U.S. health officials reported that a Florida man had contracted anthrax—the

first case in the United States since the 1970s. At first authorities played down any link between the infection and terrorism, but anthrax was well known as a bioterrorist weapon. More cases followed, most of which were traced to letters sent to prominent media figures (such as NBC news broadcaster Tom Brokaw) and government officials (such as Senate majority leader Tom Daschle). By the end of November, scores of people had been exposed to anthrax, several became ill (with either the highly treatable cutaneous form of the disease or the far more deadly inhaled form), and six victims had died.

Was the anthrax attack the work of Osama bin Laden and al-Qaeda? Was Saddam Hussein's Iraq responsible for it? Was it an instance of "homegrown" terrorism? As of the end of 2004, the questions remained unanswered.

Meanwhile, by November 2001, the pace of the Afghan war had rapidly accelerated. Combined U.S. and Northern Alliance attacks resulted in the fall of Mazar-e Sharif, gateway for Afghanistan and Taliban sympathizers in Pakistan, on November 12. On November 13, the Afghan capital city of Kabul was occupied by Northern Alliance troops. By the end of the month, Kunduz, a northern Taliban stronghold, fell. Kandahar, the only major Taliban-held city, reeled under siege and seemed, by early December, about to fall to the Northern Alliance, which it did in the general rout of Afghan forces that followed, during which Osama bin Laden and much of al-Qaeda's senior leadership vanished. Throughout 2002, as U.S. Special Forces continued to hunt for Osama bin Laden and other al-Qaeda leaders, President George W. Bush (b. 1946) repeatedly observed that the "War against Terrorism" had not ended with the fall of the Taliban and would not end even with capture of bin Laden and his associates. In late 2002, the speculation that had been running high all year as to the next battleground proved true when the Bush administration began stridently to argue the case for making Sadam Hussein's regime in Iraq the next target of the U.S.-led war on terrorism. As of the end of 2004, low-intensity combat continues in Afghanistan.

See also UNITED STATES–IRAQ WAR ("OPERATION IRAQI FREEDOM").

Further reading: Rohan Gunarta, *Inside Al-Qaeda* (New York: Columbia University Press, 2002); Bill Sammon, *Fighting Back: The War on Terrorism from inside the Bush White House* (Chicago: Regency, 2002).

United States's War with the Navajos and Jicarilla Apaches (1851–1860)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Navajo and Jicarilla Apache Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): New Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Territorial disputes, Navajo raiding tradition, and punitive federal and military Indian policy.
OUTCOME: Conflict ceased until 1863.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Navajos, 1,000 warriors; United States, 970
CASUALTIES: United States, 200 to 300 killed between 1846 and 1861; Navajos and Jicarilla Apaches, unknown
TREATIES: "Bonneville Treaty," "Canby Treaty," 1860

Beginning with the Spanish during the late 18th century, the Navajo Indians of the American Southwest resisted domination by every white government that attempted to assert authority over them. Their culture guided by a strong warrior tradition, the Navajos raided white and other Indian settlements alike, nearly wiping out the Hopi village of Oraibi in 1837. Seeking to restore order, the Mexican government intervened with troops, but to little effect. During the UNITED STATES-MEXICAN WAR in 1846, U.S. authorities concluded a treaty with the Navajo, but from 1846 to 1849, the federal government was obliged to launch five military campaigns against them.

On July 19, 1851, Lieutenant Colonel Edwin V. Sumner (1797–1862)—nicknamed "Bull-Head" because a musket ball had once (reportedly) ricocheted harmlessly off his skull—assumed command in the Southwest. Determined to put a stop to Navajo raiding, he built a chain of forts. The appearance of fortifications prompted the Navajos to participate in peace talks, which might have succeeded had not James S. Calhoun (1802–52), the able territorial governor of New Mexico, fallen ill. He withdrew from the negotiations (and subsequently died), leaving the uncompromising Sumner in charge. Peace nevertheless endured until the summer of 1852, when William Carr Lane (1789–1863) arrived as the new territorial governor and declared that it was better to feed the Indians, than to fight them. Accordingly, he high-handedly bypassed Sumner to negotiate generous treaties with the Navajos and the Jicarilla Apaches, with whom the Navajos were closely allied.

Unfortunately, the U.S. Congress failed to appropriate the modest $20,000 needed to make good on the treaties. The Jicarillas resumed raiding, but the Navajos remained relatively quiet until the spring of 1856.

In 1856, in response to the renewed raids, the army launched a series of punitive expeditions, which served only to escalate the violence into a full-scale war. The war erupted in 1858 following an argument between some Navajos and soldiers who had grazed their horses on land claimed by the Navajo chief Manuelito (c. 1818–93). A few months after the incident, Manuelito defiantly set his stock to graze on land claimed by the fort. Major Thomas H. Brooks, commander of Fort Defiance at the time, ordered his men to slaughter 60 of Manuelito's animals. In retaliation, on July 7, 1858, Navajo warriors shot volleys of arrows into a soldiers' camp, and on the 12th a Navajo warrior murdered Brooks's black servant, Jim. The major demanded that the Navajos produce the murderer, and General John Garland (1792–1861), who had replaced Bull-Head Sum-

ner, prepared a full-scale offensive to be commanded by Lieutenant Colonel Dixon S. Miles (d. 1862).

Miles issued an ultimatum, setting a deadline for the surrender of the murderer. When the Navajos failed to produce him, Miles commenced hostilities on September 9, 1858, with a punitive expedition to Canyon de Chelly, Arizona, where soldiers burned fields of corn and a peach orchard, killed six Indians, and appropriated 6,000 Navajo sheep. Miles next raided the village of Zarcillos Largos, an important Navajo chief, wounding him gravely and capturing 40 warriors. The Navajos retaliated with raids and an attack on Fort Defiance.

In October, a third commander arrived on the scene, Colonel Benjamin Bonneville (1796–1878), who sent Miles to lead more assaults against the Navajos, which did relatively little damage but sent the Indians to the peace table nevertheless.

Unfortunately, the government negotiators took an uncompromising punitive position, pushing the boundary of their lands farther west, extracting exorbitant damages, securing the right to build any number of forts on Navajo lands, and declaring the entire Navajo nation culpable for the future actions of any individual.

For a time, the Navajos tried to comply with the "Bonneville Treaty," but by the middle of 1859 white-aligned Ute Indians had begun raiding the Navajos, who retaliated against them and, in the course of retaliation, rustled some New Mexican sheep. In response, a new military offensive was launched, once again bringing in the Navajos to talk peace. Negotiations broke down when Navajo chief Huero refused to sign the proposed treaty, claiming that such pieces of paper bound the Indians but not the whites, and by the beginning of 1860, Navajo raids were almost a daily occurrence. The army seemed powerless to stop the escalating Indian violence.

On April 30, 1860, 1,000 warriors attacked Fort Defiance, which was evacuated and abandoned on May 4. Colonel Thomas T. Fauntleroy (1796–1883) was sent to replace Bonneville but was ordered to concentrate his undermanned forces against the Comanches and Kiowas, who were raiding mail routes in Texas. Outraged, the governor of the New Mexico territory called for a volunteer force, but before it could be raised, Fauntleroy had received reinforcements and launched a full-scale expedition against the Navajos.

More than 500 regulars were joined by 470 civilian volunteers, all led by Brigadier General Edward R. S. Canby (1817–73). Again, the Navajos came in for peace talks, agreeing to the "Canby Treaty," which brought a truce until 1863, when a much larger Navajo War broke out.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993); Lynn Robison Bailey, *Long Walk: A History of the Navajo Wars, 1846–68* (Los Angeles: Westernlore, 1964); Thomas W. Dunlay, *Kit Carsan and the Indians* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 2000); Frank McNitt, *Navajo Wars: Military Campaigns, Slave Raids, and Reprisals* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1990); Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod, *Encyclopedia of the American West,* 4 vols. (New York: Macmillan Reference USA, 1996).

Uruguayan Revolt (1811–1816)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Banda Oriental (Uruguay) vs. Spain, then Portugal, then United Provinces of Río de la Plata (Argentina, Paraguay, Bolivia), then Brazil
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Banda Oriental (Uruguay)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Banda Oriental fought to obtain and maintain independence, first from Spain, then the United Provinces of Río de la Plata, then from Brazil.
OUTCOME: Banda Oriental achieved independence from Spain and maintained independence from Argentina but was annexed by Brazil.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Uruguay, known as the Banda Oriental until it gained independence as a result of the Argentine-Brazilian War of 1825–28, was disputed colonial territory between Portugal and Spain during the early 19th century. It fell under the viceroyalty of Spain, as part of Río de la Plata (encompassing Argentina, Paraguay, Bolivia, and Uruguay) in 1776, but after Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) overthrew Ferdinand VII (1784–1833) of Spain in 1808, Argentina assumed the lead in a movement of independence and union. Banda Oriental was invited to join the newly proclaimed United Provinces of the Río de la Plata. However, when the independence movement forced the Spanish viceroy, Francisco Javier de Elio (1767–1822), out of his palace in Buenos Aires, it was to Banda Oriental that he fled, seeking refuge in Montevideo. Uruguayan revolutionaries, led by José Gervasio Artigas (1764–1850), attempted to evict him. To resist the revolutionaries, Elio sought aid from Carlota Joaquina (1775–1830), sister of the deposed Spanish king, and wife of the Brazilian regent John (1769–1826). In 1811, she persuaded her husband to dispatch a Portuguese force from Brazil to invade Banda Oriental and defend Elio. Artigas, however, led his revolutionaries to victory against the Portuguese invaders and took control of Banda Oriental. Instead of joining Argentina in the United Provinces of Río de la Plata, however, Artigas decided that Banda Oriental would remain independent. In response, Argentine troops invaded in 1814. They assaulted Montevideo but were repulsed in 1815. Thus Banda Oriental stood independent of Argentina as well as Spain.

In 1816, Banda Oriental was invaded by Brazilian troops, who removed Artigas and set up an occupation. Banda Oriental was formally annexed to Brazil, now independent of Portugal, in 1821. It would break free of that nation following the Argentine-Brazilian War.

Further reading: George Pendle, *Uruguay,* 3rd ed. (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1985, 1965).

Uruguayan Revolution (1933)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Uruguayan president Gabriel Terra and the conservative Blanco Party vs. radical forces within his own party, the Colorados.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Uruguay
DECLARATION: Terra himself created the revolution by dissolving the government's representative bodies and abrogating the constitution on March 30, 1933.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of depression-plagued Uruguayan government
OUTCOME: Terra prevailed as a fairly moderate dictator.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

With Uruguay hit hard by the worldwide Great Depression of the 1930s, Gabriel Terra (1873–1942), a liberal member of the Colorado (Red) Party, was elected president. The National Council of Administration quickly attempted to usurp or curb executive power, and Terra also found himself opposed by the conservative party, the Blancos (Whites) as well as by radical members of the Colorado Party. The Blancos favored increased privatization of the economy, whereas the radical Colorados demanded sweeping nationalization. Caught in the middle, Terra dissolved the National Council as well as the Uruguayan Congress on March 30, 1933. He did so forcibly, ordering troops into both bodies to clear out the members. Terra then abolished the constitution and declared himself dictator while a new constitution was prepared. Promulgated in 1934, the new document gave the chief executive permanent near-dictatorial powers. Terra was reelected, however, and suppressed a minor revolt against him in 1935. He stepped down voluntarily in 1938 and was succeeded by his brother-in-law, Alfredo Baldomir (1884–1948), an army general. Baldomir restored a significant measure of democratic government.

Further reading: M. H. Finch, *A Political Economy of Uruguay Since 1890* (New York: St. Martin's, 1981).

Uskok War *See* THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Utah War (Mormon War) (1857–1858)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States Army vs. Mormon "Danites"
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Utah
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Militant Mormons ("Danites") used terror tactics to exclude "gentiles" from their land; the United States deemed this an insurrection and dispatched federal troops to put it down.
OUTCOME: The "insurrection" was ended peacefully, and Mormon leader Brigham Young was replaced as governor of the Utah Territory by a federally appointed official.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 2,500; Danites, unknown
CASUALTIES: 123 emigrants, murdered by the Danites; one Mormon was convicted of murder and executed in 1877
TREATIES: None

The territory encompassed by the present state of Utah was settled by members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, popularly called the Mormons, in the mid-1840s. It was proclaimed a U.S. territory in 1850, with Mormon leader Brigham Young (1801–77) as its appointed governor. A religious leader first and a political official second, Young adopted a dictatorial style of governance. Conflict with the federal government was inevitable. The most acute conflict, however, had less to do with the infringement of democracy than popular outrage against the Mormon practice of polygamy. In response to hostility from the outside—the world of the "gentiles"—a significant faction of Mormons acted to exclude gentiles from settling in their territory and even sought to bar their crossing Utah on their way farther west. Elements of this opposition movement became militant, and a violent episode erupted in September 1857, when a band of 140 emigrants from Arkansas passed through southern Utah, bound for California. They pitched camp in a valley called Mountain Meadows and were suddenly attacked by Paiutes. The emigrants defended themselves. Pinned down, the emigrants spent the next several days resisting sporadic Paiute attacks. Eventually, they were approached by a group of whites who offered to escort them to safe haven, provided they disarm. Desperate, their food and supplies waning, the emigrants handed over their weapons. No sooner had they done so than the "rescue" party shot and killed all of them, except for 17 infants.

When a group of armed Mormon zealots, called the Danites, was identified as having been responsible for the MOUNTAIN MEADOWS MASSACRE, President James Buchanan (1791–1868) dispatched 2,500 troops under Colonel Albert S. Johnston (1803–62) to Utah to enforce the installation of a newly appointed non-Mormon governor and impose federal authority.

The Danites harassed the troops, stampeding their horses, attacking supply wagons, and even setting prairie fires to impede Johnston's progress. In the meantime, Brigham Young created a siege mentality by summoning Mormons to defend Salt Lake City, the capital of the Mormon settlement. With Utah on the verge of civil war, President Buchanan authorized a compromise that averted further bloodshed. Brigham Young agreed to step down as governor and to recognize the federally appointed governor. In return, Johnston's troops withdrew from the environs of Salt Lake City, and all involved in the "rebellion" were unconditionally pardoned.

For years afterward, no Mormon admitted involvement in the Mountain Meadows Massacre. Ultimately, however, Danite leaders confessed that they had not only directed the Paiute attack on the emigrant wagon train but also murdered the travelers. Only one man, John Doyle Lee, was arrested for the Mountain Meadows Massacre. Tried and convicted, he was executed in 1877.

Further reading: Paul D. Bailey, *Holy Smoke: A Dissertation on the Utah War* (Los Angeles: Westernlore Books, 1978); Norman F. Furniss, *The Mormon Conflict, 1850–1859* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1960); Charles Phillips and Alan Axelrod, *Encyclopedia of the American West,* 4 vols. (New York: Macmillan Reference USA, 1996).

Ute War (1879–1880)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Ute Indians vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Colorado
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Miners pressed the U.S. government to release more Ute reservation lands for silver prospecting.
OUTCOME: Utes lost their lands and were removed to reservations in Utah and southwest Colorado.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 175–1,500 troops; Utes, unknown
CASUALTIES: Battle of Milk Creek, United States, 13 killed, 43 wounded; Utes, 23 killed; Indian agent Nathan Meeker and other agency employees killed, Meeker's wife and daughters taken captive
TREATIES: None

During the 1870s, after silver strikes in western Colorado and eastern Utah, mining interests pressured the federal government for permission to exploit what remained of the Ute reservation in Colorado, which had already been greatly reduced by a series of cessions. Silver speculators called for the removal of the Utes to Indian Territory (Oklahoma).

On the Ute reservation at White River, Agent Nathan C. Meeker (1817–79) had embarked on a program to force the free-ranging Utes into sedentary lives as farmers and demanded that the Indians plow up their ponies' grazing land. Meeker provoked a fight with a Ute medicine man (known only as Johnson) on September 10, 1879, and the agent called in the army.

Major Thomas T. "Tip" Thornburgh (d. 1879) led 153 infantry and cavalrymen, with an additional 25 civilians, to Meeker's relief on September 16, 1879. The approach of the troops stirred up increased hostility. To cool off the situation, Meeker suggested a parley, which Thornburgh arranged. But Thornburgh decided to move 120 cavalrymen closer to the agency as protection. The Utes interpreted the move as preparation for battle and confronted the soldiers on the trail on September 25.

As soldiers and Utes stood face to face, the major's adjutant removed and waved his hat, apparently in innocent greeting. But either an Indian or a soldier took it for a signal, a shot rang out, and the Battle of Milk Creek began.

Thornburgh was among the first killed, and the battle settled into a week-long siege, which ended only when two of the defenders sneaked through the Indian lines and summoned reinforcements. On October 2, a unit under Captain Francis Dodge (1842–1908) arrived but was unable to break the siege, and it was not until a larger unit under Colonel Wesley Merritt (1834–1910) arrived on October 5 that the Utes withdrew.

In the meantime, Agent Meeker and others had been killed and several women taken captive. Generals William Tecumseh Sherman (1820–91) and Philip Sheridan (1831–88) recommended a swift punitive campaign of punishment, but Secretary of the Interior Carl Schurz (1829–1906), Indian agent Charles Adams, and an elderly Ute chief named Ouray (d. 1880), negotiated the release of the captives without further bloodshed.

A special commission meeting during November and December 1879 concluded that the Utes as a tribe should suffer no punishment. Twelve Ute men, however, were tried for murdering Meeker and for committing "outrages" against the captive women. In 1880, Chief Ouray led his tribe to reservations in eastern Utah and southwestern Colorado. Congress siphoned off a portion of the Utes' annuity trust fund as compensation for the death of Meeker and the others.

Further reading: G. Fay, *Land Cessions in Utah and Colorado, by the Ute Indians, 1861–1899* (Greeley: University of Northern Colorado, Museum of Anthropology, 1970); J. Donald Hughes, *American Indians in Colorado* (Boulder Colo.: Pruett, 1977); P. David Smith, *Ouray, Chief of the Utes* (Ouray, Colo.: Wayfinder, 1986).

V

Valois-Hapsburg Wars (1521–1559) *See* Hapsburg-Valois War; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, First; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Second; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Third; Italian War between Charles V and Francis I, Fourth.

Vandal Raids: Vandal Resurgence in Spain (420–428)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vandals vs. Suevi and, separately, Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Domination of the Iberian Peninsula
OUTCOME: The Vandals defeated the Suevi and the Romans, thereby becoming the dominant power on the peninsula.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Gunderic (d. 428), king of the Vandals, led his forces out of defeat in Galicia (at the hands of the Visigoths in Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire: Visigoth Invasion of Gaul and Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire: Visigoth Invasion of Spain) to resurgence and victory against the Suevi, barbarians from the region of modern Swabia. After defeating the Suevi, Gunderic led an assault against Roman forces in eastern Spain led by General Castinus (fl. 422–35). The Romans were beaten on the Iberian Peninsula by 421, and the Vandals emerged as the dominant group there, fighting skirmishes primarily against the Suevi.

The death of Gunderic in 428 brought Gaiseric (390–477) to the Vandal throne. The Suevi leader Hermanric was tempted to try a major uprising against the Vandal overlords that year. This attempt was defeated at the Battle of Merida, on the Anas River, in 428.

Further reading: John B. Bury, *The Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: Norton, 2000); Thomas Hodgin, *Huns, Vandals and the Fall of the Roman Empire* (London: Greenhill, 1998); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002).

Vandal Raids: Bonifacius's Revolt (428)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Bonifacius's barbarian forces vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Tunisia, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Bonifacius sought to break away from the Roman Empire.
OUTCOME: Expanded into a general Vandal invasion of Africa
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: In the first phase, minor
TREATIES: None; but an alliance was concluded between Bonifacius and the Vandals.

The Roman barbarian general Bonifacius (d. 433), also known as Count Boniface, successfully defended Massilia (Marseille) against the Visigoths during the VISIGOTHIC RAIDS ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE: VISIGOTH INVASION OF GAUL (412–14) and, later, remained faithful to the Roman emperor Valentinian III (419–55) during the usurpation of Valentinian's prime minister John (Johannes Theodosius, d. 425) in 423–25. For his valiant service against the Visigoths and for his loyalty during the usurpation, Bonifacius was rewarded with the governorship of Africa. However, Bonifacius felt that this was hardly sufficient reward for his many services and that, furthermore, he was losing influence within the imperial government. Therefore, in 428 he staged a revolt against the empire. The revolt quickly escalated into a full-scale war after Boniface appealed to the Vandals for alliance and aid.

See also VANDAL RAIDS: VANDAL INVASION OF AFRICA.

Further reading: John B. Bury, *The Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: Norton, 2000); Thomas Hodgin, *Huns, Vandals and the Fall of the Roman Empire* (London: Greenhill, 1998); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002).

Vandal Raids: Vandal Invasion of Africa (429–435)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vandals and Alans vs. provincial Roman forces of Bonifacius
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Region of modern Algeria and Tunisia, Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Gaiseric of the Vandals sought control of northwestern Africa.
OUTCOME: Gaiseric came to control all of the region, save eastern Numidia (Tunisia).
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Vandals, 50,000; Bonifacius's forces, unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Pursuant to an appeal from Bonifacius (d. 433), Gaiseric (390–477), ruler of the Vandals, invaded Africa with 50,000 men (*see* VANDAL RAIDS: BONIFACIUS'S REVOLT), including Vandals and Alans. Unfortunately, in a display of catastrophically bad timing, Bonifacius had reconciled with the Romans. He now made an attempt to call off the Vandal-Alan incursion. It was to no avail, and thus Bonifacius led his provincial Roman forces against the invaders he himself had summoned.

Gaiseric easily defeated Bonifacius in two key battles, both fought near Hippo (Bone, Algeria) in 429 and again in 431. The second battle marked the culmination of a 14-month siege of the city of Hippo. After this important city fell, Gaiseric exploited internal dissension throughout the region to seize control, by 435, of all of northwest Africa, save eastern Numidia (Tunisia).

Further reading: John B. Bury, *The Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: Norton, 2000); Thomas Hodgin, *Huns, Vandals and the Fall of the Roman Empire* (London: Greenhill, 1998); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002).

Vandal Raids: Gaiseric's Wars of Expansion (435–450)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vandals (with Hun alliance) vs. Eastern Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Africa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Gaiseric sought to expand his territorial holdings.
OUTCOME: Gaiseric came to control most of northern Africa and established a piratical reign of terror on the Mediterranean.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Vandal ruler Gaiseric (390–477) amassed a mighty navy and systematically consolidated his grip on Mauretania and western Numidia. In October 439, he overran Carthage and came to control eastern Numidia (Tunisia). This accomplished, he raided Sicily in 440 and established bases from which the Vandals terrorized the Mediterranean for the next 100 years with pirate raids.

The Roman general Aetius (c. 396–454), preoccupied with the defense of Gaul, sought aid from Theodosius II (408–50), emperor of the East. Theodosius responded by dispatching a fleet to Sicily with the intention of raiding Africa from there. The wily Gaiseric bribed no less a figure than Attila the Hun (c. 406–53) to draw off the Eastern imperial fleet by attacking Thrace and Illyricum. With the empire directly menaced, Theodosius had no choice but to recall the fleet to defend Constantinople. Gaiseric retained his hold on northern Africa.

Further reading: John B. Bury, *The Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: Norton, 2000); Thomas Hodgin, *Huns, Vandals and the Fall of the Roman Empire* (London: Greenhill, 1998); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002).

Vandal Raids: Gaiseric's Wars of Expansion (461–477)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vandals vs. Eastern and Western Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Africa and southern Italy, in addition to raids in Thrace, Egypt, Greece, and Asia Minor
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Gaiseric sought territorial expansion and spoils.
OUTCOME: The expansion was ended only by Gaiseric's death in 477.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Roman forces, 100,000; Gaiseric's forces, numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The expansion begun during VANDAL RAIDS: GAISERIC'S WARS OF EXPANSION (435–450) continued apace between 461 and 477 as the Vandal ruler Gaiseric (390–477) led raids all along the coast of the western Mediterranean. Gaiseric's forces hit as far east as Thrace, Egypt, Greece, and into Asia Minor.

The Eastern and Western Roman Empires united in an attempt to crush Gaiseric once and for all. In 468, they invaded southern Italy and northern Africa, seizing both Tripoli and Sardinia. However, Gaiseric quickly was able to recover not only these two territories but also to stage a counteroffensive by which all of Sicily came under his control. Moreover, Vandal seapower on the Mediterranean had developed beyond challenge.

In the end, neither the Eastern Empire nor the Western—tottering on the verge of a collapse that finally came on September 4, 476, with the end of the reign of Romulus Augustulus (r. 475–76)—curbed Gaiseric. His efforts at expansion were impeded by internal religious dissension, which had become especially intense at the time of his death in 477.

Further reading: John B. Bury, *The Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: Norton, 2000); Thomas Hodgin, *Huns, Vandals and the Fall of the Roman Empire* (London: Greenhill, 1998); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002).

Vandal-Roman Wars in North Africa (533–534)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Eastern (Byzantine) Empire vs. the Vandals
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North Africa
DECLARATION: In effect, Eastern Empire on the Vandals
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Eastern emperor Justinian I resolved to end Vandal rule in North Africa, formerly a Roman province.
OUTCOME: The great Byzantine general Belisarius scored two massive victories against Vandal forces, which not only ended Vandal rule in North Africa but also destroyed the Vandals as a political entity.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Ad Decium (Second Battle of Carthage), the Vandals fielded 30,000 men against 15,000 Byzantines.
CASUALTIES: The Vandal army was almost completely destroyed.
TREATIES: None

The Vandals, a Germanic tribe originally concentrated in Jutland (part of modern Denmark), settled in Roman imperial territories and, by the fifth century, were menacing a disintegrating Roman Empire. By the mid-400s, the Vandals also came to control North Africa, having wrested the region from Roman control. They proved tyrannical and harsh rulers, openly abused the Romanized populations of the region, and imposed their own religion. At last, in 533, Justinian I (483–565), Roman emperor of the East, dispatched the great Byzantine general Belisarius (c. 505–65) at the head of a large army with the object of ejecting the Vandals from North Africa. Justinian's cause was the usurpation of the Vandal throne by Gelimer (fl. 530–34), a sworn enemy of Rome, who had ousted his pro-Roman cousin.

In a battle outside of Carthage (the Vandal capital), Belisarius met and defeated the Vandal forces, then overran Carthage. Three months later, Gelimer attempted to mount a counterattack to retake the city but was dealt a defeat at the Second Battle of Carthage (a battle also known as Ad Decium) on September 14, 533, a defeat that was stunning in its totality. His army was almost completely destroyed, and Gelimer fled for his life to Numidia (roughly Algeria). Belisarius pursued him relentlessly and captured him in March 534. He was taken to Constantinople, then set free and allowed to settle far from North Africa, in Asia Minor. With this defeat in battle and the removal of Gelimer, the Vandals ceased to exist as a political entity.

See also GOTHIC (ITALIAN) WAR.

Further reading: John B. Bury, *The Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: Norton, 2000); Thomas Hodgin, *Huns, Vandals and the Fall of the Roman Empire* (London: Greenhill, 1998); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002).

Vandal Sack of Rome (455)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vandals vs. Western Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rome and environs

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Gaiseric targeted Rome for a raid.
OUTCOME: Rome fell to Gaiseric, who sacked it over a two-week period.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Petronius Maximus (c. 396–455), protege of the Roman general Aetius (c. 396–454), assassinated Emperor Valentinian III (419–55) and compelled his widow, Licinia Eudoxia (d. c. 493), to become his bride. Eudoxia's response was to appeal for aid from the Vandals, led by Gaiseric (390–477). He steered a Vandal naval fleet to the mouth of the Tiber River. As the Vandals closed on Rome, Petronius Maximus fled, only to be killed by his own people. The Vandals stormed the city, which they occupied and sacked from June 2 to June 16. Taking Eudoxia as a hostage, the Vandals then withdrew to Carthage.

Further reading: John B. Bury, *The Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: Norton, 2000); Thomas Hodgin, *Huns, Vandals and the Fall of the Roman Empire* (London: Greenhill, 1998); E. A. Thompson, *Romans and Barbarians: The Decline of the Western Empire* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 2002).

Vellore Mutiny (1806)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Sepoys (British East India Company native troops) vs. British East India Company and British colonial forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vellore, India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The sepoys mutinied against British orders prohibiting the wearing of turbans and the display of caste marks among soldiers.
OUTCOME: Many British were killed in the initial onslaught, which, however, was quickly (and brutally) put down.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Sepoys, 1,500; British and other Europeans (during the initial stage of the mutiny), 4,000
CASUALTIES: Many of the 4,000 Europeans were killed in the initial onslaught; in the British counterattack, 350 sepoys were killed; British losses in the counterattack were 130 dragoons.
TREATIES: None

This war was triggered by the cultural arrogance and insensitivity that characterized British colonial policy in the 19th century. The British East India Company, seeking to introduce Western-style military uniformity into the ranks of native troops under the command of the company, ordered that all sepoy (Indian soldiers) discard their turbans and wear leather military headdress. Furthermore, no caste marks or other ornaments were to be worn during parades.

These orders triggered a massive mutiny in Vellore, India, during May 1806. Fifteen hundred sepoys divided into two groups. One attacked the Europeans (troops and civilians) in Vellore. One hundred of 4,000 troops were killed. While this was taking place, the second group of sepoys attacked the houses of British officers, killing 14 of them—much of the British officer corps present.

The mutiny was put down by British dragoons dispatched from nearby Arcot. They stormed the fortress at Vellore, which had been taken over and occupied by the sepoys, and ruthlessly shot and slashed their way through the fortress. About 350 sepoys were killed in this assault, at the cost of 130 British dragoons. The mutiny was ended, and William Bentinck (1774–1839), the British governor-general of Madras, was replaced for his failure to prevent the mutiny.

Further reading: Maya Gupta, *Lord William Bentinck in Madras and the Vellore Mutiny, 1803–7* (New Delhi: Capital, 1986); P. J. Marshall, *Problems of Empire: Britain and India, 1757–1813* (London: Allen and Unwin; New York: Barnes and Noble, 1968).

Vendée, Wars of the (1793–1832)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Royalist rebels of the Vendée region vs. forces of the French Republic
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vendée and Brittany, France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Vendée rebels sought to restore the Bourbons to the French throne.
OUTCOME: The Vendée rebellion was repeatedly extinguished.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Vendée rebels, 65,000 combatants; Republican forces, 400,000 (total, over the span of the war)
CASUALTIES: Vendée rebels, 80,000–100,000 died, including many noncombatant civilians; Republican forces, 21,500+ killed, including 13 Republican generals
TREATIES: Convention of La Jaunaye, February 17, 1795

The peasantry of the French Vendée, a region south of Brittany, rebelled against the Revolutionary republic in support of a Bourbon king and the Catholic Church. Early in 1793, riots began, which, by March, developed into a full-scale rebellion with the killing of 150 Republican officials. Peasant leaders joined forces with noblemen to recruit an army of 30,000 by May 1793, which, in the Battle of Fontenay-le-Comte on May 28, readily repulsed a 14,000-man Republican force sent to the region to restore

order. Some 4,000 Republicans fell in that battle, as did 1,000 Royalist rebels.

In June, the Vendée army took the offensive, taking Saumur on the 9th. However, an attack on Nantes, June 29, proved unsuccessful, with 5,000 casualties among the 38,000 Royalists who were pitted against a mere 12,000 Republicans (their losses were 2,000 killed and wounded). However, on July 5, at the Battle of Chatillon-sur-Sevre, a Vendée army of 20,000 defeated an equal number of Republicans.

The extraordinarily able General J. B. Kléber (1753–1800) assumed command of the Republicans, only to lose the Battle of Chantonnay on September 5, 1793. Eight thousand Republicans faced 20,000 Vendée troops and lost 4,000 men. But this was the high-water mark of the Vendée cause, which began to show signs of internal dissension. Recognizing encroaching weakness, Kléber attacked at Cholet on October 17 and won a major victory. However, 10 days later, Vendée forces routed a Republican army at Entrammes. They lost on November 13, at Granville, to a far inferior Republican force: 30,000 versus only 5,000. Next came a Vendée defeat at Le Mans (December 12, 1793) and then at Savenay on December 23, a battle in which at least 8,000 Royalist rebels were killed.

Savenay marked the end of the principal Vendée force; however, a diehard group known as the Chouans—"long-eared owls"—persisted in fighting until their final defeat in the spring of 1794. After this, the war became a guerrilla affair. Even this phase diminished after the signing of the Convention of La Jaunaye on February 17, 1795.

Shortly after the convention was concluded, the British navy supported a resurgence of the rebellion at Quiberon Bay, Brittany, in June 1795. Within a year, by July 1796, this new rebellion was crushed—but never entirely extinguished. Small-scale uprisings occurred in 1799 and in 1815. In 1832, the Vendée rose yet again, this time in opposition to the Orleanist king Louis Philippe (1773–1850) in a bid to restore the Bourbons to the throne. The short-lived rebellion was readily put down.

See also FRENCH REVOLUTION (1789–1799); FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS; NAPOLEONIC WARS.

Further reading: Reynald Secher, *A French Genocide: The Vendée* (South Bend, Indiana: University of Notre Dame Press, 2003); Charles Tilly, *Vendée* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1976).

Venetian-Byzantine War (1170–1177)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice (with Norman aid) vs. Byzantium
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aegean Sea and Sicily
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Byzantium and Venice contested control of Sicily and the waters of the Aegean.
OUTCOME: Indecisive, with gains on neither side
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By the close of the 12th century, Byzantium was struggling to survive. One of its persistent enemies was Venice, a trading rival. The sporadically fought war of 1170–77 was an unproductive draw. At first, the Byzantines prevailed against the Venetians, and by the end of 1170 Venetian forces were driven off the Aegean. However, Venice secured an alliance with Normandy and was thereby able to take Chios and Ragusa in 1171. When the allies mounted a more ambitious attack against Ancona in 1173, however, they were repulsed. After that battle, fighting was desultory and entirely without definitive result.

Further reading: Donald MacGillivray Nichol, *Byzantium and Venice: A Study in Diplomatic and Cultural Relations* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1992); John Julius Norwich, *Byzantium: The Decline and Fall* (New York: Knopf, 1996).

Venetian-Genoese War (1255–1270)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice vs. Genoa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Palestinian coastal waters and the Aegean
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Venice and Genoa fought over possession of a monopoly on the highly profitable trade with the Byzantine Empire (paramountly, the right to maintain trade relations and facilities within Constantinople itself) and the Latin colonies of the Crusaders.
OUTCOME: Venice consistently won in this long war, which ended only after Venice secured exclusive trading rights in Constantinople.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At the Battle of Trapani, the Genoese fleet was largely destroyed, with the loss of 1,000 sailors.
TREATIES: Truce of 1270

Venice and Genoa were longtime commercial rivals, which, over the years, fought to eliminate one another. At stake in the war of 1255–70 was the highly profitable trade with the Byzantine Empire (paramountly the right to maintain trade relations and facilities within Constantinople itself) and the Latin colonies of the Crusaders, including trading concessions within Palestine and Acre.

The Venetians launched three naval campaigns against the Genoese off the coast of Palestine. After winning all

three, Venice drove the Genoese and Genoese shipping out of Acre. In addition, during this period, Venetian and Genoese vessels skirmished on a chronic basis near various islands in the Aegean and off the Greek coast. The naval Battle of Trapani, fought in Sicilian waters in 1264, was no mere skirmish. A Venetian fleet annihilated the opposing Genoese force, sinking many ships and killing at least 1,000 Genoese sailors. This greatly weakened Genoa, whose hold on trade in Constantinople was instantly imperiled. However, imprudently and despite even more losses, Genoa did not sue for peace. The war dragged on in a desultory manner until Venice at last secured exclusive trading rights in Constantinople. With that cause for war eliminated, Genoa and Venice concluded an uneasy truce in 1270, which lasted until 1291, when a new VENETIAN-GENOESE WAR (1291–1299) erupted.

See also VENETIAN-GENOESE WAR (1350–1355).

Further reading: Steven A. Epstein, *Genoa and the Genoese, 958–1528* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1996); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982).

Venetian-Genoese War (1291–1299)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice (with Pisan alliance) vs. Genoa
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Black Sea and eastern Mediterranean
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Venice sought to usurp the Black Sea and eastern Mediterranean spice trade from Genoa.
OUTCOME: Genoa soundly defeated the Venetians, who ended their challenge to the Genoese spice trade and who agreed to a nonaggression pact with Genoa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At the decisive Battle of Curzola, at least 900 Venetians were killed or captured.
TREATIES: Nonaggression pact of 1299

Genoa's arch trading rival, Venice, having defeated Genoa in a contest over trade with the Byzantine Empire (particularly over concessions in Acre and Constantinople) in the VENETIAN-GENOESE WAR (1255–1270), now challenged Genoa on the Black Sea and eastern Mediterranean. Venice jealously eyed Genoa's valuable spice-trade routes.

After some months of desultory skirmishes, the combined fleets of Venice and Pisa fought a major battle against Genoese vessels in the Gulf of Alexandretta in 1294. The Genoese defeated the combined fleets, then landed at the Venetian port of Canea (Khania) on the island of Crete, and sacked the town. They also destroyed much of the Venetian spice fleet at anchor there.

While combat took place in the Gulf of Alexandretta and at Canea, Genoese citizens living in Constantinople rose up against Venetian residents there. Many Venetians died, and, in retaliation Admiral Rogerio Morosini (fl. 1290s), of the prominent Venetian maritime family, led the Venetian fleet in an attack on Galata, a Genoese trading port near Constantinople. The town was sacked.

Once again, the war fell into a chronic state of low-level combat, until 1299, when Lamba Doria (fl. 1290s) led the Genoese fleet to victory at the Battle of Curzola, off the Dalmatian coast. The battle resulted in 900 casualties among the Venetians, including killed and captured. As a result, Venice backed off in its challenge to the Genoese spice trade, and the rivals signed a nonaggression pact later in the year.

See also VENETIAN-GENOESE WAR (1350–1355).

Further reading: Steven A. Epstein, *Genoa and the Genoese, 958–1528* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1996); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982).

Venetian-Genoese War (1350–1355)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice (with Byzantine and Aragonese allies) vs. Genoa (with Milanese allies)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Crimean, Greek, Sardinian, and Genoese coastal regions
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Genoa acted to check Venetian encroachment on its trading territories and trade routes.
OUTCOME: The war was a seesaw affair until Genoa, allied with Milan, mounted a decisive counteroffensive; the rivals agreed to refrain from encroaching on one another's established trade territories and trade routes.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Agreement defining exclusive trade territories and routes, 1355

The trading rivals Venice and Genoa went to war after Genoese vessels captured several Venetian trading ships near Caffa (Feodosiya), an important Genoese trading port on the Crimean peninsula. The Genoese sought to defend their monopoly on trade here.

Shortly after taking the Venetian vessels, Genoese forces captured the Venetian colony at Negroponte (Euboea, Greece). In response, the Venetians rapidly concluded alliances with the Byzantine Empire and with Pedro IV (1319–87), the king of Aragon, in Spain. Thus allied, the Venetians engaged in a battle at the Bosporus. This ended in a draw, but the Venetians went on to triumph at a sea battle fought off the coast of Sardinia in 1352. Capitalizing on this victory, the Venetian navy

established a blockade of Genoa, to which the Genoese responded by allying themselves with Milan. Together, the new allies mounted an effective counteroffensive, defeating Venice at the Battle of Sapienza in 1354, which resulted in the destruction of most of the Venetian fleet. This crippling blow prompted Venice to sue for peace, and the two rivals concluded an agreement to refrain from encroaching on one another's established trade territories and routes.

See also CHIOGGIA, WAR OF; VENETIAN-GENOESE WAR (1255–1270); VENETIAN-GENOESE WAR (1291–1299).

Further reading: Steven A. Epstein, *Genoa and the Genoese, 958–1528* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1996); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982).

Venetian-Genoese War (1378–1381)

See CHIOGGIA, WAR OF.

Venetian-Milanese War (1404–1406)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice vs. Milan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northeastern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dominance over northeastern Italy
OUTCOME: Venice defeated Milan, forcing the city to relinquish virtually all of its holdings.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The death of Milan's ruler, Gian Galeazzo Visconti (1351–1402), resulted in the fragmentation of Milan as a number of cities in northeastern and central Italy were returned to local lords, and Venice took control of Vicenza, Verona, Padua, and Bassano. The Venetian seizures triggered a war in which Venice solidified its hold on the former Milanese territory. In the turmoil, Florence managed to seize Pisa. In 1406, Venetian agents strangled Lord Francesco II Novello da Carrara (d. 1406), thereby putting an end to the Carrara family line and ensuring the termination of Milanese hegemony. Francesco had retained the lordships of Padua and Verona. With his death, these cities were permanently under Venetian rule. As a result of this war, Venice emerged as the dominant power in northeastern Italy.

See also FLORENTINE-MILANESE WAR (1397–1402); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1426); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1427–1428); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1429–1433); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1448–1454).

Further reading: William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974).

Venetian-Milanese War (1426)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice (with Florence, Savoy, Ferrara, Siena, and Mantua) vs Milan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Brescia and Milan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Venice and its allies sought to check the ambition of Milan's ruler.
OUTCOME: Milan was defeated, lost more territory, and agreed to relinquish expansionist designs in the region between it and Rome.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Venice, December 30, 1426

The disastrous VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1404–1406), which followed the death of Gian Galeazzo Visconti (1351–1402), ruler of Milan, brought about the dissolution of virtually all of the city's territorial holdings. Gian Galeazzo's son, Filippo Maria Visconti (1402–47), resolved to recover Verona and Vicenza. In a preemptive response to the younger Visconti's professed ambitions, Venice formed an alliance with Florence against Milan, and Savoy, Ferrara, Siena, and Mantua signed onto the alliance as well. Thus, in 1426, the allies were able to assemble an impressively large army, which was commanded by Francesco Carmagnola (1390–1432). Carmagnola also arranged for the outbreak of revolt in Brescia, to coincide with his army's entry into the city. While this diversion was under way, Carmagnola laid siege to Milan. Its defender, Francesco Sforza (1401–66), surrendered, but the arrival of substantial reinforcements brought a renewal of fighting, which lasted until November 1426. In that month, Carmagnola unleashed newly developed artillery, and the city was forced to surrender.

Milan concluded a treaty with Venice on December 30, 1426, whereby Venice gained Brescia and the surrounding area, Florence retook previously lost territory, and Savoy acquired some Milanese territory. Milan, for its part, agreed to refrain from meddling in any state between it and Rome.

See also VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1427–1428); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1429–1433); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1448–1454).

Further reading: John A. Marino, ed., *Early Modern Italy: 1550–1796* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982).

Venetian-Milanese War (1427–1428)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice (with Florence) vs. Milan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cremona and Brescia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Filippo Maria Visconti sought to recover what he had just lost in the Venetian-Milanese War of 1426.
OUTCOME: Once again, Milan was defeated, resulting in the loss of Brescia and part of Cremona to Venice.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Ferrara, April 1428

No sooner did Filippo Maria Visconti (1402–47), son of Gian Galeazzo Visconti (1351–1402) and new ruler of Milan, conclude the humiliating Peace of Venice, which ended the VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1426), than he laid an ambush at Chiari for General Francesco Carmagnola (1390–1432), the commander who had defeated Milan in the war just concluded. The ambush failed, and Visconti withdrew to rearm for a new war. He engaged Carmagnola's forces at the Battle of Goltolengo, which resulted in a draw.

Carmagnola led his army from Goltolengo to Cremona, which was occupied by Milanese forces. Carmagnola attacked Casa-al-Secco, just outside of the moated city. The attack on Casa-al-Secco was devastating; reportedly, Carmagnola's army walked across Cremona's moat on the piled bodies of the soldiers killed at Casa-al-Secco. In whatever way he breached Cremona's defenses, Carmagnola won the city, driving the Milanese out. From here, he made a surprise attack, from ambush, on Milanese forces near Brescia. Florence, fearful that its ally Venice was becoming far too powerful, sued for peace, which was concluded at Ferrara in April 1428. The treaty gained for Venice part of Cremona and all of Brescia.

See also VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1404–1406); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1429–1433); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1448–1454).

Further reading: John A. Marino, ed., *Early Modern Italy: 1550–1796* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982).

Venetian-Milanese War (1429–1433)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice and Florence vs. Milan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cremona, Riviera, Bina
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Florence broke the Peace of Ferrara, which had ended the Venetian-Milanese War of 1427–28, thereby embroiling its ally Venice in a new war.
OUTCOME: Francesco Carmagnola, the Venetian commander who had performed brilliantly in the Venetian-Milanese War of 1426 and Venetian-Milanese War of 1427–28, unaccountably failed in this war.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace treaty, 1433

Florence, allied to Venice, ended the VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1427–28) by suing for peace and concluding with Venice and Milan the Peace of Ferrara. However, Florence broke the peace in 1429 by attacking Lucca, then battling and defeating a Milanese fleet off the Riviera. This ignited renewed war between the Florentine ally, Venice, and Milan.

As he had in the VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1426) and VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1427–28), Francesco Carmagnola (1390–1432) led the Venetian forces. He attacked Cremona on June 6, 1431, but was defeated by the Milanese commander, Francesco Sforza (1401–66). Milan also bested the Venetian fleet at Bina. Having suffered two disastrous losses, Venice recalled Carmagnola and charged him with high treason. Found guilty, he was beheaded on April 5, 1432. Without Carmagnola, the war quickly ended, and the duke of Milan agreed to peace terms in 1433. Venice negotiated a generous settlement, retaining Brescia and Bergamo.

See also VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1404–1406); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1448–1454).

Further reading: John A. Marino, ed., *Early Modern Italy: 1550–1796* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982).

Venetian-Milanese War (1448–1454)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice vs. Milan (later with Florence, Genoa, and Mantua)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Venice sought to exploit instability in Milan to gain territory at Milanese expense.
OUTCOME: Milanese forces under Francesco Sforza, Milan seized the initiative and conquered Venetian territory—only to turn against Milan and force the citizens to proclaim Sforza duke.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Lodi, 1454

The death of Milanese duke Filippo Maria Visconti (1402–47) without an heir apparent created a crisis in government, which Venice, Milan's archrival, was eager to exploit. A civil war began in 1447 and was in full cry when Venetian forces invaded Milan. To the astonishment of the Venetians, who expected paralyzing chaos in the city, they were met by a Milanese army under Francesco Sforza (1401–66). A *condottiere* (mercenary leader), Sforza was an amoral military genius, who led the army of the rebel Milanese republic as "captain general." He quickly seized the initiative, mounted a massive counteroffensive, and conquered a great deal of Venetian-controlled territory. Worse, Sforza destroyed the Venetian battle fleet, then triumphed at the Battle of Caravaggio.

In a manner typical of the intrigues of Renaissance Italy, the more Sforza triumphed on behalf of Milan, the more he schemed with Venice. Apparently detecting this, the Milanese made peace with Venice, whereupon Sforza suddenly turned on Milan, blockaded it, and forced the citizens to proclaim him the new Milanese duke. This accomplished, Sforza, in 1452 turned against Venice, allying Milan with Florence, Genoa, and Mantua. This, however, resulted in no great battles, but only a series of skirmishes, which ended with the Peace of Lodi in 1454.

See also VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1404–1406); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1426); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1427–1428); VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1429–1433).

Further reading: John A. Marino, ed., *Early Modern Italy: 1550–1796* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982).

Venetian-Turkish War (1416)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aegean Sea and waters off Gallipoli
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Venice sought to counter Ottoman advances in the Aegean.
OUTCOME: The total defeat of the Ottoman fleet forced the Ottoman sultan to yield important territories to Venice.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty negotiated in Venice, 1416

Product of chronic intermittent seagoing conflict between Venice and the Ottoman Empire, this brief war had only one major battle, a June 1416 naval engagement off Gallipoli, in which the Venetian fleet, commanded by Admiral Pietro Loredan (d. 1439), defeated the Turkish fleet, which was supporting advances by Ottoman forces in the Aegean coastal region. As a result of its victory, Venice acquired control of the islands and coastal regions of Dalmatia and also was able to establish new military and trading outposts in Negroponte (Euboea) and in Greece. Most humiliating of all for the Sublime Porte (Ottoman government) was the requirement that Sultan Muhammad I (c. 1389–1421) send an ambassador to Venice. It was the first time that an Islamic empire had ever deigned to send a diplomat to a Christian state.

See also VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1425–1430); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1443–1453); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1479); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1499–1503); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1537–1540); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1570–1573); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1685–1699); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1714–1718).

Further reading: D. S. Chambers, *The Imperial Age of Venice, 1380–1580* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1970); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982); Lucette Valensi, *The Birth of the Despot: Venice and the Sublime Porte* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1993).

Venetian-Turkish War (1425–1430)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Albanian and Greek coastal regions, especially Thessalonica (Salonika, Greece)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottomans wanted to acquire territory at the expense of one of their chief Christian rivals, Venice.
OUTCOME: Venetian forces responded ineffectually early in the war and then, occupied with the Venetian-Milanese War of 1429–33, were unable to respond to the major Ottoman offensive. The Ottomans acquired important Venetian outposts, including Thessalonica, which they devastated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman forces were substantial; the largest Venetian force involved was the 1,400-man garrison of Thessalonica (Salonika, Greece).
CASUALTIES: The entire Venetian garrison at Thessalonica was lost, and civilian losses were high; Ottoman losses were negligible.
TREATIES: Treaty concluded in 1430

Devastating defeat in the VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1416) did not bring a permanent end to Ottoman aggression against Venice. In 1425 Sultan Murad II (1403–51) sent Ottoman ships to attack Venetian trading outposts that had been established along the coast of Albania and at Epirus in western Greece. The Venetians responded ineffectually, and in 1430 a major Ottoman drive captured Thessalonica. This had been a principal Venetian outpost on the Aegean coast, garrisoned by 1,400 Venetian troops. The troops were killed or captured, and the citizens of Thessalonica were killed or sold into slavery. Christian churches in the city were converted into mosques.

Because it was embroiled in the VENETIAN-MILANESE WAR (1429–1433), Venice lacked the resources to reinforce or retake Thessalonica or other remote outposts. It concluded a one-sided peace with the Ottomans in 1430.

See also CANDIAN WAR; VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1443–1453); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1479); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1499–1503); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1537–1540); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1570–1573); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1685–1699); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1714–1718).

Further reading: D. S. Chambers, *The Imperial Age of Venice, 1380–1580* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1970); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982); Lucette Valensi, *The Birth of the Despot: Venice and the Sublime Porte* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1993).

Venetian-Turkish War (1443–1453)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Constantinople, Greece, Albania, Rumelia (Balkan Peninsula), Anatolia (Turkey)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Venice sought to help in the defense of Constantinople.
OUTCOME: Venice was caught up in the Ottoman conquest of Constantinople, Greece, Albania, and much of the Balkans; it lost major trading outposts as a result of the conflict.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

When Sultan Muhammad II (1429–81) of the Ottoman Empire attacked Constantinople in an effort to seize the city, Venice dispatched a fleet to aid in its defense. Despite the aid, the sultan succeeded in taking Constantinople by 1453, then used it as a base from which to subjugate Greece and Albania. In the process, the Ottomans cut off all Venetian trading outposts in these regions. Venetian colonies and trading interests were driven out of a vast area now under Ottoman domination, including Greece, Albania, Rumelia (a region of the southern Balkan Peninsula), and all Anatolia (the Asian portion of modern Turkey). From the perspective of Ottoman operations, Venetian involvement in the conquest of these regions was nothing more than a sideshow.

See also CANDIAN WAR; VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1416); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1425–1430); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1479); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1499–1503); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1537–1540); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1570–1573); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1685–1699); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1714–1718).

Further reading: D. S. Chambers, *The Imperial Age of Venice, 1380–1580* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1970); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982); Lucette Valensi, *The Birth of the Despot: Venice and the Sublime Porte* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1993).

Venetian-Turkish War (1463–1479)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice (with Persia as ally) vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Anatolia (Turkey), Albania, the Aegean
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Muhammad II ("the Conqueror") wanted to lead the Ottoman Empire in continued conquest.
OUTCOME: Venice ceded substantial territories and agreed to pay an annual tribute to the Ottoman Empire in exchange for continued trading rights.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Constantinople, 1479

Muhammad II (the Conqueror; 1429–81), called after vastly expanding the Ottoman realm, continually built up the Ottoman military, including its already formidable navy. During the 1460s, his fleet raided Dalmatia and captured Mytilene, an important Greek port on the Aegean Sea. After a program of continual seaborne raids against Dalmatia, a combination of Ottoman sea and land forces attacked the Euboean port of Negropont (Chalcis), which quickly fell.

To respond to the Ottoman juggernaut, Venice allied itself with Persia. The Persians invaded Anatolia (Turkey), only to be repulsed at the Battle of Erzinjan by Ottoman forces personally commanded by Muhammad II. By 1473, Muhammad had succeeded in forcing the Persians to

withdraw completely from Anatolia. With its ally defeated, Venice now found itself at the mercy of Muhammad II. His troops completely overran Anatolia, then advanced through Albania. The Ottomans' advance guard raided the outskirts of Venice itself. In panic, Venice concluded the Treaty of Constantinople in 1479, formally ceding to the Ottoman Empire all of the territories now occupied by Ottoman forces, including Scutari, a portion of Constantinople garrisoned by Venetian troops who had held out against relentless Ottoman assault during 1478–79. All Venetian Aegean outposts were lost, including Negroponte and Lemnos. Venice also agreed to pay an enormous 100,000-ducat indemnity to the Sublime Porte (the Ottoman government) and secured continued trading rights—essential to Venetian economic survival—only in exchange for an exorbitant annual tribute to the Porte.

See also ALBANIAN-TURKISH WARS; CANDIAN WAR; HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1444–1456); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1416); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1425–1430); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1443–1453); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1499–1503); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1537–1540); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1570–1573); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1685–1699); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1714–1718).

Further reading: D. S. Chambers, *The Imperial Age of Venice, 1380–1580* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1970); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982); Lucette Valensi, *The Birth of the Despot: Venice and the Sublime Porte* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1993).

Venetian-Turkish War (1499–1503)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice (with military aid from Aragon, France, and Portugal) vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy and Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottoman Turks sought further to expand their empire at the expense of Venetian holdings.
OUTCOME: The Ottoman Empire gained parts of the Peloponnese and various islands but relinquished Cephalonia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty, November 1503

This war was the culmination of Ottoman conquest at the expense of the Venetians, which had begun with the VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1425–1430) and proceeded through the VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1443–1453) and the VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1479). Although Venice was able to secure some military aid from France, Portugal, and Aragon, trade rivals like Rome, although Christian, were content to see the Ottoman Empire devastate Venetian commerce.

Under Muhammad II (the Conqueror; 1429–81), the Ottoman fleet had been expanded and well trained. Now it was launched against the Venetian fleet, which it defeated at the Battle of Lepanto on July 28, 1499. This was the first Ottoman naval victory in a major battle with the naval forces of a Christian country. The Venetian commander, Antonio Grimani (1436–1523), was captured. Although he was subsequently returned, he suffered the indignity of being sent home bound in chains.

Following Lepanto, the Ottoman Turks were victorious at Pylos, Modon, and Coron. Having taken these places, the Ottomans launched heavy raids over the Julian Alps and into Italy, as far as Vicenza. These relentless operations close to home forced Venice to conclude a treaty in November 1503, ceding to the Ottomans control of much of the Morea (the Peloponnese) and various islands. The Ottomans, in return, relinquished Cephalonia, the largest of the Ionian island group.

See also CANDIAN WAR; HUNGARIAN-TURKISH WAR (1492–1494); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1416); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1537–1540); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1570–1573); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1685–1699); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1714–1718).

Further reading: D. S. Chambers, *The Imperial Age of Venice, 1380–1580* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1970); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982); Lucette Valensi, *The Birth of the Despot: Venice and the Sublime Porte* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1993).

Venetian-Turkish War (1537–1540)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice (with its Holy League ally, the Holy Roman Empire) vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Apulia, southern Italy, and the Aegean and Adriatic
DECLARATION: Ottoman Empire against Venice, 1537
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ostensibly redressing a Venetian slight against Ottoman sultan Süleyman I ("the Magnificent"), the Ottoman Empire sought further conquest at the expense of Venice.
OUTCOME: Venice ceded all of its Aegean islands and its mainland holdings in the Peloponnese, including Nauplia and Monemvasia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman forces, 85,000; Venetian forces, unknown
CASUALTIES: Ottoman forces, 8,000 killed or wounded; Venetian losses unknown
TREATIES: Treaty, 1540

Warfare was reignited between perennial rivals Venice and the Ottoman Empire over a perceived Venetian insult against Ottoman sultan Süleyman I (the Magnificent; c. 1496–1566). Ottoman troops raided Apulia in southern Italy during 1537 while Süleyman prepared a major invasion fleet to lay siege against the Venetian-held island of Corfu. However, the great Venetian admiral Andrea Doria (c. 1468–1560) led a combined fleet of the Holy Roman Empire and Venice (allied in the Holy League) in a preemptive move against the Ottoman fleet. Under the command of Khair ed-Din Barbarossa II (c. 1466–1546), the Ottoman fleet turned away from its objective of Corfu and raided up and down the Aegean and Adriatic, hitting Taranto in July, then capturing numerous Venetian-controlled islands and trading outposts. Khair ed-Din Barbarossa II also staged a major raid on Crete in 1538. He conquered most of Venice's holdings in the Aegean and on the Morea.

On September 27, 1538, Andrea Doria was finally able to maneuver Barbarossa into battle. Leading 81 Venetian, 36 Papal, and 50 Spanish galleys, Doria tried to check Barbarossa at Prevesa, but the Venetian admiral suffered a stunning loss in the ensuing battle; with seven of his galleys sunk, he withdrew.

Barbarossa next led 60,000 men in 120 ships against the Spanish garrison at Castel Nuovo on the Adriatic. He laid siege from July 13 to August 10, 1539, when Castel Nuovo fell to him. The siege had cost him 8,000 men, but Venice was so disheartened that it at last sued for peace and ceded to the Ottoman Empire all of its islands in the Aegean as well as key mainland holdings in the Peloponnese, including Nauplia and Monemvasia.

See also AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1537–1547); CANDIAN WAR; VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1416); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1425–1430); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1443–1453); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1479); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1499–1503); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1570–1573); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1685–1699); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1714–1718).

Further reading: D. S. Chambers, *The Imperial Age of Venice, 1380–1580* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1970); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982); Lucette Valensi, *The Birth of the Despot: Venice and the Sublime Porte* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1993).

Venetian-Turkish War (1570–1573)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice (in alliance with the Holy League) vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cyprus and the waters off Lepanto, Greece
DECLARATION: Ottoman Empire against Venice, 1570
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottoman Empire wanted to acquire Venetian-held Cyprus.
OUTCOME: Despite the defeat and annihilation of a major Ottoman fleet by the navy of the Holy League, Venice ceded Cyprus and other possessions to the Ottoman Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Venetian forces on Cyprus, 10,000; Ottoman invasion forces, 50,000. At the Second Battle of Lepanto: Holy League, 316 ships with 50,000 sailors and 30,000 land troops; Ottoman Empire, 250 ships, 82,000 sailors, 16,000 land troops.
CASUALTIES: The 500-man Venetian garrison at Nicosia was killed, along with most of the civilian population of the city. At Famagusta, 2,500 Venetian soldiers were lost in battle, and another 2,500 were subsequently massacred. Ottoman losses at the Second Battle of Lepanto: 130 galleys captured, 80 destroyed, 25,000 men killed, 5,000 captured; Holy League losses: 17 galleys lost, 7,500 men killed.
TREATIES: Treaty of March 7, 1573

In response to the refusal of Venice to cede to the Ottoman Empire the island of Cyprus, Sultan Selim II (c. 1524–74) launched an invasion of the disputed island by land and by sea during the summer of 1570. Fifty thousand Ottoman troops landed at Nicosia, Cyprus, where they were engaged by the Venetian garrison of 5,000. Although the Venetians fought gallantly, they were massacred, along with most of the citizens of Nicosia.

After taking Nicosia, the Ottoman forces laid siege to Famagusta, another Venetian-held Cypriot town. The Ottoman fleet also instituted a naval blockade. After about a year of precarious defense and with the 5,000-man garrison reduced by half, the town surrendered. Although promising good treatment to his prisoners, the Ottoman commander ordered the massacre of the defenders of Famagusta in August 1571.

On October 7, 1571, a Holy League fleet—316 Venetian, Papal, and Spanish vessels under the command of Austria's Don Juan (1547–78)—pursued and engaged the Ottoman fleet at the Second Battle of Lepanto, off the Greek coast, with 50,000 crewmembers and 30,000 land troops. Don Juan faced Ali Pasha (fl. 1570s), the Ottoman admiral-general, whose fleet was outnumbered and outclassed—250 galleys, manned by 82,000 crew members and about 16,000 soldiers. The battle lasted three hours and was fought mainly with arrows unleashed by the opposing embarked troops. In the end, Ottoman losses included 130 galleys captured, 80 galleys destroyed, and 25,000 men killed, including Ali Pasha; another 5,000 Ottoman crew and soldiers were captured. Don Juan's losses included 17 galleys and 7,500 men; the victory resulted in freedom for about 15,000 Christian slaves.

Remarkably, Spain failed to capitalize on the triumph at the Second Battle of Lepanto, and in 1572 an Ottoman naval force defeated a Venetian fleet, which compelled

Venice to accede to a treaty of March 7, 1573, by which Venice ceded yet more territory to the Ottoman Empire, including Cyprus and remaining holdings in Epirus and Albania. Venice paid a substantial indemnity to the Ottoman Empire as well.

See also CANDIAN WAR; VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1416); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1425–1430); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1443–1453); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1479); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1499–1503); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1537–1540); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1685–1699); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1714–1718).

Further reading: D. S. Chambers, *The Imperial Age of Venice, 1380–1580* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1970); John A. Marino, ed., *Early Modern Italy: 1550–1796* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982); Lucette Valensi, *The Birth of the Despot: Venice and the Sublime Porte* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1993).

Venetian-Turkish War (1645–1669)

See CANDIAN WAR.

Venetian-Turkish War (1685–1699)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice vs. Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dalmatia, Peloponnese, Greece
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Venice sought to recover what it had lost to the Ottomans in the wars of the preceding century.
OUTCOME: Venice recovered the Peloponnese and much of Dalmatia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of Karlowitz, January 1699

During 1685–87, Francesco Morosini (1618–94) led Venetian forces in an invasion of Dalmatia and Morea (the Peloponnese) and successfully seized portions of both territories, which had been lost to the Ottoman Empire in wars of the previous century (*see* VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR [1499–1503], VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR [1537–1540], and VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR [1570–1573]). Morosini went on to advance against Athens, which fell to him in 1687, but under Ottoman counterattack the Venetians soon withdrew from the city.

In 1591, Venice captured the island of Chios, but subsequently returned it. The Treaty of Karlowitz, concluded in January 1699, secured for Venice only the first two conquests, the Peloponnese and a large portion of Dalmatia.

See also CANDIAN WAR; VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1416); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1425–1430); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1443–1453); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1479); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1714–1718).

Further reading: D. S. Chambers, *The Imperial Age of Venice, 1380–1580* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1970); John A. Marino, ed., *Early Modern Italy: 1550–1796* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); William H. McNeill, *Venice: The Hinge of Europe, 1081–1797* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974); John Julius Norwich, *A History of Venice* (New York: Knopf, 1982); Lucette Valensi, *The Birth of the Despot: Venice and the Sublime Porte* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1993).

Venetian-Turkish War (1714–1718)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venice (with some aid from Austria, Spain, Portugal, and a number of Italian states) vs. Ottoman Empire (with aid from Egypt and the Barbary states)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Aegean Sea and coastal areas
DECLARATION: Ottoman Empire against Venice, 1714
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Ottomans responded to Venetian attempts to foment rebellion in Montenegro, an Ottoman possession.
OUTCOME: Venice gained some land in Albania and Dalmatia but permanently relinquished the Peloponnese.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Venice, unknown; Austria, 65,000; Ottoman Empire, 180,000
CASUALTIES: Venice, 20,000 killed or wounded; Austria, 40,000 killed or wounded; Ottoman Empire, 80,000 killed or wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Passarowitz, July 21, 1718

In 1714, Venetian agents incited an anti-Ottoman uprising in Montenegro, which was held as a province of the Ottoman Empire. The Turks responded with troops, who quickly crushed the rebellion. Simultaneously, a Venetian force also invaded Bosnia and captured a number of Ottoman vessels plying the Mediterranean. In response to the provocations in Montenegro and Bosnia, the Sublime Porte (Ottoman government) declared war on Venice and launched an amphibious mobilization against Venetian-held islands and military outposts in the Aegean Sea and coastal areas.

Beginning in December 1714 and throughout 1715, Ottoman forces drove the Venetians from the Morea (the Peloponnese), not only capturing all Venetian fortresses there but also taking some 8,000 prisoners of war. From here the Turks went on to take the Aegean Islands and Crete. However, in 1716 the Venetian garrison on Corfu held out against some 33,000 Ottoman troops. In August, a major storm sunk a large part of the Ottoman fleet, forcing the Ottomans' final withdrawal from the island.

As 1716 began, Austria joined forces with Venice against its old rival, the Ottoman Empire. The Austrians handled most of the land war, and the Venetians focused on the sea. A naval battle off Corfu on July 8, 1716, ended without decision, as did a battle off Lemnos in June 1717. On July 19, 1717, in the First Battle of Cape Matapan, however, the Venetians defeated the Turks, albeit at a high cost. In the Second Battle of Cape Matapan, July 20–22, the Venetians again repulsed the Ottoman fleet but at a substantial cost to both Venice and the Turks.

In the meantime, the Austrians won a magnificent victory at Peterwardein on August 5, 1716. A force of 63,000 Austrians defeated 110,000 Ottoman troops, inflicting some 20,000 casualties. This was followed in October by a successful five-week siege of the Ottoman fortress of Temesvár, the last Ottoman stronghold in Hungary. Its loss was gravely felt by the Ottoman Empire.

During the summer of 1717, the Austrians laid siege to Ottoman-held Belgrade. Remarkably, a 40,000-man Austrian siege force repulsed an Ottoman relief army of 180,000 men on August 16. Twenty thousand Ottoman troops perished; Austrian losses totaled 5,400 killed and wounded.

After the Battle of Belgrade, Austrian forces generally overran Serbia, Wallachia, and the Banat, forcing the Ottoman Empire to sue for peace. By the Treaty of Passarowitz, concluded on July 21, 1718, Austria gained Temesvár, Belgrade, and a portion of Wallachia, while Venice took Dalmatia and a portion of Albania.

See also CANDIAN WAR; VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1416); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1425–1430); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1443–1453); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1463–1479); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1499–1503); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1537–1540); VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1570–1573).

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Venezuelan Civil War (1858–1864)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Principally Conservative Party vs. Liberal Party, with *caudillos* (warlords) fighting among themselves
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Venezuela
DECLARATION: Coup d'état of March 1858
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After the overthrow of the Monagas brothers, Liberals fought Conservatives for control of the government; simultaneously, *caudillos* fought with one another.
OUTCOME: In 1864, the Liberal forces gained the upper hand and introduced a federalist government and constitution.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As a result of the VENEZUELAN REVOLT of 1848–49, the Monagas brothers—José Tadeo (1789–1868) and José Gregorio (1795–1858)—came to power and instituted a dictatorial and oppressive government. Seeing opportunity in the widespread discontent with the rule of the Monagas brothers, parties at both ends of the Venezuelan political spectrum, Conservative and Liberal, collaborated on a revolution that ousted the brothers in March 1858. However, the Conservatives and Liberals now came to blows, and Venezuela erupted into civil war.

The belligerents in the war included Liberals against Conservatives, but also a host of *caudillos* (essentially warlords), who fought one another for power. Some historians see this civil war as really two wars, fought more or less in parallel: a civil war among the *caudillos* and their followers; and the "Federalist Wars," a struggle between the Conservatives, who favored a strong, autocratic central government, and the Liberals, who wanted to institute democratic federalism.

In any case, the war proceeded with great ferocity, but without decision or even trend, one government collapsing after another. At last, in 1861, a former Venezuelan president, José Antonio Páez (1790–1873), was recalled from exile and asked to form a Conservative ministry. This constituted a more stable Venezuelan government, but Páez was soon assailed by the Liberals, who objected to his autocratic manner and his oppressive policies. Liberal political and military pressure defeated Páez and his followers by 1863 and sent him back into exile. By the following year, the Liberals gained the upper hand and, led by General Juan Falcón (1820–70) and Antonio Guzmán Blanco (1829–99), established a new government, promulgated a new constitution, and introduced federalism.

See also VENEZUELAN CIVIL WAR (1868–1870).

Further reading: Robert L. Gilmore, *Caudillism and Militarism in Venezuela, 1810–1910* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 1964); Donna Keyse Rudolph and G. A. Rudolph, *Historical Dictionary of Venezuela* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1996).

Venezuelan Civil War (1868–1870)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Liberals vs. Conservatives
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Venezuela
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Venezuelan government
OUTCOME: After a seesaw war, the Liberals, in the person of Antonio Guzmán Blanco, assumed control of the government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Liberal regime of Juan Falcón (1820–70), introduced after the VENEZUELAN CIVIL WAR (1858–1864), brought a government so decentralized that all semblance of authority broke down. Into the resulting power vacuum stepped the *caudillos,* the warlords who controlled Venezuelan provinces on the local level. They vied violently with one another for control of the larger government.

In response to the growing chaos, José Tadeo Monagas (1784–1868), one of the brothers whose rule had been toppled in March 1858, led a Conservative revolt against Falcón, who, in 1868, was ousted. Monagas assumed the presidency, but died (of natural causes) within months of taking power. The coup d'état, followed by the death of Monagas, brought an increase in the nation's instability and full-scale renewal of civil war.

To counter the Conservative revolt initiated by Monagas, the *caudillo* Antonio Guzmán Blanco (1829–99) led a Liberal counterrevolution, which, after two years of bitter fighting, succeeded in toppling the Conservative regime. In 1870, Guzmán Blanco stepped into the presidency and was elected by popular vote three years later. Although he was a Liberal, Guzmán Blanco instituted a benevolent dictatorship, by which he introduced many social reforms. Venezuela's economy improved, and its level of literacy rose. However, the president's suppression of the Roman Catholic Church brought a new coup d'état in 1888–89, when Guzmán Blanco was traveling abroad. He never returned to Venezuela but lived in Parisian exile until his death in 1899.

See also VENEZUELAN REVOLT (1848–1849).

Further reading: Robert L. Gilmore, *Caudillism and Militarism in Venezuela, 1810–1910* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 1964); Donna Keyse Rudolph and G. A. Rudolph, *Historical Dictionary of Venezuela* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1996).

Venezuelan Insurrection (1749)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venezuelan Creoles vs. Spanish colonial forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Venezuela
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Creoles sought greater autonomy from the Spanish Crown.
OUTCOME: The uprising was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the 18th century—and throughout its entire colonial era—the structure of Venezuelan society was rife with conflict and causes of conflict. Top government posts were held by agents of the Spanish Crown. During the 16th and 17th centuries, the *Audiencia* (supreme court) of Santo Domingo governed the country, but beginning in 1717, authority was vested in the viceroy of New Granada, headquartered at Bogotá. In actual practice, however, the Creoles—native-born whites—exercised a great deal of local autonomy, a situation that often led to conflict with Crown officials. The Creoles were economically powerful, owning most of the colony's wealth and land. They, in turn, used their power to dominate the nonwhites of the country, including the mestizos (persons of mixed ancestry), the Indians, and the black slaves.

In 1749, recognizing their own power, the Creoles briefly rebelled in various parts of Venezuela. There were no set battles, and the uprising was swiftly crushed by Spanish troops. However, it foreshadowed the independence movement that would explode during the Napoleonic era and afterward in the VENEZUELAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE fought during 1811–21.

Further reading: William David Marsland, *Venezuela through Its History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1976); Donna Keyse Rudolph and G. A. Rudolph, *Historical Dictionary of Venezuela* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1996).

Venezuelan Revolt (1848–1849)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Liberals vs. Conservatives
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Venezuela
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of the Venezuelan government
OUTCOME: The Conservative Monagas brothers were able to control the presidency for a decade, during which a repressive dictatorship was maintained.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

From 1830 to 1848, the Venezuelan government was dominated by the powerful Conservative José Antonio Páez (1790–1873), who, despite his autocratic ways, brought to Venezuela a rare period of sustained stability

and comparative economic well-being. In 1846, thanks to the power brokering of Páez, General José Tadeo Monagas (1784–1868), his close associate, was elected to the presidency. Monagas, a Conservative, nevertheless named to the government a number of Liberal ministers, hoping to introduce some harmony into the government. The result, however, was a break with the uncompromising Páez and the alienation of the Conservative Venezuelan congress. Páez organized a revolt against his former associate, but Monagas defended his position well and defeated the attempted coup. Páez fled into exile.

With Páez gone, but Congress still present, Monagas abandoned all pretense of maintaining a Liberal presence in his government. He instituted a hard-line dictatorship, and, for the next decade, through 1858, Venezuela was ruled either by José Tadeo Monagas or by his brother, José Gregorio Monagas (1795–1858).

See also VENEZUELAN CIVIL WAR (1858–1864); VENEZUELAN CIVIL WAR (1868–1870).

Further reading: William David Marsland, *Venezuela through Its History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1976); Donna Keyse Rudolph and G. A. Rudolph, *Historical Dictionary of Venezuela* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1996).

Venezuelan Revolt (1945)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Acción Democrática party vs. Venezuelan government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Venezuela
DECLARATION: Coup d'état of October 18, 1945
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Acción Democrática sought extensive liberalization of government, including the institution of popular election of the president.
OUTCOME: The coup d'état was successful
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Limited
TREATIES: None

After Venezuelan president Isaias Medina Angarita (1897–1953) liberalized government restrictions on the operation of opposition political parties, the Acción Democrática, a left-wing socialist party, became increasingly popular, especially among the middle class, students, the working class, and a sizable segment of the military (especially the younger officers). The party was in an excellent position to gain power; however, under the conservative constitution then in force, the next president was to be chosen not by popular election but by the Venezuelan congress, which was not likely to bring into power anyone palatable to the Acción Democrática. Accordingly, on October 18, 1945, a cadre within Acción Democrática led a revolt, stormed the presidential palace, seized Medina, and threw him in jail. In his place they set up a seven-person junta with Rómulo Betancourt (1908–81) as provisional president. By 1947, the provisional government promulgated a new constitution, which not only provided for social reform but also mandated the first free, popular presidential election in the history of Venezuela.

See also VENEZUELAN REVOLT (1958).

Further reading: Winfield J. Burggraff, *The Venezuelan Armed Forces in Politics, 1935–1959* (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1972); Donna Keyse Rudolph and G. A. Rudolph, *Historical Dictionary of Venezuela* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1996).

Venezuelan Revolt (1958)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venezuelan rebels (military and civilian) vs. government of Marcos Pérez Jiménez
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Venezuela, principally Caracas
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Coup d'état
OUTCOME: Pérez Jiménez was forced out.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Elements of the Venezuelan air force rose up against the corrupt regime of President Marcos Pérez Jiménez (1914–2001) on January 1, 1958, by bombing Caracas, the capital. Despite the devastation caused by this raid, government forces regained control by the next day. However, discontent continued to rock the Venezuelan military, and on January 8 a general mutiny swept the navy. Pérez Jiménez responded by radically reorganizing his cabinet, but to no avail. Caracas was hit by a general strike on January 21, a move that propelled the entire military of the nation to join in a revolt on January 23. With his position now quite untenable, Pérez Jiménez looted the treasury and fled Caracas for Miami, Florida. The governing vacuum was filled by a five-man military junta pending elections.

See also VENEZUELAN REVOLT (1945).

Further reading: Winfield J. Burggraff, *The Venezuelan Armed Forces in Politics, 1935–1959* (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1972); Damarys Canache and Michael R. Kulisheck, eds., *Reinventing Legitimacy: Democracy and Political Change in Venezuela* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1998).

Venezuelan War of Independence (1810–1821)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Venezuela vs. Spain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Venezuela
DECLARATION: Independence declared, July 5, 1811

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Independence from Spain.
OUTCOME: After a decade-long struggle, Venezuela achieved independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Armistice of 1819

The Napoleonic Wars gave impetus to a general independence movement in Central and South America. The first of Spain's colonies to move toward independence was Venezuela. Napoleon Bonaparte's (1769–1821) invasion of Spain resulted in the ouster of the principal Spanish authority in Venezuela, headquartered at the capital city of Caracas, on April 19, 1810. In the absence of a colonial government, a junta took charge. The junta, however, continued to claim allegiance to the Spanish Crown; therefore, Simón Bolívar (1783–1830) traveled to Britain to appeal for military aid in a full-scale war of liberation. The Venezuelan independence forces were led by Francisco de Miranda (1750–1816), who returned to his native land from service in France during the FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS.

Rebels defeated Spanish forces in November 1810, only to be defeated at Huaqui on June 20, 1811. Despite this setback, Miranda proclaimed independence on July 5, 1811. Spanish forces quickly defeated Miranda and restored Venezuela to the Spanish Crown. Captured, Miranda was transported to Spain and a prison cell, in which he died five years later.

In the meantime, Bolívar, returned from England, assumed leadership of the Venezuelan forces of liberation, and by 1813 had succeeded in taking Caracas after defeating the Spanish forces led by Domingo de Monteverde (1772–1823). With the fall of Caracas, Bolívar earned the sobriquet by which he would be known throughout South America, "Liberator." Yet the war for independence was hardly over, and although he did win other victories, he suffered a stinging defeat at the Battle of La Puerta in 1814, which forced him to flee to New Granada (Colombia) and to relinquish Venezuela, once again, to the Crown.

Bolívar remained in exile, in New Granada, Jamaica, and Haiti, for two years before he returned to Venezuela in 1816. This time, his forces were allied with a patriot band under the command of José Antonio Páez (1790–1873) and volunteer freedom fighters from Britain and other European countries. Establishing his base of operations in Angostura (Ciudad Bolívar), Bolívar concentrated first on liberating New Granada from Spanish rule (*see* COLOMBIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE). When this was achieved in 1819, he turned immediately to completing the liberation of Venezuela. Although he signed an armistice with the Venezuelan royalists, he did so only to buy time to prepare a major thrust. The offensive came on June 24, 1821, resulting in the Battle of Carabobo, in which the forces Bolívar led decisively defeated the Spanish. Venezuela joined New Granada in liberation.

See also CHILEAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; PERUVIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE; URUGUAYAN REVOLT; VENEZUELAN INSURRECTION.

Further reading: William David Marsland, *Venezuela through Its History* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1976); Donna Keyse Rudolph and G. A. Rudolph, *Historical Dictionary of Venezuela* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 1996).

Vesey's Rebellion (1822)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: African-American freedmen and slaves vs. white slaveholders and citizens
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Charleston, South Carolina, and environs
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: An attempt to free African-American slaves from their masters
OUTCOME: The rebellion was suppressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Total unknown; estimates of the number of African Americans involved are as high as 9,000.
CASUALTIES: Thirty-five African-Americans hanged
TREATIES: None

In the early decades of the American republic, the forced enslavement of African Americans was a well-established practice sanctioned by the U.S. Constitution and governed by local laws aimed at minimizing the possibility of slaves rebelling against their masters.

Denmark Vesey (c. 1767–1822), an intelligent black freedman who worked as a carpenter, planned and organized a major slave rebellion that never happened. While in bondage to a slave trader, Vesey saw firsthand the manifest evil of the "peculiar institution." When in 1800 he won by lottery enough money to purchase his freedom, he did so, settling in Charleston, South Carolina, and working for 20 years as a carpenter. Well traveled, proficient in several languages, and devoted to the teachings of the Bible, Vesey became an educated and prosperous man. But he could not ignore the plight of other African Americans enslaved to white masters. By contemporary accounts, Vesey became obsessed with freeing the slaves in and around Charleston.

In 1820, Vesey began developing plans for a revolt. For months he recruited followers among Charleston's freedmen and plantation slaves, selected lieutenants, and collected weapons. By some estimates, he amassed a following of about 9,000 recruits. His followers were organized into cells; each member knew only the name of the cell leader and a vague description of the cell's task, thereby ensuring that betrayal by a single member of the rebellion could not endanger the entire plan.

Vesey intended to call upon his slave army to strike at six points simultaneously and by surprise on Sunday, July 16, 1822, taking possession of arsenals, powder magazines, guardhouses, and naval stores in Charleston. When those points were secured, the army was to kill all the whites, seize their weapons, burn and destroy the city, and free the slaves.

Vesey's elaborate plan was betrayed to white officials, who responded by calling out the militia to guard the city's stores of weapons and ammunition. Vesey tried to move up the date of the assault, but he was arrested along with 135 followers. In the trials that followed, 67 were convicted of trying to incite an insurrection. Vesey and 36 others were hanged; 32 were condemned to exile; and four white men, convicted of supporting the insurrection, were fined and imprisoned.

Further reading: Thomas Wentworth Higginson, *Black Rebellion: Five Slave Revolts* (New York: Da Capo, 1998); Edward A. Pearson, ed., *Designs against Charleston: The Trial Record of the Denmark Vesey Slave Conspiracy of 1822* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1999); David Robertson, *Denmark Vesey* (New York: Knopf, 1999).

Victorio's Resistance

See UNITED STATES–APACHE WAR (1876–1886).

Vienna, Siege of (1683)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Hapsburgs of Austria (and their Polish and German allies) vs. the Ottomans (and their vassals in Europe)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Hungary and Austria
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Defending Vienna against Ottoman attack and Hungary from Ottoman hegemony
OUTCOME: The Turks never again posed a real threat to Europe
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Ottoman-Transylvanian forces: 200,000; Allies: 80,000
CASUALTIES: Ottoman-Transylvanian forces: 15,000 dead, 25,000 wounded; Allies: 3,200 dead, 1,800 wounded
TREATIES: Treaty of Linz, March 31, 1684 (establishing Holy League against Turks)

As early as 1678, Magyar rebels, Calvinists led by Count Imre Thököly (1657–1705), had tried to break free of Hapsburg control, but Hungary remained subject to Catholic Austrian hegemony. In search of allies, Thököly turned to Sultan Muhammad IV (1641–91), who was only too happy with the chance to break the Hapsburg grip on Middle Europe and bring Hungary fully into the Ottoman orbit. In 1683, a 200,000-strong Turkish force, swelled by the Transylvanian troops of Ottoman vassal Prince Michael Apafi (1661–90) and commanded by Grand Vizier Kara Mustafa (1664–1704), marched from Adrianople. Meanwhile, Thököly's Hungarians had gone on the attack.

The Hapsburgs quickly signed a defensive pact with Poland's king John Sobieski (1624–96), then defeated the Hungarian rebels at Pressburg before turning to face the larger menace, the Turks who crossed into Austria in June 1683. Emperor Leopold I (1640–1705) and his court fled Vienna; his 33,000-man army, under Charles of Lorraine (1643–90), fell back on Linz to await the arrival of Sobieski's 30,000 Poles.

Meantime, only a relatively small force of 11,000 regulars and 6,000 citizen volunteers remained to defend the Hapsburg capital, and on July 17, 150,000 Turks besieged Vienna. The Turks succeeded in capturing Vienna's outer fortifications before Sobieski, urged on by Pope Innocent XI (1611–89), arrived. Innocent had also tried—and failed—to induce Louis XIV (1638–1715) of France to aid Leopold against the Turks. Even Sobieski had held out despite the alliance he signed earlier in the year, until Rome offered him a large subsidy and persuaded Charles of Lorraine to combine his army with those of the electors of Saxony and Bavaria as well as some 30 German princes.

Ultimately 80,000 allied troops formed up in the hills above Vienna, and, on the morning of September 12, attacked the Turks. For 15 hours the battle raged before Sobieski and Charles's troops drove the Turkish invaders from their trenches. The grand vizier escaped, but he left behind most of his routed army, with its 15,000 dead (including six pashas) and 25,000 wounded. Some chroniclers claimed it took the soldiers and the liberated Viennese a week to loot the booty left behind by the Turks, including 300 guns, 9,000 ammunition wagons, and 25,000 tents full of goods. When Mustafa reached Constantinople (Istanbul), the sultan had him strangled to death with a silken cord. Meanwhile, Sobieski had delivered the Ottoman's battle standard of the prophet Muhammad in to the hands of Pope Innocent XI. In a broader context, the defeat marked the beginning of the end of Turkish domination in eastern Europe and was the last time the Turks would ever pose a true threat to Middle Europe.

The war went on, however, and Venice joined Austria and Poland in the formation of a Holy League against Turkey in the Treaty of Linz on March 31, 1684. Two years later Russia signed on as well.

See also AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1683–1699); HAPSBURG-OTTOMAN WAR FOR HUNGARY; VENETIAN-TURKISH WAR (1685–1699).

Further reading: Jean Berenger, *History of the Hapsburg Empire, 1273–1700* (London: Longman Publishing Group, 1995); Archdeacon William Coxe, *History of the House of Austria,* 3rd ed., 4 vols. (reprint, New York: Arno Press, 1971); Charles Ingrao, *The Hapsburg Monarchy, 1618–1815* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994); Ivan Parver, *Hapsburgs and Ottomans between Vienna and Belgrade, 1683–1738* (Boulder, Colo.: East European Monographs,

1995); Adam Wandruska, *The House of Hapsburg: Six Hundred Years of European Dynasty,* trans. by Cathleen and Hans Epstein (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1975).

Viennese Revolts (1848)

See AUSTRIAN REVOLUTION.

Vietnamese-Cambodian War (1738–1750)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vietnam (Annam) vs. Cambodia
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vietnam
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Cambodia sought to recover territory lost to Vietnam over the years.
OUTCOME: Vietnamese forces seized the initiative from the Cambodians and turned a defensive war into a protracted offensive campaign, which secured even more territory for Vietnam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Annam (a large portion of modern Vietnam) made repeated incursions into Cambodian territory. By the beginning of the 18th century, Annam had acquired the Cambodian border region in the Mekong River delta. Much of the Cambodian coast fell under Vietnamese control. In 1738, Cambodian leaders decided to embark on a military campaign to retake some of the lost territory. The campaign proved arduous and seemingly endless, producing little result. Vietnamese troops repeatedly repulsed Cambodian counterattacks, and they also repeatedly seized the initiative from the Cambodians. After each defense, the Vietnamese would take the offensive and eat away at additional Cambodian land. By the middle of the 18th century, all of Cochin China (southern Vietnam) had fallen to the Vietnamese, and Cambodia was thereby deprive of its most fertile agricultural territory.

See also SIAMESE-CAMBODIAN WAR (1714–1717).

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Dragon Defiant: A Short History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1972); Li Tana, *Nguyen Cochinchina: Southern Vietnam in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Century* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1998).

Vietnamese-Cham War (1000–1044)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Annam (northern Vietnam) vs. Champa (part of southern Vietnam)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Champa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Champa attempted to end Annamese incursions into its territory and thereby provoked an Annamese counterattack.
OUTCOME: Annam repeatedly prevailed against the Chams, acquiring more and more Cham territory and killing its king.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: In the culminating capture of the Cham capital of Vijaya (Binh Dinh), 5,000 Chams were made prisoner.
TREATIES: None

Champa was a kingdom of seafarers located south of Annam (Dai Viet, or northern Vietnam). Over the years, Annamese settlers made incursions into northern Champa and began farming the region under the protection of the Annamese government. Although Cham settlement was primarily coastal—the people having little interest in agricultural pursuits—the incursions became intolerable, and the Chams invaded the Red River Delta region, attacking Vietnamese settlements. The Chams enjoyed considerable military success until Le Dai Hanh (d. 1005), the Annamese ruler, led a strong force in a counterinvasion and took the Cham capital city. The Annamese not only extorted tribute from the Chams but also forced the cession of Amaravati (Quang Nam). The Cham capital was moved to Vijaya (Binh Dinh).

War continued sporadically between Annam and Cham until 1044, when another Annamese ruler, Ly Thai-Tong (999–1054), led a fleet in a vigorous attack on Champa. Weakened by internal rebellion, Champa reeled under the attack. Its new capital, Vijaya, fell to the Annamese. Five thousand Chams became prisoners, the court was pillaged, and the Cham king was killed.

See also VIETNAMESE-CHAM WAR (1068–1078).

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *The Smaller Dragon: A Political History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1958).

Vietnamese-Cham War (1068–1074)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Annam (also called Dai Viet, in northern Vietnam) vs. Champa (central Vietnam)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Annam-Champa border region and the interior of Champa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Champa sought to recover its capital, Vijaya (Binh Dinh).
OUTCOME: For its action against Annam, Champa suffered fierce retribution and ultimately was compelled to cede three border provinces to Annam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown

CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The VIETNAMESE-CHAM WAR (1000–1044) was disastrous for the kingdom of Champa. Among many other losses, the Chams lost their second capital, Vijaya (Binh Dinh), to the Annamese. The Chams struck an alliance with the Khmers and launched an invasion into the three border provinces of Annam. The invasion was met with fierce retaliation by Ly Thanh-Tong (1022–72), ruler of Annam. In 1068, he launched an attack into Champa, burning Vijaya and taking the Cham king, Rudravarman III (d. 1074), prisoner. Over the next several years, Ly Thanh-Tong continued to ravage Champa until the country finally yielded, ceding three of its border provinces to Annam as ransom for Rudravarman III.

See also CHINESE-ANNAMESE WAR (1057–1061); VIETNAMESE-CHAM WAR (1103).

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *The Smaller Dragon: A Political History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1958).

Vietnamese-Cham War (1103)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Annam (also called Dai Viet, northern Vietnam) vs. Champa (central Vietnam)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Annam-Champa border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Champa wanted to recover three border provinces ceded to Annam in the Vietnamese-Cham War of 1068–74.
OUTCOME: Initially successful, the Chams ultimately relinquished the three provinces again.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Jaya Indravarman (d. c. 1113), king of Champa, acquired intelligence from an Annamese refugee suggesting that the three border provinces Champa had ceded to Annam as a result of the VIETNAMESE-CHAM WAR (1068–1074) were lightly held and could be easily recovered. Acting on this information, Jaya Indravarman immediately stopped paying the tribute demanded by Annam. Then he launched an attack on the three border provinces in question. Indeed, the initial results were heartening. The Chams won a succession of victories and reacquired the provinces. After holding the provinces for less than a year, however, the Annamese counterattacked and drove the Chams out of the disputed territory.

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Dragon Defiant: A Short History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Vietnamese-Cham War (1312–1326)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Annam (also called Dai Viet, corresponding to northern Vietnam) vs. Champa (central Vietnam) (with Mongol military aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Champa
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Champa wanted to recover its lost border provinces.
OUTCOME: At first defeated, Champa was annexed to Annam; with Mongol assistance, the Chams regained their independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

By the early 14th century, southern Annam was made up of provinces that had once been the northern borderlands of Champa. These regions often rebelled against the Annamese overlords, and in 1312, Tran Ahn-tong (d. c. 1314) of Annam sent troops to quell the disturbances. Victory accomplished, he ordered the troops to proceed farther south and invade Champa. The Cham forces were quickly defeated, and the Annamese troops took captive the Cham king, Jaya Simhavarman IV (also known as Che Chi, 1284–1313). This time, Annam annexed the entire kingdom of Champa and appointed the brother of the captured king, Che Anan (fl. early 14th century), to serve as feudal lord of what had been an independent kingdom.

In 1313, Thai forces invaded Champa but were repulsed by a combination of Cham and Annamese troops. The invasion did, however, destabilize Annam and prompted the abdication of Tran Ahn-tong. Taking advantage of temporary Annamese weakness, the lord of Cham organized a rebellion. The uprising against Annam consumed four years (1314–18) before it was finally supressed.

In 1318, the new ruler of Annam elevated a new man, General Che A-nan (fl. 14th century), to govern Champa. No sooner had he been installed, however, than Che A-nan secured military aid from the Mongols to help Champa regain its independence from Annam. In 1326, the combined Cham and Mongol forces prevailed over the Annamese, and Che A-nan was crowned king of the again independent Champa.

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Dragon Defiant: A Short History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Vietnamese-Cham War (1446–1471)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Annam (also called Dai Viet, northern Vietnam) vs. Champa (central Vietnam)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Champa, especially Vijaya and environs

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Annam sought total conquest of Champa.
OUTCOME: After a monumentally bloody battle for Vijaya, Champa was almost totally annexed to Annam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: In the 1471 assault on Vijaya, 40,000 Chams were slain, 30,000 made prisoner.
TREATIES: None

Annam frequently invaded Champa and had done so since the 11th century (*see* VIETNAMESE-CHAM WAR [1000–1044], VIETNAMESE-CHAM WAR [1068–1074], VIETNAMESE-CHAM WAR [1103], and VIETNAMESE-CHAM WAR [1312–1326]). Annam launched a new invasion in 1446, overrunning and capturing the Cham capital of Vijaya (Binh Dinh). The Chinese offered an alliance with the Chams, who declined it in the belief that China would use such an alliance as an excuse to invade. Fighting alone, Champa was able to recapture its capital, but the fighting diverted military resources needed to keep internal order in the kingdom. Torn by civil war, Champa was vulnerable to renewed attack from Annam. The invasion came in 1471 when Le-Thanh-Ton (1441–97) led his Annamese forces in a massive assault on Vijaya. Forty thousand Chams were killed and another 30,000 captured, including most of the royal family. The king of Champa was killed, and Annam moved quickly to annex the conquered kingdom—or most of it. A small region in the south survived independently. But the area was of strategic advantage to the Annamese, who wanted a buffer zone between their kingdom and the aggressive Khmers. By the 17th century, however, even this small corner of Champa was absorbed by Annam, or Dai Viet.

See also VIETNAMESE-CHINESE WAR (1405–1407); VIETNAMESE-CHINESE WAR (1418–1428); VIETNAMESE CIVIL WAR (1400–1407).

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Dragon Defiant: A Short History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Vietnamese-Chinese War (1405–1407)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dai Viet (also called Annam, northern Vietnam) vs. China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dai Viet
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Deposed from the Dai Viet throne, the Tran family secured Chinese aid to regain power, but China annexed Dai Viet.
OUTCOME: China annexed Dai Viet, reacquiring the kingdom after it had been independent for 500 years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: China, 200,000 land troops; Dai Viet also fielded large numbers but was substantially outnumbered.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the course of the VIETNAMESE CIVIL WAR (1400–1407), Ho Qui Ly (d. 1407) seized the throne of Dai Viet, deposing the Tran king. The Tran royal family sought aid from the Ming emperor of China, Yongle (Yung Lo; 1359–1424), who sent a fleet under the command of Zheng He (Chen Ho; 1371–1433), a Muslim eunuch. The Chinese fleet attacked the coast of Dai Viet periodically during 1405–07, ultimately liberating Champa from Dai Viet domination. Then, in 1407, two massive Chinese armies, totaling 200,000 troops, invaded Dai Viet, and Ho Qui Ly deployed the Dai Viet troops in defensive positions along the Red River. Unknown to Ho, however, Tran agents were at work within the ranks of the army, undermining its morale. Thus a stunned Ho Qui Ly looked on when his forces were overrun by the Chinese invaders. Both Ho Qui Ly and his son, Ho Han Thuong (d. c. 1407), were taken prisoner and transported to China. However, instead of restoring the Trans to the Dai Viet throne, the Ming emperor annexed Dai Viet to China and renamed it Annam ("Pacified South"). After half a millennium of independence, Dai Viet, or Annam, was once again under Chinese control.

See also CHINESE-ANNAMESE WAR (907–939); VIETNAMESE-CHINESE WAR (1418–1428).

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Dragon Defiant: A Short History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1972).

Vietnamese-Chinese War (1418–1428)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Annam (Dai Viet, northern Vietnam) vs. China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Annam
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Annam wanted to regain independence from China
OUTCOME: Independence was won, and a new Dai Viet dynasty founded.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: China, 100,000; Annam, 100,000
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty concluded after 1428

As a result of the VIETNAMESE-CHINESE WAR (1405–1407), Dai Viet became Annam, the "Pacified South" annexed to the Chinese (Ming) Empire. Immediately, the Dai Viet people chafed under Chinese domination and, under Le Loi (1384–1433), organized a guerrilla resistance about

1416. Le Loi joined forces in 1418 with the poet Nguyen Trai (1380–1442) in the Lam Son district and launched a guerrilla war against the Chinese occupiers. They began by disrupting the long supply lines of the Ming army but avoided outright battle with the superior Chinese forces. The guerrillas' objective was to wage a war of attrition that would ultimately wear down the occupying forces.

Three times Le Loi found himself in direct battle with portions of the Chinese forces, and three times the Annamese lost. Le Loi decided to withdraw his forces into the remote Chi Linh Mountains, just outside of Lam Son. Then, in 1419, Le Loi made an alliance with the Laotians, who quickly betrayed the Annamese and began to aid China instead. Le Loi had no choice but to retreat yet again.

By this time, however, internal problems within China following the death of Emperor Yongle (Yung Lo; 1359–1424) brought about a precipitous decline in Chinese military might. Le Loi was able to secure a two-year armistice, during which he regrouped and enlarged the rebel forces. In 1426, he went on the offensive, launching an attack with elephants against Chinese positions in Nghe An province, south of the Red River Delta. Victorious here, Le Loi pushed the Chinese northward.

By 1427, the Chinese had been confined to Hanoi; the rest of Annam was back in Dai Viet hands. The Chinese proposed withdrawing from the kingdom if Le Loi put a Tran dynasty ruler on the Dai Viet throne. He agreed, and Tran Cao (d. c. 1428) was named king. All seemed well until Le Loi intercepted a Chinese military communication requesting reinforcements. Immediately, Le Loi resumed the war and defeated a Chinese army of at least 100,000 men. The higher command of the army was decimated, its generals either killed or captured.

Following his victory, Le Loi laid siege against Hanoi, and in 1428 Hanoi fell to him. He ordered the evacuation of all Chinese, even furnishing the junks to carry them back to China. As for Tran Cao, Le Loi took no chances on his reestablishing ties with China. He ordered the king killed and put himself on the throne as the first of the Le dynasty rulers. Among his early acts was to conclude a peace treaty with the Ming emperor.

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Dragon Defiant: A Short History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1974).

Vietnamese Civil War (1400–1407)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Tran dynasty (with aid from Champa and China) vs. the Ho dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dai Viet (later called Annam, "Pacified South," by the Chinese; northern Vietnam)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This was a dynastic war, in which rivals vied for the Dai Viet throne.
OUTCOME: When the Chinese intervened, the war dissolved into the Vietnamese-Chinese War of 1405–07.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1398, after annexing Champa, Dai Viet moved its capital from Hanoi south to Than Hoa. Triumphant though it was, Dai Viet had been internally weakened by centuries of fighting with Champa. Its ruling dynasty, the Tran, were becoming progressively weaker and less capable of governing the kingdom. In the mountains, rebellion was frequent. In 1394, desperate elements of the government connived in the murder of King Tran Nghe Tong (d. 1354), who was strangled by General Ho Qui Ly (d. c. 1407). Named regent after Tran's death, Ho successfully conspired to overthrow the new king, Tran Thuan Tong (d. 1394), which elevated the three-year-old crown prince to the throne. This, of course, gave the regent supreme power. But even that was not enough, and Ho Qui Ly seized the Tran throne in 1400, founding the Ho dynasty.

After ruling for a year, Ho Qui Ly abdicated in favor of his son Ho Han Thuong (d. c. 1407), although he continued to direct policy. Adherents to the deposed Tran dynasty frequently battled with the forces of Ho Han Thuong and his father. Seeing an opportunity, perhaps, to recover independence, the Chams exploited the civil war in Dai Viet by throwing their support behind the Tran. At about this point, in 1405, the Chinese, in response to an appeal from the Tran insurgents, sent a war fleet against Dai Viet, and the civil war melted into the VIETNAMESE-CHINESE WAR (1405–1407).

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Dragon Defiant: A Short History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1974).

Vietnamese Civil War (Tay Son Rebellion) (1772–1802)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The "Tay Son" brothers vs. the Nguyen dynasty; the Trinh dynasty also fought the Nguyen dynasty, as well as the Tay Son brothers; the Chinese briefly attacked the Tay Sons; French and Siamese troops aided Nguyen Anh in the reestablishment of the Nguyen dynasty.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vietnam
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The principal objective in this complex civil war was unification and control of Vietnam.
OUTCOME: The Tay Son rebels successfully toppled the Nguyen dynasty (in the south) as well as the Trinh dynasty (in the north); however, Nguyen Anh, the

Nguyen dynasty crown prince, mounted a successful campaign against the usurpers and reestablished the Nguyen dynasty, this time over a unified Vietnam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

As in many Asian nations, governing power did not rest with the royal dynasty, but with certain influential families. In Vietnam, after the 16th century, two families, the Trinh of the north and the Nguyen of the south, shared governing power, whereas the Later Le dynasty, the imperial dynasty, only nominally governed Vietnam.

In the 1770s, three Nguyen brothers, Nguyen Hue (c. 1753–92), Nguyen Nhac (c. 1752–93), and Nguyen Lu (c. 1752–92), agitated for reforms in defiance of their own family. They instigated a rebellion in their home village of Tay Son (the war is sometimes referred to as the "Tay Son Rebellion") in 1792 and attacked and defeated Nguyen government troops at the nearby town of Qui Nhon in 1773. Word of this victory quickly spread the rebellion.

Word of the rebellion also reached the Trinh, in the north, who decided to exploit the instability of the Nguyen in order to make conquests in the south. A Trinh army overran and seized the Nguyen capital of Hue, then assisted the Tay Son brothers in taking Saigon (Ho Chi Minh City). Correctly fearing Trinh power, however, the Tay Sons turned against their ally and in 1775 drove them out of Hue.

In 1777, the Tay Sons ravaged Saigon and eliminated most of the ruling Nguyens. However, the teenage Prince Nguyen Anh (1762–1820) fled and was joined in flight by a French missionary, Pierre Pigneau de Behaine (1741–99). The Tay Sons now controlled all of central and southern Vietnam; however, in 1782, supporters of Prince Nguyen Anh seized control of Saigon. By the next year, the Tay Sons had reclaimed the city, and Nguyen Anh once again fled, this time to Siam (Thailand). Here, in exile, he recruited aid in resisting the Tay Sons. Father Pigneau assisted in these efforts, and although his appeals to the French government fell on deaf ears, he was able to recruit volunteers from among many French adventurers.

In the meantime, the Tay Sons exploited the increasing anarchy of the north and took control of Hanoi. Both the Later Le dynasty and the Trinh family were overthrown. Under the three brothers from Tay Son, Vietnam was reunited, each brother taking responsibility for a region; Nguyen Hue proclaimed himself Emperor Quang Trung. During 1788–89, he successfully led an indigenous force against Chinese invaders.

In Siam, Nguyen Anh mustered an army, which he led in a landing in the Mekong Delta region. In September 1788, Saigon fell to these invaders. He held the city, and by 1789 French volunteer forces were helping him win back territory from the Tay Son rebels. A crucial victory came in 1792, when Nguyen Anh and his allies destroyed the Tay Son fleet. The three brothers held out and continued to fight the war, but their deaths (1792 and 1793) brought to power their sons, who proved far less effectual than the brothers had been. In 1801, the forces of Nguyen Anh recaptured Hue, which gave him enough credibility to declare himself emperor. He adopted the title Gia Long, reestablished the Nguyen dynasty, and in 1804 secured recognition from China.

See also SIAMESE-VIETNAMESE WAR (1769–1773).

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *The Smaller Dragon: A Short History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1958).

Vietnamese Civil War (1955–1965)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: North Vietnam vs. South Vietnam (with military support from the United States)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Vietnam
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: When, with U.S. backing, South Vietnam ignored the free elections mandated by the Geneva Accords that ended the French-Indochina War of 1946–54 and declared itself an independent republic, widespread rebellion—urged on and supported by communist North Vietnam—broke out across the south.
OUTCOME: The rebel Viet Cong, inspired, supported, and supplied by North Vietnamese leader Ho Chi Minh, utterly defeated the South Vietnamese under Ngo Dinh Diem, whose assassination sent the south into political chaos. Fearing a complete communist takeover of its Indochinese client, the United States openly entered the conflict, which escalated into the decade-long Vietnam War.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: South Vietnam, 125,000; Viet Cong, 27,000 regulars plus 80,000 regional militia; United States, 23,300
CASUALTIES: Between 1961 and 1965, South Vietnam, 33,000 killed; Viet Cong, 39,000 killed; United States, 1,600 killed
TREATIES: None

The small Southeast Asian nation of Vietnam had known thousands of years of intermittent warfare when, following WORLD WAR II, Vietnamese nationalists, led by the communist Ho Chi Minh (1890–1969), fought French colonial forces to a stalemate (*see* FRENCH-INDOCHINA WAR [1946–1954]). As a result of a 1954 Geneva peace conference, the country was divided into North and South Vietnam pending the outcome of free elections scheduled for 1956. Caught up in the COLD WAR strategy of containing communism wherever possible, U.S. president Dwight

D. Eisenhower (1890–1969), concluding that free elections would result in the unification of the country under Ho Chi Minh, gave American approval and covert support to South Vietnamese president Ngo Dinh Diem (1901–63) when he co-opted the election process and ruthlessly suppressed the opposition.

First gaining control of the army, Diem quickly moved to destroy three rebellious but well-armed religious groups—the Bin Xuyen, Hoa Hao, and Cadaist sects. In 1955, Diem's troops managed to drive the Binh Xuyen rebels out of South Vietnam's capital, Saigon, but they and the other rebels continued to harass the government, which led to further attacks by Diem's forces at Can Tho, Vinh Long, and in the Seven Mountains. By the following year, Diem felt confident enough to refuse to hold the general elections promised in the Geneva talks. This act prompted the expansion of the already existing guerrilla forces, which included not only the Buddhist sects but also South Vietnamese nationalists, and communists supported by North Vietnam and other communist nations. The next five years were consumed in guerrilla-led civil warfare, with North Vietnam calling on the National Liberation Front, popularly known as the Viet Cong, to lead the struggle against Diem.

As the terrorism and rebellion spread, Diem fell from grace with his paymasters in the United States, especially after he was forced to suppress a military revolt in 1960 and his American-trained army proved generally ineffective against the dedication and the tactics of the Viet Cong. Fearing a communist takeover, Eisenhower's successor, President John F. Kennedy (1917–63), heedlessly, secretly, and without securing the consent of Congress sent U.S. combat troops to aid Diem, so that by 1962, 15,500 Americans were involved in an undeclared war against the Viet Cong (an involvement justified only after the fact in 1966 by invoking the ambiguous SEATO treaty). In 1962, the United States pushed on its client state the "strategic hamlet program," which was a widespread effort to resettle South Vietnam's peasants from their small traditional villages (easily infiltrated by the Viet Cong) to larger towns that could be more readily defended. Meanwhile, Catholic Diem's constant repression against Buddhist priests led to riots and self-immolations that did not play well on American television.

In 1963 Kennedy involved himself and the United States even deeper in Vietnam's affairs by allowing the Central Intelligence Agency to plot the murder of the thoroughly corrupt Diem, now perceived as a political liability rather than an asset, in a military coup that led to years of instability, during which South Vietnam had 12 governments, none popular enough to survive on its own. By 1965, Ho Chi Minh's North had essentially prevailed, having killed 33,000 South Vietnamese soldiers and having so demoralized the others that more than 100,000 deserted.

By then, too, South Vietnam was being run by an Armed Forces Council, headed by Generals Nguyen Cao Ky (b. 1930) and Nguyen Van Thieu (1923–2001), who were desperately trying to maintain military control of their country. The prospects, in fact, were looking better. The year before, President Kennedy himself had been assassinated, and Lyndon Johnson (1908–73) determined to fight on in Southeast Asia when he entered office. He had gotten what he needed when, in response to an apparent (but in fact staged) attack on a U.S. destroyer conducting espionage activities in the Gulf of Tonkin off the coast of North Vietnam, the U.S. Senate passed the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution on August 7, 1964. It gave President Johnson a free hand to prevent further "aggression" by North Vietnam and provided broad congressional support for expanding the VIETNAM WAR.

Further reading: Lloyd C. Gardner, ed., *Vietnam: The Early Decisions* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1997); Stanley Karnow, *Vietnam: A History* (New York: Penguin Books, 1983); Fredrik Logevall, *The Origins of the Vietnam War* (New York: Pearson Education, 2001).

Vietnamese-French Wars

See FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1858–1863); FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1873–1874); FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1882–1885); FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1946–1954).

Vietnamese-Khmer War (1123–1136)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dai Viet (northern Vietnam) vs. the Khmer Empire (Cambodia and Laos), with aid from Champa (central Vietnam)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Dai Viet
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Khmers sought to exploit a Dai Viet government crisis to achieve conquest.
OUTCOME: The Khmers were repeatedly repulsed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The initial Khmer-Cham force was 20,000 men; a subsequent force included 700 Khmer warships manned by an unknown number of crew; Dai Viet strength unknown.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty between Champa and Dai Viet, 1136; no treaty between Dai Viet and Khmers

In the 12th century, Dai Viet was wracked by internal discord and was continually menaced by China. These conflicts rendered the kingdom weak and vulnerable. Suryavarman II (d. c. 1150), king of the Khmer Empire, decided to exploit Dai Viet weakness by invading. He pressured the perpetually inferior kingdom of Champa to aid him in the invasion and in 1128 led 20,000 troops from Savannakhet (in

south-central Laos) to the Dai Viet province of Nghe An. He was, however, defeated in battle.

Undaunted, Suryavarman II sent a new force against Dai Viet in 1124, this one consisting of 700 ships, which ravaged the Dai Viet coast, then landed an invasion force. Incursions were made, but the invasion stalled, and it was not until 1132 that a combined Khmer and Cham army successfully penetrated Nghe An. Yet even this success was short-lived; Dai Viet troops soon drove the invaders out.

In 1136, discouraged and eager to break free of the Khmers' war, the Champa king Jaya Indravarman III (d. c. 1145) concluded a treaty with Dai Viet. Without Champa aid, Suryavarman was unable to conquer Dai Viet. He did seize much of Champa in the KHMER-CHAM WAR (1144–1150), and he attacked Dai Viet again (in 1138 and 1150), but to no avail.

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Dragon Defiant: A Short History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1974); Ian Mabbett and David Chandler, *Khmers* (London: Blackwell, 1995).

Vietnamese-Mongol War (1257–1288)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Dai Viet (later called Annam, northern Vietnam) vs. Champa (central Vietnam) and the Mongol invaders of Kublai Khan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vietnam (Dai Viet and Champa)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Kublai Khan wanted to acquire control of the spice trading routes that passed through Dai Viet and Champa.
OUTCOME: After a protracted war, Dai Viet and Champa acknowledged Mongol suzerainty, and Kublai Khan refrained from taking any further action in or against Vietnam.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Mongols, 300,000–500,000; Vietnamese defenders fielded considerably fewer men
CASUALTIES: Unknown; 400 Mongol ships lost on the Bach Dang River, and many Mongol troops killed at the Battle of Noi Bang
TREATIES: Presumably the war was ended by a formal treaty (unidentified) in 1288

In 1257, Kublai Khan (1216–94), ruler of the Mongols, embarked on a campaign ancillary to his principal campaign, the MONGOL CONQUEST OF THE SUNG EMPIRE. He decided to preempt the great spice-trade routes that traversed the coastal region of Dai Viet. To accomplish this, Kublai Khan dispatched a force into both Dai Viet and Champa. Advancing down the Red River, the Mongol army overran Hanoi in 1257 and sacked it. For the first three years of its incursion into Dai Viet and Champa, the Mongol hordes encountered almost no resistance. But in 1260, when Kublai Khan began pushing for formal Dai Viet and Cham acknowledgment of Chinese suzerainty, the two Vietnamese kingdoms joined together to resist the Mongols.

Resistance was difficult. By 1260, the Mongol forces invading Vietnam amounted to half a million men. The invaders drove Vietnamese forces, under General Tran Hung Dao (d. 1300), steadily southward, until they fell back on Tranh Hoa. Here the Cham contingent took to various mountain strongholds, from which they conducted a guerrilla war. Although overwhelmingly outnumbered, the Chams, through their great military skill, managed to force the Mongols to withdraw back into China. With the Mongols in retreat, the Dai Viet and Cham forces united in a counterattack by land as well as by sea.

It was 1287 before the Mongols mounted a new invasion of Vietnam, this time with about 300,000 troops. This second invasion seized Hanoi, the Dai Viet capital, but the Mongol advance southward thereafter met increasingly heavy resistance.

In 1288, Tran Hung Dao used decoys and other ruses to lure the Mongol fleet up the Bach Dang River. The Bach Dang was a tidal river, and the Dai Viet had previously prepared the river bottom with great iron spikes. The Mongol fleet sailed up at high tide. When the tide receded, the spikes destroyed the fleet. The Dai Viet attacked and captured 400 Mongol vessels, along with their crews and troop passengers. This was sufficient to send the remainder of the Mongol army into retreat, but more Vietnamese forces fell on them in ambush at the Noi Bang Pass.

Exhausted by this protracted war, both sides made peace overtures. The rulers of Dai Viet and Champa decided to acknowledge the suzerainty of Kublai Khan, and, this done, the Mongols withdrew and did not molest Vietnam further.

Further reading: Joseph Buttinger, *Dragon Defiant: A Short History of Vietnam* (New York: Praeger, 1974); David Nicolle, *Mongol Warlords; Genghis Khan, Kublai Khan, Hulegu, and Tamerlane* (New York: Sterling, 1990).

Vietnamese-Siamese Wars

See SIAMESE-VIETNAMESE WAR (1769–1773); SIAMESE-VIETNAMESE WAR (1841–1845).

Vietnamese Uprisings (Yen Bai Uprising) (1930–1931)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vietnam vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Vietnam
DECLARATION: Uprising began February 9–10, 1930
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Many Vietnamese sought independence from French colonial rule.
OUTCOME: This series of uprisings was quelled by the French, but it led to others, culminating in the French Indochina War of 1946–54.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Vietnamese numbers unknown; France, 10,000
CASUALTIES: Vietnamese colonials, 1,000 killed in battle, and some 50,000 imprisoned, of whom 10,000 subsequently died; French losses were 1 man killed.
TREATIES: None

Oppression by the French colonial government of Vietnam gave rise to numerous covert revolutionary cells, most notably the Viet Nam Quoc Dan Dang (VNQDD, or Vietnamese Nationalist Party), which was founded in 1927 by Nguyen Thai Hoc (1904–30), a teacher. VNQDD employed sporadic guerrilla and terrorist tactics but planned a general uprising. The revolt began on the night of February 9–10, 1930, when military members of VNQDD mutinied against their French commanders at the garrison of Yen Bai, Tonkin (the war is sometimes called the "Yen Bai Uprising").

However, the French were a step ahead of the VNQDD, having been alerted shortly before the commencement of the uprising. French troops were able to crush the Yen Bai mutiny by February 11, and they prevented planned mutinies in other garrisons. Nguyen Thai Hoc was arrested, along with a dozen subordinates. All were summarily executed by beheading. A nationwide crackdown gutted the membership of VNQDD. Those who escaped the French dragnet joined the Indochina Communist Party, which had been formed in 1930 by Ho Chi Minh (1890–1969) (at the time known by his given name, Nguyen Than Thanh). This group instigated and led a series of peasant uprisings in Tonkin and Annam (northern Vietnam). The French mobilized large forces to crush these numerous rebellions, using aerial bombardment and ground actions known as the "white terror."

By 1931, the uprisings that had begun with the Yen Bai mutiny had been quelled. On its face, the war had been grotesquely one-sided: 1,000 killed and 50,000 captured (of whom 10,000 subsequently died) at the cost to French forces of a single soldier. Yet this brutal suppression of anticolonial rebellion did not kill the independence movement, which persisted. Uprisings increased in frequency and intensity, eventually leading to the FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR (1946–1954).

Further reading: David G. Marr, *Vietnamese Tradition on Trial, 1920–1945* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1981); Stanley Karnow, *Vietnam: A History* (New York: Penguin Books, 1983).

Vietnam War (1956–1975)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The United States (and some SEATO allies, notably Australia) and American-backed South Vietnam vs. North Vietnam (with advice, supply, and backing by communist powers, notably the USSR and China)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Vietnam and Cambodia
DECLARATION: Undeclared in the early years; the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution by the U.S. Senate, August 7, 1964, gave U.S. president Lyndon Johnson broad authority to conduct the war
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: For the United States, the objective was to prevent the expansion of communism from the north to the south.
OUTCOME: Despite extremely heavy losses, the communist North prevailed, the United States withdrew, and in 1975 North and South Vietnam were united under a communist government.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States: 500,000; North Vietnam, 250,000; South Vietnam, 327,000
CASUALTIES: From 1966 to 1973, United States: 58,193 killed, 149,000 wounded; North Vietnam: 731,000 killed, unknown wounded; South Vietnam; 197,000 killed, 502,000 wounded. In addition, 587,000 noncombatants in North and South Vietnam were killed during the conflict.
TREATIES: Paris Peace Accords, January 27, 1973

FROM CONTAINMENT TO COUNTERINSURGENCY

At the end of WORLD WAR II, Europe's old colonial powers expelled the Japanese from South Asia, only to find themselves faced with a wave of indigenous national liberation movements. In Malaya, the British fought a successful counterinsurgency against communist guerrillas (*see* MALAY JUNGLE WARS), but the Dutch were much less fortunate in Indonesia, where they were forced to grant the country independence in 1949 (*see* INDONESIAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE). In Indochina, the French waged a prolonged, painful, and ultimately futile war with the communist Viet Minh (*see* FRENCH INDOCHINA WAR [1946–1954]). When the French army found itself surrounded and desperate at Dien Bien Phu in 1954, Paris appealed to the United States for help, specifically for air support.

By that time the COLD WAR colored every aspect of American foreign policy, and U.S. diplomats and policy makers certainly viewed the insurgency in French Indochina as part of the Moscow-backed worldwide communist campaign to undermine the West's liberal democracies and take control everywhere they could. Thus, for the first time, American leaders began talking about Indochina as a "domino." If it fell, they reasoned, the rest of Southeast Asia would topple into the communist camp as well. Despite his belief in the "Domino Theory," U.S. president Dwight Eisenhower (1890–1969) was reluctant to send American troops into Asian jungles, to arrogate—as Harry S Truman (1884–1972) had in Korea—war-making powers to the Oval Office, or to sacrifice so valuable a Cold War asset as the U.S. reputation for being basically an anti-imperialist nation. Besides, neither he nor the American public wanted another Korea.

Eisenhower responded to French reversals at the hands of Ho Chi Minh's (1890–1969) communist forces in the north by sending the aid to rescue trapped French forces and stop the fighting. His ultimate goal, however, was to partition Indochina, as the best strategy to "contain" Ho Chi Minh's communist Viet Minh. Following the French collapse, a new premier, Pierre Mendes-France (1907–82), agreed to meet in Geneva and work out some kind of international accord. In a diplomatic farce, various states attending the Geneva Conference of 1954 did not recognize others; the United States for example, did not recognize as legitimate the People's Republic of China, or the French the Viet Minh government. There they were, nevertheless, negotiating the 10 documents that went to make up three military agreements, six unilateral declarations, and a Final Declaration to end the fighting.

The United States, in unilateral declarations, repudiated important sections of these accords and refused to sign any of the agreements of the Final Declaration. The Geneva Agreements, as a collection of documents, in fact, contained no actual treaty binding on all participants, and certainly no political treaties as such were signed. This made the agreements unusual by treaty standards and probably unique in modern times. In any case, the military agreements imposed by the accords divided Vietnam into two parts, a Democratic Republic controlling the north and recognized only by the Soviet Union and China, and the Republic of Vietnam uneasily holding sway in the south. Elections were set for 1956. They never took place, aborted by a United States that had assumed France's former role as South Vietnam's sponsor. Thus the United States was dragged into a war less popular, longer, and deadlier than the KOREAN WAR it was seeking to avoid repeating.

In accordance with the terms of the armistice, the United States had evacuated its personnel from Vietnam and assisted in the medical evacuation of wounded French troops. Ho Chi Minh felt confident that a popular vote on the issue of reunification mandated by the armistice, scheduled for July of 1956, would bring a communist victory. The United States, in the meantime, worked with French and South Vietnamese authorities to create a stable government and build an effective South Vietnamese military. The United States also sponsored the creation of the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) as a shield against communist aggression and proposed building up the Military Assistance Advisory Group (MAAG) staff in Saigon to accommodate its increased advisory role following the evacuation of the French. The international commission charged with enforcing the Geneva armistice refused to approve the buildup, so when 342 men were authorized as a "Temporary Equipment Recovery Mission" ostensibly assigned to inventory and removal of surplus equipment, MAAG simply appropriated them as logistical advisers; they became its Combat Arms Training and Organization Division. Despite the international commission, Eisenhower had got his buildup, and these men became the nucleus of an expanded U.S. involvement in Vietnam.

When South Vietnam, with U.S. urging, refused to conduct the reunification plebiscite mandated by the Geneva agreements, U.S. officials braced themselves for an anticipated invasion from the north. It failed to materialize, and President Eisenhower decided to commit the United States to a long-term advisory role, intending to accomplish what the French had not—the creation of an effective indigenous Vietnamese military. Nevertheless, internal dissent over the aborted elections, especially from Buddhist groups, continued to plague the Republic of Vietnam, and the North Vietnamese insurgency in the south increased during the closing years of the decade (*see* VIETNAMESE CIVIL WAR [1955–1965]). In September 1959 the communist-supported rebels (Viet Cong) commenced guerrilla warfare by ambushing two South Vietnamese army companies in the Plain of Reeds. In 1960, the United States expanded its MAAG advisers to 685 men, including Special Forces teams assigned to train Vietnamese Rangers. Despite these efforts, relations between the South Vietnamese civil government, run by the corrupt and venal Ngo Dinh Diem (1901–63), and disaffected elements of the military became strained to the point of an attempted coup on November 11, 1960. Compounding the crisis was the situation in Vietnam's neighbor, Laos, the government of which was being challenged by military forces of the pro-communist Pathet Lao (*see* LAOTIAN CIVIL WAR).

When John F. Kennedy (1917–63) took office as U.S. president in January 1961, the numbers of Viet Cong insurgents in South Vietnam had swelled to 14,000. They waged a combination guerrilla war and campaign of terror and assassination, targeting thousands of civil officials, government workers, and police officers. If the arrival of the missile age and its promise of mass destruction had made Eisenhower, always a frugal and careful commander, ever more cautious in his execution of the Cold War, it led his successor to be more vigorous in his responses to perceived communist aggression around the globe, especially in the Third World. Kennedy styled his "new" technique "counterinsurgency." Overtly, he launched the Peace Corps, the Latin-American Alliance for Progress, and NASA's race to the moon, to name a few new programs aimed at "paying any price" to compete successfully with the communists anywhere in the world or out of it. Covertly, Kennedy unleashed the CIA on such "trouble spots" as Cuba and Southeast Asia, resulting in the disastrous BAY OF PIGS INVASION, and the assassination of Diem. These in turn led, respectively, to the Cuban Missile Crisis and, after his own assassination, to full-scale war in Vietnam.

COVERT WAR

The escalations began modestly enough. On April 29, 1961, Kennedy authorized an additional 100 advisers, the establishment of a combat development and test center in

Vietnam, increased economic aid, and other measures. On May 11, he committed 400 Special Forces troops to raise and train a force of irregulars in areas controlled by the Viet Cong, particularly along the border. The first U.S. Air Force unit to arrive in Vietnam on permanent duty status were the 67 men assigned to a mobile combat reporting post, essentially a radar installation, which was secretly airlifted to Vietnam during September 26–October 3, 1961. On October 11, 1961, President Kennedy ordered the first combat detachment to Vietnam.

Officially called the 4400th Combat Crew Training Squadron, this elite force, the brainchild of General Curtis LeMay (1906–90), was nicknamed "Jungle Jim" and code named "Farm Gate." An air commando organization, its officers as well as airmen found themselves on an ambiguous mission. They were officially expected only to train Vietnamese forces; nevertheless, they were trained and briefed for combat. In fact, the group did train Vietnamese crews and performed difficult aerial reconnaissance missions. Flying actual combat strikes was another matter; on December 26, 1961, word came from the highest level of command that the unit was to conduct combat missions only when the Vietnamese air force could not. Restrictions and mixed signals concerning their mission undermined the morale of Farm Gate. The situation proved prophetic of the tenor of the entire war.

In October 1961, President Kennedy dispatched General Maxwell Taylor (1901–87) and Walt Rostow (1916–2003), chair of the policy planning council of the State Department, to survey the situation in Vietnam and advise him as to whether to continue the U.S. advisory role or to commit to a direct combat function. Taylor and Rostow advised continuing air force reconnaissance flights, setting up a tactical air-ground system—which included training functions—and giving Farm Gate a freer hand but not committing substantial U.S. combat forces. Kennedy's approval of these recommendations on November 3, 1961, marked a shift from a purely advisory role for the United States to what was described as a "limited partnership and working collaboration." The flow of aid and materiel increased dramatically, so that by June 30, 1962, there were 6,419 Americans in South Vietnam.

Even as these forces were building, President Kennedy reported to the press and public that no U.S. combat forces were in Vietnam. However, he admitted, the "training units" were authorized to return fire if fired upon. Yet the existence of Farm Gate had become known to the press—both in the United States and in Hanoi—which reported that Americans were participating in air strikes and in operations supporting Vietnamese ground forces.

ESCALATING THE U.S. PRESENCE, 1961–1964

Beginning in January 1962, U.S. forces executed an airlift operation dubbed "Mule Train," transporting quantities of cargo and personnel into Vietnam. Airmen also participated in "Ranch Hand," an early experiment in spraying chemical defoliants to reduce cover and concealment available to the Viet Cong. On February 2, 1962, a C-123 training for this mission crashed, probably as the result of ground fire or sabotage, killing three crewmen. On February 11, an SC-47 assigned to Farm Gate crashed on a propaganda leaflet-dropping mission, killing eight Americans (six air force and two army personnel). The American press took note of the mishap as evidence of the nation's growing combat role in the war. Indeed, by mid-August, 11,412 U.S. personnel served in Vietnam; by June 1963, 16,652 American military personnel were stationed in Vietnam.

During 1963, Viet Cong attacks increased, and, in the Mekong Delta, the Viet Cong escalated the war from guerrilla engagements to full-scale field operations. By the end of the year, the Viet Cong were clearly defeating the forces of South Vietnam, the administration of President Ngo Dinh Diem was rapidly losing support, and friction between the Diem government and the United States was intensifying. On September 2, 1963, President Kennedy declared in a television address to the American public that the Diem government was out of touch with the Vietnamese people and that the war could be won only if it had popular support.

The seeds of dissent were also present in the United States. Many Americans objected to their military's increasing involvement in a distant war to support an unpopular and repressive regime. On November 1, 1963, elements of the Vietnamese army, secretly supported by the CIA, staged a coup against Diem, who was assassinated the following day. A military junta set up a provisional government, which the United States recognized on November 8. Taking advantage of the confusing situation, the Viet Cong stepped up its attacks, and the U.S. Air Force heightened its response to them.

GULF OF TONKIN INCIDENT

In the midst of the deteriorating situation in Vietnam, on November 22, 1963, President John F. Kennedy was himself assassinated, and Vice President Lyndon Johnson (1908–73) took office. General LeMay and the Joint Chiefs of Staff advised the new president to expand the war with quick, decisive action against North Vietnam, including the bombing of Hanoi. Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara (b. 1916) favored a more conservative approach, confining operations principally to South Vietnam but relaxing the rules for air engagement within South Vietnam and thereby expanding the role of air force personnel working with Vietnamese crews. A short time later, however, when Hanoi responded negatively to American peace feelers, Secretary McNamara called for the formulation of an air-strike plan against North Vietnam. Devised in the summer of 1964, the plan was held in abeyance.

The situation in Vietnam took a dramatic turn on August 7, 1964, when the U.S. Senate passed the Gulf of

Tonkin Resolution after the U.S. destroyer *Maddox,* conducting electronic espionage in international waters in the Gulf of Tonkin, was reportedly fired upon on two separate occasions (the second time in company with the U.S. destroyer *C. Turner Joy*) by North Vietnamese torpedo boats. The Senate resolution gave the president latitude in expanding the war as he might see fit.

During the second half of 1964, Viet Cong attacks on hamlets and outposts had doubled. On November 1, 1964, the Viet Cong penetrated the perimeter of the Bien Hoa air base, killing four air force personnel and wounding 72 in addition to destroying or damaging a number of aircraft and buildings. The Joint Chiefs recommended severe reprisals against North Vietnam, but President Johnson, on the eve of election, bided his time. Following his victory, however, Johnson authorized a program of restricted air strikes on infiltration targets in Laos (Operation Barrel Roll). When a 300-pound charge exploded in the bachelor officers' quarters for U.S. advisers at the Brink Hotel, killing two Americans and injuring 64 people (including 43 Vietnamese), the Joint Chiefs again urged immediate reprisals. President Johnson demurred. A few days later, on December 27, the Viet Cong raided the hamlet of Binh Gia; on December 31, the Viet Cong surrounded the U.S. Fourth Marine Battalion, which had marched to Binh Gia's relief, inflicting heavy casualties. These incidents, combined with the Brink Hotel explosion, prompted Ambassador Maxwell Taylor, who had been appointed ambassador to South Vietnam in 1964 and who had earlier argued for restraint, to recommend immediate air action against North Vietnam.

Faced with a weakening Saigon government, President Johnson was undecided whether to commit forces directly against North Vietnam or to disengage from what might well be a losing proposition. In February 1965, Johnson sent adviser McGeorge Bundy (1919–96) on a fact-finding mission to Saigon. But all indecision came to an end on February 7, when Viet Cong mortar squads and demolition teams attacked U.S. advisory forces at Camp Holloway, headquarters of the U.S. Army's 52nd Aviation Battalion, near Pleiku, killing nine Americans and wounding 108. Bundy, General William Westmoreland (b. 1914) and Ambassador Taylor sent President Johnson a joint recommendation to strike North Vietnam; accordingly, Operation Flaming Dart hit a military barracks near Dong Hoi. A Viet Cong counterstrike came on February 10 against a barracks at Qui Nhon, killing 23 enlisted airmen and seven Vietnamese troops. The United States responded on the following day. These exchanges marked the end of the U.S. advisory phase in the Vietnam War and the beginning of a long offensive escalation.

THE TET OFFENSIVE AND U.S. DOMESTIC UNREST

Even as the Gulf of Tonkin resolution was being passed, Lyndon Johnson assured the American public that its sons would not die fighting an Asian war. But the 1964 presidential election was scarcely over when Johnson—faced by withdrawing from or escalating the conflict—chose to commit 22,000 fresh troops. By 1965, 75,000 Americans were fighting in Vietnam; by 1966, 375,000; by the next election, over half a million. Earlier in the conflict, both Kennedy and then Johnson had referred to the troops as "military advisers." By 1966, there was no way to call them anything other than combat troops sent to fight and possibly to die. As draft calls increased by 100 percent in 1965, young men flooded into American colleges to avoid conscription and service in that "little green country." Starting in February of that year, the United States bombed the North, then stopped to see Ho Chi Minh's response, which was invariably to send yet more leaders, more weapons, and more troops to help the Viet Cong. Over the next eight years the American army in Vietnam would grow to a peak of 542,000, and the economic cost of the war would bleed dry Johnson's cherished Great Society programs..

By then, too, opposition to the war was mounting in America, as some businessmen began questioning the astronomical costs, and many draft-age students puzzled over the morality of dropping bombs and chemicals to destroy and defoliate the very country their president claimed to be protecting. An obsessed Johnson and military leaders, acting almost as if they were independent of the publicly stated American policy, no longer bothered to consult citizens or senators while they turned Vietnam into the fourth-bloodiest conflict in American history. Johnson's own secretary of defense, Robert McNamara, admitted in 1967 that the bombing had not stopped North Vietnam's infiltration.

Then, in 1968, as if to prove McNamara's point, came a stunning, massive, and coordinated attack of the Viet Cong, the January Tet Offensive. In 35 cities all over South Vietnam, allied troops were surprised by the enemy's ferocity and determination. Though they suffered enormous casualties, the Viet Cong continued the attack for a month, penetrating the U.S. embassy in Saigon and capturing the ancient capital of Hue before being forced back into the countryside, destroying hamlet after hamlet during their retreat. Tactically, the Tet Offensive was a failure that cost the Viet Cong heavily. Strategically, however, it put the lie to Lyndon Johnson's public claims about the war. As 350,000 refugees abandoned their hamlets en masse and poured into the recently besieged towns, the United States began to strong-arm its puppet regime in South Vietnam toward the peace table. On May 10, 1968, talks with the North opened in Paris.

If Johnson was willing to ignore the growing unrest on American campuses and the perhaps more ominous disaffection among the business community, he certainly could not ignore the challenge to his leadership that his conduct of the war brought within his own party. By 1968, it was obvious to everyone that Robert F. Kennedy

(1925–68), who had served as attorney general under his brother John and briefly under Johnson, was searching for a way to run against the incumbent president of his own party. There had been little love lost between the two men even during the Kennedy administration, but their enmity swelled into loathing, especially after Kennedy embraced the antiwar movement. When Eugene McCarthy (b. 1916) showed strongly in the Democratic primary in New Hampshire, demonstrating that a mainstream presidential candidate opposing the Vietnam War was viable, Kennedy entered the ring, winning both the Indiana and the Nebraska primaries.

Johnson's worst fears were realized. The press despised him; the voters did not trust him; his approval ratings were the lowest in history; the 1968 election was obviously turning into a referendum on America's involvement in Vietnam; and the hated Bobby Kennedy would likely humiliate him by stealing the nomination of the Democratic Party for president. Surprising almost everyone in the world, Johnson went on national television before the California primary and announced he would not seek a second term, thereby throwing the election wide open.

Robert Kennedy's assassination on June 6, 1968, following his victory in the California presidential primary, destroyed the potential for the election to become a public referendum on Vietnam. The self-professed Arab nationalist Sirhan Sirhan (b. 1944) took more than an individual life that night; he destroyed more than one man's vision of how the nation's problems should be solved. Because Kennedy was clearly trying to mold an antiwar constituency into a true Democratic coalition for withdrawal, his murder deprived the American middle class of the opportunity to vote up or down on the war at a national level (until George McGovern's [b. 1922]) ultimately ineffectual campaign of 1972 when Richard Nixon [1913–94], running for a second term, asked the "silent majority" for the right to end the war at his own pace).

The murder turned a disorienting, violent, and chaotic year into an incomprehensible one, virtually ensuring that the United States would be politically incapable of avoiding the most profound and dangerous divisions in the body politic since the Civil War. As the raging Chicago police beat antiwar demonstrators before the eyes of the world at the Democratic Convention, a politically revived Richard Nixon made plans to continue—once he won the Oval Office—the grim policy, legalized by the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, of bombing a small country into oblivion.

VIETNAMIZATION, 1969–1972

Since the Eisenhower years, U.S. presidents had wanted the Vietnam War to be fought and resolved by the Vietnamese. Through 1963 and much of 1964, American forces operated under restrictive rules of engagement in a futile effort to maintain the definition of the U.S. role as "advisory" only. After the Gulf of Tonkin incident and Senate resolution late in the summer of 1964, the advisory role, both in appearance and fact, rapidly became the primary responsibility for combat operations. Yet the United States never stopped working with the Vietnamese army to develop its capability to prosecute the war itself.

Then, in January 1969, shortly after taking office, President Nixon announced that one of the primary goals of his administration was to end U.S. combat in Southeast Asia. Accordingly, Secretary of Defense Melvin R. Laird (b. 1922) charged the Joints Chiefs with making "Vietnamization" of the war a top priority. In June, after meeting with South Vietnamese officials, President Nixon announced plans to withdraw U.S. forces. In May 1969, the withdrawal of U.S. Army ground units from Vietnam began in earnest, although air support units lingered. In 1972, taking advantage of the reduced American ground presence, communist forces of the National Liberation Front crossed the Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) and seized a South Vietnamese province. President Nixon ordered the mining of harbors of Haiphong and other North Vietnamese ports; peace talks between the United States and North Vietnam, which had been conducted sporadically since 1968, broke down entirely in December.

The president then ordered 11 days of intensive "Christmas bombing" of North Vietnamese cities. B-52s out of Anderson Air Force Base on Guam carried out the operation, called "Linebacker II"—though many who served on the mission referred to it as the "Eleven-Day War." Linebacker II, conducted from December 18 to December 29, followed Linebacker I, a campaign of B-52 interdiction bombing in North Vietnam during the spring, summer, and fall of 1972. Linebacker I, in turn, had followed the sustained program of air interdiction over North Vietnam conducted from 1965 to 1968 and known as "Rolling Thunder." The Linebacker II operation was far more concentrated and intensive than the earlier sustained operations and was intended to force the North Vietnamese back to the conference table at Paris. Linebacker II succeeded in breaking the deadlock of mid-December. The North Vietnamese resumed negotiations on January 8, 1973, and a cease-fire agreement was hammered out by January 28.

The Paris Accords brought U.S. withdrawal and the return of the prisoners of war (POWs). A four-party Joint Military Commission was set up to prevent the resumption of hostilities, and a four-power (Canada, Poland, Hungary, and Indonesia) International Commission of Control and Supervision supervised the cease-fire. Yet both the communists and the South Vietnamese (backed by American aid) repeatedly violated the accords. For its part, the United States continued to bomb Cambodia and resumed reconnaissance flights over North Vietnam. Nevertheless, Washington was committed to withdrawing from Vietnam. On January 27, Laird announced an end to the military draft, and, on March 29, the last U.S. troops

left Vietnam, leaving behind some 8,500 U.S. civilian "technicians." On June 13, a new cease-fire agreement among the United States, South Vietnam, North Vietnam, and the Viet Cong was drawn up to end cease-fire violations. Meanwhile, President Nixon's own position at home was rapidly eroding as the Watergate scandal emerged. While the president was preoccupied, Congress approved an amendment requiring the cessation of military operations in and over Indochina by August 15. In November 1973, Congress passed the War Powers Act, requiring the president to inform Congress within 48 hours of deployment of U.S. military forces abroad, and to withdraw them within 60 days in the absence of explicit congressional endorsement. Combined, these two measures ensured an absolute end to U.S. involvement in Indochina.

But not quite yet. From 1973 to 1975, the fighting in Vietnam continued. In January 1975, communist forces captured the province of Phuoc Einh, then launched a major offensive in the central highlands during March. South Vietnamese forces withdrew from parts of the northwest and central highlands, and on March 25, 1975, the old imperial capital of Hue fell. In April, Da Nang and Qui Nhon followed, and after a fierce battle the South Vietnamese gave up Kuon Loc on April 22. A day earlier, President Nguyen Van Thieu (1923–2001) resigned and was briefly replaced by Tran Van Huong (served 1975), whom the communists found unacceptable for negotiations.

Late in April 1975, the U.S. forces remaining after the last ground combat troops withdrew from Vietnam on August 12, 1972, evacuated Saigon just ahead of the advancing North Vietnamese army, bringing U.S. involvement in Vietnam—and the existence of South Vietnam itself—to an end. Lieutenant General Duong Van Minh (1916–2001) became South Vietnam's last president and surrendered to the forces of North Vietnam on April 30. North and South Vietnam were officially unified under a communist regime on July 2, 1976.

THE COSTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF THE WAR

The war cost $140 billion and 58,193 American lives—750,000 lives on all sides. At its height in 1968–69, more than half a million American troops were fighting in it—and that was hardly the total cost of America's longest war.

To begin with, there was what the war in Vietnam cost Johnson's "Great Society," a set of visionary social programs intended to end poverty and inequality in America. The funding stream for these programs was diverted to Vietnam, a trickle at first, then a roaring torrent. There was the physical and emotional cost to the soldiers, airmen, and sailors who fought a war many of their countrymen came to despise them for fighting—a war without a front, a war with an all-but-invisible enemy, a war against a regime defined as some vague evil and in support of a regime weighed down by incompetence, corruption, and outright larceny. There was the cost to the United States as an entity—a United States deeply divided by the war, on the verge, it seemed, of open rebellion, morally exhausted by the self-realization that what it was doing in Asia was fruitless at best and terribly wrong at worst. Finally, there was the cost to Vietnam itself—hundreds of thousands dead; hundreds of thousands more wounded, homeless, and starving; cities in ruin; a countryside napalmed in places to a crisp; its village culture destroyed.

In America, involvement in Vietnam had always had its critics, and even President Kennedy, shortly before his assassination, in the last television interview he was to give, hinted at a withdrawal of support, declaring that South Vietnam would have to fight its own battles. Following the events of November 22, 1963, in Dallas, President Johnson did not act on these hints. Using the Gulf of Tonkin incident as a pretext, he committed ever-increasing amounts of American treasure and personnel to the war, so that, by 1966, domestic opposition mounted. Following the devastating North Vietnamese Tet Offensive of 1968 and political challenges—to the war and Johnson's leadership—from within his own party, it was only after launching the Paris Peace talks that Johnson made his stunning announcement to the world of his plans for withdrawing, not from the war, but from the upcoming presidential election.

If Robert Kennedy's assassination and the hardline stance of Democratic leaders at the 1968 Chicago convention robbed the upcoming election of its ability to serve as a plebiscite on the war, Richard Nixon's calling for the support of the "silent majority" of Americans, and his massive—at first secret and illegal—bombings of Viet Cong supply operations in nearby Cambodia to buy time for a U.S. withdrawal sowed the seeds for the destruction of his own presidency.

In June of 1971, the *New York Times* launched a series of articles called collectively *The Pentagon Papers,* reprinting government documents revealing that for three decades the United States government had not only bungled its handling of Vietnam but had, intentionally and as a matter of course, deceived the American people about its foreign policy.

Officially entitled *The History of the U.S. Decision Making Process in Vietnam,* the secret study, ordered by Robert McNamara before his resignation from the Johnson administration in 1968, traced through its 2-million-word collection and analysis of documents, telegrams, memos, and position papers a tale of confusion, conflict, and covert action in the policy making of every administration from Harry S. Truman to Lyndon Johnson. Courtesy of a conscience-stricken MIT professor, Daniel Ellsberg (b. 1931), who had been a member of the RAND Corporation team that conducted the study, and a *Times* reporter, Neil Sheehan (b. 1936), to whom Ellsberg leaked the papers, Americans learned for the first time that their

government had helped plan the ouster and execution of another country's head of state—South Vietnam's prime minister Diem. They discovered that the Gulf of Tonkin resolution, supposedly a response to North Vietnam's attack on the U.S. destroyer *Maddox,* had been drafted months in advance of the incident. They learned that one of their presidents, Lyndon Johnson, had been lying to them in his public pronouncements that he had no long-range strategy for the war.

President Nixon, at first delighted to see past—read, Democratic—administrations come under attack, soon realized that to let the leaking of classified documents go unchallenged established a dangerous precedent, especially when those documents proved to be official confirmation of what the most radical antiwar activists had been claiming for years. Even before the publishing of the *Pentagon Papers,* more and more Americans—especially students—had been listening to the radicals. In October of 1969 half a million protesters had congregated in Washington, D.C., to demonstrate against the war.

Then, when Nixon had announced the U.S. invasion of Cambodia in his "silent-majority" speech of April 1970, students across the country had poured onto the grounds and quadrangles of colleges and universities to protest. At Kent State University in Ohio, protesters set fire to the Reserve Officer Training Corps building. In response, the governor called out 900 National Guardsmen, most of them inexperienced "weekend warriors." Twenty-eight of them opened fire on a crowd of students, killing four and wounding nine. A photograph of a bewildered and grief-stricken young woman kneeling beside the body of a slain student, which appeared in *Life* magazine, seemed to sum up the tragedy of the times in a single, horrific image. There had been other such images—newsreel footage of a Saigon policeman summarily executing a suspected communist sympathizer by shooting him in the head in sight of God, CBS News, and the world; a *Newsweek* photo of a naked girl, a child, crying into the camera in the middle of a hellish road—images that had turned the world against the U.S. adventure in Southeast Asia, but the *Life* photo captured the sense that the "war" had come home to the streets of America.

That sense was only underscored in May 1971—two months before the *Pentagon Papers* were published—when once again a horde of protesters descended on Washington, D.C. Nixon, barricaded in the White House behind specially requisitioned school buses and unable to sleep, made a surprise 4:00 A.M. visit to protesting students before frantic aides located their president and whisked him away. Before it was over, the police and the National Guard had moved in, dispersing the crowds with tear gas and locking up thousands in hastily erected chicken-wire pens, where they stood, glaring out at news cameras and for all the world looking like prisoners of war. By then, the President's Commission on Campus Unrest had investigated the Kent State shootings and issued a report calling them "unnecessary, unwarranted, and inexplicable," but no legal action had been—nor would be—taken against the guardsmen. It was shortly after the May Day demonstrations that Ellsberg, like McNamara a former "hawk" who had lost his enthusiasm for the war, quit his job and—unlike McNamara—decided to go public immediately with what he knew, becoming one of the most famous and effective "whistle blowers" in history.

Once Nixon realized the implication of what Ellsberg and the *Times* were doing, he sent Attorney General John Mitchell (1913–88) to threaten the newspaper with charges of espionage; when that failed, he got a temporary injunction from the federal courts blocking further publication. By then, both the *Washington Post* and the *Boston Globe* had also begun publishing the papers; they too were restrained until June 30, 1971, when the U.S. Supreme Court ruled six to three in favor of freedom of the press under the First Amendment to the Constitution and against prior restraint by the state. Congress, responding to public outrage at the four deaths at home, the three-quarters of a million deaths in Vietnam, and the shocking revelations of the *Pentagon Papers,* voted to cut off funds for the war. With no legal money to continue the fighting, with the antiwar protests escalating with every incident in the conflict, Nixon in 1973 and his negotiator Henry Kissinger (b. 1923) decided to settle with the North Vietnamese, regardless of the consequences.

All of this reinforced the "bunker mentality" of the Nixon White House, and a vengeful Nixon's response was to try Ellsberg for treason. With hopes of discrediting Ellsberg personally, Nixon set up a special "unit" run directly from the White House by a former CIA special agent, E. Howard Hunt (b. 1918), and an ex-FBI agent, G. Gordon Liddy (b. 1930), under the tutelage of Special Counsel Charles Colson (b. 1928). The unit was called the "Plumbers," because it was supposed to plug leaks; it was the same group of men who—beginning with a burglary of Ellsberg's psychiatrist's office—went on to "bug" Democratic Party headquarters at the Watergate complex, engendering the scandal that would lead to Nixon's resignation.

The publication of the *Pentagon Papers* damaged, for a while, the nation's security credibility and perhaps some of its intelligence operations; it immensely strengthened, however, its First Amendment guarantees to the press and provided the Vietnam protest movement with respectability and new vigor. Nixon, in effect, declared victory, as he called the "peace with honor" of the January 1973 Paris accords, and withdrew from the war. Ellsberg's act of conscience hastened the end of a war that had for nearly a decade bitterly divided the country, and the revelations about the "Plumbers'" burglary during the series of Watergate investigations would cause Ellsberg's case to be thrown out of court. The antiwar sentiment would spill over from the end of the war to fuel the Watergate investigations,

which, like the *Pentagon Papers*, would reveal to Americans that its president was lying to them, not only costing Richard Nixon his job, but engendering public disillusionment with government as well. Within two years from the time Nixon left office in disgrace, Saigon fell. North Vietnam had defeated the South and reunited a country that almost everyone admits would have come under Ho Chi Minh's control, minus the spilling of so much blood, in 1956 had the United States allowed its people to conduct legitimate, free elections.

Further reading: Robert Manning, ed. *The Vietnam Experience,* 16 vols. (Boston: Boston Publishing Co., 1981–87); Wilbur H. Morrison, *The Elephant and the Tiger: The Full Story of the Vietnam War* (New York: Hippocrene Books, 1990); David B. Sigler, *Vietnam Battle Chronology: U.S. Army and Marine Corps Combat Operations, 1965–1973* (Jefferson, N.C.: McFarland, 1992).

Vijayanagar Conquest of Madura (1378)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vijayanagar kingdom vs. Bahmani sultanate
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Hindu Vijayanagar sought expansion at the expense of the Muslim Bahmanis.
OUTCOME: Exploiting internal disorder among the Bahmanis, Vijayanagar prevailed, expanded, and came to dominate all of southern India.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Vijayanagar ("empire of victory") was located in southern India. Its origin is complex. Muslims captured two Telugu-speaking brothers—Harihara I (fl. 1336–57) and Bukka I (fl. 1354–77)—in the 1320s, converted them from the Hindu religion to Islam, then made them administrators of Kampili, in southern India. When Kampili was attacked and defeated by the Hoysalas in 1336, the brothers reverted to their native Hindu faith. This gained them the support of local landholders, and the pair transformed Kampili into Vijayanagar. The brothers and, subsequently, Harichara II (fl. 1377–1404), the son of one of the brothers, continually exploited Hindu-Muslim enmity to enlarge Vijayanagar. By the 1370s, Vijayanagar extended south of the Krishna (Kistna) River from one coast to the other.

Throughout the later 14th century, Vijayanagar fought the Bahmani sultanate in the VIJAYANAGAR WARS WITH THE BAHMANI (1350–1410). The conflict was resumed in the 16th century with the VIJAYANAGAR WARS (1509–1565). In 1377, the Bahmanis gained the military advantage and checked Vijayanagar expansion. However, the following year, the Bahmani sultan, Alauddin Ahmad Shah (fl. 14th century), was assassinated, the sultanate was torn by internal dissension, and Vijayanagar exploited the resulting disorder and weakness by overrunning Goa and other ports along India's west coast. The city of Madura, long under Muslim control, was liberated and returned to Hindu rule under Vijayanagar authority. In this way, all of southern India became Hindu and would remain so until the conclusion of the Vijayanagar Wars.

Further reading: John M. Fritz and George Michell, eds., *New Light on Hampi: Recent Research at Vijayanagara* (Mumbai: Marg, 2001); S. Krishnaswami Aiyangar, ed., *Vijayanagara: History and Legacy* (New Delhi: Aryan Books International, 2000).

Vijayanagar Wars (1509–1565)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vijayanagar vs. the Muslim Indian states
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Hindu Vijayanagar sought to conquer Muslim India.
OUTCOME: Ultimately, Vijayanagar was all but totally destroyed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

For the founding of Vijayanagar, *see* VIJAYANAGAR CONQUEST OF MADURA. During its early years, the kingdom was continually at war, mainly with the Bahmani sultanate, and thus Vijayanagar developed into an intensively militaristic Hindu kingdom. Vijayanagar reached the apogee of its power and extent under Krishna Deva Raya (fl. 1509–29), who led campaigns against internal dissidents and external enemies, including Orissa, a rival Hindu state, during 1513–16. Victory in this conflict gained territory and a dynastically advantageous marriage. Shortly after this war, Krishna Deva Raya allied Vijayanagar with Portuguese trading interests in waging war against Bijapur, successor state to the Bahmani sultanate. Krishna Deva Raya harassed his Muslim neighbors, intending to weaken them. The strategy backfired, however, because his continual interference in Muslim affairs prompted the normally fractious Muslim states to unite against Vijayanagar.

At his death in 1529, Krishna Deva Raya bequeathed to his successors a kingdom beset by war, continual incursions, and outright invasions from the united Muslim states. Rama Raya (d. 1565), effectively prime minister of Vijayanagar, controlled Krishna Deva Raya's successors,

but he could not hold off the Muslim threat. In 1560, Golconda and Ahmadnagar, two major Muslim states, united in war against Vijayanagar and Bijapur. This aggressive alliance drew the support of other Muslim states, which soon overwhelmed Vijayanagar. At the Battle of Talikota in 1565, Rama Raya was slain and his army destroyed. The capital of Vijayanagar, also called Vijayanagar, was overrun and destroyed.

Although the kingdom of Vijayanagar continued to exist well into the 17th century, it never recovered its former extent, influence, or power.

Further reading: John M. Fritz and George Michell, eds., *New Light on Hampi: Recent Research at Vijayanagara* (Mumbai: Marg, 2001); S. Krishnaswami Aiyangar, ed., *Vijayanagara: History and Legacy* (New Delhi: Aryan Books International, 2000).

Vijayanagar Wars with Bahmani (1350–1410)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Vijayanagar vs. Bahmani
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Mainly Vijayanagar (southern India) and a disputed border region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Religious rivals (Hindu vs. Muslim), Vijayanagar and Bahmani both sought control of a fertile region between their borders.
OUTCOME: Vijayanagar was largely subjugated by Bahmani, but the region over which they fought remained in dispute.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Dynastic marriage brought an uneasy peace.

Vijayanagar, a Hindu kingdom, found a natural enemy in Muslim Bahmani, which had been founded in 1346, a decade after Vijayanagar had been established. During 1350–1410, the rival kingdoms fought 10 wars, principally contesting possession of the fertile region between the Krishna (Kistna) River (northern border of Vijayanagar) and the Tungabhadra River (southern border of Bahmani). Under the leadership of Muhammad Shah I (fl. 1358–75), Bahmani triumphed in 1365 and 1367—visiting extensive devastation on Vijayanagar in the latter war—but suffered defeat in 1377 and 1398, when Bahmani forces were repulsed from the Vijayanagar capital (also called Vijayanagar) with heavy losses.

After the death of Muhammad Shah in 1375, Bahmani was torn by internal strife over succession, and, thus weakened, it suffered more defeats at the hands of Vijayanagar. However, Bahmani enjoyed significant success beginning in 1399, culminating in the 1410 campaign of Taj-ud-Din-Firuz (fl. 1397–1422), who succeeded in overrunning the capital city of Vijayanagar, killing the sons of King Devaraya (r. 1400–22), and making peace at the point of a sword. Taj extracted an exorbitant tribute from Vijayanagar and married the king's daughter.

Despite nominal peace between the rivals, the original cause of war, the disputed territory between the rivers, remained an undecided issue and a source of continued conflict.

See also VIJAYANAGAR CONQUEST OF MADURA.

Further reading: John M. Fritz and George Michell, eds., *New Light on Hampi: Recent Research at Vijayanagara* (Mumbai: Marg, 2001); S. Krishnaswami Aiyangar, ed., *Vijayanagara: History and Legacy* (New Delhi: Aryan Books International, 2000).

Viking Conquest of the Isle of Man (1079)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Norse Vikings vs. Manxmen (inhabitants of Man)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Isle of Man
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Vikings sought conquest of the island.
OUTCOME: Man fell after raiders took Skyhill in 1079.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Viking raids spanned the ninth century through a portion of the 11th. The last major raid was against the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea. The windswept island had been raided all during the Viking period, but it was under the control of the Dublin Northmen until a Viking raid landed at Skyhill. Godred Crovan (d. 1087) led the Viking raiders against the Manxmen. The fall of Skyhill brought final defeat to the Manxmen, and the entire Isle of Man fell under Norse control. Norway continued to hold the Isle of Man until 1266, when it was sold to Scots nobles.

See also VIKING RAIDS IN ENGLAND, LATER.

Further reading: James Graham-Campbell, *The Viking World* (New Haven, Conn.: Ticknor and Fields, 1980); A. W. Moore, *History of the Isle of Man* (London: F. T. Unwin, 1900).

Viking Raids against Alfred (871–896)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Saxons vs. Danish Vikings
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Danish Vikings wanted to extend their territory, known as the Danelaw.

OUTCOME: Under Alfred the Great, Saxon forces ultimately contained the Vikings, forcing them to respect the boundary between Saxon Wessex and Viking Danelaw.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Wedmore, 878

Saxon forces were victorious against Danish Viking invaders at the Battle of Ashdown in 871; however, in this so-called Year of Battles, two new Viking armies attacked again. Together, they overran eastern Britain and occupied Reading. From this base, they advanced against Wessex, where Ethelred I (d. 871) and Alfred (subsequently Alfred the Great [849–99]) led the defense, and the Vikings were repulsed. Wessex lords decided to seize the initiative and mounted a counterattack against the Vikings at Reading, but they in turn were repulsed with heavy casualties.

Following the ill-fated counteroffensive, Ethelred died, and Alfred succeeded him. No major combat took place until late in 871 when Alfred attacked the Vikings near Wilton. The Vikings outgeneraled Alfred, however, pretending to retreat in order to lure his forces into a trap. Alfred surrendered and secured an armistice by paying the Vikings a tribute payment (Danegeld). In 872, however, the Vikings violated the armistice by attacking and conquering Mercia. From here, Viking bands raided freely throughout southwestern Britain for the next several years. Thus emboldened, in 878 Viking forces staged a surprise raid on Alfred's headquarters at Chippenham. The king fled amid a rout. However, this crowning indignity prompted Alfred to order an unprecedented general mobilization of Saxon forces. Later in 878, Alfred attacked the Vikings at the Battle of Ethandun (Edington), routing the enemy, driving them from the field, and forcing them to fall back on Chippenham, where Alfred set up a siege. The Vikings now agreed to the Peace of Wedmore, concluded in 878, by which they pledged to respect the boundary between Saxon Wessex and the Viking-controlled Danelaw.

Although contained, the Vikings were not defeated, and in 885 they took London and attempted an invasion of Kent. Alfred not only repelled the Kentish invasion but also retook London and, in this way, became acknowledged king of all Saxon England—the first ruler to govern something approaching a united realm. The fighting subsided again until 892, when Danish Vikings sporadically raided Wessex and other parts of England, but to little effect. By 896, even these raids had ceased.

See also VIKING RAIDS IN ENGLAND, EARLY; VIKING RAIDS IN ENGLAND, LATER.

Further reading: B. J. N. Edwards, *Vikings in Northwest England* (Lancaster: Lancaster University, 1998); Gwyn Jones, *A History of the Vikings,* 2nd ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Michael J. Swanton, tr., *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (London: Routledge, 1998).

Viking Raids in England, Early (793–870)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Norwegian and, separately, Danish Vikings (allied for a time with rebellious Cornishmen) vs. the Saxons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Vikings sought treasure and territory.
OUTCOME: By 870, Danish Vikings occupied more than 30 percent of England.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Norwegian Vikings raided the monastery at Lindisfarne in 793, the first of somewhat more than two centuries of raids by the dreaded "Norsemen." More raids followed sporadically, including attacks on Wearmouth, Jarrow, and Iona. For the most part, these were hit-and-run raids; however, by the early ninth century, the Norwegian Vikings began to establish more permanent bases in the islands off the coast of Scotland.

In 835, Danish Vikings entered the picture, raiding Sheppey, an island in the Thames River. This raid was followed by four major battles. In 837, Danish Vikings united with rebellious Cornish Britons to attack the West Saxons. Egbert (c. 775–839), the Saxon king, defeated the combined forces and annexed Cornwall. The next major battle came in 851, when Danish Vikings, operating from Thanet, another island in the Thames, attacked Aclea, only to be defeated by Saxon forces under Ethelwulf (d. 858), the father of Alfred the Great (849–99). This victory propelled Wessex to predominance in the Anglo-Saxon heptarchy.

Vikings settled in East Anglia in 865, then attacked Northumbria the following year. They did not raid from ships but operated on land, with infantry as well as cavalry. Invading York during an internecine Northumbrian war, the East Anglians readily defeated the defenders and killed both Northumbrian kings. This neutralized Saxon power and influence in the north of England. By 870, when the East Anglian king Edmund (c. 841–70) was beheaded for refusing to renounce Christianity, Danish Vikings occupied more than 30 percent of England.

See also VIKING RAIDS IN ENGLAND, LATER; VIKING RAIDS IN THE NORTH SEA.

Further reading: B. J. N. Edwards, *Vikings in Northwest England* (Lancaster: Lancaster University, 1998); Gwyn Jones, *A History of the Vikings,* 2nd ed. (New York:

Oxford University Press, 2001); Michael J. Swanton, tr., *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (London: Routledge, 1998).

Viking Raids in England, Later (899–1016)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Danish and (separately) Norwegian Vikings vs. Saxons
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Saxons sought to reclaim the Danelaw.
OUTCOME: Under Canute the Great, the Danish Vikings not only reacquired the Danelaw (lost briefly to the Saxons) but also attached to it Mercia. By 1016, England was governed and controlled by the Danish Vikings.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

At the conclusion of the Early VIKING RAIDS IN ENGLAND in 870, the Danelaw—territory of the Danish Vikings—extended over more than a third of England. The period of the later Viking raids was defined by Saxon attempts to recover the Danelaw.

Edward (the Elder; c. 870–924), one of the successors to the Saxon throne of Alfred (the Great; 849–99), failed in battle at East Anglia in 902 but defeated Danish Vikings living in Northumbria at the Battle of Tatenhall in 910. Eight years later, Edward's army attacked Tempsford, killing Guthrum II (r. 902–918), the Viking ruler there, and bringing Danish resistance in East Anglia to an end. It was not until 927, however, that King Athelstan (d. 939) retook York for the Saxons. A decade later, York fell under heavy Viking attack when Olaf Guthfrithsson (d. 941), leader of the Dublin Vikings, united with fierce Scots and Britons of Strathclyde to overthrow Athelstan. The allied Viking, Scot, and British forces once again took York, then advanced into the Midlands. At Brunanburh, they encountered Saxon warriors, and a brutal two-day battle ensued. The death toll was high, including five of the invading kings and seven Irish earls. Guthfrithsson, however, escaped, and in 939 retook York.

The next major battle did not come until the Viking attacks resumed in 980. The particular focus was London, and the warfare assumed a more menacing aspect because the Viking attackers were now less hit-and-run raiders than professional soldiers. In place of the small raiding parties, they attacked with substantial, well-organized, and ably led armies. Even worse, the Saxons were now under the leadership of a weak monarch, Ethelred II (known as Ethelred Unraed—Ethelred the Unwise, although "Unread" is often mistranslated as "Unready" [c. 965–1016]). The Saxon king sought to avoid war by paying ever higher tribute payments (Danegeld), which the Vikings eagerly collected—only to use as finance for redoubled raids. The crisis culminated in the Battle of Maldon of 991, in which Norwegian Vikings emerged triumphant and from which Ethelred fled all the way to Normandy, having paid 21,000 pounds in tribute.

The Danish Vikings attacked London in 994 but were driven off. Returning in 1002, they were far more successful and managed to extract 24,000 pounds in tribute money. Ethelred II, returned from Norman exile, took vengeance on the Vikings by ordering the slaughter of all native-born Danes within his kingdom. Yet the Viking depredations continued. In 1011, Canterbury was raided, and Alphage, the archbishop, was slain. Four years later, the Danish king, Canute (the Great; c. 994–1035), led a successful general invasion of England. Ethelred II died a year later and was succeeded by Edmund Ironside (c. 989–1016). He took up the fight Ethelred II had largely attempted to dodge. He met Canute in battle at Pen and Assundun (Ashingdon) but was defeated. With this, Canute regained all of the Danelaw and added to it Mercia. No sooner had he taken possession of the spoils of war than Edmund Ironside died. With that, Canute effectively made England a Danish realm.

Further reading: B. J. N. Edwards, *Vikings in Northwest England* (Lancaster: Lancaster University, 1998); Gwyn Jones, *A History of the Vikings,* 2nd ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Michael J. Swanton, tr., *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (London: Routledge, 1998).

Viking Raids in France, Early (799–886)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Franks vs. Norwegian and (separately) Danish Vikings
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France and the Frankish Empire
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Vikings wanted treasure and territory.
OUTCOME: The Franks suffered mightily under Viking raids, but through a combination of modern fortification, Danegeld payments, and out-and-out bribery, they managed to survive.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Vikings at the 885–886 siege of Paris, 40,000; Frankish numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

France—the empire of the Franks—fell victim to Norwegian Viking raids beginning in 799. These were conducted sporadically through 810, when Frisia was attacked. In response to the raids, Charlemagne (742–814) established strong defenses on his northern coast. In 820, the

Norwegian Vikings met with fierce resistance at the mouth of the Seine River and were repulsed.

Danish Vikings first invaded Frisia and Dorestad in 834. By this time, Charlemagne had been dead 20 years, and his kingdom, torn by internal disorder, was too weak to resist the raids. Danish Vikings stormed, pillaged, and burned Antwerp and Noirmoutier in 836. Rouen was sacked in 841; Quentovic fell under heavy attack in 841. That same year, Norwegian Vikings sailed into the Loire River with 67 longboats. They attacked Nantes, abducting a number of citizens, who were subsequently enslaved. The Vikings settled with their booty near Noirmoutier.

In 845, a Danish Viking leader named Reginherus (or Ragnar [fl. ninth century]) sailed into the Seine at the head of 120 ships. Charles the Bald (823–77) deployed his Frankish troops on either side of the river, but it was to no avail. The Viking forces responded aggressively and were triumphant. They terrified the Franks by summarily hanging 111 citizens as a sacrifice to the god Woden. Thoroughly intimidated, the Franks paid a large tribute (Danegeld).

In 857, the son of Reginherus attacked Paris, leveling it save for four churches. The Franks defended their kingdom by building up fortifications around their cities or, where resistance was impractical, paying huge sums in Danegeld. Soon the Franks were playing one Viking group against another, paying the Danish Vikings 5,000 pounds to fight the Norse at Noirmoutier. The Danes succeeded in ousting the Norwegians. Paris, rebuilt and strongly fortified, held out against an 11-month siege, thoroughly exhausting the attackers, who numbered 40,000.

See also VIKING RAIDS IN FRANCE, LATER.

Further reading: Gwyn Jones, *A History of the Vikings,* 2nd ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Paddy Griffith, *The Viking Art of War* (London: Greenhill, 1998); Mark Harrison, *Viking Warrior* (London: Osprey, 2000).

Viking Raids in France, Later (896–911)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Danish Vikings vs. France
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Normandy, France
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Vikings wanted treasure and territory.
OUTCOME: The Viking followers of Rollo colonized Normandy; King Charles the Simple of France made peace with Rollo, who was subsequently baptized and became the first duke of Normandy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of St. Clair-sur-Epte, 911

Rollo (c. 860–c. 931), also known as Gonge-Hrolf, led Danish Vikings from fruitless raids against Alfred's (849–899) England (*see* VIKING RAIDS AGAINST ALFRED) to France. He pillaged the region between the Seine and the Loire until about 900, when he and his forces settled in Normandy.

From their base between the great rivers, the Danish Vikings continued to raid. In 910, Rollo unsuccessfully attacked Paris, then hit Chartres, but also without success. The following year, the French king Charles the Simple (879–929) negotiated terms of peace with Rollo. The French king agreed formally to deed the area occupied by Rollo and his followers in exchange for the Viking leader's pledge of loyalty to the French Crown. Indeed, Rollo was baptized in 912—as Robert—and became the first duke of Normandy.

See also NORMAN CONQUEST; VIKING CONQUEST OF THE ISLE OF MAN; VIKING RAIDS IN FRANCE, EARLY.

Further reading: Gwyn Jones, *A History of the Vikings,* 2nd ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Paddy Griffith, *The Viking Art of War* (London: Greenhill, 1998); Mark Harrison, *Viking Warrior* (London: Osprey, 2001).

Viking Raids in Ireland (795–1014)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The Vikings vs. the Irish
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Ireland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Vikings sought treasure and territory.
OUTCOME: Vikings settled along the Irish coast, founding a number of longboat ports.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 6,000 Vikings killed at Clontarf
TREATIES: None

Norwegian Vikings occupying the Shetland and Orkney islands raided the Irish coast at least as early as 795. They were sporadic raids spanning more than two centuries, reaching their highest levels of intensity and frequency in the 830s. During this period, Turgeis (d. 845)—known chiefly through Viking legend—led the Orkney and Shetland Vikings in raids against Armagh, Connacht, Meith, and Ulster. In 837, he led his followers up the Liffey River, and they colonized coastal areas, where they built port towns and founded Dublin in 841. It was a miniature Norse kingdom by 853.

Over the years, the Danish Vikings founded port towns at Wexford, Waterford, Wicklow, and Limerick, always following raids. Establishing themselves here, the Vikings launched assaults against northern England, at Strathclyde, Mercia, and Northumbria.

King Brian Boru (926–1014), an Irish chieftain, led forces against the Danish Vikings at the Battle of Clontarf, outside of Dublin. Although Brian Boru fell in battle, the Irish defeated the Vikings and took control of Dublin from

them. Viking settlers continued to live in the town until 1170, when the English took it from the Irish.

See also VIKING RAIDS IN ENGLAND, EARLY; VIKING RAIDS IN ENGLAND, LATER.

Further reading: Gwyn Jones, *A History of the Vikings,* 2nd ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Paddy Griffith, *The Viking Art of War* (London: Greenhill, 1998); Mark Harrison, *Viking Warrior* (London: Osprey, 2001).

Viking Raids in Russia (c. 825–907)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Swedish Vikings (Rus) vs. various indigenous peoples in Russia and, separately, the Byzantine Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Russia and Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Vikings wanted treasure and territory.
OUTCOME: Rus expansion was extensive during this period, and strong trading ties were established between the realm that became known as Rus and the Eastern Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Rus-Byzantine trade treaty, 907

During the second quarter of the ninth century, Swedish Vikings (the Rus) raided (and traded) along the eastern Baltic in what is now Russia. At some point in the early 860s, Rurik (d. 879), leader of the Rus, was either invited to rule Novgorod or simply conquered it. Rurik founded a center of trade here, near Lake Ladoga. From this strategic position, the Rus had access to rivers that carried them south. Their trade (and raids) took them into southern Russia and the Ukraine. Oleg (d. c. 912), successor to Rurik, led the Vikings in an attack on Kiev, which fell to them in 882. This conquest united the northern and southern realms of the Rus.

Oleg led a fleet down the Dnieper River in 907. Exiting at the Black Sea, he mounted an invasion of Constantinople, which yielded to him with little resistance. He did not seek to conquer the Byzantine capital but to negotiate forcibly an exclusive trade treaty with the Eastern Empire. In fact, the Byzantines embraced the Rus, whom they called "Varangians." Many Rus troops remained in Constantinople as the constituents of the eastern emperor's "Varangian guard."

Further reading: Hilda Roderick Ellis Davidson, *The Viking Road to Byzantium* (London: G. Allen and Unwin, 1976); Gwyn Jones, *A History of the Vikings,* 2nd. ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Paddy Griffith, *The Viking Art of War* (London: Greenhill, 1998); Mark Harrison, *Viking Warrior* (London: Osprey, 2000).

Viking Raids in the North Sea (c. 800–994)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Norwegian Vikings vs. Scots; also, Norwegian royal forces vs. Orcadian Vikings
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scots islands, Scottish North Sea coast
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The primary objective was the Viking hunger for treasure, trade, and territory; later, King Olaf Tryggvason of Norway sought to regain control of the Vikings who had settled on the Orkney Islands.
OUTCOME: Viking influence and control was powerful all along the North Sea coast and in the North Sea islands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In the North Sea, Norwegian Vikings staged raids beginning at the start of the ninth century or perhaps even somewhat earlier. They focused on the Shetlands and Hebrides, then used these Scottish islands as staging areas from which to attack Ireland and northern England through 825.

In the Orkneys, the Norwegian Viking presence was so well established that a Norwegian earldom was created here. From an Orkney base, Vikings attacked the Scottish mainland and thereby come to control Moray and Caithness. The Norwegians enjoyed hegemony there until 1057.

Over time, the Orkney (or Orcadian) Vikings grew apart from their Norwegian forebears; however, a 994 invasion by Norway's King Olaf Tryggvason (c. 963–1000) forced the Orcadian Vikings to convert to Christianity. The Orcadians were thus absorbed into other Viking bands, which raided Ireland and England.

See also VIKING RAIDS IN ENGLAND, LATER; VIKING RAIDS IN IRELAND.

Further reading: Gwyn Jones, *A History of the Vikings,* 2nd ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001); Paddy Griffith, *The Viking Art of War* (London: Greenhill, 1998); Mark Harrison, *Viking Warrior* (London: Osprey, 2000).

Villa's Raids (and Pershing's Punitive Expedition) (1916–1917)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The United States vs Pancho Villa and his raiders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): U.S.-Mexican border, northern Mexico
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Apparently seeking to enhance his political power in Mexico, Villa invaded and terrorized southern New Mexico, prompting a U.S. military response against him.

OUTCOME: Villa evaded capture, but his army had been greatly reduced, and his most senior commanders killed; raids into the United States were stopped.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Columbus, N.M., raid: 500 raiders vs. an unspecified number of U.S. soldiers and civilian volunteers; U.S. soldiers deployed to the border at the height of the crisis, 158,000; Pershing's Punitive Expedition, 10,000; Villista numbers, variable, but fewer than 10,000
CASUALTIES: Columbus, N.M., raid: United States, 10 civilians, 14 soldiers killed; Villa, 100 killed; many more Villistas killed during the Punitive Expedition
TREATIES: None

In 1913, Mexican politics was rocked by the assassination of President Francisco Madero (1873–1913), which left a power vacuum into which a number of candidates rushed. The struggle for control, in turn, became the MEXICAN REVOLT (1914–1915). The reactionary dictator Victoriano Huerta (1854–1916) seized office, whereupon U.S. president Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924) sent naval forces to blockade European arms shipments to the Huerta regime. By 1914, U.S. troops occupied the port of Veracruz, a situation that helped precipitate the collapse of the Huerta government and its replacement in 1915 by the administration of the more moderate Venustiano Carranza (1859–1920). Wilson favored Carranza, but Mexico's revolutionary strife was by no means at an end. Most powerful of the revolutionaries still active was the charismatic Francisco "Pancho" Villa (1877–1923), who worked to cultivate cordial relations with the United States in the hope of winning Wilson's support in his bid to oust Carranza as president. Wilson, however, continued to support Carranza, who scored a series of military defeats against Villa. By the end of 1915, Villa had turned openly hostile to the United States, and he either sanctioned or led raiders who harried the U.S.-Mexico border region.

As the pace of raids increased, Villa seems to have decided on a strategy of even more deliberately attacking the United States. His motives for this strategy are unclear. Some historians have suggested that he merely wanted to exact personal revenge against a nation that had failed to support him. Others believe he hoped that by provoking U.S. intervention in Mexican affairs, he would put Carranza in a weak and subservient light. Still other historians believe that Villa had a grand plan to embroil Mexico in an outright war with the United States, which would inevitably destabilize and perhaps unseat the Carranza government. Whatever moved him, Villa led some 500 "Villistas" into the New Mexico town of Columbus on March 9, 1916, and fought with civilians as well as soldiers from the nearby 13th Cavalry. Major Frank Tompkins (1868–after 1934) led elements of the cavalry in pursuit of the raiders across the border but soon turned back. Ten American civilians and 14 U.S. soldiers had been killed in Columbus, while Villa lost at least 100 out of his 500-man raiding party.

The American public was outraged by Villa's raid on Columbus, and Major General Frederick Funston (d. 1917), commander of the army's Southern Department, concentrated troops along the border and formulated a plan for an expedition into Mexico. The combined National Guard and regular army troops patrolling the border eventually reached a strength of 158,000—the bulk of the active military strength of the United States in 1916. In addition to border patrols, President Wilson authorized a "Punitive Expedition" into Mexico. On March 14, 1916, Brigadier General John J. Pershing (1860–1948) was given command of two cavalry brigades and a brigade of infantry—10,000 men—with orders to find, pursue, and destroy Villa's forces. The Punitive Expedition advanced into Mexico on March 15, initially with the consent of President Carranza; however, as the expedition wore on through the next 11 months, Carranza became increasingly hostile to it.

Pershing divided his forces into two columns, which marched toward Casa Grande 100 miles south of Columbus. When Pershing learned that Villa had moved even farther south, he established a supply base at Colonia Dublan, then sent cavalry detachments in advance to sweep the countryside. Most of the riding was in vain. On March 29, however, a patrol of the 7th Cavalry, a detachment of 370 men, attacked Guerrero, believed to be a Villista stronghold. Taken by surprise, the Mexicans were routed from the village; at least 35 Villistas were killed, including Nicolas Hernández (d. 1916), reputedly Villa's right-hand man.

While the Seventh Cavalry had moved on Guerrero, elements of the 10th Cavalry searched in vain to the east. At Aguas Calientas, on April 1, about 150 Villistas fired on the 10th but were quickly driven off. The American troopers scoured the countryside for fugitives but aborted this operation when they were ordered, on April 10, to advance on Parral, 400 miles south of the border.

Backing up the Seventh and 10th Cavalry columns were several smaller "flying columns" assigned to block possible escape routes. On April 12, one of these flying columns, a squadron of the 13th Cavalry, was surrounded by an angry crowd at Parral. The squadron withdrew, only to find itself under attack from "Carranzistas"—troops loyal to Venustiano Carranza. The squadron withdrew to Santa Cruz de Villegas and, on April 13, was reinforced by elements of the 10th and 11th Cavalry. The situation at Parral developed into a standoff between U.S. and Mexican forces that threatened to propel the nations to the verge of war. To avert this, Pershing ordered his troops to withdraw from Parral. Seeking to avoid further provocation, Pershing decided to use his five cavalry regiments to patrol prescribed areas only. On April 22, while pulling back to its assigned district, the 7th Cavalry encountered Villistas under Candelario Cervantes (d. 1916) and

defeated them at Tomochic. On May 5, Major Robert L. Howze (1864–1926) led a squadron of the 11th Cavalry against a Villista band at Ojos Azulas.

The battles of April 22 and May 5 were the last "major" engagements of the Punitive Expedition—although, in minor fights during May, two of Villa's principal commanders, Julio Cárdenas (d. 1916) and Cervantes, were killed. In the meantime, however, relations between the United States and the Carranza government deteriorated further as Mexican bands continued to raid U.S. border towns along the lower Rio Grande. A number of the raids had been led not by Villistas but by Carranzistas. It was at this point, with the National Guard mobilized, that U.S. troop strength along the border reached six figures. On the Mexican side of the border, a severe fight broke out in Carrizal at the end of June when a 10th Cavalry patrol entered the town without Carranzista permission. Outnumbered, the 10th Cavalry patrol lost half its men, killed, wounded, or captured. The bright side of this grave incident was that it shocked both sides to the negotiating table. Pershing reduced the scope of his operations, concentrating around his main base at Colonia Dublan. At length, talks with Carranza petered out, but the crisis between the two governments eased. Although Villa remained at large and even organized a new army in southern Mexico, President Wilson ordered the withdrawal of the Punitive Expedition. The last of the force recrossed the border on February 5, 1917.

The Punitive Expedition failed to capture Villa, but it was hardly the fiasco that some historians portray. As a result of the operation, Villa's army was greatly reduced, and his most senior commanders were killed. By the end of the campaign, raids into the United States had stopped. As for Villa's new army, it never posed a threat to the United States.

See also MEXICAN CIVIL WAR (1911); MEXICAN CIVIL WAR (1920).

Further reading: Clarence Clendenen, *The United States and Pancho Villa: A Study in Unconventional Diplomacy* (Port Washington, N.Y.: Kennikat, 1972); Celia Herrera, *Pancho Villa Facing History* (New York: Vantage, 1993).

Villmergen War, First (1656)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Swiss Catholics vs. Swiss Protestants
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Villmergen, Switzerland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Catholic peasantry sought to overcome domination by the Protestant urban wealthy classes.
OUTCOME: The peasant forces prevailed, but achieved nothing more (or less) than a guarantee that religious uniformity could be enforced within the confines of each canton.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Land Peace of Baden, 1656

Ostensibly, the cause of the First Villmergen War in Switzerland was religious. Five Catholic cantons warred against two Protestant cantons. Yet behind the religious differences was an even more profound economic dispute. The five Catholic cantons were rural, populated by farming peasants, whereas the two Protestant cantons, Bern and Zürich, were wealthy and urban. The peasanty was oppressed by the economic policies of the urban cantons, which imposed burdensome taxes, controlled the money supply, set markets, and generally profited at the expense of the less-well-off cantons.

The war took its name from its only major battle, at Villmergen in 1656, which resulted in the defeat of Bern and Zürich at the hands of Catholic forces. These cantons agreed to the terms of the Land Peace of Baden, which did little to correct Switzerland's economic inequalities, but did guarantee the right of each canton to enforce religious unity and uniformity within its confines. The Protestant cantons were never fully satisfied with the terms of the Land Peace and, in 1712, reopened hostilities with the SECOND VILLMERGEN WAR.

Further reading: Bruce Gordon, John Stevenson, Mark Greengrass, eds., *The Swiss Reformation* (Manchester: Manchester University Press, 2003); Thomas M. Lindsay, *History of the Reformation: Reformation in Switzerland, France, the Netherlands, Scotland and England* (Belle Fourche, S.D.: Kessinger, 2003).

Villmergen War, Second (1712)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Swiss Catholics vs. Swiss Protestants
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Villmergen, Switzerland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Protestant cantons sought to restore the power they had lost as a result of the First Villmergen War.
OUTCOME: The Protestants regained control over most of Switzerland.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Peace of Aarau, 1712

The Land Peace of Baden, which ended the First VILLMERGEN WAR in 1656, endured until 1712, when the Catholic abbot of Saint Gall, Leodegar Bürg Isser (1640–1717), decided to help the needy Protestants of the Toggenburg build a much-needed road. This gesture of brotherly love violated the intracanton religious unity guaranteed by the

Land Peace, and although efforts at reconciliation were made, the Protestant forces of Zürich and Bern invaded and occupied the Catholic cantons of Toggenburg, Thurgau, Aargau, and Rheintal. Bernese forces met the Catholics in the Second Battle of Villmergen on July 25, and this time, in contrast to the first battle in the first war, the Protestant forces prevailed. The defeated peasantry agreed to the Peace of Aarau of 1712, which supplanted the Land Peace of Baden by guaranteeing religious toleration between Protestants and Catholics. The agreement diminished the power of the Catholic peasantry and restored it to the urban, wealthy Protestant cantons—the situation prior to the First Villmergen War.

Further reading: Bruce Gordon, John Stevenson, Mark Greengrass, eds., *The Swiss Reformation* (Manchester: Manchester University Press, 2003); Thomas M. Lindsay, *History of the Reformation: Reformation in Switzerland, France, the Netherlands, Scotland and England* (Belle Fourche, S.D.: Kessinger, 2003).

Visigothic-Frankish War (506–507)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Visigoths vs. Salic Franks
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaul (France)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Clovis, king of the Franks, sought to purge western Europe of the Visigoths and with them the Arian heresy.
OUTCOME: The Franks triumphed, Roman Catholicism displaced Arianism in western Europe, and Clovis was poised to become the dominant ruler of Gaul and western Germany.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The basis of this war was largely religious, as the Roman Catholic king of the Salian Franks, Clovis (c. 466–511), launched a war against the Visigoths, led by Alaric II (d. 507), who cleaved to Arianism, a Christian sect that denied the Trinity and the oneness of Christ with God.

The war consisted mainly of maneuver before the Battle of Vouillé, near Poitiers, France, which was fought in May 507. Not only did the axe-wielding Franks rout the Visigoths—who abandoned Toulouse and retreated into Spain—but Alaric III (d. 507) fell in combat. The Franks occupied Toulouse, and in Gaul the Visigoths held only the small region of Septimania, just north of the Pyrenees.

As a result of this war of purge, Catholicism became dominant in western Europe, and Clovis was in position to become king of most of Gaul as well as the western Germanic states.

Further reading: Alberto Ferreiro, *Visigoths in Gaul and Spain, A.D. 418–711: A Bibliography* (Leiden, Neth.: Brill Academic, 1988); E. A. Thompson, *The Goths in Spain* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1969); Lewis Thorpe, tr., *Gregory of Tours: The History of the Franks* (New York: Viking, 1983).

Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire, Early (332–390)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Visigoths vs. Roman Empire and Eastern Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Roman Danubian frontier; Roman northern frontier
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Visigoths sought to exploit growing Roman weakness and obtain territory.
OUTCOME: Years of Visigothic raiding progressively undermined both the Western and Eastern empires.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Roman strength at Adrianople (378) was 30,000; Visigoth strength unknown, but probably similar.
CASUALTIES: Roman casualties at Adrianople (378) were catastrophic, 20,000 killed; Visigoth losses unknown
TREATIES: No documents exist; a formal treaty may have existed between the Eastern Empire and the Visigoths beginning in 382.

Of all the barbarian tribes that menaced Rome during its long decline, none was more formidable or possessed greater skill at arms than the Visigoths. Although their first action against the Roman Empire—at least the first recorded in Roman chronicles—ended in defeat in the Danubian region of Yugoslavia and Bulgaria in 332, they did not desist. Badly defeated, the Visigoth king Ermanaric (d. c. 376) took a different approach, raiding the northern outposts of the empire and avoiding pitched battles. This became the pattern for the next three decades until the growing internal weakness of the Roman Empire became apparent to Visigoth leaders. Amid civil war (*see* Roman Civil War [350–351] and Roman Civil War [360–361]), the Visigoths exploited Roman preoccupation by raiding the Eastern Empire.

During 364–365, Procopius (d. 366) rebelled against the Eastern emperor Valens (c. 328–378). The Visigoths threw in their lot with Procopius to share in control of the Balkans. However, a Syrian army under Roman control defeated Procopius in 366, and Valens took vengeance on the Visigoths by invading territory near the Danube during 367–369. During the course of two years of relentless Roman campaigns, the Visigoths were forced to retreat into Transylvania. This defeat shook Visigothic unity, and a civil war broke out between followers of King Athanaric (d. 381) and those Visigoths who had converted to Arian

Christianity. Athanaric was killed and replaced by Fritigern (d. after 382).

Under Fritigern, the Visigoths confederated for purposes of fighting Rome. The culmination of this rebellion came at the Battle of Adrianople on August 9, 378. The battle proved the superiority of cavalry over infantry for the next 1,000 years; it also demonstrated that a barbarian army could triumph over the Roman legions.

Emperor Valens fell at Adrianople and was succeeded by Theodosius I (the Great; 346–395), who vowed vengeance against the Visigoths and other Gothic peoples. However, Theodosius, a pragmatist, understood the advantage of pitting one Goth against another. After forcing the Ostrogoths (eastern Goths) westward, he opened the region to settlement by the Visigoths, who colonized northern Thrace during 382. In exchange for this privilege, the Visigoths furnished Theodosius with mercenary troops. Under Alaric (c. 370–410), however, the Visigoths broke the peace with Theodosius and the Eastern Empire in STILICHO'S WARS WITH THE VISIGOTHS, which commenced in 390.

Further reading: J. B. Bury, *Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000); E. A. Thompson, *The Goths in Spain* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1969).

Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire: Alaric's First Invasion of Italy (401–404)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Visigoths vs. Western Roman Empire (with aid from the subject Germanic tribes)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Visigoth leader Alaric sought control of Italy.
OUTCOME: The Visigoth invasion was ultimately repulsed, and Alaric became an ally of the Western Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: Treaty of 402; reconciliation of 404 (no formal treaty)

Leading a Gothic-Roman army, Alaric (r. 395–410) advanced from Thessalonika through Pannonia and crossed into Italy via the Julian Alps in October, then laid siege against Aquilea at the head of the Adriatic. After the city fell to him, Alaric captured both Istria and Venetia.

Alaric moved with such speed that Stilicho (c. 359–408), effectively the ruler of the Western Empire in the name of the incompetent emperor, Honorius (395–423), was completely surprised. To Stilicho's credit, however, he was able to rally his forces to fight delaying and harassing actions that so impeded the Visigoth advance that Alaric was forced to winter in northern Italy. Stilicho used this delay to raise an army among the Germanic *federati* (client tribes of the Roman Empire) in Raetia and southern Germany. He also withdrew the Roman Rhenish garrisons and legions in Gaul, concentrating them in Italy to fight the Visigoths.

About February 402, Stilicho led the German troops he had recruited in a treacherous winter march over the Alps. He linked up with units recalled from Gaul and advanced against Milan, to which Alaric had laid siege. Under attack, Alaric lifted the siege and advanced to the southwest, apparently with the intention of outrunning Stilicho and capturing Honorius. Stilicho, however, pressed his pursuit and forced Alaric to a stand at Asta in March 402. Alaric offered some resistance, then rapidly withdrew up the Tanarus (Tanaro) River to Pollentia (Bra). The tenacious Stilicho conducted a forced march in pursuit.

On April 6, Stilicho maneuvered Alaric into another battle, at Pollentia. He caught the Visigoth by surprise, but this time it was Alaric's turn to show his tactical skill. He rallied his troops, who repelled Stilicho's attack—at first. In the end, however, the Roman general was able to capture Alaric's camp, forcing him to withdraw across the Apennines toward Tuscany. Even as he slipped away, he opened negotiations and concluded a treaty with Stilicho and Honorius.

The treaty turned out to be a dodge to buy time. In June 403, Alaric began an advance through the Brenner Pass to reinvade Italy. Stilicho's superior intelligence network obtained information about Alaric's plans, and Stilicho halted the Visigoth advance in a narrow pass north of Verona. With Alaric stalled, Stilicho attacked in force from the rear and delivered a stunning defeat to the Visigoths. Nevertheless, Alaric, once again exhibiting the skill and resolve of a fine commander, kept his forces intact and withdrew to the east. Within a year, however, Alaric renounced his allegiance to the Eastern emperor Arcadius (c. 377–408), rival of Honorius and Stilicho, and was recruited by Stilicho to hold the province of Illyricum against both the barbarians and the forces of the Eastern Empire.

See also SITLICHO'S WARS WITH THE VISIGOTHS.

Further reading: J. B. Bury, *Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000); Peter J. Heather, *Goths and Romans, A.D. 332–489* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992).

Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire: Alaric's Second Invasion of Italy (409)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Visigoths vs. Western Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern Italy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Alaric was invited to invade the Western Empire and oppose Emperor Honorius after the treacherous murder of Stilicho.
OUTCOME: Roman resistance collapsed, and Alaric installed a puppet emperor.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 408, Honorius (395–423), emperor of the West, instigated the murder of his chief general and the power behind the throne, Stilicho (c. 359–408). This treacherous and foolish act prompted Stilicho's legions of barbarian auxiliaries to turn against Honorius. They appealed to the Visigoth ruler Alaric (r. 395–410) to unite with them in opposition to the emperor of the West.

In 409, then, Alaric led his Visigoths across the Julian Alps in a second invasion of Italy (*see* VISIGOTHIC RAIDS ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE: ALARIC'S FIRST INVASION OF ITALY). After crossing the Po River at Cremona, he invested Rome. The incompetent Honorius, hunkered down at Ravenna, ordered no resistance and left it to the Roman Senate to deal with the invasion. Without military power, the Senate forfeited a heavy tribute to Alaric, who agreed to lift the siege. He encamped his forces in Tuscany for the winter and opened negotiations with Honorius. When these broke down, Alaric laid siege against Rome again and enthroned a puppet emperor. This done, he marched against Ravenna but was unable to take the city and, therefore, could not capture Honorius.

Alaric returned to Rome, invested the city briefly, and in 410 sacked it (VISIGOTHIC SACK OF ROME).

Further reading: J. B. Bury, *Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000); Peter J. Heather, *Goths and Romans, A.D. 332–489* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992).

Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire: Visigoth Invasion of Gaul (412–414)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Visigoths vs. Western Empire, Burgundy, Romanized barbarians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Gaul (France)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Gaul and the hand of Galla Placidia.
OUTCOME: Through a combination of murder and political circumstance, Athaulf of the Visigoths emerged victorious.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The inept governance of Honorius (395–423), emperor of the West, created chaos in Gaul, which was left open to four competing powers: the Visigoths under Athaulf (d. 415), the Burgundians under Jovinus (d. 412), the Romans under General Constantius (d. 421), and the Romanized barbarians under General Bonifacius (d. 433).

At issue was not only control of Gaul but also the hand of Galla Placidia (c. 388–450), half sister of Honorius. The emperor had promised her to Constantius, but he told Athaulf that she was his if he could defeat all other barbarian contenders for Gaul. Athaulf made short work of Jovinus, killing him in 412, then launched a massive offensive against southern Gaul. He quickly overran the region, except for Massilia (Marseilles), which Bonifacius defended successfully in 413. Constantius now launched an offensive against Athaulf, whom he defeated in 414, but from which he had to withdraw after being recalled by Honorius to Italy. At this, Athaulf high-handedly announced that he had returned Gaul to the Western Empire, and he claimed Placidia, whom he married in 414.

Further reading: J. B. Bury, *Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000); Peter J. Heather, *Goths and Romans, A.D. 332–489* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992).

Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire: Visigoth Invasion of Spain (415–419)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Visigoths vs. (severally) Alans, Suevi, and Vandals
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The emperor of the Western Roman Empire, Honorius, invited the Visigoths to drive other barbarians out of Spain in order to reclaim it for the empire.
OUTCOME: The Visigoth campaign succeeded, and Spain was brought back into the Western Empire.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: No document survives; presumably, a formal agreement between Honorius, Emperor of the West, and Athaulf, king of the Visigoths, existed.

In 415, Honorius (395–423), the inept emperor of the Western Roman Empire, invited the Visigoth leader Athaulf (d. 415) to invade Spain and retake it for the Western Empire. Before the end of the year, however, Athaulf was murdered, and the expedition into Spain was taken over by his successor Wallia (d. 419). Wallia during 416–419 defeated the Alans, the Suevi, and the Vandals, driving all of them into northeastern Spain, confining them to the province of Galicia.

Honorius rewarded Wallia with the territory of Aquitaine (Toulouse), which thereby became in 419 the

first barbarian kingdom within the Western Empire. When Wallia died later in the year, Theodoric I (r. 419–451), son of Alaric (c. 379–410), inherited the throne.

Further reading: J. B. Bury, *Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000); Peter J. Heather, *Goths and Romans, A.D. 332–489* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992).

Visigothic Sack of Rome (410)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Visigoths vs. Western Roman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Rome
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This was the culmination of a Visigothic invasion intended to overthrow the Western Roman emperor.
OUTCOME: Emperor Honorius escaped, but Rome was sacked by a foreign invader for the first time in its history.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 410, following Alaric's second invasion of Italy (*see* VISIGOTHIC RAIDS ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE: ALARIC'S SECOND INVASION OF ITALY) and after negotiations with the Western Roman emperor Honorius (395–423) broke down, Alaric (r. 395–410), ruler of the Visigoths, laid siege to Rome and captured it. The city fell on August 24, 410, whereupon Alaric turned his Visigoths loose on it for six days. They systematically looted the capital's treasures—the first time Rome had been captured by foreign invaders.

After the sack, Alaric marched his troops through the Campania and into southern Italy. In December, as he was poised to invade Sicily, Alaric died.

Further reading: J. B. Bury, *Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2000); Peter J. Heather, *Goths and Romans, A.D. 332–489* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992).

Visigoth Invasion of Spain (456)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Visigoths vs. Suevi
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Control of Spain
OUTCOME: The Visigoths ejected the Suevi from the region.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Backed by the approval of the Roman master general of Gaul, Avitus (d. c. 456), Theodoric II (d. 466), leader of the Visigoths, led an invasion into Spain. The single great battle of the campaign, at the Urbicas River—in Galicia—swept the Suevi (a Germanic tribe from the region of modern Swabia) out of Spain. They had controlled the region since about 450.

Further reading: Alberto Ferreiro, *Visigoths in Gaul and Spain, A.D. 418–711: A Bibliography* (Leiden, Neth.: Brill Academic, 1988); E. A. Thompson, *The Goths in Spain* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1969).

Visigoth Wars of Expansion (461–476)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Visigoths vs. Western Roman Empire and, separately, the Suevi
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France and Spain
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Visigoths sought expansion.
OUTCOME: The Visigoth realm was extended to all of Spain and much of France; the Suevi were reduced to vassals and confined to Galicia.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The reign of Majorian (r. 457–61) over the Western Empire ended with his death in 461, whereupon the Visigothic ruler Theodoric II of Toulouse (d. 466) spurned an alliance with the West and invaded the southeastern French city of Narbonne, which fell to him in 461. Having secured this city, Theodoric brought the Visigothic realm to the Mediterranean. He then advanced into Spain, where he was generally successful against the Suevi in the central and northwestern regions. Returning to Gaul, Theodoric invaded the eastern and central portions, only to be repulsed by Aegidus (dates unknown) at Arles and Orléans in 466. Shortly after these engagements, Theodoric was assassinated and was immediately succeeded by his brother Euric (r. 466–84), who pressed the Visigothic expansion even more vigorously. In 468, his forces defeated Remismund (dates unknown), king of the Suevi, a victory that extended Visigothic control to the whole of Spain. The Suevi were reduced to Visigothic vassals in Galicia.

By 471, Euric expanded the Visigothic borders in Gaul to the Loire and Rhône Rivers.

Further reading: Alberto Ferreiro, *Visigoths in Gaul and Spain, A.D. 418–711: A Bibliography* (Leiden, Neth.: Brill Academic, 1988); E. A. Thompson, *The Goths in Spain* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1969).

Vladimir, Conquests of (981–985)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Russian (Novgorod) forces under Prince Vladimir vs. peoples of Chervensk (Galicia), Poland, and Byelorus, as well as the Bulgars along the Kama River
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland, Byelorus, region along the Kama River, east of the Volga River
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: Vladimir greatly expanded the holdings of his principality, laying a foundation for the Russian state.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

On the death of Prince Sviatoslav (r. 945–72) of Russia in 972, his three sons vied for control of their father's domain. From this struggle, Vladimir (c. 956–1015) emerged triumphant and, during 981 to 985, engaged in a vigorous campaign of expansion. He took Chervensk (Galicia) in 981. In 983, he overran the territory encompassed by modern Poland and modern Byelorus, defeating the disparate heathen tribes in this region. Within another two years, he came to control a large part—perhaps all—of the Bulgar region along the Kama River, east of the Volga. In 988, Vladimir converted to Christianity, thereby beginning the religious transformation of the vast region he had acquired.

Further reading: Lawrence N. Langer, *Historical Dictionary of Medieval Russia* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2002); Janet L. B. Martin, *Medieval Russia, 980–1584* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996).

Volga Tartars, Revolt of the

See RUSSIAN-TARTAR WAR.

W

Wadai, French Conquest of (1909–1911)

See FRENCH CONQUEST OF CHAD.

Wahabi War (1811–1818)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Egypt vs. Wahabis (Saudis)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Arabian desert and Red Sea coast
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Egypt sought to suppress Wahabi piracy, which threatened its chief trading partner and political benefactor, Great Britain.
OUTCOME: After a seven-year struggle, Egypt gained control of the Muslim holy cities and the Red Sea coast, effectively suppressing Wahabi piracy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Calling themselves al-Muwahhidun ("unitarians"), a name that emphasized the absolute oneness of God, the Wahabis were (and remain) an orthodox, fundamentalist Islamic sect, followers of the teachings of the 18th-century theologian Muhammad ibn Abd al-Wahab (1703–92), who believed that all doctrine proclaimed after the death of Muhammad the Prophet was unorthodox and spurious. Early in the 18th century, the prominent Saudi family adopted Wahabism, which is now the state orthodoxy of Saudi Arabia.

By the early 1800s, Saudis, embracing Wahabism, plied the waters of the Indian Ocean as pirates, preying upon British merchant shipping. The pasha of Egypt, Muhammad Ali (c. 1769–1849), resolved to put an end to Wahabi piracy against the British, whose support was absolutely necessary to his government. However, by 1811, the Wahabis were in control of Jidda, Mecca, and Medina. From their capital in Riyadh, they prepared to invade Syria. At this juncture, Muhammad Ali moved against them in Arabia, which was, at least nominally, an Ottoman vassal state.

Under Muhammad Ali and his son Ibrahim (1789–1848), the Egyptians fought a series of bitter battles in the desert over the course of seven years. On an individual basis, most of the battles were inconclusive, but collectively they wore down the Wahabis. By 1818, Egypt had regained Medina, Mecca, and Jidda, the great Muslim holy cities. Egypt was firmly in control of the Red Sea coast. But, even though the Ottoman sultan had brought the first Wahabi empire to an end, the sect survived to spread again under the leadership of Saudi Faisal I (1885–1933) in the aftermath of WORLD WAR I.

Further reading: Ataf Lufti Al-sayyid Marsot, *Egypt in the Reign of Muhammad Ali* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1984).

Wahehe War (1891–1893)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Wahehe tribe vs. German-supported Arab government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Kilimanjaro district of German East Africa
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Wahehe rebelled against the abusive and corrupt Arab administration of their territory in German East Africa.
OUTCOME: After a two-year guerrilla war, the German commissioner of the Kilimanjaro district, Carl Peters, dispatched German and mercenary troops to aid the Arabs in brutally crushing the uprising.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: German "Schutztruppe" mercenaries numbered 768 native (Sudanese) troops, 22 German officers, 63 German NCOs, 2 medical officers, and 3 civilian officials.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

To keep the peace in German East Africa, the high commissioner of the Kilimanjaro District, Carl Peters (1856–1918), maintained in office the existing Arab administrators in the courts and in local government. Although laudable in principle, this proved disastrous in practice, as local administrators were both corrupt and disloyal to the German colonial government. The Arabs abused and exploited the black tribes in the region. One of these, the Wahehe, centered along the Rufiji River, rose up against the Arab administration. The Wahehe waged a violent guerrilla war against the Arabs for two years until Peters, acting under pressure from the Deutsch-Ostafrikanische Gesellschaft, a private trading and colonizing enterprise, finally dispatched German colonial troops as well as mercenary auxiliaries—the Gesellschaft's own Schutztruppe—to aid the Arabs in quelling the uprising.

Peters's intervention earned him the hatred of the black Africans throughout the Kilimanjaro District and, indeed, all of German East Africa, where he became known as *nkono-wa-damu* ("the man with blood on his hands"). Especially brutal were the Schutztruppe, who owed allegiance to no one but their paymasters. Most of the troops were Sudanese mercenaries hired in Egypt and desperate for money. Peters entrusted the Schutztruppe to answer only to the direct command of Reichskommisar Hermann von Wissmann (1853–1905), Famed as an explorer. Although Wissmann became as hated as Peters, he was appointed governor of German East Africa in 1895. As for Peters, in 1897, the German imperial government recalled him from duty as commissioner, citing his cruelty to the Africans.

Further reading: Mark Cocker, *Rivers of Blood, Rivers of Gold: Europe's Conquest of Indigenous Peoples* (New York: Grove Atlantic, 2000); Russell A. Berman, *Enlightenment or Empire: Colonial Discourse in German Culture* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1998); Juhani Koponen, *Development for Exploitation: German Colonial Policies in Mainland Tanzania, 1884–1914* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1995); John Lowe, *Great Powers, Imperialism, and the German Problem, 1865–1925* (London: Routledge, 1994).

Waikato War, Second

See TARANAKI WAR, SECOND.

Wairau Affray (Wairau Massacre) (1843)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Maoris vs. the New Zealand Company
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Wairau, New Zealand
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The conflict erupted over Maori resistance to illegal land seizures by the New Zealand Company, contrary to the Treaty of Waitangi of 1840.
OUTCOME: The conflict ultimately escalated into the Bay of Islands War, 1844–1847.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: New Zealand Company, 50; Maoris, 92
CASUALTIES: The New Zealand Company lost 22 men; the wife of a Maori chief was killed; however, during the period 1843–79, 20,000 Maoris died in chronic fighting.
TREATIES: Treaty of Waitangi, 1840

The Maoris are the indigenous people of New Zealand. William Hobson (d. 1842), the first lieutenant governor of New Zealand (who also held the office as British consul to the Maori chiefs), sought to avoid the kind of destructive abuses committed in British India during the 18th and early 19th centuries by the British East India Company. Accordingly, he drew up the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840, by which the Maori chiefs voluntarily ceded sovereignty to the British Crown in return for the Crown's protection and a guarantee that the chiefs would continue to possess their lands until such time as individual chiefs might sell their territories. Such sales were to be exclusively to the British government. Moreover, any senior chief retained the right to veto a sale by any other chief.

Although the Crown and the Maori both officially accepted the treaty, the New Zealand Company, a powerful private trading and colonizing enterprise, did not, and it ignored the treaty and its provisions. The company freely entered into many sales with nonsenior chiefs and subchiefs. In some cases, the company summarily appropriated property.

The actions of the New Zealand Company outraged most Maoris, who often militantly resisted seizure of their lands. Yet they also restrained themselves from outright war, and this ambivalence was their undoing. On June 17, 1843, 50 Europeans associated with the New Zealand Company, reporting that Maori chiefs had prevented their surveying land that had been purchased, had a deadly encounter with 90 Maoris and two chiefs at a place called Wairau. When the chiefs resisted arrest by the New Zealand Company men, the men opened fire, and the Maoris returned it. The wife of one of the chiefs was

killed, but so were 22 New Zealand Company men. A subsequent inquiry cleared the Maoris of wrongdoing, but the incident created a permanent climate of hostility, which resulted in the BAY OF ISLANDS WAR in 1844 and led to a chronic state of warfare through 1846 and, again, during 1860–72. In all, some 20,000 Maoris would die in fighting that stemmed from the Wairau Affray. After this long spasm of bloodletting, starvation conditions prevailed, resulting in the deaths of another 25,000 Maoris.

Further reading: James Belich, *Victorian Interpretation of Racial Conflict: The Maori, the British and the New Zealand Wars* (Montreal: McGill-Queens University Press, 1989); Leonard Bell, *Colonial Constructs: European Images of Maori, 1840–1914* (Auckland: Auckland University Press, 1998); Michael Reilly and Jane Thomson, eds., *When the Waves Rolled in Upon Us: Essays in Nineteenth Century Maori History* (Portland, Ore.: International Specialized Book Services, 1998).

Wakarusa War

See KANSAS-MISSOURI BORDER WARS.

Walker's Invasion of Mexico (1853–1854)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Walker's filibustering band vs. the Mexican government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Sonora, Mexico
DECLARATION: Walker's declaration of the republic of Sonora, November 3, 1853
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Walker attempted to found a republic within Mexico.
OUTCOME: Walker's filibustering was suppressed, and he fled Mexico.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Walker's forces, 45 men; Mexican opposition numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: None

William Walker (1824–60) was born on May 8, 1824, into a well-to-do Nashville, Tennessee, family. At the age of 14, Walker became one of the youngest men ever to graduate from the University of Nashville, and his parents hoped he would follow a career in the ministry, but he decided instead to become a physician. He graduated from the University of Pennsylvania Medical School in 1843 and returned to Nashville to set up his practice. His medical career was short-lived, however. The restless young doctor soon left Nashville to enroll in the University of Edinburgh and then to embark on a tour of western Europe. He subsequently returned to Nashville, but was quickly off again, this time to New Orleans, where he studied law and was admitted to the Louisiana bar. In 1848, at the age of 24, he embraced a third occupation, that of journalist, and joined the great gold-driven migration to California, where he became the editor of a San Francisco newspaper.

It was during his California days that Walker became obsessed with the idea of personally "liberating" the Mexican state of Sonora and establishing an independent American colony there. The charismatic and intense Walker became a filibuster (an adventurer engaging in private military action abroad), recruited a rag-tag army of 45 men, and on the pretext of defending Mexicans from Apache raids, sailed from San Francisco on October 15, 1853. He and his followers landed at La Paz, Baja California, where, on November 3, 1853, he proclaimed the creation of a republic, with himself as president. Next, on January 18, 1854, Walker announced the annexation of the Mexican state of Sonora. The response of Mexican authorities was a series of attacks that within a few months forced Walker and his followers to flee.

In May 1854, Walker surrendered to U.S. authorities at the border near San Diego. He was tried for having violated U.S. neutrality laws, but popular opinion—especially in the slaveholding South, which saw imperial expansion into the Southwest as a means of building up slave territory—actually approved his filibustering. The jury refused to convict him. Acquitted, Walker found that his appetite had been whetted for an even grander venture, an invasion of Nicaragua (*see* WALKER'S INVASION OF NICARAGUA).

Further reading: Alejandro Bolanos Geyer, *William Walker: War of Liberation* (Managua, Nicaragua: Bolanos Geyer, 1990); Walter H. Z. Carr, *The World and William Walker* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1975); William Oscar Scroggs, *Filibusters and Financiers: The Story of William Walker and His Associates* (London: Best Books, 1969).

Walker's Invasion of Nicaragua (1855–1857)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Walker's "American Phalanx" vs. conservative Nicaraguan forces, plus armies from Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, and others allied against his filibuster rule
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Nicaragua
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Backed by American business interests, Walker—a southern filibuster originally hoping to advance the cause of slavery (and his own dreams of power) by expanding the American empire—acquired political control of Nicaragua and sought to enhance his personal fortunes.
OUTCOME: Walker led a small army in the service of the revolutionary government of Nicaragua and achieved election to that nation's presidency; he was subsequently overthrown and ultimately executed.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Walker commanded fewer than 100 men.
CASUALTIES: Unknown; Walker was executed in Honduras.
TREATIES: None

In 1851, U.S. shipping magnate Cornelius Vanderbilt (1794–1877) set up a mail and passenger transit service through Nicaragua. Within a year of starting the service, however, Vanderbilt sold his Nicaraguan holdings to the Accessory Transit Company, the American enterprise he had been using to construct the Panama Railroad across the Isthmus. With his investments consolidated in Accessory, Vanderbilt hoped to turn attention to his real interest in the region, a Nicaraguan transit railroad. Supported by American imperialists, especially in the South, Accessory began looking for a strong man to take advantage of a Nicaragua made ripe for revolution by internal strife and a power struggle among several leaders. They found the "Gray-Eyed Man of Destiny," William Walker (1824–60) of Tennessee. By installing Walker as president of Nicaragua, Accessory would be acting in a manner that became traditional in Latin America—American businesses serving as proxies for powerful members of the U.S. foreign policy community who could not afford politically to push their schemes forward in public.

Late in 1854, with the backing of Accessory and Vanderbilt, Walker obtained a contract from the currently prevailing government of Nicaragua, allowing him to bring to that country approximately 300 colonists to settle a land grant of 50,000 acres. In return, Walker and his American colonists would be liable for military service, for which they would receive monthly compensation. Walker legitimated his operation by subjecting the papers concerning it to review by the U.S. attorney at San Francisco and by the commander of the Pacific Division of the U.S. Army.

Together with 56 or 58 followers, Walker arrived at Realejo, Nicaragua, on June 1, 1855. Walker and the others—grandiosely self-styled as the "American Phalanx"—were immediately absorbed into the Nicaraguan army. This group captured an American steamer plying the waters of Lake Nicaragua and then took the town of Granada. Walker's victories earned him popular acclaim and, with his powerful backers, handed him election as president of Nicaragua in July 1856. Immediately the U.S. government recognized the legitimacy of the election, at least briefly. However, Walker soon antagonized neighboring Central American states as well as U.S. foreign policy makers by interfering with schemes to build a canal across Nicaragua. More importantly, he fell afoul of Cornelius Vanderbilt.

Walker had garnered the financial support for his filibustering through two officials high in Vanderbilt's Accessory Transit Company, but these officials had ambitions and plans of their own. In exchange for their help, Walker had seized the company's property and put Vanderbilt's two employees in charge of the new Nicaragua Transit Company. They, in turn, had paid for Walker's presidential campaign. Vanderbilt became agitated by Walker and his two cohorts' attempts to take control of Vanderbilt's Nicaraguan railroad, which was completed in 1855, as well as other aspects of his transit business. The Commodore organized the Independent Line, started a rate war against Walker's Nicaraguan Transit Company, and fomented his own local revolution to unseat Walker.

U.S. funds began flowing to an alliance of Central American countries to unseat the "uncontrolled" Walker. In autumn of 1856, a band of Costa Ricans led by Juan Rafael Mora (1814–60) invaded Nicaragua and captured the towns of San Juan del Sur and Rivas, as well as the road along the proposed canal route. The president of Guatemala, Rafael Carrera (1814–65), also sent troops into Nicaragua and, with the help of Salvadoran volunteers and Nicaraguan conservatives, laid siege to Granada. Although Walker successfully appealed to America for volunteer reinforcements, the U.S. government now prevented their departure. Walker's forces were depleted by an epidemic of cholera, and he evacuated Granada for Rivas. There he was held under siege for several weeks by the Costa Rican troops. At last, on May 1, 1857, Walker sought asylum from the coalition of powers arrayed against him by surrendering to U.S. Navy commander Charles Henry Davis (1815–86) aboard the USS *St Mary's*.

Although Walker was indeed expelled from the presidency in 1857, the Nicaraguan Transit Company cooperated with Pacific Mail Steamship and U.S. Mail Steamship to rid themselves of Vanderbilt and his troublemaking. They did so by paying him directly to stay out of the business, some $40,000 a month beginning in 1856. By 1859, when U.S. Mail Steamship's original mail contract expired and it withdrew from the Isthmus, Vanderbilt's monthly fee had increased to $56,000. Now Vanderbilt went head to head with Pacific Mail for the new contract and won, which in turn inspired the Panama Railroad to hook up with Pacific Mail in order to compete against the Commodore by running steamers on the Atlantic route between New York and Aspinwell (renamed Colón), Panama. The competition proved expensive for everybody, and within a year all parties were ready for a truce. After Pacific Mail had agreed to limit its operations to the Pacific and Vanderbilt his business to the Atlantic, the Commodore purchased a huge interest in Pacific Mail Steamship in late 1860 and consolidated his various other interests into a corporation he called the Atlantic and Pacific Steamship Company.

Walker could not resist trying to regain power in Nicaragua and attempted two more forays to recapture the country. Arrested at the end of his first attempt in late 1857, he was deported. On his second expedition in 1860, he landed in Honduras rather than directly in Nicaragua,

only to be arrested by British authorities. They turned him over to the Honduran army, which court-martialed him and condemned him to death. William Walker was executed by Honduran soldiers at Trujillo five years after he first tested the waters of the Central American cauldron.

Further reading: Alejandro Bolanos Geyer, *William Walker: War of Liberation* (Managua, Nicaragua: Bolanos Geyer, 1990); Walter H. Z. Carr, *The World and William Walker* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1975); William Oscar Scroggs, *Filibusters and Financiers: The Story of William Walker and His Associates* (London: Best Books, 1969).

Wallace's Revolt (1297–1305)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: English forces of Edward I vs. Scottish nationalists under Sir William Wallace of Renfew.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Scotland and northern England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Scottish resistance to Edward I proclaiming himself ruler of Scotland after disposing and imprisoning John de Balliol, the ruling king of Scotland
OUTCOME: After an initial victory, the Scottish rebellion was quelled; but following years of conflict, Scotland's independence was established in 1328.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Wallace's initial raid on Lanark involved 30 Scottish nationalists; Edward's forces consistently and vastly outnumbered Wallace's.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1296, Edward I (1239–1307) of England, attempting to impose direct rule over Scotland, deposed John de Balliol (c. 1250–1313), the Scottish king, and had him imprisoned. Scottish nationalists had had sporadic encounters with Edward's army when, in May 1297, William Wallace (c. 1270–1305), a small landowner from Renfew, led a band of 30 rebels in an attack on Lanark. The town was burned, the English sheriff was murdered, and Wallace was on his way to becoming one of Scotland's greatest national heroes.

Gathering a modest force of peasants and small landowners, Wallace led an assault on the English garrison at Stirling Bridge. On September 11, 1297, Wallace's forces slaughtered the king's troops as they crossed the River Forth. Although the English troops outnumbered the rebels, crossing the narrow bridge made them vulnerable. Wallace went on to capture Stirling Castle, and for some time Scotland was nearly free of occupying forces. In the next month, Wallace took the offensive, attacking northern England and ravaging the counties of Northumberland and Cumberland.

Returning from his raids, Wallace was knighted and declared guardian of Scotland, but his support among the nobles was weak; when Edward attacked Wallace's army in July 1298 at Farkirk, the king's archers and cavalry defeated the Scottish spearsmen. Wallace was disgraced, and his leadership passed to Robert the Bruce (1274–1329). Wallace's activities are unknown for the four years following his defeat at Farkirk; he may have continued as a solitary guerrilla against the English army, but his. By 1304, most of the Scottish nobles had submitted to Edward's rule, but the English king continued to hunt for Wallace. He was finally arrested near Glasgow on August 5, 1305. Taken to London and convicted of treason, Wallace was hanged, disemboweled, and beheaded. Robert de Bruce raised a rebellion (*see* BRUCE'S REVOLT) in 1306 that eventually won Scotland its independence from English rule, but it is William Wallace, martyr to Scottish nationalism, who captured the imagination of his people.

Further reading: D. J. Gray, *William Wallace: The King's Enemy* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1996); James A. MacKay, *William Wallace: Brave Heart* (London: Mainstream, 1995); Robert McNair Scott, *Robert the Bruce: King of Scots* (New York: Carroll & Graf, 1996); Nigel Tranter, *Wallace: The Compelling 13th Century story of William Wallace* (London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1995).

Wallachian Revolt *See* AUSTRO-TURKISH WAR (1591–1606).

Warbeck's Rebellion (1495–1499)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebels led by Perkin Warbeck (with some Scottish assistance) vs. forces of the English Crown
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern England and Cornwall
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Warbeck, impersonating Richard, duke of York, wanted to usurp the British throne.
OUTCOME: Repeatedly defeated, Warbeck was captured and executed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At Exeter, Warbeck led 6,000 troops against the superior forces of Henry VII.
CASUALTIES: Few
TREATIES: None

Fifteenth-century England was rife with plots and counterplots relating to the royal succession. Lambert SIMNEL'S REBELLION in 1486-87 attempted to overthrow Henry VII (1457–1509), deemed a usurper, but failed. Eight years later, new conspirators induced Perkin Warbeck (c. 1474–99), a

Flemish-born silk worker, to impersonate Richard, duke of York (d. 1460), this time with the purpose of overthrowing Henry VII. Richard was presumed dead, the victim of former king Richard III (1452–85). Were he alive, of course, the duke of York would have a legitimate claim to the throne. Warbeck was backed by Maximilian I (r. 1488–1513), the Holy Roman Emperor; Margaret, the duchess of Burgundy (1446–1503); and James IV (1473–1513), king of Scotland.

In 1495, Warbeck led an invasion of England but was quickly turned back. He then retreated to Scotland, where he managed to persuade James IV of his authenticity. This led to marriage to Catherine Gordon (c. 1465–1537), one of James's cousins and the full backing of the Scots. A new invasion, this one led by Scots, was mounted in 1496 but also failed, in large part because of a growing rift between Warbeck and James.

Disgruntled, Warbeck left Scotland and invaded Cornwall in 1497. Leading 6,000 troops, he was defeated at the Battle of Exeter when his army, confronting the superior forces of Henry VII, refused to fight and departed the field. Warbeck ran for his life but was captured in Hampshire, at Beaulieu, two years later. The king promised him a pardon if he would confess to and detail the plot. The trusting Warbeck did so and was summarily cast into the Tower of London. After two unsuccessful escape attempts, he was hanged.

Further reading: James Gairdner, *History of the Life and Reign of Richard the Third, to Which Is Added the Story of Perkin Warbeck* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1985); Ann Wrote, *The Perfect Prince: The Mystery of Perkin Warbeck and His Quest for the Throne of England* (New York: Random House, 2003).

War of a Thousand Days

See THOUSAND DAYS, WAR OF A.

War of 1812 (1812–1815)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Great Britain and its Indian allies in Tecumseh's Confederacy vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): The Old Northwest, the trans-Appalachian West, the Niagara Frontier, the Atlantic Seaboard, and some sites in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans
DECLARATION: Declaration of War by the U.S. Congress on June 19, 1812
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Canadian support of the general Indian uprising in the trans-Appalachian West led by Shawnee chief Tecumseh in 1810–11 brought to a boiling point the always simmering anti-British sentiment in the United States, especially in its western territories, when the voting public elected to Congress a majority of bellicose representatives called "War Hawks." Touting as their cause British impressment of American sailors and British disruption of American trade at sea during the Napoleonic Wars, the War Hawks attracted enough support from the northern states to push a somewhat reluctant President James Madison to call for a war to protect American sovereignty, despite British attempts to defuse the situation. The true agenda of the War Hawks, however, was the subjugation of Indian tribes in the Old Northwest and the Old Southwest, and the expansion of the United States onto their lands and into Canada.
OUTCOME: Traditionally considered to have decided nothing, the war did remove the threat of Indian hostilities east of the Mississippi and bound the trans-Appalachian West firmly to the United States, while setting the northern limits of any future American expansion. After the war, the British never repeated their high-handed conduct at sea, and the Americans never again tried to conquer Canada.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: U.S., 286,730 (including 56,032 regulars); British, 25,975
CASUALTIES: U.S., 2,260 killed, 4,505 wounded; British, about 3,000 killed
TREATIES: Treaty of Ghent, December 24, 1814

Like the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, the War of 1812 was in major part a battle for hegemony over the American West—the earlier fight between France and England, the latter between Great Britain and its American offspring, the United States. But just as the French and Indian War was, to the major European belligerents, merely a theater in a worldwide conflict of empires, the War of 1812 was something of a sideshow, and an unwelcome one, to an England deeply engaged in a larger war with Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821). It was the Americans, especially those Americans living in the trans-Appalachian West, who insisted on fighting what they called a "Second War for Independence."

Claiming they fought to protect U.S. sovereignty, for their country's right to remain neutral, and to engage in foreign trade at sea, the War Hawks of 1812 in truth longed to expand the nation westward. They had drunk at the well of Thomas Jefferson's (1743–1826) "empire of liberty," and to the Louisiana Purchase lands they wished to add British Canada and the Spanish territories of Florida and Texas. Standing between them and their dreams were the Indians of Ohio, Indiana, Alabama, Mississippi, Illinois, and Michigan, who at just about the same time developed a vision of their own, a vision of the trans-Appalachian West as the home of a grand pan-tribal Indian confederacy, the vision first imagined by Shawnee chief Tecumseh (1768–1813). Ultimately, little else would be resolved by the War of 1812 but the conflict between these two visions. It was a resolution, however, that

helped to lay the groundwork for the United States's continental expansion across North America.

In the election year of 1810, fears that Great Britain would support a confederacy of Indian tribes in the creation of an Indian nation-state were very real, especially to western and southern voters. As evidence of a British plot, various candidates cited seven Northwest posts that Britain had been promising to give up since the Revolution, but had not. Britain was also continuing to supply the Indian tribes from its bases at Fort Niagara—on the American side of the border—and apparently inciting Indians against American trappers and traders who competed with British interests. The British plan seemed to be to settle the Indians along the south shores of the Great Lakes and eventually create an Indian buffer state out of the Old Northwest. There was, then, in the American westerners' call for a preventive war against the former mother country a genuine longing for security, despite their dreams of expansion and of annexing Canada, Texas, and Florida. Even opportunists had enemies.

Those spearheading the war movement—Henry Clay (1777–1852) and Richard M. Johnson (1780–1850) of Kentucky; Felix Grundy (1777–1840) of Tennessee; Langdon Cheves (1814–84), William Lowndes (1782–1822), David R. Williams (1776–1830), and John C. Calhoun (1782–1850) of South Carolina; George M. Troup (1780–1856) of Georgia, among others—were from states with current or recent Indian frontiers. Collectively, they became known as the "War Hawks." Opposed to them were the New England Federalists, a few upper class northern Republicans called the "Invisibles," and a handful of Republicans from the old seaboard planter aristocracy. These men thought war with Britain the ultimate folly, not merely because it was bad for business, but also because Britain was the world's major defense for conservative, stable, and orderly government against that spawn of the French Revolution, the empire-building Napoleon Bonaparte. However, the War Hawks enjoyed substantial majorities in both the Senate and the House.

War fever was already on the rise when Great Britain, at war with Napoleon and in need of sailors for the Royal Navy, routinely intercepted and boarded neutral vessels, including those of the United States, and, on the flimsiest of pretexts, impressed seamen into His Majesty's service (more than 6,200 American citizens would be thus abducted). Impressment was something the public could understand, and therefore it attracted much attention as a cause for war; however, it was really only one symptom of the commercial war that both Britain and France were waging against neutral nations such as the United States. After protracted congressional debate, a declaration of war was voted up, and, on June 18, 1812, President James Madison (1751–1836) signed it.

Congress expanded the country's small regular army to 25,000 five-year volunteers, raised another 50,000 volunteers, and called on state and territorial militias, which numbered on paper 700,000. But Americans did not respond eagerly to the call to arms. Neither coercion nor bribes—cash bounties nor land grants—had much effect, and the army never fielded more than 35,000 men on a given day during the war.

Despite a small army and an even smaller navy, the American strategy was to attack Canada on three fronts, the first along Lake Champlain toward Montreal, the second across the Niagara frontier, and the third from Detroit into upper Canada. Invasion, it was thought, would force the British to make many concessions. But the American campaigns during the summer and fall of 1812 were utter disasters.

Britain's most effective ally was the Shawnee sachem Tecumseh (1768–1813). His first adversary was the governor of Michigan Territory, William Hull (1753–1825), a superannuated hero of the Revolutionary War, now in command of American forces north of the Ohio. Hull moved his troops to Detroit in the summer of 1812 with the object of taking Fort Malden, which guarded the entrance to Lake Erie. When Tecumseh, on his way to join the British stationed at the fort, ambushed men Hull sent out to scout the area, the old man falsely assumed he was outnumbered and quickly lost his stomach for a fight. Repeatedly, he delayed the assault on Fort Malden, long enough for the British, under the very able major general Isaac Brock (1769–1812), and their Indian allies to reinforce their positions.

Brock and Tecumseh worked well together and planned a vigorous offensive against Hull's troops. However, Colonel Henry Proctor (1787–1859), Brock's second in command, protested a shortage of regulars, and he believed Indians to be unreliable in a pitched battle. Disregarding Proctor, Tecumseh attacked the escorts Hull sent out to protect resupply efforts both to troops in Canada and at Detroit. In early August, Hull withdrew his forces from just across the line in Canada at present-day Windsor back to the safety of Detroit. Then Brock and Tecumseh moved on Detroit. Hull surrendered the fort almost immediately on August 18. He had not fired a shot. It was the most humiliating capitulation in American history.

Meanwhile, the American garrison at the strategically crucial Mackinac Island had surrendered without a fight to a combined force of British soldiers, Indian warriors, and North West company *engagés*. (Contrary to the War Hawks' assurances that Canadians, oppressed by Britain, would rally to the American cause, they were staying with the English.) The day before Hull caved in, the garrison at Fort Dearborn—present-day Chicago—had also surrendered. As the troops, together with settlers, their wives, and children, evacuated the fort, Potawatomi Indians attacked, killing 35, many by torture.

The United States also suffered defeat on the Niagara frontier at the Battle of Queenstown Heights in October,

when Brock—hurrying to the defense with reinforcements from Detroit—pinned down an invading force of some 3,200—2,270 of them militia—under the command of New York's Major General Stephen van Rensselaer III (1764–1839). The militiamen, still on the American side of the Niagara River when Brock arrived, refused to leave the territorial limits of the United States and stood idly by as 600 British regulars and 400 Canadian militiamen overwhelmed their comrades. Two hundred and fifty of the American regulars were killed and nearly 700 captured, whereas the British lost only 14, including the remarkable Brock. Something similar happened a month later to Major General Henry Dearborn's 5,000-strong Lake Champlain expedition. As Dearborn moved down the lake to Rouses Point, his militiamen stood on their constitutional rights and declined to cross over into Canada, forcing Dearborn on November 19 to return to winter quarters.

What was planned as a bold American assault on Canada became a desperate scramble for survival. As had happened during the Revolution, the frontier was now laid open to Indian massacre and British invasion. Every Indian tribe between the Great Lakes and the Rocky Mountains was poised against the American settlers. War parties, responding to Tecumseh's call, attacked Fort Wayne, Indiana, Fort Madison near St. Louis, Fort Harrison on the Wabash River, and the town of Pigeon Roost in southern Indiana. By late fall, most of the Old Northwest was effectively under Indian control, except for Ohio territory south of the Maumee River.

Yet neither the British nor their Indian allies were able to capitalize decisively on their advantages. The anticipated fully coordinated British-Indian assault never materialized. The problem began when Isaac Brock was killed in October at the Queenston engagement and was replaced by the far less imaginative, less aggressive, and less effective Henry Proctor.

Proctor had mismanaged the attack on Fort Wayne back in August. He panicked when he heard that U.S. commander William Henry Harrison (1773–1841) was rushing to the rescue of the fort's garrison and refused to commit British troops and—more importantly—British cannon to the assault. The rumor proved false, but Tecumseh, realizing that it was futile to attack a fort without artillery, broke off his assault. Many warriors dispersed, and the chiefs could hardly hide their disgust with Proctor, whose own disdain for his Indian allies had been clear from the beginning.

Harrison did arrive in the Fort Wayne area later in 1812, but he turned his attention to the neutral and essentially defenseless Miamis, followers of the peaceful Little Turtle (1752–1812), who had died in July. Burning their homes and crops, Harrison forced them to move west into a series of refugee camps around Peru, Indiana, before attacking the depleted tribe in force. Reassured by his "victory," Harrison decided in January of 1813 to move against Fort Malden by advancing across the frozen Lake Erie. At the Raisin River, just south of Detroit, Harrison's men ran into a larger British and Indian force, including a contingent of Red Stick Creeks led by the infamous Little Warrior (d. 1813), all under the command of Henry Proctor. After a surprise attack at Frenchtown that routed the Americans, Proctor made no attempt to stop the Indians from torturing and murdering the wounded. Almost half of Harrison's army was killed, and more than half captured. Of the 960 Americans engaged, only 33 escaped.

As a result of this crushing defeat, Harrison tried to buy time to rebuild an army. What had started out as an offensive campaign became a desperate effort to defend positions already held by shocked frontiersmen. Proctor, meanwhile, pressed his advantage. In May, he laid a two-week siege against Fort Meigs at the Maumee Rapids of the Ohio River, which Harrison defended at great cost. A relief force was cut off and trapped by the British on May 5, and, as the Indians whipped themselves up to repeat the horrors of Raisin River, a bored and indifferent Proctor once again looked on. Only this time, unlike at Raisin River, Tecumseh was present. He instantly regained control of his Shawnee warriors. However, the next morning, many of the Indians and even some of the Canadian militia, who had been clamoring to go home and plant crops, began drifting away, and on May 7, Proctor broke off the siege.

By late June 1813, the Sioux and other far western tribes had arrived in the Ohio and swelled Tecumseh's supply of warriors to 2,000. Between July 21 and 23, now fielding a combined army of 3,000, Proctor attacked Harrison's principal supply depot, Fort Stephenson on the Sandusky River. But Proctor was held off by Major George Croghan (1791–1849) with only 150 men. The British-Indian alliance continued to sour. On the face of it, the Americans were the big losers, with 4,000 men either killed or captured in the course of the war's first year. Combined British and Indian casualties were about 500. But, for many of the Indians, the victories had been Pyrrhic. Their losses—houses burned, crops destroyed, populations displaced—were terrible. By the end of August 1813, William Henry Harrison had, indeed, rebuilt and enlarged the western army, fielding 8,000 men, and the tide was about to turn against Tecumseh.

Since March 1813, the 27-year-old American naval captain Oliver Hazard Perry (1785–1819) had been supervising the construction of an armed flotilla at Presque Isle, Pennsylvania. By August, the shallow-draft vessels were ready, and Perry moved them out onto Lake Erie. On September 10 he engaged the British fleet. The message he sent to General Harrison, as stirring as it was laconic, entered instantly into American lore: "We have met the enemy and they are ours." The Battle of Lake Erie was the first real American victory of the war.

In a single, brilliant stroke, Perry had cut off Proctor's waterborne support, and the jittery British general, fearing

American reprisals over Raisin River, hastily prepared to abandon Fort Malden. Tecumseh reluctantly followed, retreating into the backwoods of Canada.

With 3,000 men, Harrison pursued the retreating British and Indians as far as the Thames River, where Tecumseh was finally able to persuade Proctor to make some sort of stand before everything was lost. In combat especially distinguished by the brilliant performance of a Kentucky mounted regiment under Colonel Richard Mentor Johnson (1780–1850), William Henry Harrison defeated the combined British and Indian forces at the Battle of the Thames on October 5, 1813. The Americans never found Tecumseh's body. Some say grieving warriors bore him off the field and gave him a secret burial, so even the site of his grave was a mystery. Certainly no one knew who killed him. But he was dead, and there would be no Confederate Indian State in the American West.

ANDREW JACKSON'S WAR

The Battle of the Thames and the death of Tecumseh reversed the course of the Indian uprising during the War of 1812. At the end of 1813 Benjamin Howard (1760–1814), governor of the Missouri Territory, led a successful invasion of the Illinois country. William Clark (1770–1838), who succeeded Howard as governor, mounted an offensive against Prairie du Chien (in Wisconsin) in 1814. But the most successful of the war's Indian fighters—and the most historically significant American commander to come out of the war—was Andrew Jackson (1767–1845). If Tecumseh's death spelled the end of an Indian Confederacy in the West, the rise of Andrew Jackson tolled the disappearance of the Indians themselves.

The Creek Indians of Alabama, Georgia, and Florida had become embroiled in a civil war between those who advocated cooperation with the Americans and those bent on driving the whites from their lands (*see* CREEK WAR). One leader of the Red Stick faction, also known as the Upper Creeks, was Little Warrior, who had joined the British in the Ohio country when the War of 1812 was declared and took part in the Raisin River massacre. He had since returned to his Muskogeean homelands, raiding settlements along the Ohio River on his way down. The tribe's "peace" faction, led by Big Warrior (fl. early 1800s) and called the Lower Creeks or White Sticks, sided with the Americans. Their capture and execution of Little Warrior intensified the civil war.

The Red Sticks were equipped by the Spanish, in league with Britain, out of Pensacola, Florida, and leadership of the faction now fell to Tecumseh's disciple William Weatherford, or Red Eagle (c. 1780–1824). It was Weatherford who attacked Fort Mims on the lower Alabama River on August 30, 1813. Nothing that happened in the 1812 war, including the later capture and torching of the nation's capital city, terrified the American public as much as the Fort Mims massacre. The Red Sticks not only killed white settlers but also freed and armed their black slaves, many of whom joined the Indian cause.

In response to the attack, the Tennessee state legislature authorized the staggering sum of $300,000 to outfit a large army, and at the end of September 1813 Andrew Jackson marched into Red Stick country with 5,000 Tennessee militiamen, 19 companies of Cherokee warriors, and 200 Lower Creeks. Early in November 1813, a detachment under Jackson's longtime political crony Colonel John Coffee (1772–1833)—and including Ensign Sam Houston (1793–1863), the future governor of Texas, and a backwoodsman named Davy Crockett (1786–1836)—ambushed a large contingent of Red Sticks at Tallushatchee. Later in the month, Jackson relieved Talladega, a White Stick fort that had been held under siege, killing another 300 Red Sticks there.

After the siege, Jackson's expedition began to fall apart. Pushed forward too quickly, Jackson's line was overextended and supplies failed to reach his army. As weeks turned into months, his men, half-starved volunteers whose enlistments would soon be up, grew ill disciplined and mutinous. One entire company threatened to head back to Tennessee. However, 800 new recruits arrived in January 1814, and Jackson quickly resumed his march against the Creeks. His army burned Creek villages, destroyed Indian food supplies, and racked up a string of victories that gained its commander a reputation as the country's foremost Indian fighter. Twice in January, Jackson engaged the enemy in major battles, at Emuckfaw and Enotachopco Creek. On March 27, 1814, Jackson attacked Horseshoe Bend, a peninsula on the Tallapoosa River. During the day-long battle, Jackson's troops killed men, women, and children indiscriminately. Jackson himself sent clothing worn by the fallen Indian soldiers to female acqaintances back in Tennessee. Horseshoe Bend proved the decisive American victory of the Creek War.

William Weatherford surrendered a few days later, and Jackson pardoned him and allowed him to leave. But that was the general's only magnanimous act following the defeat of the Red Sticks. Under the draconian Treaty of Fort Jackson that he imposed following the victory, Jackson compelled all the Indians of the region—those friendly to and even allied with the United States, as well as the pro-British hostiles—to cede enormous tracts of land, 23 million acres of it, in Tennessee, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi.

ON THE NORTHERN FRONT

As Tecumseh retreated toward Canada and Jackson fought against the Creeks, General James Wilkinson (1757–1825) headed north to launch an operation against Montreal. Six months earlier, General Henry Dearborn (1751–1829) had sent a force of 1,600 under Brigadier General Zebulon Pike (1779–1813) to capture York (Toronto). Embarking at Sacketts Harbor, Pike took the

capital of Upper Canada on April 27, 1813, but an exploding powder magazine killed him and 320 of his men. The other troops, against Dearborn's express orders, burned York to the ground. They returned on May 8, having accomplished little but the hardening of Canadians against the United States.

Later that month, Colonel Winfield Scott (1786–1866), Dearborn's adjutant, mounted an assault on Fort George with Oliver Hazard Perry. On May 27, Scott and Perry landed 4,000 men in the rear of the British fort at the mouth of the Niagara and took it by assault. As a result, the British opposite Buffalo at Fort Erie withdrew, which freed American ships bottled up in the Black Rock navy yard. All of this went for naught, however, when the retreating British commander, John Vincent (fl. 1800s), turned his 700 men on the Americans chasing him—a force three times the size of Vincent's—at Stony Creek. Not only did Vincent throw back the Americans, but also he captured two generals—William H. Winder (1764–1829) and John Chandler (1762–1841)—both political appointees.

Even Jacob Brown's victory the next day at Sackets Harbor, when his tiny garrison repulsed an amphibious assault by the British under Sir George Prevost (1767–1816; the governor general of Upper Canada), could not mask the fact that Dearborn in command was a disaster. Not until September, however, did Wilkinson arrive to take his place and carry on with Armstrong's plan. Wilkinson was to work his way down the St. Lawrence from Sackets Harbor while Brigadier General Wade Hampton (1752–1835) pushed north from Lake Champlain. They would meet at and take Montreal, defended by around 15,000 British soldiers.

At the Battle of Chateaugay on October 25, Hampton—who had entered Canada with 4,000 troops—became bogged down in a swamp as he attacked a much smaller British force. Hampton ignominiously retreated to Plattsburg and winter quarters.

Meanwhile, Wilkinson, with twice Hampton's number of troops, was floating down the St. Lawrence, flanked on both sides by marching guards. Ninety miles outside Montreal, a combined British and Indian force (including only 900 regulars) began to harass Wilkinson's rear. Wilkinson fought back in piecemeal fashion and suffered a rout, losing 102 killed, 237 wounded, and 100 captured. He retreated to winter quarters, at French Mills on the Salmon River, where his troops came close to starving.

While Wilkinson was encamped, Indians ravaged the frontier, Fort Niagara fell into British hands on December 18 (and remained there for the rest of the war). After Christmas, British general Gordon Drummond (1772–1854) marched 1,500 troops down the river to Buffalo and burned the city, including the Black Rock navy yard. Wilkinson's response, when he renewed his offensive in the spring, was to advance from Plattsburg and Sackets Harbor with 4,000 troops. He attacked a tiny border fort at La Cole Mill, only to be repulsed by the garrison's 600 men. He immediately fell back on Plattsburg and, on April 12, was relieved of his command.

Jacob Brown (1775–1828), the new commander, promoted Winfield Scott to brigadier general and set him the task of reorganizing Wilkinson's army. Brown's refitted 3,500 troops invaded Canada on July 2, 1814, crossing the Niagara and, the next day, taking Fort Erie before heading north. On July 5, 16 miles upriver from the fort, they engaged in a battle that, for the first time in the war, saw equal numbers of regulars on both sides meet in close combat.

British general Phineas Riall (d. 1850), with 1,700 regulars and a small number of Canadian militia and Indians, occupied a defensive position on the north bank of the unfordable Chippewa when, on July 4, Brown bivouacked a mile south of the river at Street's Creek. Riall crossed the flat plain lying between the two on the next morning and drove back a mixed militia-Indian force deployed by Brown on his left until the British troops ran smack into Scott's 1,300-man brigade. Because Scott's men were dressed in gray, Riall assumed they too were militia until, under fire, they formed a line and moved toward him with the precision of troops on a parade ground. The British lost 236 killed, 322 wounded, and 46 captured to Scott's 61 killed, 255 wounded, and 19 captured.

Brown pressed his advantage, and Riall fell back to Queenston, but Commodore Chauncy failed to coordinate on the lake with Brown's movement, while at the same time British reinforcements reached Canada. Then, bringing even more fresh troops, Sir Gordon Drummond arrived to take over command from Riall. The rebuilt British forces and the laggard American forces met near Niagara Falls on July 25 and fought each other to a standstill. At the Battle of Lundy's Lane, Brown, Scott, and Drummond were all wounded, and Riall fell captive to the Americans. In all, 171 Americans and 84 British soldiers died in battle, 572 and 559 were wounded, and 110 and 235 went missing or were taken prisoner. Brown retreated to Fort Erie, which Drummond immediately besieged.

Although an American sortie from Fort Erie would break the deadlock on September 17, killing 609 British soldiers at the cost of 511 of the attackers, the fort was nevertheless soon abandoned, and with it all further effort to invade Canada. In 1814, with France collapsing, the British could turn their full attention to upstart America. An effective British blockade had already so strangled American trade and manufacture that the U.S. Treasury was verging on bankruptcy. All summer, British landing parties, under orders to destroy and lay waste whatever coastal towns and districts were vulnerable, had been wreaking havoc all along the Atlantic. Two weeks before, on August 31, backed by the duke of Wellington's (1769–1852) veterans from Europe, a British invasion force,

determined to complete the march down the Hudson Valley bungled by General Burgoyne 37 years earlier, had begun advancing on Lake Champlain from Montreal. Just about the same time, August 24–25, 1814, the English had struck a devastating blow by burning Washington, D.C., as Madison and his War Hawk Congress fled.

THE WAR AT SEA

By summer 1814, British leaders had every reason to feel confident about the course of the war with the Americans. With Napoleon safely dispatched to Elba, British land and sea forces were freed up to fight the Americans. U.S. strategy called for attacking British maritime commerce instead of engaging the Royal Navy in a hopeless direct confrontation. Individual ships, eluding the British blockade and joined by a number of privateers, cruised the oceans, attacking targets of opportunity. On February 24, 1813, American and British sloops of war had clashed off the coast of Brazil, with the USS *Hornet* sinking HMS *Peacock* after 11 minutes of battle. But the British navy more than lived up to its reputation on June 1813, when HMS *Shannon* and USS *Chesapeake* met off Boston in the North Atlantic.

The U.S. captain James Lawrence (1781–1813) suffered a bout of hubris when Captain Sir Philip Broke (1776–1841) sailed into view and issued the Americans a challenge. Lawrence unwisely took his untried frigate and recently raised crew out of Boston Harbor to meet a war ship touted as the most effective in the Royal Navy. Before many minutes had passed, Broke's frigate had so efficiently raked the *Chesapeake*'s deck that nearly one-third of her crew had been killed or wounded. Among them was Captain Lawrence, who shouted as he died: "Don't give up the ship!" It was an admonition the Americans chose to ignore after Broke brought the *Shannon* alongside and boarded the *Chesapeake*. One hundred forty-six of the surrendering Americans were casualties, including nearly all the officers, whereas the British had lost 83. Worse, Broke brought the *Chesapeake* into Halifax as a prize, and it would remain on the Royal Navy list throughout the war and for years to come.

A few U.S. warships and many privateers were successful against British commerce. The sloop USS *Argus* had captured or destroyed some 20 prizes in its cruise of the English Channel before HMS *Pelican* finally sank it on August 14, 1813. Closer to home, USS *Enterprise* a few weeks later captured its own prize, HMS *Boxer,* off the New England coast. In April 1814, USS *Peacock,* derisively named after the British ship sunk in the first naval battle a year before, defeated the *Epervier* in a 45-minute gun battle off the coast of Florida. Captain David Porter's (1780–1843) USS *Essex* had left the Delaware back in October of 1812 on a 17-month cruise that terrorized British trade up and down the Pacific and, in company with *Essex Junior* (a prize converted into a man of war), had captured 40 merchantmen and whalers before being trapped and destroyed in a three-hour battle by HMS *Phoebe,* a frigate, and *Cherub,* a sloop of war, off Valparaiso, Chile, on March 24, 1814. (It was a horrific defeat: Of the *Essex*'s 255-man crew, 58 were killed, 31 drowned, and 70 wounded, compared to British losses of five killed and 10 wounded.) On June 28, USS *Wasp,* sailing the English Channel, met and virtually destroyed HMS *Reindeer* in a half-hour fight before continuing her cruise and capturing 14 merchantmen. In fact, by midsummer of 1814, the Americans had captured more than 800 British merchantmen, and the only traffic that moved along the English and Irish coasts did so under heavy naval escort.

The surprising American success at sea would continue, with few setbacks, throughout the war and even after the peace had been signed. In late September (26–27) 1814, the nine-gun privateer brig *General Armstrong,* bottled up in the neutral port of Fayal in the Azores, held off wave after wave of boarding parties from a British squadron. After two days of fighting, Captain Samuel C. Reid (1783–1861) put his crew ashore and blew up the brig, while Portuguese authorities refused to let the British land an assault. The squadron sailed away. On January 15, 1815, USS *President* fell to HMS *Endymion* after a long chase when the American vessel attempted to run the blockade at New York. "Old Ironsides," USS *Constitution,* managed, through clever maneuvering, to capture in February two British ships—*Cayne* and *Levant*—off Madeira. In the last naval action of the war, USS *Hornet* (ending what it had begun) captured HMS *Penguin* off Tristan da Cunha Island on March 23, 1815. But, despite these individual victories, the tiny U.S. naval force could not do to England what the Royal Navy did to America in 1814—drive the opposing economy to the verge of collapse or transport a large army across the ocean for an effective amphibious assault on the homeland.

THE BRITISH INVASION

In July and August of 1814, Admiral Sir George Cockburn's (1772–1853) naval squadron, the same that had been harassing the Atlantic seacoast all summer, was joined by 5,400 veteran British soldiers, who had just rung down the curtain on the PENINSULAR WAR. Cockburn landed them on the Patuxent on August 19, and from there, under the command of General Robert Ross, they advanced on the American capital 40 miles away. Standing between the British expedition and the federal district was a tiny force of 400 sailors and marines, led by another incompetent political appointee, Major General William H. Winder (captured at Stony Creek and released), and buttressed by 6,500 newly recruited and as yet untrained militiamen. Ross's advance guard alone, 1,500 redcoats, was enough to rout the motley Americans and send them fleeing in panic. At the so-called Battle of Bladensburg on August 24, only a contingent of Commodore Joshua Barney's (1759–1818)

naval gunners, including U.S. Marines, and a handful of regular army troops fought back at all. Although the action cost the British more casualties (294, to the 100 Americans killed or wounded and the 100 captured), when it was over the road to Washington, D.C., lay open.

By the time the British reached the capital later that day, the American government had fled. That night and through the next day, Cockburn's troops torched the city in retaliation for the burning of Upper Canada's capital, York, at the beginning of the war. The Capitol, the White House, and several other public and private buildings were burned before the invaders, their job done, marched back to their ships and began planning an assault on Baltimore, 50 miles to the north. Indignant at the ease with which Washington had fallen, the nation's public and members of both political parties called for Secretary of War John Armstrong's (1758–1843) resignation, and he was promptly replaced by James Monroe. Among the first news he would have received was the announcement that Canadian governor-general George Prevost, along with 14,000 hardened veterans of the Napoleonic Wars, was on Lake Champlain, heading toward the Hudson Valley and a march down to New York City. Much to the War Department's chagrin, the story in Upstate New York was a familiar one. Manning the field fortifications at Plattsburg, the only such American position on Champlain blocking Prevost's advance, were 1,500 green regulars and 3,000 or so raw militia under General Alexander Macomb (1782–1841).

Prevost's battle plan called for a frontal assault on the fort and a simultaneous naval attack on the American flotilla protecting Plattsburg's flank along the lake. If Macomb's men were vastly outnumbered, the two naval forces were roughly equal. Both British captain George Downie's (d. 1814) and American lieutenant Thomas Macdonough's (1783–1825) flotillas had been hastily constructed; each consisted of 4 ships and 12 armed galleys; and each carried about the same weight in metal, although the Americans, anchored close to shore, had more long guns. These unleashed a withering fusilade when the British squadron rounded Cumberland Head just as Prevost opened fire on the fort.

The fight on water lasted two hours. Downie, in his flagship, the frigate *Confiance,* was badly battering Macdonough's frigate *Saratoga* when the American swung his ship about by using a stern anchor and presented a fresh broadside to the surprised English captain. Downie was killed. Some 180 of his crew were dead or wounded by the time the splintered *Confiance* struck her flag and the rest of the British squadron surrendered. In all, Americans counted their losses at around 200, and the British estimated theirs to be 300. A veteran of Trafalgar called that engagement "child's play" compared to Lake Champlain.

When Prevost heard that the Americans had completely defeated the British flotilla, he quickly called off his attack, even though one of his assault columns was making excellent progress. Reasoning correctly that without command of the lake his invasion would founder, he beat a hasty and disordered retreat, abandoning vast stores of supplies and equipment. The land invasion was over, and after Champlain there would be no further threat from the Canadians. In retrospect, the Battle of Plattsburg was viewed by American and British chroniclers alike as the war's decisive action, saving America from likely conquest or dismemberment.

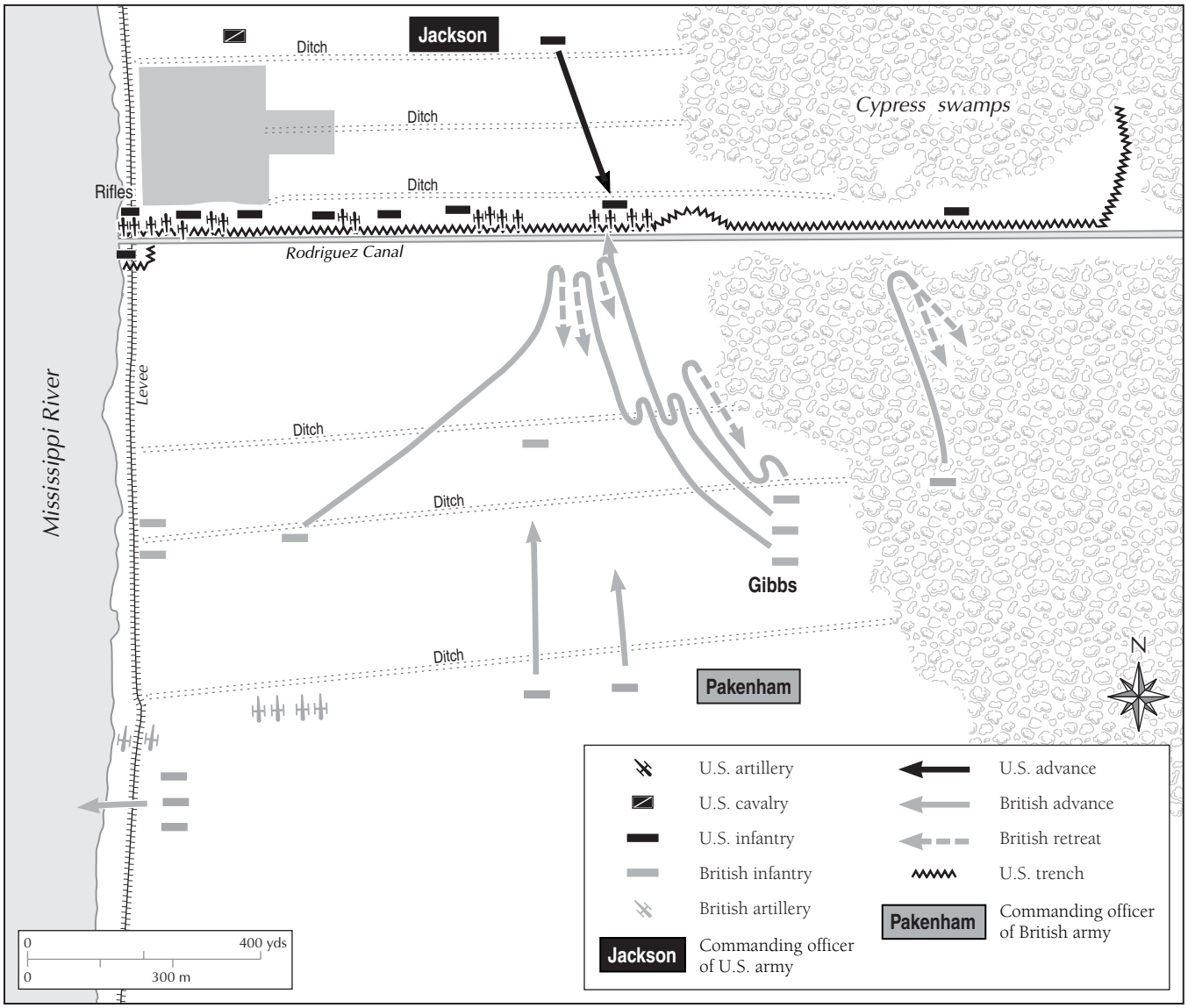
The English fared no better in the Chesapeake the following day, September 12, when the British expedition, having sailed north, penetrated the Patapsco River. Ross landed his troops 16 miles from Baltimore, while the navy attacked Fort McHenry in Baltimore Harbor. (The fort withstood the bombardment, inspiring Francis Scott Key to write "The Star-Spangled Banner.") Local militia, firing from behind entrenchments, cut Ross's troops to shreds and mortally wounded the British commander. On September 14, 1814, the expedition departed American shores. American fortunes had revived. The British failure to capture Baltimore and the retreat of the army of invasion into Canada led English diplomats on December 24, 1814, to sign a truce at a peace conference in Ghent, Belgium, that had been under way since August.

BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS

Word of the Treaty of Ghent did not reach American shores in time to prevent the Battle of New Orleans. Andrew Jackson marched into New Orleans on December 2, 1814, with his ragtag army. There, he reconnoitered the area, located three lines of defense, and began to gather supplies and new recruits, accepting help from the notorious pirate Jean Laffite (c. 1780–1825?) and volunteers from among the city's free men of color. With his men behind hastily constructed earthworks and bales of cotton, Jackson waited at Chalmette for 8,000 redcoats to appear under the command of Sir Edward Pakenham (1778–1815).

On January 8, 1815, Pakenham ordered his men into tight formation and marched them in a rash frontal assault. Kentucky rifles and artillery cut them to pieces, raking the columns with deadly fire and slaughtering 2,000, Pakenham among them. The Americans reported fewer than 20 casualties. Thirteen of Jackson's troops were killed.

News of a major victory at the Battle of New Orleans and news that the warring nations had signed a peace treaty in Ghent reached most Americans about the same time. The treaty was a disappointment. Few of the American war aims—defending American commerce, vindicating republican independence, annexing Canada and Florida—had been achieved. Many felt the war had decided nothing, and (at least until the Battle of New Orleans) felt the British had somehow beaten them. Jackson's triumph, on the other hand, was hailed as a vindication of national honor in a war that had generally gone badly for the United States.



Battle of New Orleans, December 14, 1815

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War of Berenice *See* SYRIAN-EGYPTIAN WAR, THIRD (LAODICEAN WAR, WAR OF BERENICE).

War of Chioggia *See* CHIOGGIA, WAR OF.

War of Devolution *See* DEVOLUTION, WAR OF.

War of Jenkins' Ear *See* JENKINS' EAR, WAR OF.

War of the Austrian Succession *See* AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE.

War of the Axe *See* AXE, WAR OF THE.

War of the Bavarian Succession *See* BAVARIAN SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE.

War of the *Emboadas* *See* *EMBOADAS*, WAR OF THE.

War of the First Coalition (against France) *See* COALITION, WAR OF THE FIRST.

War of the League of Augsburg *See* GRAND ALLIANCE, WAR OF THE.

War of the Mascates *See* MASCATES, WAR OF THE.

War of the Oranges *See* ORANGES, WAR OF THE.

War of the Pacific *See* PACIFIC, WAR OF THE.

War of the Polish Succession *See* POLISH SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE.

War of the Reform *See* REFORM, WAR OF THE.

War of the Second Coalition (against France) *See* COALITION, WAR OF THE SECOND.

War of the Spanish Succession *See* SPANISH SUCCESSION, WAR OF THE.

War of the Third Coalition (against France) *See* COALITION, WAR OF THE, THIRD.

War of the Three Henrys *See* RELIGION, EIGHTH WAR OF.

War of the Three Sanchos *See* THREE SANCHOS, WAR OF THE.

War of the Two Brothers *See* MIGUELITE WARS (WAR OF THE TWO BROTHERS).

Warwick's Rebellion (1469–1471)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Earl of Warwick vs. King Edward IV
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Warwick sought to overthrow the king.
OUTCOME: Warwick's Rebellion was defeated, Warwick was killed in battle, and Edward IV returned to the throne.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Richard Neville (1428–71), earl of Warwick, was the power behind the throne of England's Edward IV (1442–83). While he had been negotiating a grand diplomatic marriage between Edward and some French bridal candidates, Warwick discovered that Edward had already secretly wed Elizabeth Woodville (1437–92), an English woman, the widow of a Lancastrian knight, and well outside of the royal circle. She was an extraordinary beauty who refused to be kept as Edward's mistress; he yielded and married her. Warwick kept his outrage to himself—until Edward dared to replace certain government appointees chosen by Warwick with those nominated by Elizabeth Woodville, who, it was clear, was emerging as a political power. Even worse, in 1467, Edward struck an alliance with Burgundy, the traditional rival of France, thereby wrecking Warwick's negotiations with that nation. Edward cemented the alliance by marrying his sister Margaret of York (fl. 1470s) to Burgundy's Charles the Bold (1433–77).

This was the final straw. In 1469, Warwick led an outright rebellion. Warwick defied the king in June 1469 by marrying his eldest daughter, Isobel (fl. 1460s), to the king's brother, George, duke of Clarence (1449–78). A figure known to history as Robin of Redesdale, and subsequently identified as Sir John Conyers (1433–69), assembled a force of discontented northerners. Edward sent an army against this band. As a battle developed at Edgecote, an army under Warwick suddenly appeared and immediately sided with Conyers's rebels. Together, Conyers and Warwick defeated the royal army and gave chase to Edward, whom they ran to ground at Coventry and took prisoner. Warwick held Edward for three months, but, finding that he had little support from his fellow nobles, he released the king.

The new-found freedom did not make Edward grateful. In March 1470, with the rebellion renewed, Edward dispatched an army to confront the rebels at Losecoat Field.

This time, it was the king's forces that emerged victorious. Edward declared Warwick a traitor, sending him fleeing to France for his life. There he plotted with Queen Margaret of Anjou (c. 1430–82), the consort of Henry VI (1421–71), the deposed English king who was then languishing in the Tower of London.

After recruiting a French force, Warwick invaded England in 1470, stormed the Tower, and freed Henry. This time, Edward fled—to Burgundy. He returned to England in 1471, however, and fought Warwick at the Battle of Barnet. Warwick was slain in this battle. Henry VI was subsequently recaptured and, once again, sent to the Tower, where he died, leaving Edward IV the undisputed king of England.

See also ROSES, WARS OF THE.

Further reading: Andrew Boardman, *The Medieval Soldier in the Wars of the Roses* (Stroud: Sutton, 1998); Christine Carpenter, *The Wars of the Roses: Politics and Constitution in England 1437–1509* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997); Phillip A. Haigh, *The Military Campaigns of the Wars of the Roses* (Stroud: Sutton, 1999); A. J. Pollard, *Richard III and the Princes in the Tower* (New York: St. Martin's, 1991).

Wat Tyler's Rebellion

See ENGLISH PEASANT'S REVOLT.

Waziristan Revolt (1919)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Anglo-Indian forces vs. tribal peoples of the Waziristan region
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Waziristan (southwest portion of the Northwest Frontier Province of Pakistan)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British colonial government of India sought to suppress disorders on its frontier.
OUTCOME: The "revolt" was suppressed, albeit at substantial cost.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 30,000 Anglo-Indian troops; tribal numbers unknown
CASUALTIES: Anglo-British forces, 2,286 killed and wounded; tribal losses unknown
TREATIES: None

Waziristan is a mountainous region in the southwest portion of the North-West Frontier Province of Pakistan. During the long British occupation of India, the wild tribes of this region fought continually, bringing disorder to the Anglo-Indian frontier. From November 1919 to March 1920, 30,000 Anglo-Indian troops combed the region with the object of putting down what the British colonial government deemed a revolt—although it was, in fact, more in the nature of a flare-up of chronic internecine conflict. Order was restored to the region for 10 years, but at the cost of 2,286 killed and wounded among the Anglo-British forces.

Further reading: Akbar S. Ahmed, *Religion and Politics in Muslim Society: Order and Conflict in Pakistan* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983); Akbar S. Ahmed, *Resistance and Control in Pakistan* (London: Routledge, 1991); Hugh Beattie, *Imperial Frontier: Tribe State in Waziristan* (London: Taylor and Francis, 2001).

Welf Rebellion (1138–1142)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Welfs vs. Hohenstaufens
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Germany
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Welfs bridled under Hohenstaufen domination and sought autonomy.
OUTCOME: The Welf duke Henry the Lion succeeded in achieving a large measure of independence and used the opportunity to expand eastward at the expense of the Slavs.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Welfs (Guelphs) were a dynasty of Germanic nobles who were the chief rivals of the Hohenstaufens in Italy and central Europe during the Middle Ages. In 1138, when Conrad III (1093–1152), the first of the Hohenstaufen dynasty, came to power in Germany, the Welfs, under the leadership of two Saxon dukes, Henry the Proud (c. 1108–39) and his son Henry the Lion (1142–80), rebelled. While Conrad was distracted with the Second CRUSADE, Henry the Lion set himself up as a virtually autonomous king, expanding his Saxon realm steadily eastward and doing battle with the Slavs to extend his eastern frontier.

Further reading: Karl Hampe and Friedrich Baethgen, *Germany Under the Salian and Hohenstaufen Emperors* (Lanham, Md.: Rowman and Littlefield, 1973); Alfred Haverkamp, *Medieval Germany 1056–1273* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1997).

Whiskey Rebellion (1794)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Tax-protesting farmers vs. U.S. government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Pennsylvania
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The federal government wanted to enforce an excise tax on whiskey.
OUTCOME: The rebellion collapsed without a battle.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Farmers, 6,000; U.S. militia troops, 12,950

CASUALTIES: 2 farmers killed, 6 wounded
TREATIES: None

As many citizens of the young American republic saw it, the AMERICAN REVOLUTION had been fought in large measure to win freedom from direct taxation by a remote government. There was, then, great discontent among some segments of the U.S. population when George Washington's (1732–99) secretary of the treasury, Alexander Hamilton (1755–1804), introduced a direct taxation scheme to finance the national debt and support a substantial federal government. Hamilton believed that federal taxes would give the United States the financial stability it so badly needed while also asserting the precedence of the powers of the federal government over those of the states. Hamilton successfully urged Congress to enact a federal excise tax on spirits distilled in the United States (March 3, 1791). This incited a protest in western Pennsylvania, where farmers, who distilled a portion of their corn and grain into liquor, harassed and even assaulted federal tax collectors. The violence became most intense on July 16, 1794, when about 500 attacked the home of General John Neville, Allegheny County's inspector of the excise. Neville defended his home with the support of a small detachment of U.S. Army regulars. In the ensuing combat, two of the attackers were killed and six wounded. However, Neville and the troops, outnumbered, finally left the house to the mob, which looted and burned it.

Emboldened by the attack on Neville, some 6,000 protesters gathered at Braddock's Field, near Pittsburgh, on August 1, 1794. However, the rabble failed to coalesce into an army and by August 3 had dispersed. Despite the disappearance of the mob, President Washington announced on August 7 that he was calling out the militia to restore order and enforce collection of the excise tax. At the same time, the president sent special commissioners to western Pennsylvania with an offer of amnesty to all those who agreed to swear an oath of submission to the United States. When few chose to swear the oath, Washington, on September 25, ordered 12,950 militiamen and volunteers from Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Maryland to march to Pittsburgh. This force arrested a small number of ringleaders and participants in the Whiskey Rebellion; however, most of the prominent insurgents fled. Those who were arrested were soon granted presidential pardons.

While the suppression of the Whiskey Rebellion was of no real military significance, it was of great political importance because it demonstrated both the will and the competence of the federal government to create and enforce national laws. The result of the confrontation was a strong assertion of the authority of a central government.

Further reading: Charles Adams, *Those Dirty Rotten Taxes: The Tax Revolts That Built America* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1998); Steven R. Boyd, ed., *The Whiskey Rebellion: Past and Present Perspectives,* vol. 109 (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1985); Thomas P. Slaughter, *Whiskey Rebellion: Frontier Epilogue to the American Revolution* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1988).

White Hun (or Ephthalite, Hunas) Invasion of Gandhara (c. 400–c. 450)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: White Huns vs. various peoples of Central Asia and northwestern India
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central Asia and northwestern India
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Territorial expansion
OUTCOME: The White Huns penetrated into India as far as the Punjab, where they were resisted by the Guptas.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Ephthalites, or White Huns (in Indian history, called Hunas), were a people of mixed Indo-European and Mongoloid racial heritage, presumably descended from the Xiongnu (Hsiung-nu) of Mongolia and, it is believed, related to Yueh Chih people and the offshoot of the Yueh Chih, the Kushans. These people began migrating from Central Asia into the Sassanid Empire. By about 420, the White Huns had a firm foothold in Bactria, from which they quickly dominated the area encompassed by modern Russian Turkestan, southeast of the Aral Sea. Once established there, they penetrated into Gandhara, frequently pushing their raids well into the Punjab. Not far behind the raiding parties, the main body of White Huns slowly pushed general settlement south, into the mountains of northwestern India, where they would come into conflict with the Guptas (*see* GUPTA DYNASTY, CONQUESTS OF THE).

Further reading: Brajadulal Chattopadhyaya, *Making of Early Medieval India* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1997); Hemachandra Raychaudhuri, *Political History of Ancient India: From the Accession of Parikshit to the Extinction of the Gupta Dynasty* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1997); Stanley A. Wolpert, *A New History of India* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1999).

White Hun-Gupta Wars

See GUPTA DYNASTY, CONQUESTS OF THE.

White Lotus Rebellion (1796–1804)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: White Lotus rebels vs. the Qing (Ch'ing; Manchu) dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Central China

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The White Lotus guerrillas sought to overthrow the Qing dynasty and restore the Ming dynasty to power.
OUTCOME: After the Qing government coerced the peasantry of central China to form a pro-government militia, the White Lotus guerrillas were slowly but steadily defeated.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown, but certainly in the tens of thousands among the guerrillas and the militia.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

China had long been a land of secret politico-religious societies, including the White Lotus, a Buddhist society with a history dating back to the 1300s in Hubei (Hupei), Sichuan (Szechuan), and Shaanxi (Shensi) provinces in western China. When, in 1644, the Qing (or Manchu) dynasty was established, the White Lotus, deeming the dynasty foreign to China, dedicated itself to the overthrow of the Qing and the restoration of the Ming dynasty.

As famine swept China late in the 18th century, the White Lotus Society was joined by many thousands of desperate Chinese, especially in the central mountains. Their hope was that if they rid China of the Qing and restored the Ming dynasty, Buddha would return and restore the land to prosperity.

A guerrilla war began in which White Lotus bands preyed upon government troops. At first, the attacks rarely had much military significance, because they were poorly coordinated. Fortunately for the rebels, however, the Qing court was so corrupt that funds allocated to put down the White Lotus Rebellion were embezzled. The army, unpaid, grew mutinous; in any case, it was poorly led. Mostly as a result of the general debility of the Chinese army, the White Lotus rebels gained control of a large area of central China. Government forces gave up confronting the rebels directly and instead simply rounded up the peasants in the region and confined them to the equivalent of concentration camps. In this way, the government sought to deprive the rebels of sustenance. With the farmers gone, the rebels could not live off the land.

In the meantime, government officials offered the confined peasants freedom in exchange for military service against the White Lotus. In this way, thousands were inducted into a peasant militia. These forces, and not the professional government army, finally defeated the White Lotus guerrillas. Fighting was heaviest in the provinces hardest hit by famine, Shaanxi, Sichuan, and Hubei, which were also the traditional strongholds of White Lotus influence. The rebellion was typical of growing discontent with the Qing leadership and presaged the great TAIPING REBELLION, which would break out in the middle of the next century.

Further reading: B. J. Haar, *White Lotus Teachings in Chinese Religious History* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1999); Immanuel Chung-Yueh Hsu, *Rise of Modern China* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1999).

Whitman Massacre (1847)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Cayuse Indians vs. Oregon settlers
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Oregon Territory
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Cayuse Indians and the other tribes of the far Northwest were disturbed by the ever growing number of settlers attracted to their lands through the way-stations of Oregon's Protestant missions; when an outbreak of measles killed off the Indians but not the missionaries, angry Indians, suspicious of white treachery, attacked and destroyed the Whitman Mission.
OUTCOME: The Whitman Mission was destroyed, its settlers killed or captured, and a white backlash brought decades of war to the Pacific Northwest; the "Whitman Massacre" was the rallying point of those wars, just as the Alamo had been the rallying point of the Texan War of Independence.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: A few dozen Indians
CASUALTIES: Settlers, 14 killed, 53 captured and held for ransom; no Indian casualties
TREATIES: None

In 1835, Marcus Whitman (1802–47), a physician and Presbyterian minister, identified a suitable location for an Oregon mission. After finding the site, he returned east briefly, marrying Narcissa Prentiss (1808–47), who returned to Oregon with him.

Although many Nez Percé and Cayuse Indians were grateful for Whitman's medical ministrations, many others saw his mission as the vanguard of an army of white settlers invading Indian lands east of the Cascades. Then, in 1847, came the measles; an epidemic—brought by the immigrants—struck the Cayuses. Half of them died. Marcus Whitman, the missionary doctor, did what he could to alleviate their suffering in unspeakable conditions, but he also continued to engross himself in establishing a new mission on the Dalles River and in building a sawmill and gristmill. When the deaths continued, many of the Indians began to suspect that he was deliberately poisoning them to get their lands, especially when most of the sick whites, gathered at the mission after a long summer's trip, recovered.

Whitman had not helped matters much with his zealotry, insisting from the beginning that his Cayuse converts sever themselves utterly and completely from their former beliefs. Now, it seemed only natural for the Cayuse to talk of the epidemic as a function of Whitman's evil

influence. A French Canadian from Maine named Joe Lewis (fl. 1840s) sought to direct the Indians' growing resentment of whites away from himself and exclusively against Whitman. It was he who first planted the notion that the epidemic was a plot to steal the Indians' land. But, some pointed out, didn't the doctor try to heal the sick Indians? Yes, replied Lewis, and the whites, too. The difference was that the whites recovered from the measles, whereas the Cayuses all died.

On November 28, 1847, Whitman traveled 30 miles south of his mission at Waiilatpu to treat sick Indians in the Umatilla Valley. He ministered to them and returned directly home—for 11 of the 42 mission children were ill with measles—reaching his house about midnight. There Narcissa was watching two girls, Helen Meek (d. 1847) and Louise Sager (d. 1847), one of the Whitmans' adopted daughters, both very ill. Although he had been traveling and working all day and night, Whitman sent his wife to bed while he continued to watch the two sick girls. After breakfast on a foggy, dark morning, he supervised the butchering of some beef. He returned to the kitchen, where 17-year-old John Sager (1830–47) was winding twine. Whitman sat reading and, for a time, dozed.

About noon, an Indian came to tell Whitman of three more measles deaths among his tribe. The missionary officiated at the burials.

Later in the afternoon, when Whitman had returned home, two more Indians, Tomahas (d. 1849) and Tiloukaikt (d. 1849), whose daughter had been among those who had died that day, came to the doctor's door. Tiloukaikt spoke to Whitman, and, as he did, Tomahas struck him from behind with a bronze tomahawk and hacked his face. Another Indian entered, pressed a rifle against Whitman's neck, and fired. When young John Sager leaped up to get a gun that was hanging on the wall, he was shot dead. Remarkably, Whitman was still breathing; he was dragged outside to die.

Narcissa, who had been in another room, ran to the window. A bullet hit her in the breast. She apparently staggered upstairs to the attic bedroom. Later there were those who claimed she was not hiding but praying for the children and for the Indians.

More Indians attacked the mission's miller, teacher, tailor, and the three men who had been butchering the beef, but other whites in the Whitman house held off a final assault. At last, one Indian, an old friend of the Whitmans, warned those inside that the house was about to be put to the torch. He promised them safe conduct out. Narcissa, unconscious from loss of blood, was put on a wooden settee and carried out the door. Thereupon the Cayuses opened fire. The missionary's wife, riddled by bullets, rolled off the settee. An Indian seized her by her long, blonde hair and beat her across her face with a quirt.

Soon, Oregon, then all the nation, had heard how the Indians had sprung from the early morning fog on November 29 to kill Marcus Whitman, his wife Narcissa, and 12 white workers, taking five men, eight women, and 34 children captive, and leaving the two small girls, Louise Sager and Helen Meek, suffering from measles, to die of neglect. One man had fled for help; he drowned in the Columbia River. Five others had escaped to tell the world how the braves raped some of the women and the little girls.

Oregon's provisional governor raised a small army, paying it with promises and a few in-kind contributions; everyone realized the territory was incapable of conducting a large campaign. The mission on the Dalles was fortified, the ringleaders arrested, and the captives ransomed for $500 worth of tobacco, shirts, blankets, and bullets. The mountain man Joe Meek (1810–75) led a party of Oregon settlers all the way east to Washington, D.C., to petition his cousin-in-law, President James K. Polk (1795–1849) himself, to make Oregon, at last, a territory of the United States, entitled to the full protection of the federal government. Meek saw Polk on May 28; on August 14, the Oregon Territory was formed. Once again the powerful race-war symbolism of the Indian massacre functioned to hasten the displacement of Indians by white settlement. A force of some 500 settlers formed to track down and punish the Cayuse in their homelands for the crimes they had committed against the mission, which launched nearly a decade of conflict that came to be called the CAYUSE WAR. Tomahas and Tiloukaikt surrendered in 1849, were tried, and were both executed.

Further reading: James Daugherty, *Marcus and Narcissa Whitman* (New York: Viking Penguin, 1953); Greg Hunt, *Marcus Whitman: Frontier Missionary* (New York: Dell, 1982); Julie R. Jeffrey, *Converting the West: A Biography of Narcissa Whitman* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1994); Thomas E. Jessett, *Indian Side of the Whitman Massacre* (Fairfield, Wash.: Ye Galleon, 1993); Mary Saunders, *Whitman Massacre* (Fairfield, Wash.: Ye Galleon, 1995).

William I's Invasion of Normandy (1077)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: William I (William the Conqueror) vs. rebel forces under Robert Curthose
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Normandy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Robert Curthose wanted to become duke of Normandy and therefore led a rebellion against his father, William I, who had taken Normandy from the counts of Anjou in 1073.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Having taken Normandy in northwestern France in 1073, William I (William the Conqueror; 1027?–87) put his son, Robert Curthose (c. 1054–1134), in control of the territory, but he did not accede to Robert's wish to be created duke of Normandy. This galled Robert, who fell under the influence of Philip I (1052–1108) of France. Nominally, William was the vassal of Philip, who had observed that William had become overly ambitious. Anxious to check the progress of William's conquests, Philip induced Robert Curthose to lead a rebellion against William, beginning with an attempt to seize Rouen. William led an army into Normandy and quickly suppressed the rebellion.

William held Robert under siege at Gerberoi in 1080 until William's wife, Matilda of Flanders (c. 1030–83), persuaded William to reconcile with their son. The reconciliation did not last long. Robert's continued defiance moved William to exile him, although, on William's death in 1087, Robert did become duke of Normandy. Once this was attained, however, Robert Curthose wanted even more, and his ambitions led to war with his brothers, most notably WILLIAM II'S WAR WITH ROBERT CURTHOSE from 1089 to 1096.

Further reading: David Crouch, *The Normans* (London: Hambledon and London, 2002); David Charles Douglas, *William the Conqueror* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1997).

William I's Invasion of Scotland (1072)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: William I (William the Conqueror) vs. Scotland (under Malcolm III Canmore)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northern England and Scotland
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: William I sought to counter an invasion of northern England by Malcolm III Canmore.
OUTCOME: Malcolm surrendered without offering battle; he acknowledged William I's suzerainty over Scotland and thus became his vassal.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: None
TREATIES: Treaty of Abernathy, 1072

The NORMAN CONQUEST in 1066 of England did not establish an unambiguous border between England and Scotland. King Malcolm III Canmore (d. 1093) of Scotland decided to exploit the ambiguity by invading northern England with the object of enlarging Scottish territory. He led forces into Northumbria and Cumberland during 1070–71. During this period, William I (William the Conqueror) (c. 1027–87) was preoccupied with political problems and could not respond to the invasion. He returned to northern England in 1072 and advanced through Northumbria and Lothian. At Abernethy, William's forces encountered those of Malcolm. Malcolm instantly backed down. Instead of fighting William, he acknowledged his suzerainty in Scotland. Edgar the Aetheling (d. 1125), the Saxon heir to the English throne, who had taken refuge in Scotland at the court of Malcolm III Canmore, was forced to flee to Flanders.

Further reading: David Charles Douglas, *William the Conqueror* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1997); Bruce Webster, *Medieval Scotland: The Making of an Identity* (New York: St. Martin's, 1997).

William II's Invasion of Scotland (1091–1093)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: England (under William II Rufus) vs. Scotland (under Malcolm III Canmore)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Cumberland, northern England
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: William II sought to repulse an invasion and subdue Scottish aggression.
OUTCOME: The Scottish army was defeated, Malcolm III Canmore and his son were killed in battle, and the invasion was repulsed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

In 1072, King Malcolm III Canmore (d. 1093) acknowledged William I (William the Conqueror) (c. 1027–87) suzerain of Scotland (WILLIAM I'S INVASION OF SCOTLAND), but after William's death in 1087 the Scottish king resumed his attempts to enlarge his realm at the expense of northern England. In 1091, he led an invasion into northern England, where English forces under William II Rufus (c. 1056–1100) not only resisted but also pushed the invaders back and exacted homage from Malcolm. Following this, William II subjugated Cumberland and firmly established the northern boundary of England at Solway Firth, the line of Hadrian's Wall.

In 1093, Malcolm proved that he had not learned his lesson. He attempted yet another invasion and was defeated at the First Battle of Alnwick, Malcolm's army had penetrated as far as the Aln River and had put Alnwick Castle under siege. William II Rufus dispatched a force to relieve the garrison at the castle. The English were able to ambush the besieging Scots on November 13. Both Malcolm and his eldest son, Edward (c. 1068–93), fell in battle, and, leaderless, the invasion instantly collapsed.

William II's victory completely pacified the turbulent north country. In an effort to quell internal instability, William put a younger son of Malcolm, Edgar (c. 1074/75–1106/07) on the Scottish throne in 1097.

Further reading: David Charles Douglas, *William the Conqueror* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1997); Bruce Webster *Medieval Scotland: The Making of an Identity* (New York: St. Martin's, 1997).

William II's War with Robert Curthose (1089–1096)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: William II Rufus vs. his brother, Robert Curthose
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Normandy
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Believing Robert Curthose would lose Normandy to France, William II wanted to take the dukedom from him.
OUTCOME: After three unsuccessful invasions, William II acquired Normandy as collateral against a loan he made to Robert Curthose to finance an army for the First Crusade.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

On the death in 1087 of William I (William the Conqueror) (c. 1027–87), his Anglo-Norman holdings were apportioned among his heirs. Robert Curthose (c. 1054–1134), his eldest son, who had rebelled against him in 1076, but with whom William had reconciled, received Normandy. Robert, whose administrative talents were severely limited, had trouble governing his dukedom, and the always-scheming king of France, Philip I (1052–1108), did his best to destabilize the Norman situation.

In 1088, a group of Norman nobles, among them Odo of Bayeux (1036–97), Robert of Mortain (1038–91), Richard Fitz Gilbert (c. 1026–1091), William Fitz Osbern (fl. late 11th century), and Geoffrey of Coutances (d. 1093), mounted an uprising against William II Rufus with the object of placing Robert Curthose on the throne. The rebellion failed, because the majority of Normans in England remained loyal. Rufus personally led an army against rebel strongholds at Tonbridge, Pevensey, and Rochester. All the rebel leaders were exiled to Normandy, which William II Rufus invaded in 1091, establishing at his headquarters, Eu, an army so formidable that Robert Curthose agreed to a peace whereby William II Rufus was given absolute control over much of Normandy. Moreover, Robert Curthose agreed to unite with his brother in a campaign to take Maine and Cotentin.

Successful in his Maine and Cotentin expedition, William II Rufus returned to England in August 1091 and embarked on WILLIAM II'S INVASION OF SCOTLAND. In March 1094, William II Rufus returned to Normandy, using funds obtained from heavy taxation of England to bribe King Philip I Capet (1052–1108) of France not to support Robert Curthose. However, William finally wrested complete control of Normandy from his brother, not through arms but by collecting on a loan. Robert Curthose had borrowed from William the funds to finance an army for the First CRUSADE in 1095, posting Normandy as collateral. When Robert failed to repay the loan, William II Rufus came into complete possession of the long-sought prize.

See also WILLIAM I'S INVASION OF NORMANDY.

Further reading: Frank Barlow, *William Rufus* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 2000); David Charles Douglas, *William the Conqueror* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1997).

Winnebago-Illinois War (1671)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Winnebago vs. Illinois Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Eastern Wisconsin region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Presumably, competition for trade with white settlers
OUTCOME: Defeat and great reduction of the Winnebago tribe
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: It is estimated that half the Winnebago population of 6,000 died.
TREATIES: None

History records a picture of chronic violence between white settlers and Indians almost from first contact through the massacre at Wounded Knee in December 1890. The historical record of intertribal warfare is far less extensive. Although little Indian history was recorded unless it impinged on Euro-American settlement, intertribal warfare was certainly even more frequent and extensive than that between Euro-Americans and Indians.

The Winnebago-Illinois War of 1671 is one of the few major intertribal conflicts of which we have even sketchy knowledge. Indeed, beyond the fact that the 1671 war was devastating to the Winnebagos, little is known about it.

The Winnebago Indians were generally a peaceful people who, in the 17th century, lived in the region of present-day eastern Wisconsin from Green Bay to Winnebago Lake. During the early 17th century, the Illinois Indians lived on the east bank of the Mississippi River, but they were driven by Iroquois attacks (*see* BEAVER WARS) relentlessly westward and also to the north. Retreating from the Iroquois in 1671, the Illinois invaded Winnebago territory. As the Illinois were overmatched by the Iroquois, so the Winnebagos were inferior in military terms to the Illinois. Despite an apparently valiant resistance, the Winnebagos were rapidly defeated. It is estimated that the war killed

more than half of the Winnebago tribe, reducing it to a population of perhaps 3,000.

Further reading: Robert E. Bieder, *Native American Communities in Wisconsin, 1600–1960: A Study of Tradition and Change* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1995); Paul Radin, *Winnebago Tribe* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1990); Claudio R. Salvucci and Anthony P. Schiavo, eds., *Iroquois Wars,* vol. 1, *Extracts from the Jesuit Relations* (Bristol, Penn.: Arx, 2002).

Winnebago Uprising (1827)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Winnebago Indians vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Wisconsin
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Winnebagos, hostile to white American settlement and incursions by white miners on their traditional lead-mining lands, responded to the abduction and rape of a group of Winnebago women by chasing down and killing those responsible; the United States responded to that attack with a show of force.
OUTCOME: The "uprising" was suppressed and Chief Red Bird jailed and broken.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None; as terms for his surrender, Red Bird negotiated clemency for his tribe

The Winnebago Indians were strongly pro-British during the WAR OF 1812 and vigorously resisted white incursions into their lands, which lay between the Rock and Wisconsin rivers in northern Illinois and southern Wisconsin, east toward Lake Michigan. But a conflict with the Fox (Mesquakie) Indians drove them to seek aid from the United States during the war, and in return they pledged neutrality.

The pressures of white settlement following the War of 1812 again drove the Winnebagos to active resistance, and this time their situation was rather more urgent; they were facing lead miners who came in large numbers to work the rich ore in the vicinity of Galena, Illinois, on the Mississippi River. Friction between Winnebagos and white Americans intensified as the Indians began to compete with the miners by selling lead to white traders. Bowing to mining interests, the federal government ordered its Indian agents to pressure the Winnebagos to stop trading in lead. It was becoming quite clear that the Winnebagos not only felt the strong emotional attachment to their home lands that was common among Indians of almost all tribes (and peoples of all nations, for that matter) but also that they were acutely aware of the mineral-rich land's mercantile value.

The actions of the miners and the Indian agents incited numbers of Winnebagos to acts of violence. The most serious came in 1826, when several Indians killed a family of sugar-maple farmers living near Prairie du Chien, Wisconsin. The attack emboldened Chief Red Bird (c. 1788–1828) and two braves to kill another farmer and his hired hand. Miners and settlers agitated for an increase in the garrison at Galena and got it, which served only to exacerbate the situation. In June 1827, two Mississippi keelboats bearing supplies for the augmented garrison stopped at a Winnebago village near Prairie du Chien. The boatmen drank rum and encouraged the Winnebago men to indulge as well. The Indians and the traders were soon drunk, the Winnebagos to the point of stupor. The keelboatmen abducted several women and raped them. As the warriors came to their senses, they set out after the boats, catching up to them after several days. The braves attempted a nighttime assault, and although they failed to capture the boats, they managed to free the captive women. A number of Indians as well as boatmen were killed in the fight.

News of the attack spread, and soon a combination of federal regulars and territorial militiamen, led by Generals Lewis Cass (1782–1866), Henry Atkinson (1782–1842), and Samuel Whiteside (1784–1856), and Colonel Henry Dodge (1782–1867), were in pursuit of the Winnebagos. They appealed to the closely allied Sac (Sauk) and Fox tribes for aid but were turned down. General Atkinson, however, negotiated with the Sac chief Keokuk (c. 1783–1848), who pledged the cooperation of the Sac and the Fox. Atkinson did not actively employ the Sac and Fox against the Winnebagos, but Thomas Forsyth (1771–1833), a U.S. Indian agent, used Sac warriors as spies to report on Winnebago activity.

In the face of overwhelming odds, Chief Red Bird surrendered to the forces arrayed against him on condition that his people should suffer no reprisals. This granted, Red Bird was imprisoned and, spiritually broken, died in captivity awaiting trial for murder and inciting rebellion. As in the case of Kennekuk's Kickapoos (*see* KICKAPOO UPRISING), the defeat of Red Bird prompted other Winnebagos—most notably White Cloud (c. 1794–c. 1841) (the so-called Winnebago Prophet)—to ally themselves with bellicose Sac chief Black Hawk (1767–1838) in his war of 1832 (*see* BLACK HAWK'S WAR).

Further reading: Robert E. Bieder, *Native American Communities in Wisconsin, 1600–1960: A Study of Tradition and Change* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1995); Paul Radin, *Winnebago Tribe* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1990); Claudio R. Salvucci and Anthony P. Schiavo, eds., *Iroquois Wars,* vol. 1, *Extracts from the Jesuit Relations* (Bristol, Penn.: Arx, 2002).

"Winter War" (1939–1940)

See RUSSO-FINNISH WAR.

World War I: Historical Background
(1871–1914)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Austria-Hungary, Germany, Romania, Bulgaria, and Turkey (the Central Powers) vs. Serbia, Russia, Belgium, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, the United States (the Allies)

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western and Eastern Europe, the Balkans, colonial Africa, colonial Asia, colonial possessions in the Pacific (with associated naval action), naval action chiefly in the Atlantic

Declarations:

- Austria-Hungary against Serbia, July 29, 1914
- Germany against France, August 3, 1914
- Germany against Belgium, August 4, 1914
- England against Germany, August 4, 1914
- Austria-Hungary against Russia, August 5, 1914
- Serbia against Germany, August 6, 1914
- Montenegro against Austria-Hungary, August 7, 1914
- Montenegro against Germany, August 12, 1914
- France against Austria-Hungary, August 10, 1914
- Great Britain against Austria-Hungary, August 12, 1914
- Japan against Germany, August 23, 1914
- Austria-Hungary against Japan, August 25, 1914
- Austria-Hungary against Belgium, August 28, 1914
- Italy against Germany and Austria-Hungary, April 26, 1915
- United States against Germany and Austria-Hungary, April 6, 1917

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: War was triggered by the assassination of Austria-Hungary's Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife, Archduchess Sophie, in Sarajevo, Bosnia-Herzegovina, on June 28, 1914, but the chief underlying issues included the following:

- Germany wanted to become more influential among its European neighbors and to amass a colonial empire.
- The Austro-Hungarian Empire sought to stamp out nationalist rebellion among its Balkan provinces.
- France wanted to recover Alsace-Lorraine, the eastern provinces it had lost to Prussia (now Germany) as a result of the Franco-Prussian War (1870–71).
- Russia, seething with revolution and the threat of revolution, wanted to restore the prestige it had lost in the Russo-Japanese War (1904–05) by gaining territory at the expense of its rival Turkey, and presenting itself to the world and to its own discontented citizens as the spiritual, cultural, and military champion of all Slavic peoples everywhere.
- Great Britain wanted to check the colonial ambitions of Germany, seen as a rival to empire.
- Italy wanted territorial expansion.
- Turkey wanted to recover lost territory and diminished imperial prestige.
- The United States entered the war ostensibly in defense of its rights as a sovereign neutral nation, after Germany attacked U.S. shipping and made other threats against U.S. neutrality.
- All of the nations involved were bound by a constraining set of treaties and alliances, some of them secret.

OUTCOME: The Allies (without Russia, which made a separate peace with Germany early in 1918) prevailed against the Central Powers, compelling the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and the virtual disarmament of Germany, and levying ruinous reparations against Germany.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 65,038,810

CASUALTIES: 8,020,780 (military); 6,642,633 (civilian); 21,228,813 military wounded

TREATIES:

- Treaty of London, May 30, 1913, among the Balkan League (Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro) and the Ottoman Empire (Turkey), ending the First Balkan War
- Treaty of Bucharest, August 10, 1913, among Romania, Greece, Serbia, and Montenegro on one side and Bulgaria, ending the Second Balkan War
- Treaty of Constantinople, September 29, 1913, between Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria, constituting a separate peace between the Ottoman Turks and Bulgaria following the Second Balkan War
- Secret Treaty Between Germany and the Ottoman Empire, August 2, 1914
- Treaty of London, April 26, 1915, alliance among France, Russia, Great Britain, and Italy
- Sykes-Picot (Secret) Agreement, May 9, 1916, among Britain, France, and Imperial Russia, defining the goals of the Allied powers of Britain, France, and Russia for the partition of the Ottoman Empire at the victorious close of the Great War
- Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, March 3, 1918, separate peace concluded among Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey with Russian Federal Soviet Republic after the Bolshevik Revolution
- Treaty of Versailles, June 28, 1919, among United States (signed, but failed to ratify), British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan ("Principal Allied and Associated Powers"), Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, China, Cuba, Ecuador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, the Hedjaz, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Serb-Croat-Slovene State, Siam, Czechoslovakia, and Uruguay ("The Allied and Associated Powers") and Germany, constituting the principal document ending World War I
- Covenant of the League of Nations, June 28, 1919, among United States (signed, but failed to ratify), British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan ("Principal Allied and Associated Powers"), Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, China, Cuba, Ecuador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, the Hedjaz, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua,

Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Serb-Croat-Slovene State, Siam, Czechoslovakia, and Uruguay ("The Allied and Associated Powers") and Germany
- Treaty of Guarantee, June 28, 1919, postwar alliance between Great Britain and France
- Treaty Between the Allied and Associated Powers and Poland on the Protection of Minorities, June 28, 1919, among the "Principal Allied Powers" (United States [signed, but failed to ratify], British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan) and "Associated Powers" (Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, China, Cuba, Ecuador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, the Hedjaz, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Serb-Croat-Slovene State, Siam, Czechoslovakia, and Uruguay) and Poland
- Treaty of St. Germain, September 10, 1919, among "Principal Allied Powers" (United States [signed, but failed to ratify], British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan), and "Associated Powers" (Belgium, China, Cuba, Ecuador, Greece, Nicaragua, Panama, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Serb-Croat-Slovene State, Siam, and Czechoslovakia) and Austria, dissolving the Austro-Hungarian Empire
- Treaty of Neuilly, November 27, 1919, among the "Principal Allied Powers" (United States [signed, but failed to ratify], British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan) and the "Associated Powers" (Belgium, China, Cuba, Greece, the Hedjaz, Poland, Portugal, Romania, the Serb-Croat-Slovene State, Siam, and Czechoslovakia) and Bulgaria, by which Bulgaria ceded territory to Serbia (the Serb-Croat-Slovene State) and Greece
- Treaty of Trianon, June 4, 1920, among The "Principal Allied Powers" (United States [signed, but failed to ratify], British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan) and the "Associated Powers" (Belgium, China, Cuba, Greece, Nicaragua, Panama, Poland, Portugal, Romania, the Serb-Croat-Slovene State, Siam, and Czechoslovakia) and Hungary, reducing the area of Hungary
- Treaty of Sèvres, August 10, 1920, among the "Principal Allied Powers" (United States [signed, but failed to ratify], British Empire [UK], France, Italy, and Japan) and the "Associated Powers" (Armenia, Belgium, Greece, the Hedjaz, Poland, Portugal, Romania, the Serb-Croat-Slovene State, and Czechoslovakia) and Turkey (Ottoman Empire), by which the Ottoman Empire was formally dissolved
- United States and Austria Treaty of Peace, August 24, 1921
- United States and Germany Treaty of Peace, August 25, 1921
- United States and Hungary Treaty of Peace, August 29, 1921

This entry provides a general introduction to World War I. World War I: Western Front (1914–18) treats the course of the war on Europe's Western Front and the war's resolution with the Treaty of Versailles and associated treaties. The following entries treat the course of the war on each of its fronts: World War I: Africa and Asia (1914–1918); World War I: At Sea (1914–1918); World War I: Balkans (1914–1918); World War I: Eastern Front (1914–1918); World War I: Italian Front (1915–1918); World War I: Mesopotamia (1914–1918); World War I: Turkish Fronts (1914–1918).

BACKGROUND AND CAUSES OF WORLD WAR I

Two hostile alliances dominated Europe at the beginning of the 20th century: the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy; and the Triple Entente of France, Russia, and Great Britain. These broad alliances were supplemented by lesser agreements, which essentially bound the major signatories to render military aid to a number of small nations. The conditions were thus ripe for the immediate escalation of relatively minor conflicts into a conflagration that would engulf all of Europe.

The grand alliances of the early 20th century had their origin in the statesmanship of Otto von Bismarck (1815–98), the Prussian chancellor who reshaped Europe in 1871 by creating a unified Germany following Prussia's victory against France in the Franco-Prussian War. As a result of the war, Germany acquired the coal-rich Alsace-Lorraine region, creating, Bismarck understood, lasting enmity between France and Germany. Accordingly, Bismarck moved to isolate France from potential allies by tying both Russia and Austria-Hungary to Germany. In 1873, he negotiated the Three Emperors' League, binding the three powers to assist one another in time of war. In 1878, Russia withdrew, and Germany and Austria-Hungary signed the Dual Alliance in 1879. The agreement bound the signatories to aid one another if either were attacked by Russia. In 1881, Bismarck negotiated the Triple Alliance. In 1883, Austria-Hungary and Romania concluded an alliance, to which Germany agreed to adhere. Then, in 1887, Bismarck negotiated a secret "Reinsurance Treaty" between Germany and Russia, by which the two nations agreed to remain neutral if either became involved in a war with a third power—unless Germany attacked France, or Russia attacked Austria-Hungary. With this secret treaty, Bismarck hoped to keep Germany from facing a two-front war against France and Russia, but the alliance lapsed in 1890.

When Russia left the German sphere, it formed an alliance with France, culminating in the Franco-Russian Military Convention of 1894, intended specifically to counter the Triple Alliance. Next, France concluded a secret agreement with Italy, which—despite its obligations under the Triple Alliance—agreed to remain neutral if Germany attacked France or if France, to protect its

"national honor," attacked Germany. By the beginning of the 20th century, Britain also altered its policy of "splendid isolation" in 1902 by concluding with Japan a military alliance intended to check German colonial advances in the Pacific and Asia. Two years later, Britain signed the Entente Cordiale with France, which opened the way for close cooperation between the two nations in diplomatic and military matters. In 1907, the Anglo-Russian Entente was signed; it, with the Entente Cordiale, formed the Triple Entente among Britain, France, and Russia.

The Triple Entente was not an outright military alliance, but in 1912 Britain and France concluded the Anglo-French Naval Convention, whereby Britain pledged to protect the French coast from German naval attack, and France promised to defend the Suez Canal. The signatories also agreed to consult if either were attacked on land.

The Franco-Prussian War had created a permanent enmity between Germany and France, yet Western Europe was deceptively peaceful until the outbreak of war in 1914. In the Balkans, however, war was chronic. In 1911–12, Italy and Turkey went to war over certain of Turkey's African possessions. The result was that Turkey lost Libya, Rhodes, and the Dodecanese Islands to Italy. No sooner had Turkey concluded peace with Italy than it found itself at war with Greece, Serbia, and Bulgaria, which, joined later by Montenegro, fought Turkey over possession of territories on the Balkan Peninsula. The war was ended by intervention from the "great powers" of Western Europe, who essentially forced Turkey to relinquish Crete and all of its European possessions (*see* BALKAN WAR, FIRST.) A Second BALKAN WAR erupted in 1913 when the "Young Turks" (Turkish army officers who aimed to overthrow the ancient and corrupt rule of the sultans) denounced the peace after Bulgaria attacked its recent allies in an effort to acquire more of Macedonia, which had been ceded by Turkey as a result of the first war. The Balkan allies quickly beat back Bulgarian forces in a series of bloody battles between May and July 1913. During July and August Romania declared war on Bulgaria, invaded that country, and took its capital, Sofia. For their part, the Turks also prevailed against the Bulgars, reoccupying Adrianople, which had been lost in the first war. Bulgaria surrendered on August 10, 1913.

The Balkan Wars not only failed to resolve the tensions that had been mounting in this part of Europe but also fanned the flames of nationalism among the small countries that had been torn between Turkey and Austria-Hungary for so long. Individual countries sought independence, yet they also sought a "pan-Slavic" identity, a solidarity with one another and with Russia, which readily presented itself as the spiritual, cultural, political, and military defender of all Slavic peoples.

Thus the Balkans emerged as the cauldron in which war, fueled by Europe's great opposing alliances, would brew.

WAR RESOURCES AND WAR PLANS

By the time war broke out in 1914, the major belligerents had invested years in planning for the conflict. In 1914, the French army numbered 4.5 million men, most of them conscripts, and Germany mustered even more, 5.7 million, also mostly draftees. At sea, France had 14 modern dreadnought battleships and 15 of the earlier predreadnought types. In addition, the French navy had 76 submarines and a variety of other surface vessels. The German navy had 13 dreadnoughts and 30 older battleships, as well as 30 submarines, and many other surface craft. Unlike France and Germany, England had no program of compulsory military service. In 1914, its British Expeditionary Force (BEF) was a superbly trained body of professional volunteer soldiers, but it numbered only 160,000. Held in reserve was a poorly trained and poorly equipped Territorial Army, which was intended for use only in defense of the home territory. The Royal Navy was more formidable. England had 24 modern dreadnought-type battleships, and it also had 38 predreadnoughts. In addition to 76 submarines, the Royal Navy fleet included a mighty array of other surface vessels.

The Allies took much comfort in the muster rolls of the Russian army, which in 1914 showed 5.3 million men. With a population of 77 million, compared to 41 million for Germany, Russia had a vast pool of manpower from which to conscript an even bigger force. The problem was that the Russian army, though vast, was poorly trained, led, and equipped. Nor was the nation's navy impressive.

Germany could take little comfort in the Austro-Hungarian army of 1914. True, it was large—2.3 million men—but it was poorly organized and often poorly led, and many of its troops felt far more allegiance to their Slavic brothers than to the Dual Monarchy. The Austro-Hungarian navy was comparatively small.

Strength of numbers was not the only measure of military power in 1914. The technology of war had greatly advanced since the Franco-Prussian War. In addition to the mighty dreadnought battleships (huge, heavily armored platforms for high-powered naval artillery), technological innovations included the machine gun, more powerful and accurate artillery, and advanced rail networks. The machine gun greatly multiplied the effectiveness of small parties of defenders. New artillery, combined with improved high-explosive shells, made combat deadlier than ever. Railroads would be used extensively for the rapid transport of huge numbers of troops. Later in the war, the development of the tank and the increasingly effective use of the airplane would also make their mark on the course of battle.

Beginning in the late 19th century, the belligerents had been drawing up grand strategies for using their large armies and the new weapons of war. After the debacle of the Franco-Prussian War, French military planners concentrated on war strategies intended to recover the lost

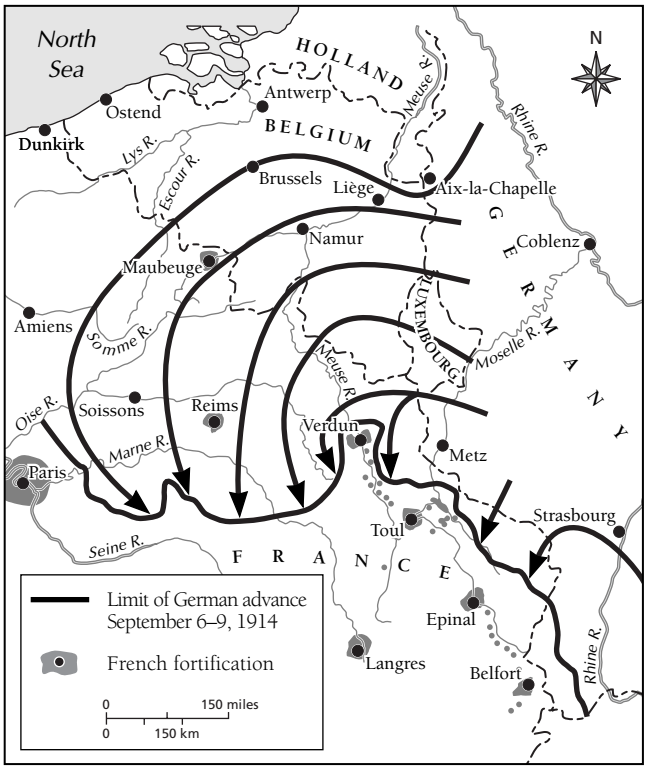
territories of Alsace-Lorraine. Plan XVII, the French master plan in effect in 1914, was almost entirely offensive in nature and called for an immediate and overwhelming concentration of force against the Alsace and Lorraine region. Little thought was given to fighting a defensive war, which, in fact, the war on the western front proved to be. Plan XVII called for four major forces to advance into Alsace-Lorraine on either side of the Metz-Thionville fortresses, which had been occupied by the Germans since 1871. Originally, the plan foolishly ignored the possibility of a German advance through neutral Belgium, but a last-minute alteration deployed troops to check such an advance. French commanders believed that the French soldier was animated by an overpowering patriotism amounting to an irresistible life force, *élan vital*. A charge into German territory, French generals believed, would send the invaders running back to their homeland.

Not only was the blind faith in *élan vital* tragic, but also Plan XVII had been formulated on the basis of a gross underestimation of German troop strength and a confidence that the Germans would mobilize only first-line troops and not reserves.

Like the French, the Germans had a master war plan. It had been formulated at the beginning of the 20th century by Count Alfred von Schlieffen (1833–1913), the chief of the General Staff. Like the French Plan XVII, the Schlieffen Plan relied first and foremost on taking the offensive, but in contrast to the French plan, it also included a strong defensive component. Also, whereas Plan XVII had been painted in broad strokes, the Schlieffen Plan was meticulously detailed and geared to a precise timetable.

Schlieffen understood that Germany would have to fight on two fronts, against the French to the west and the Russians to the east. He reasoned that the French, with a more modern and better-led army, were the greater of the two threats, because they could mobilize quickly. In contrast, the Russians, though numerous, were poorly equipped and poorly led. It would take them at least six weeks to mobilize effectively. Therefore, Schlieffen developed an offensive plan against France and a defensive plan against Russia. The objective was to invade France with overwhelming force and at lightning speed, while simultaneously holding off a Russian invasion of eastern Prussia. France was to be neutralized within a matter of weeks, after which forces could be transferred from the western front to the eastern in order to transform the defensive war against Russia into an invasion.

Whereas the French plan called for a direct frontal assault on Alsace and Lorraine, Schlieffen called for a "great wheel," a wide turning movement across Flanders Plain, northeast of French territory, then into France from the north. That is, five principal German armies would cut a huge swath through France and Belgium, from Alsace-Lorraine all the way west to the English Channel in order to outflank the French forces, hitting them where they



Schlieffen Plan, Germany's master plan for quick victory in World War I

were most vulnerable, mainly from the rear. Best of all, the "great wheel" would immediately carry the war into France, where the fighting would wear down French infrastructure and menace French civilians. Should tactical retreats be necessary, German troops could retreat farther into French territory rather than fall back into Germany. Brilliant as the Schlieffen Plan was, it called for executing extremely complex movements with machinelike precision over great distances and in adherence to a strict timetable. It would take little to derail the plan.

Both Austria-Hungary and Russia also had their military plans. Austria-Hungary's Plan B shortsightedly assumed that the war would be confined to Serbia, calling for three Austrian armies to invade Serbia and another three to watch the border with Russia. When the war rapidly expanded beyond Serbia, Plan R was activated, calling for more of Austria-Hungary's forces to be concentrated against Russia, in the south, in coordination with German action in the north. Yet it never really got under way, because the demands of the Schlieffen Plan prevented the Germans from committing sufficient forces against Russia at the outset of the war. Austria-Hungary was doomed to spend most of the war desperately and ineffectively thrashing against Italy and Russia, with great loss of life on all sides.

For their part, the Russians adhered to a variety of plans. Plan G assumed that Germany would commit most of its troops against Russia, not France—precisely the

opposite of what Germany actually did. Plan G called for little more than exploiting the vastness of Russia, a resource that had defeated no less a conqueror than Napoleon I (1769–1821) in 1812. The Germans would be allowed to invade until the Russian armies could mass sufficient combat power to launch a massive counteroffensive and drive the invaders out.

Russia's French allies were aghast at the wholly defensive tenor of Plan G and persuaded the Russians to develop Plan A, which assumed that the Germans would throw the bulk of their forces against France rather than Russia. In this case, the Russians were to advance simultaneously into East Prussia and Galicia (southeast Poland and the western Ukraine). From here, the Russians would advance into Silesia (southwestern Poland and northern Czechoslovakia), ultimately concentrating in southern Poland. What neither French nor Russian planners appreciated, however, is that the massive but poorly equipped and miserably led Russian army would be unable to shift rapidly from Plan G to Plan A.

THE TRIGGER

From the perspective of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Serbia was a troublesome country. Its independence stood as a provocative example to other Balkan territories, which were provinces of the Dual Monarchy. Worse, certain forces within Serbia, most notably the Black Hand, a secret society consisting mostly of Serbian army officers, actively worked to foment rebellion among such Balkan states as Bosnia-Herzegovina. Clearly, Serbia wanted Bosnia-Herzegovina to be part of a grand Slavic state, but Bosnia-Herzegovina was now a province of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The heir apparent to the Hapsburg throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand (1863–1914), decided that an official visit to the provincial capital, Sarajevo, would assert Austria-Hungary's dominance over Bosnia-Herzegovina and take Serbia down a peg. To ensure that the message of dominance came across, the archduke's visit in 1914 was scheduled for June 28, St. Vitus's Day, a great Serbian national holiday known as Vidovan.

The visit to Sarajevo was well publicized, and even the route of the archduke's motorcade was made public. The Black Hand recruited a small cadre of assassins, all fanatical students, and deployed them along the route. Only one of these assassins, Gavrilo Princip (1894–1918), succeeded in his mission, firing at Franz Ferdinand from almost pointblank range. Both the archduke and his wife, Archduchess Sophie (d. 1914), were killed almost instantly.

There was no evidence of official Serbian complicity in the assassination; nevertheless, Count Leopold von Berchtold (1863–1942), Austria-Hungary's foreign minister, seized on the incident as an excuse for punishing Serbia and thereby quashing Bosnian nationalism and the pan-Slavic movement that threatened to erode the Dual Monarchy. Berchtold, in fact, wanted to provoke a local war against Serbia, but in the Europe that Bismarck had engineered, a local war was all but impossible. Kaiser Wilhelm II (1859–1941) assured the Austro-Hungarian ambassador, Theobold von Bethmann-Hollweg (1856–1921), on July 5, 1914, that Germany would back Austria-Hungary even if it meant war with Russia. Armed with this assurance, Austria-Hungary delivered a set of ultimata to Serbia, which included a demand that Austrian officials be given full authority to operate within Serbia to root out sources of anti-Austrian agitation and propaganda. After securing an assurance of Russia's military aid, Serbian officials actually acceded to almost all of Austria-Hungary's demands, stopping short of entirely relinquishing its sovereignty—Serbia would not grant authority for Austrian officials to operate in Serbia. The rejection of this single item was deemed a cause for war. On July 29, 1914, Austrian river gunboats began to shell Belgrade, capital of Serbia. World War I had begun.

THE NATIONS MOBILIZE

Austria-Hungary and Serbia had officially mobilized on July 28. Russia had begun a partial mobilization on that day and a general mobilization on the 30th. Germany issued an ultimatum to Russia, demanding that it cease general mobilization. To France, Germany issued another ultimatum, threatening it with war if it began to mobilize at all. Russia rejected the German ultimatum; its mobilization would continue. France stated nothing more than that it would consult its "own interests." Germany took this as a negative reply as well. On August 1, 1914, Germany ordered general mobilization and began execution of the Schlieffen Plan. On August 2, Germany demanded free passage through Belgium. By the time King Albert (1875–1934) of that nation refused the demand, German divisions were already marching through Flanders. The Great War was now under way on the western front. On August 3, the British government announced its pledge to defend Belgium. That evening, Germany declared war on France. On the 4th, having already invaded it, Germany declared war on Belgium, and Britain in turn declared against Germany.

On August 5, Austria-Hungary responded to the Russian mobilization along its border by declaring war against Russia. Serbia declared against Germany on August 6. Montenegro, another of the Balkan countries, declared against Austria-Hungary on August 7 and against Germany on August 12. France and Great Britain declared war against Austria-Hungary on August 10 and on August 12, respectively. Japan joined in against Germany on August 23, and Austria-Hungary responded with a declaration against Japan on August 25, then against Belgium on August 28. On February 26, 1914, Romania had renewed with the Central Powers a secret anti-Russian alliance it had originally concluded with Germany in 1883. For the present, however, it chose to remain neutral, as did Italy.

World War I: Africa and Asia (1914–1918)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain, France, Germany, and Japan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S)(THESE FRONTS ONLY): Africa: Togoland, Cameroons, German Southwest Africa, German East Africa; Asia: Tsingtao (China), Marianas, Caroline Islands, Marshall Islands, Western Samoa, Neu-Pommern (present-day New Britain), portion of New Guinea
DECLARATION: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
OUTCOME: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914); numbers on the colonial fronts were small
CASUALTIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
TREATIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)

This entry focuses on the colonial fronts of World War I. *See* WORLD WAR I: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND (1871–1914) for the causes and outbreak of the war and major statistics relating to the war. WORLD WAR I: WESTERN FRONT (1914–1918) includes the war's resolution with the Treaty of Versailles and associated treaties. Also see the following entries, which treat the course of the war on other fronts: WORLD WAR I: AT SEA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: THE BALKANS (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: EASTERN FRONT (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: ITALIAN FRONT (1915–1918); WORLD WAR I: MESOPOTAMIA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: TURKISH FRONTS (1914–1918).

A total of 36 nations fought in World War I, and combat extended to the colonial possessions of the principal powers—although on a small scale compared with the titanic struggle in Europe. The great powers fought on the peripheral fronts hoping to shorten the war and gain territory. In fact, the peripheral action probably served only to prolong the war, by drawing troops and materiel away from the major theaters.

TOGOLAND

As formidable as Germany's European-based army was, its ability to defend most of its colonial possessions was limited. The British planned to capture all of the German colonies throughout the world, ostensibly with the objectives of preventing German warships from gaining access to ports and of protecting Allied colonies from German aggression, but also of reaping the rewards of imperial expansion at the expense of Germany. In Africa, German colonies included Togoland, Cameroons, and German Southwest Africa on the continent's west coast, and German East Africa on the east.

On August 7, three days after England declared war, four companies of British-led native troops from the Gold Coast (Ghana) and a unit of French-led native troops from Dahomey (Benin) invaded Togoland on their own initiative. After 20 days of sporadic combat, German colonial officials surrendered the colony. The immediate dividend of this victory was the capture of wireless (radio) stations that regulated the operation of German surface vessels raiding in African waters.

CAMEROONS

A combination of French, British, and Belgian colonial troops invaded Cameroons on August 20, 1914, from the south, the east, and the northwest. By sea, they also attacked in the west. German resistance was more formidable than it had been in Togoland. The German Cameroonian Army was a small but capable force of 12 companies. It withdrew to a stronghold at Mora and held out there against repeated attacks through February 18, 1916. With its defeat, Cameroons fell to the Allies.

SOUTH AFRICA

British regulars were withdrawn from South Africa for western front duty on August 10, 1914. To take their place, the white civilian residents of South Africa formed four irregular units and invaded German South West Africa (Namibia), beginning in September 1914. The British irregulars enjoyed a superiority of numbers that enabled them to gain control of all major ports; however, invasion of the interior was delayed by an uprising of pro-German South Africans, who had fought against the British during the Second (Great) BOER WAR (1899–1902). It was not until January 1915, by which time the ranks of the British irregulars had grown to 50,000, that an offensive was launched to put down the rebellion. It was quelled by February—except in Cameroons, where many Germans continued to fight a guerrilla war of sporadic skirmishes. The Germans in South Africa surrendered on July 9, 1915.

GERMANY'S PACIFIC AND CHINESE HOLDINGS

By the beginning of the 20th century, Germany had made a few colonial inroads into China and among the Pacific islands. These holdings included Qingdao (Tsingtao), a harbor town in the Chinese province of Guizhou (Kweichow); the Marianas, the Caroline Islands, and the Marshall Islands in the North Pacific; and Western Samoa, Neu-Pommern (New Britain), and a portion of New Guinea in the South Pacific. Japan entered the war at the end of August 1914, honoring an alliance with Britain. Beginning in September, it launched an attack on Qingdao, eventually with the support of Allied warships. The port fell on November 7. Simultaneously with the attack on

Qingdao, Japanese forces invaded the Marianas, the Caroline Islands, and the Marshalls, all of which fell by October.

The German colony of Western Samoa yielded to a force of New Zealanders, supported by Australian, British, and French warships, at the end of August 1914 without having offered any resistance. In September 1914, Australian troops invaded Neu-Pommern and took over all of German New Guinea in a matter of weeks.

GERMAN EAST AFRICA

Territory consisting of present-day Rwanda, Burundi, and continental Tanzania constituted German East Africa. In contrast to Germany's other colonial holdings, it was defended not only ably but also with genius and determination, by Paul von Lettow-Vorbeck (1870–1964). This officer possessed great skill in guerrilla warfare and commanded a force of *askaris,* superb European-trained native African troops.

Lieutenant Colonel Lettow-Vorbeck was dispatched to German East Africa early in 1914. With limited supplies and a small army equipped with outmoded weapons, Lettow-Vorbeck nevertheless resolved to strike preemptively. As soon as war was declared in Europe, he staged a series of raids against the British railway in Kenya. Next, he attempted to capture Mombasa. Although he was driven back by September 1914, he successfully defended against a British amphibious attack on the port town of Tanga in northeastern Tanzania (then called Tanganyika) during November 2–3, 1914. Lettow-Vorbeck inflicted heavy losses on the British and also captured a large cache of badly needed arms and ammunition. He forced the British, themselves poorly supplied, into a defensive posture, which tied up a disproportionate number of men. Even after the Royal Navy sank in the Rufiji-River Delta the German cruiser *Königsberg*—the vessel on which Lettow-Vorbeck depended heavily for support—the German commander refused to give up. He put his men to work salvaging most of the stricken vessel's guns and even commandeered the *Königsberg*'s crew as land troops.

To deal with Lettow-Vorbeck, the British put a large force of British and colonial troops under the command of South African general Jan Christian Smuts (1870–1950). The operations of this invasion army were coordinated with those of a Belgian invasion from the west and with those of an independent British invasion from Nyasaland in the south. Hopelessly outnumbered, Lettow-Vorbeck met this formidable threat with cool patience, employing delaying tactics to keep the invaders exposed to the merciless jungle. He made an ally of a hostile climate and terrain; in the end, tropical diseases caused far more Allied casualties than German bullets. Lettow-Vorbeck's *askaris* were accustomed to the climate and therefore less vulnerable to regional disease.

Their losses notwithstanding, the British continued to pour men and resources into the invasion. Lettow-Vorbeck slowly yielded to the advance, ensuring that the invaders paid dearly for every mile they claimed. At frequent intervals, he turned on his pursuers with surprise counterattacks carried out with lightning speed. At Mahiwa, during October 15–18, 1917, although outnumbered four to one, he inflicted 1,500 casualties on the British, sustaining no more than 100 himself. Nevertheless, it was clear to Lettow-Vorbeck that the superior numbers of the British would ultimately drive him out of German East Africa. He decided not to make a useless stand in defense of a lost cause but instead invaded the Portuguese colony of Mozambique in December 1917. By looting Portuguese garrisons, Lettow-Vorbeck was able to supply his 4,000-man army sufficiently to enable him to raid as far south as Quelimane on the coast during July 1–3, 1918. Here, he turned back north and reentered German East Africa during September and October. By this time the war was all but over in Europe, but Lettow-Vorbeck, out of communication and isolated, had no knowledge of the fate of his countrymen on the western front. He launched an invasion of British-held Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) and took the principal city of Kasama (in modern Zambia) on November 13, 1918—fully two days after the Armistice had officially ended the war.

After taking Kasama, Lettow-Vorbeck began to hear and heed rumors of the German surrender in Europe. He opened negotiations with the British, and on November 23, 1918, Lettow-Vorbeck surrendered his undefeated army at Abercorn (Mbala, Zambia). His was the last German force to lay down its arms in World War I. On the day of his surrender, Lettow-Vorbeck's entire army consisted of 155 Europeans, 1,168 African *askari* troops, and 3,000 other Africans.

Further reading: Justin J. Corfield, *Bibliography of the First World War in the Far East and Southeast Asia* (Lewiston, N.Y.: Edwin Mellen, 2003); Hermann J. Hiery, *The Neglected War: The German South Pacific and the Influence of World War I* (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1995); Melvin E. Page, ed., *Africa and the First World War* (New York: St. Martin's, 1988); Helmuth Stoecker, ed., *German Imperialism in Africa: From the Beginnings until the Second World War* (Leiden, Neth.: Brill Academic, 1987).

World War I: At Sea (1914–1918)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: The navies of Great Britain and the United States vs. the German navy were the principal combatants at sea. *See* World War I: Western Front (1914–18) for a complete list of belligerents.
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North Atlantic, North Sea, Indian Ocean, Pacific Ocean (off east Asia); Coronel and Falklands Islands, off the South American coast
DECLARATION: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
OUTCOME: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: For personnel, *see* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914); approximate naval strength of the belligerents (1914):
Dreadnoughts: Britain, 20; Germany, 13
Battle cruisers: Britain, 8; Germany, 5
Predreadnoughts: Britain, 40; Germany, 22
Cruisers: Britain, 102; Germany, 41
Destroyers: Britain, 301; Germany, 144
Submarines: Britain, 78; Germany, 30
CASUALTIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
TREATIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)

This entry focuses on the naval action of World War I. *See* WORLD WAR I: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND (1871–1914) for the causes and outbreak of the war, as well as for major statistics. WORLD WAR I: WESTERN FRONT (1914–1918) includes the war's resolution with the Treaty of Versailles and associated treaties. Also see the following entries, which treat the course of the war on other fronts: WORLD WAR I: AFRICA AND ASIA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: BALKANS (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: EASTERN FRONT (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: ITALIAN FRONT (1915–1918); WORLD WAR I: MESOPOTAMIA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: TURKISH FRONTS (1914–1918).

World War I was first and foremost a conflict fought on land, but it did occasion the largest sea battle in history (Jutland), and the oceans were bitterly contested avenues of supply for the belligerents.

BRITISH NAVAL OBJECTIVES

From the beginning of the war, the chief British naval objective was not offensive but the defense of key trade routes. Soon, however, the British instituted a naval blockade of Germany and the other Central Powers, a blockade that increased in strength during the course of the war and proved highly effective.

GERMAN NAVAL OBJECTIVES

Some historians have argued that Kaiser Wilhelm II's (1859–1941) desire to build a German navy rivaling that of Great Britain was a prime cause of World War I. Yet when the war began, Germany deployed its surface vessels in ways intended to avoid a confrontation with the British. Initially, surface craft were used to lay mines in key enemy harbors, and German U-boats (submarines) preyed on Allied merchant ships as well as Royal Navy vessels—the latter with the purpose of reducing Britain's numerical superiority.

THE BATTLE OF HELGOLAND BIGHT

Contrary to its prevailing policy of avoiding offensive action, on August 28, 1914, British light cruisers ventured into German home waters to provoke a fight. German cruisers took the bait and headed for the British intruders, whereupon a battle cruiser squadron under Admiral Sir David Beatty (1871–1936) steamed over the horizon and opened up on the Germans. Four German light cruisers were sunk, and 1,000 German sailors were killed or captured. The British suffered substantial damage to a single ship and lost 35 sailors.

THE BEGINNING OF U-BOAT OPERATIONS

The outcome of the Battle of Helgoland Bight discouraged Germany from sending its outnumbered surface fleet beyond its home waters; however, German U-boat operations were commenced in earnest, and a program of submarine construction was rushed ahead.

On September 22, *U-9,* operating off the Dutch coast, sank three British cruisers, the *Aboukir, Hogue,* and *Cressy,* in the space of one hour. It was a staggering loss for the British, and it was followed on October 7 by a U-boat attack on the anchorage of Loch Ewe, off the west coast of Scotland. Several British craft were damaged in their home waters. On October 15, the British cruiser *Hawke* was torpedoed and sunk. This was followed by a U-boat raid on Scapa Flow, anchorage of the British Grand Fleet, at the northern tip of Scotland. Although no British vessels were lost in the raid, the Grand Fleet had to be transferred to an alternate station while submarine nets were installed at Scapa Flow.

THE DIPLOMATIC COST OF SUBMARINE WARFARE

Prewar international conventions, to which Germany was party, as well as informal naval usage dictated that U-boats surface, give warning, and allow passengers and crew to abandon ship before attacking a merchant vessel. In some cases German U-boat commanders observed this convention; however, early in the war, Germany declared Allied home waters a war zone and warned that all vessels in these waters were subject to attack without warning. Among the neutral nations—especially the United States—the policy of "unrestricted submarine warfare" increasingly turned public opinion against Germany. Although the U-boat was highly effective against Allied shipping (less so after the convoy system was adopted in 1917–18), it courted diplomatic disaster and was instrumental in bringing the United States into the war against Germany.

THE BATTLE OF DOGGER BANK

At the end of 1914, German admiral Franz von Hipper (1863–1932) resolved to venture out of home waters with the battle cruisers of the German High Seas Fleet for a lightning run across the North Sea to raid the British

coast. Hipper bombarded Scarborough and Hartlepool, inflicting many civilian casualties before he returned to home port.

The success of the raid encouraged Hipper to make another sortie in January 1915, but his fleet was intercepted on January 24 at Dogger Bank, midway between England and Germany. Royal Navy intelligence had intercepted German radio signals, and Admiral Beatty was prepared with five battle cruisers to meet Hipper's three. (Both squadrons were accompanied by various lighter vessels.) Outnumbered, Hipper attempted to flee, but Beatty overtook him, sinking the cruiser *Blücher* and damaging the two other cruisers, including the admiral's flagship, *Seydlitz*. After Beatty's own flagship, *Lion,* was hit, a breakdown in ship-to-ship communication brought a premature end to the attack, which permitted Hipper to get away. This was a disappointment for the Royal Navy, but Dogger Bank did result in an order from the Kaiser himself instructing naval commanders to avoid all further risk of losing major surface ships.

OPERATIONS OF THE GERMAN EAST ASIATIC SQUADRON

The German East Asiatic Squadron, commanded by Admiral Graf Maximilian von Spee (1861–1914), was assigned to defend Germany's Pacific colonial holdings. The squadron was equipped with modern, fast cruisers, including the heavy cruisers *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau,* and the light cruisers *Nürnberg, Emden,* and *Leipzig*. During the first four months of the war, from August through November 1914, the squadron ravaged merchant shipping on the British trade routes as well as troopships on their way to Europe or the Middle East from India, New Zealand, and Australia.

INDIAN OCEAN RAIDS

During August–November 1914, the *Emden,* under Captain Karl von Müller (1854–1940), was detached from the East Asiatic Squadron and sent to the Indian Ocean, where it sank several merchant vessels in the Bay of Bengal, bombarded Madras, India (September 22), and disrupted traffic in the approaches to Ceylon (Sri Lanka). On November 9, the Australian cruiser *Sydney* attacked *Emden,* which was scuttled off the Cocos Islands to avoid capture. By this time, *Emden* had sunk 15 Allied ships.

BATTLE OF CORONEL

Simultaneously with the *Emden*'s operations in the Indian Ocean, the rest of the East Asiatic Squadron steamed toward the Chilean coast. Spee was unaware that Admiral Sir Christopher Cradock (1862–1914), commanding two obsolescent armored cruisers, *Monmouth* and *Good Hope,* and one light cruiser, *Glasgow,* in addition to *Otranto,* an armed merchant ship, had been assigned to hunt down the East Asiatic Squadron.

The two squadrons clashed at Coronel, off the southern coast of Chile, on November 1, 1914. Although the British and German forces were evenly matched, the older British vessels were outgunned by the much newer German ships, and Spee was able to fire from beyond the range of the British guns. The two British heavy cruisers sank with all hands, including Admiral Cradock; only *Glasgow* and *Otranto* escaped.

BATTLE OF THE FALKLANDS

Encouraged, Spee sailed for Port Stanley, in the Falkland Islands, to raid the British wireless facilities and coaling stations there. Spee was unaware that a British squadron, including the battle cruisers *Invincible* and *Inflexible* and six other cruisers, all under the command of Vice Admiral F. D. Sturdee (1859–1925), was taking on coal there.

The German admiral attacked on December 8, 1914, and Sturdee responded vigorously. *Scharnhorst,* with Spee on board, was sunk first, followed by *Gneisenau, Nürnberg,* and *Leipzig*. This time it was the British ships that enjoyed the advantage of bigger guns and could therefore fire from beyond the range of the Germans. The British sailors suffered a mere 25 casualties—none fatal—whereas 1,800 German sailors went down with their ships.

Of Spee's squadron, only the light cruiser *Dresden* escaped. Three months after the Falklands battle, it was intercepted off the Juan Fernández Islands on March 14, 1915. Its captain gave the order to abandon ship and scuttled her to prevent capture. The Battle of the Falklands ended commerce raiding by German surface vessels.

WAR ZONE PROCLAIMED

Although the German surface fleet had suffered serious blows, the submarine forces continued to prey upon high seas commerce. On October 20, 1914, the British merchant steamship *Glitra* was torpedoed, and numerous other sinkings followed. On February 4, 1915, came the German proclamation of a war zone in the waters around the British Isles. In this area, merchant ships, including those of neutral nations, such as the United States, were subject to attack without warning. U-boats were able to sink seven out of 11 Allied vessels attacked in the first week of the 1915 "war zone" campaign. It was an impressive record, but Germany had a limited number of U-boats. In March 1915, approximately 6,000 Allied sailings were recorded. Of this number, 21 ships were sunk. Far more effective against merchant shipping was the ongoing British blockade of Germany. During 1915, more than 3,000 vessels were intercepted and inspected, and outbound trade from Germany was entirely halted.

The Allies also rushed to develop antisubmarine warfare techniques, including antisubmarine nets to block harbors, and so called Q-ships, heavily armed vessels disguised as merchant steamers.

THE SINKING OF THE *LUSITANIA*

On May 7, 1915, the British liner *Lusitania,* bound from New York to Liverpool, was torpedoed and sunk. Of almost 2,000 civilian passengers, 1,198 died, including 128 U.S. citizens. The incident irreparably damaged U.S.-German relations. On August 17, another British passenger ship, *Arabic,* was sunk, with more loss of American lives. On September 18, *Hesperia* was torpedoed and sunk. But with the threat of U.S. entry into the war, Germany agreed to suspend U-boat activity in the English Channel and west of the British Isles.

THE BATTLE OF JUTLAND

In January 1916, Vice-Admiral Reinhard Scheer (1863–1928) was put in command of Germany's High Seas Fleet and decided to attempt a new breakout of the surface vessels. He planned to provoke battle on the open sea between the entire German High Seas Fleet and some smaller portion of the British fleet. The German navy was greatly outnumbered, but if he could engage only a portion of the British fleet, Scheer would enjoy a temporary superiority of numbers. He might score a great victory and thereby significantly reduce the strength of the British navy. This, in turn, would relieve some of the pressure of the British blockade.

Scheer's chosen target was Beatty's battle cruiser squadron at Rosyth, halfway up Britain's eastern coast. Scheer proposed to attack and destroy the squadron before reinforcements from the Grand Fleet's main base at Scapa Flow, off the northern tip of Scotland, could arrive. As bait to lure Beatty, Scheer ordered five battle cruisers, the First Scouting Group, together with four light cruisers, the Second Scouting Group, to sail north under the command of Vice Admiral Franz von Hipper from Wilhelmshaven, Germany, to a point off the southwestern coast of Norway. Scheer, commanding the battle squadrons of the main High Seas Fleet, was to follow 50 miles behind and trap Beatty's ships between the High Seas Fleet and the First and Second Scouting Groups. Unfortunately for the Germans, British naval intelligence intercepted radio traffic relating to the operation, and on May 30, 1916, the entire British Grand Fleet set off for Norway's southwestern coast.

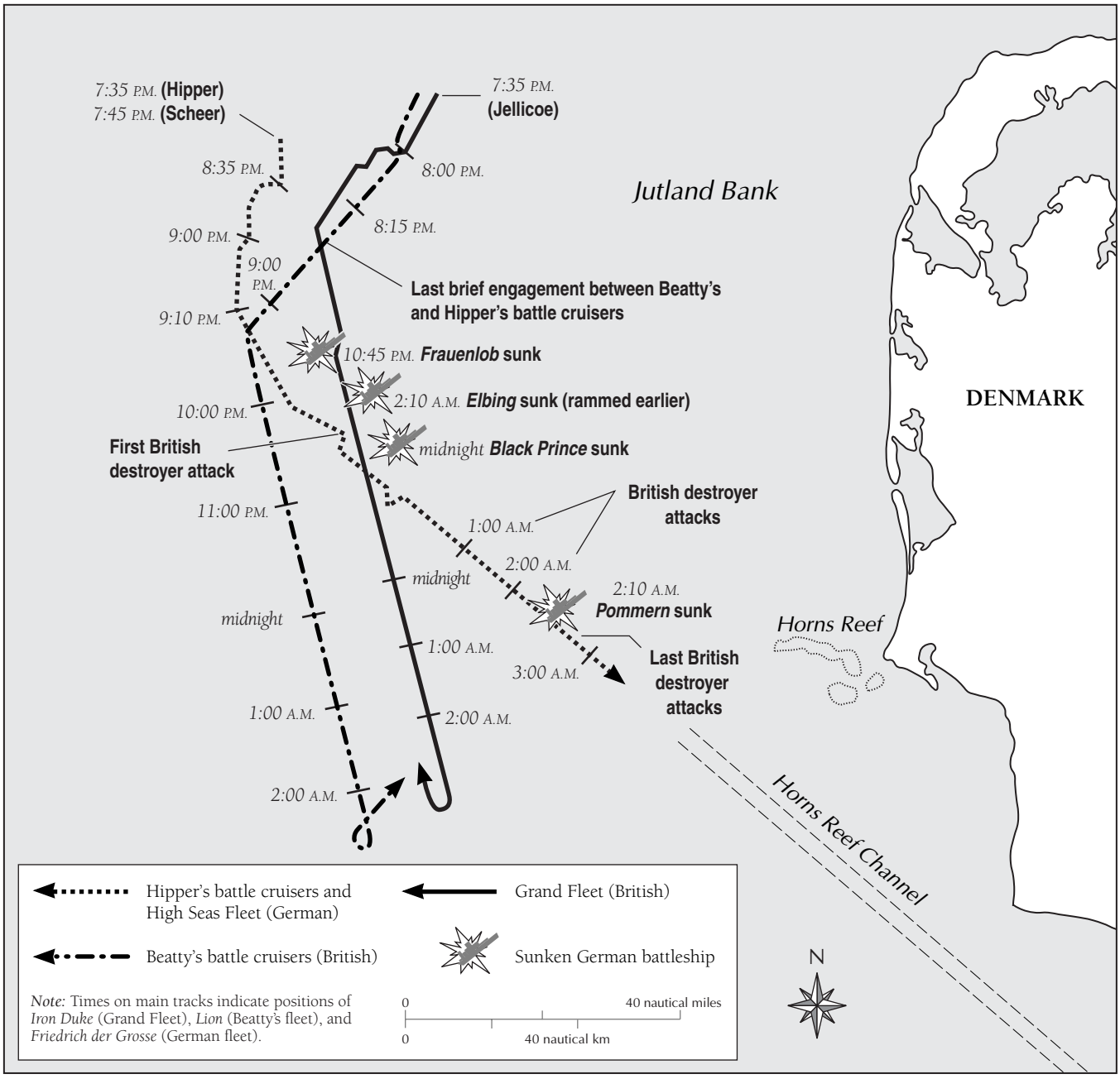
The forces involved were large, the greatest number of ships ever directly involved in a single battle. Admiral Scheer led 99 vessels into battle, including 16 dreadnoughts and six predreadnought battleships, five battle cruisers, 11 light cruisers, and 61 destroyers. British admirals Sir John Jellicoe (1859–1935) and Beatty commanded 151 ships, although many were of older design than the German vessels. Their command included 28 dreadnoughts, nine battle cruisers, eight armored cruisers, 26 light cruisers, five destroyer leaders (heavy destroyers), and 73 standard destroyers, as well as a minelayer and a seaplane carrier.

At 2:20 on the afternoon of May 31, Beatty's advance guard of light cruisers spotted the German light cruisers and opened fire. Hipper turned back toward the German main fleet, and Beatty paralleled his course. Beatty also signaled Admiral Hugh Evan-Thomas (1862–1928), in command of a squadron of four new superdreadnoughts, to follow. In the meantime, the two battle-cruiser forces opened fire on one another at a range of 16,500 yards. The German guns were bigger and their gunnery more accurate than the British. Within less than an hour Beatty's flagship, *Lion,* as well as *Princess Royal, Tiger,* and the more lightly armored battle cruisers *Indefatigable* and *Queen Mary,* were sunk. Although the German ships *Seydlitz, Derflinger,* and *Lutzow* were badly hit, Beatty was left with only four ships against Hipper's five—although Evan-Thomas was on the way. Though recognizing the superiority of the German guns at long range, Beatty ordered his remaining ships to engage the enemy more closely.

As Beatty and Hipper continued to fight, Hipper sighted the superdreadnoughts of Evan-Thomas's Fifth Battle Squadron A, and the fighting became even more intense. *Queen Mary* exploded and sank at 4:26 P.M., and at about this time the British Second Light Cruiser Squadron sighted Scheer's battleships. Jellicoe's main force was converging on these. But Evan-Thomas's superdreadnoughts took severe hits from Scheer's approaching battleships. At the head of the main British fleet was the Third Battle Squadron—three battle cruisers and two light cruisers—commanded by Rear Admiral Sir Horace Hood (1870–1916). Hood vigorously engaged Hipper's cruisers and destroyers, and at 6:34 his flagship took a direct hit, exploded, and sank, carrying with it the admiral and all hands. Two British cruisers, *Defence* and *Warrior,* were also sunk.

Despite devastating losses, the British Grand Fleet was now in a strong position across the front of the German High Seas Fleet. It had "crossed the T," bringing to bear the bulk of its guns against Scheer's fleet, which, facing the British broadside head on, could employ far fewer guns and was therefore at a great disadvantage. Admiral Jellicoe exploited his hard-won advantage, battering the German ships—which, however, proved remarkably strong and withstood the onslaught well. Scheer's stalwart vessel, coupled with his brilliant seamanship, allowed him to execute a 180-degree "battle turn," which took him out of the range of most of the British fleet.

But Scheer was not through. Executing another 180-degree turn, he steamed back toward Jellicoe's fleet in the belief that Jellicoe had divided his forces. The assumption proved to be a serious error. Scheer found himself under the guns of the entire British force, Jellicoe having yet again crossed Scheer's T. The end of the German High Seas Fleet seemed to loom, but Scheer refused to give up. He sent four German battle cruisers charging into the British line in what was later termed a "death ride." All four of the



Battle of Jutland, May 31, 1916

vessels were severely damaged, but they remained in action while German destroyers, masked by a smoke screen, closed in on Jellicoe's battleships to fire torpedoes. At this point, had Jellicoe ordered the Grand Fleet to advance through what was now a disorganized array of German battle cruisers, Scheer would have been defeated. Instead, worried that the destroyer torpedo attacks would sink more battleships, he ordered his fleet to turn away, thereby allowing Scheer to withdraw.

Scheer now turned to the southeast, heading directly into the formation of British light cruisers that brought up the rear of Jellicoe's fleet. From about 9:30 P.M. until 3 A.M., the Battle of Jutland became a melee of intensive gunfire and even collisions. Scheer eventually limped away, eluding Jellicoe's attempt to isolate him from his port.

Thus the greatest naval battle in history ended as more or less a bloody draw. It may be said that the Germans achieved a tactical victory—having destroyed three British battle cruisers, three cruisers, and eight destroyers, with the loss of 6,274 officers and men—but suffered a strategic defeat. The Germans lost a battleship and a battle cruiser, in addition to four light cruisers, five destroyers,

and 2,545 officers and men, but, far worse, they had failed to reduce the numerical superiority of the British fleet. The German High Seas Fleet would never again seriously venture out from the security of its home ports. It had been neutralized as an instrument of war.

ACTION AFTER JUTLAND

On August 18, 1916, the German High Seas Fleet briefly sortied out of its home waters to meet the British Grand Fleet, but both Admiral Scheer and Admiral Jellicoe withdrew without making contact. Except for minor hit-and-run light-cruiser raids on the British coast, Germany conducted the rest of the naval war with U-boats until the day of the armistice.

After the armistice of November 11, 1918, the German High Seas Fleet was surrendered (November 21, 1918) and interned at Scapa Flow. On May 7, 1919, the skeleton crews manning the fleet learned of the humiliating terms of the Treaty of Versailles: The German navy was to be reduced to 15,000 men, six small battleships, six light cruisers, 12 destroyers, and 12 torpedo boats. All other vessels were to be irrevocably turned over to the Allies. The German navy would be permitted no U-boats, and German naval aviation was also banned. At 11:20 A.M. on June 21, 1919, in defiance of the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, the German crews scuttled the High Seas Fleet where it lay at anchor. Before British vessels could respond, 52 ships were lost. The British managed to save 22 others.

Further reading: Geoffrey Bennett, *Naval Battles of the First World War* (New York: Penguin, 2002); Tony Bridgland, *Sea Killers in Disguise: The Story of the Q-Ships and Decoy Ships in the First World War* (Annapolis, Md.: Naval Institute Press, 1999); A. A. Hoehling, *The Great War at Sea* (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1995); Bernard Ireland, *War at Sea 1914–1945* (New York: Sterling, 2000); Charles W. Koburger and Paul G. Halpern, *The Central Powers in the Adriatic, 1914–1918: War in a Narrow Sea* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 2001); Barrie Pitt, *Coronel and Falkland: Two Great Naval Battles of the First World War* (London: Cassell, 2002).

World War I: Balkans (1914–1918)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS (BALKAN FRONT ONLY): Austria-Hungary, Germany, Bulgaria vs. Serbia, Britain, France, Greece
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S) (BALKAN FRONT ONLY): Balkan region
DECLARATION: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
OUTCOME: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
TREATIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)

This entry focuses on the Balkan Front of World War I. *See* WORLD WAR I: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND (1871–1914) for the causes and outbreak of the war, as well as major statistics. WORLD WAR I: WESTERN FRONT (1914–1918) includes the war's resolution with the Treaty of Versailles and associated treaties. Also see the following entries, which treat the course of the war on other fronts: WORLD WAR I: AFRICA AND ASIA (1914–1918); WAR I: AT SEA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: EASTERN FRONT (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: ITALIAN FRONT (1915–1918); WORLD WAR I: MESOPOTAMIA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: TURKISH FRONTS (1914–1918).

As described in World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914), World War I was triggered by events in the Balkans. Two wars had destabilized the region (*see* BALKAN WAR, FIRST and BALKAN WAR, SECOND), and although the Western powers intervened to restore peace, neither of the Balkan Wars resolved the tensions that had been mounting in this part of Europe. If anything, they fostered the nationalist passions of the small countries that had long been torn between Turkey and Austria-Hungary. Individual Balkan regions, provinces, and states sought independence, yet they also sought a "pan-Slavic" identity, a solidarity with one another and with Russia, which, eager to regain lost prestige, presented itself as the spiritual, cultural, political, and military defender of all Slavic peoples. Otto von Bismarck (1815–98), the great German chancellor whose 19th-century diplomacy had woven the web of alliances that would now bind Europe into world war, had famously remarked that catastrophic war would erupt some day because of "some damn foolish thing in the Balkans." That "foolish thing" turned out to be the assassination, on June 28, 1914, at 11:15 A.M., of the Austro-Hungarian archduke and his wife. Count Leopold von Berchtold (1863–1942), Austria-Hungary's foreign minister, used the assassination as a pretext for declaring war on Serbia to squelch Bosnian nationalism and the pan-Slavic movement. After first securing Germany's pledge of military alliance and support, Austria-Hungary dispatched Baron Vladimir von Giesl (fl. 1900s), ambassador to Serbia, to deliver 10 demands to the government at Belgrade. The most important demands stressed prosecution of the assassination conspirators, with Austrian officials to be put in charge of the investigation; furthermore, Austrian officials were to operate within Serbia to root out sources of anti-Austrian agitation and propaganda. Serbia secured a pledge of Russian alliance but in fact acceded to all of Austria-Hungary's demands save one—Serbia would not give blanket authority for Austrian officials to operate in Serbia. This single item began World War I.

On July 28, 1914, Emperor Franz Josef (1830–1916) signed Austria-Hungary's declaration of war against Serbia. In response, Russia mobilized near the Austrian border. On the next day, July 29, Austrian river gunboats began to shell Belgrade, the capital of Serbia. On August 30, Russia expanded its partial mobilization into full mobilization, whereupon Germany and Austria-Hungary mobilized against Russia.

World War I would instantly leap beyond the Balkans, which, indeed, would become a secondary front, of less importance than either the western or eastern fronts; however, as the western front became deadlocked, the Allies gave thought to the Balkans as a means of achieving a breakthrough. For Austria-Hungary, the Balkans were the focus of the war, and Austria-Hungary deployed beyond the region only out of necessity. Austria-Hungary wanted nothing more or less than to punish Serbia in order to suppress the nationalist movements that were tearing apart the ethnically fragmented Austro-Hungarian Empire. Even such a limited objective, however, was far more formidable than Austro-Hungarian politicians realized.

To begin with, Serbia had fierce national pride and its military, though small, was resolute and well led. This fact escaped General Oskar Potiorek (1853–1933), commander of the Austro-Hungarian troops poised to invade Serbia, who dismissed the Serbian troops as "pig farmers." Austria-Hungary's July 29 bombardment of Belgrade was not followed up until August 12–21, when Potiorek led an Austro-Hungarian army of 200,000 into Serbia across the Save and Drina rivers, from the west and the northwest. To their profound shock, the Austrians were met by an almost equal number of Serbs, victorious veterans of the Balkan Wars, under the command of Marshal Radomir Putnik (1847–1917). The Serbs counterattacked fiercely on August 16, jabbing at the invaders mercilessly and sending them back across the River Drina. It would be early September before the Austrians renewed the invasion.

The second Austrian offensive was more successful, at least at first. By December 2, Austrians occupied Belgrade, the Serbian capital; however, on December 3, despite shortages of supply and ammunition, the Serbs counterattacked, driving the Austrians out of Belgrade. By December 15, the Serbs had pushed the Austrians out of Serbia altogether. In the wake of this Austro-Hungarian humiliation, Marshal Potiorek was relieved of command.

Serbia gained but little respite. After Turkey joined the war on the side of the Central Powers, the major powers realized that Serbia was not just a pawn in the deadly game of international war but occupied what was now a critically strategic location astride the land route to Turkey. With the British navy largely in control of the Mediterranean supply routes, Germany and Austria-Hungary determined to seize Serbia in order to open an overland supply artery to and from Turkey. This objective was greatly aided on September 6, 1915, when Bulgaria joined the war on the side of the Central Powers. Bulgaria had been discontented since its failure to realize all of its territorial ambitions in the two Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913. Seeing Serbia as ripe for annexation, Bulgaria contributed four divisions to a tripartite invasion force of 330,000 Germans, Austro-Hungarians, and Bulgarians. In response to the impending invasion, Serbia's western Allies, France and England, advised Serbia to offer Bulgaria territorial concessions in Macedonia. Serbia refused to back down, however.

The Austro-Bulgar-German invasion force was under the overall command of the brilliant and aggressive German general August von Mackensen (1849–1945). He planned to use two armies, the Austrian Third and German Eleventh, to attack Serbia across the Save and Danube Rivers. Shortly after this, another two armies would attack from Bulgaria. The Austro-German contingent crossed the rivers on October 7, 1915, and marched into Belgrade just two days later. Before this advance, the Serbian army made an orderly retreat into the interior, pursuing a scorched-earth policy along the way, destroying depots, roads, and bridges to deprive the enemy of them. The Bulgarian First Army was to squeeze the Serbian forces between itself and the Austro-German armies, while the Bulgarian Second Army swung round from the south to block any reinforcement that might be forthcoming from Greece—which, however, had so far proved reluctant to help. The Bulgarian Second Army was also supposed to prevent French and British contingents, landed at the Greek-controlled Macedonian port of Salonika on October 5, from coming to the aid of Serbia.

From Salonika, General Maurice P. E. Sarrail's (1856–1929) French force marched up the Vardar Valley but was turned back by superior Bulgarian forces. Bryan T. Mahon (fl. 1900s), commanding a British contingent, reached the Bulgarian border and was also beaten back. The Serbs, then, were left to defend themselves. Through little more than courage and skill, Serbian field marshal Radomir Putnik avoided envelopment by the massively superior invasion forces, but he could do little against even deadlier enemies—exhaustion and typhus. With disease thinning the Serbian ranks, survivors sought to evade capture by withdrawing into the mountains of Montenegro and Albania. There, however, in mid-November, they found themselves among ancient tribal enemies, who attacked with a ferocity even greater than that of the political enemies who had invaded the country. Putnik lost 100,000 men killed or wounded, and an astounding 160,000 captured. The few who escaped made their way to Allied ships, which ferried them to the island of Corfu, where they were interned in squalid refugee camps until they were re-formed to join the allied ranks in Salonika. By the end of 1915, Austria occupied both Serbia and Montenegro.

In the meantime, throughout 1914 and 1915, Greece maintained a tenuous neutrality. King Constantine I (1868–1923) personally favored the Central Powers, but his prime minister, Eleuthérios Venizélos (1864–1936),

was strongly pro-Allies. It was the prime minister who gave the French and British permission to use Salonika as a base and staging area. But on October 7 Venizelos was forced to resign for violating the king's official neutrality policy. In October 1916, Venizelos would establish a rival government in Thessaloniki, and in June 1917 the Western Allies engineered the ouster of King Constantine and installed Venizelos as prime minister of a Greece officially reunited but in fact bitterly divided. Acting on the Allies' promise of territorial gains from Turkey, Venizelos was to end Greek neutrality and bring his nation into the war on the side of the Triple Entente.

By July 1916, the Serbian army had been reconstituted at Salonika as a force of 118,000 men. Sarrail's troops were added to make an army of 250,000. With this force, Sarrail decided to leave the fortified "Bird Cage," a ring of forts around Salonika, to conduct an offensive up the valley of the Vardar River, which flows through Serbia down into Greece and into the Gulf of Salonika. By the time Sarrail got under way, the Bulgarians had already seized the initiative and, coordinating with German forces, attacked the Allies at Florina, a Greek village a few miles south of the Serbian frontier, during August 17–27. The Allies retreated south, then mounted from September 10 to November 19 a counteroffensive that slowly drove the Bulgar-German forces northward, out of Greece and into Serbia. On November 19, the Allies took the southern Serbian town of Monastir. But then the Allied offensive bogged down. Sarrail, always disputatious, fell out with his subordinates, and the campaign ended in disorganization, at the cost of 50,000 Allied lives. The Bulgar-German forces lost 60,000 killed and wounded.

Beginning in July 1916 and lasting through November, a corps of Austrians dueled with an Italian corps in Albanian territory west of Greece. The Italians pushed the Austrians north and then joined forces with Sarrail's army at Lake Ochrida. Little came of these actions in Greece and Albania during 1916, however, yet neither side wanted to concede even this peripheral front. No one wanted to suffer defeat, even where it hardly mattered.

By 1917, Maurice Sarrail was stalemated in the Balkans. Although his nominal strength was almost 600,000, disease and desertion had reduced his command to fewer than 100,000 fit for duty. Sarrail continued to make periodic thrusts against the Bulgar-German forces. Both the Battle of Lake Prespa (also called the Battle of Djoran), March 11–17, 1917, and the Battle of the Vardar, May 5–19, ended inconclusively. If there was a bright spot for the Allies, it was the abdication of Greece's King Constantine on June 12, 1917, and the elevation of the pro-Allies prime minister, Eleuthérios Venizélos. Although Greece entered the war on the side of the Allies on June 27, 1917, its armies were in such disarray that no new offensive was developed.

On November 16, 1917, Georges Clemenceau (1841–1929) became premier of France—and almost immediately relieved Maurice Sarrail of command. On December 10, Sarrail was replaced in the Balkans by the vigorous M. L. A. Guillaumat (1863–1940), who organized the tattered Allied forces on this front and began a program of training for the Greek army. He commanded that force in a successful action against Bulgar-German forces holding Skra Di Legen Ridge before he was recalled to France to command troops defending Paris.

Guillaumat's replacement was Franchet d'Esperey (1856–1942), one of the finest tacticians of the French army. Using a polyglot force of 600,000 Serb, Czech, Italian, French, and British troops (of which perhaps only 200,000 were fit for duty), d'Esperey attacked an equal number of Bulgarians, whose German allies (save for some senior officers) had been withdrawn for service on the western front. With massive artillery support, the Serb contingent was deployed on September 15, 1918, between elements of a force now called the French Orient Army. The Serbs penetrated the Bulgarian defenders, then pushed northward while the French, on either side of the resulting gap, attacked both Bulgarian flanks. On September 18, the British contingent was committed to the battle with a diversionary attack on the Bulgarian far right. Unexpectedly, this diversion gathered sufficient momentum to propel the British forces as far as the Vardar River by September 25. Now the Bulgarian forces were split in two.

From the Vardar, the British drove on to Stumitsa, which they reached on September 26, while the French cavalry charged through the principal battle area to take Skoplje on September 29. Allied air forces strafed and bombed the retreating Bulgarians, transforming an orderly withdrawal into a rout. With the Bulgarians fleeing before him, Franchet d'Esperey pressed northward, forcing Bulgaria to agree to an armistice on September 29, 1918. Having ended the war in the Balkans, d'Esperey marched across the Danube to attack Budapest and then Dresden, Germany. This crossing was effected during November 10–11, just when the armistice ended World War I.

Further reading: David Dutton, *Politics and Diplomacy: Britain and France in the Balkans in the First World War* (New York: St. Martin's, 1998); Richard C. Hall, *Balkan Wars, 1912–1913: Prelude to First World War* (London: Routledge, 2000); A. L. Macfie, *The End of the Ottoman Empire, 1908–1923* (New York: Pearson Education, 1998); Barbara Tuchman, *The Guns of August* (New York: Random House, 1994).

World War I: Eastern Front (1914–1918)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS (EASTERN FRONT ONLY): Austria-Hungary, Germany, Romania, Bulgaria vs. Serbia and Russia

PRINCIPAL THEATER (EASTERN FRONT ONLY): Mainly East Prussia and "Russian Poland," the westernmost part of the Russian Empire, enclosed to the north by East

Prussia, to the west by German Poland (Poznania) and Silesia, and to the south by Austrian Poland (Galicia)
DECLARATION: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
OUTCOME: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
CASUALTIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
TREATIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)

This entry focuses on the Eastern Front of World War I. *See* WORLD WAR I: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND (1871–1914) for the causes and outbreak of the war and for major statistics. WORLD WAR I: WESTERN FRONT (1914–1918) includes the war's resolution with the Treaty of Versailles and associated treaties. Also see the following entries, which treat the course of the war on other fronts: WORLD WAR I: AFRICA AND ASIA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: AT SEA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: BALKANS (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: ITALIAN FRONT (1915–1918); WORLD WAR I: MESOPOTAMIA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: TURKISH FRONTS (1914–1918).

Although the western front of World War I has generally received the most attention from historians, the war on the eastern front was in itself a tremendously costly, large-scale conflict, which did much to precipitate the Russian revolutions of 1917 and bring an end to czarist rule.

At the beginning of the war the Western Allied powers took great comfort in the existence of what they called the "Russian steamroller." They believed that the sheer numbers of Russian troops would constitute an irresistible force. On the eve of war, the Russian army numbered 1.4 million men, and mobilization added another 3.1 million. During the course of the war, 12 million Russians would serve. More than half this number, 6.7 million men, would be killed or wounded before the revolutionary communist government made a "separate peace" with Germany at the start of 1918.

What the Allies had not counted on was the impact on the Russian army of poor leadership and inadequate equipment, as well as an outmoded and poorly developed infrastructure, including a sparse and inefficient railway network. Most of all, they had not realized the depth and breadth of the Russian revolutionary movement, which would ultimately undermine the already faltering Russian military apparatus. Population and manpower Russia had in abundance. Equipment, however, was in short supply, and effective political and military leadership was almost totally absent.

EASTERN FRONT STRATEGIES

From the German perspective, Russian Poland posed a threat of invasion to East Prussia, but it was also highly vulnerable to invasion by Germany from the northwest and by Austria-Hungary from the southwest. Many in Germany desired conquest of Russian Poland as a buffer between Germany and Russia, but the German plan called for the conquest of France before embarking on an offensive war against Russia. For this reason, it was decided to pursue a defensive holding action against Russia until victory had been achieved on the western front. The German high command believed this strategy would succeed, estimating that it would take many weeks for the lumbering Russian army to mobilize, especially given the poor state of Russian railways.

Germany's chief ally, Austria-Hungary, regarded the eastern front differently. Much more of Austria-Hungary's frontier with Russia was farther east than Germany's, and the eastern fringes of the Austro-Hungarian Empire were populated by Slav minorities, which felt much greater affinity for the Russians than for the Austrians. Austrian authorities feared that a Russian offensive would be enthusiastically received by the Slav minorities, and the already creaky Austro-Hungarian Empire would face imminent peril. For this reason, Austria-Hungary wanted immediate, vigorous action to check any Russian offensive.

Russia, in fact, was eager to prosecute a war in the name of Slavic unity. Czarists saw war as an antidote to Russia's flagging international prestige and to its growing revolutionary movement. Russia did not want to fight Germany, however, but instead resolved to concentrate all immediately available forces against Austria-Hungary, leaving the German front alone until mobilization was complete. Russia's French allies objected to this strategy, however, and insisted on Russian action against Germany to relieve some of the pressure on the western front.

In the end, two Russian armies were deployed against the Germans in East Prussia, while another four armies were sent against the Austro-Hungarians in Galicia.

BATTLE OF STALLUPÖNEN

What France demanded of Russia was wholly unrealistic. Russia lacked the technology, leadership, and flexibility to wage a two-front war. Before the war, Russia's Stavka (General Staff) replied to French insistence that 900,000 men be available by the 14th day after mobilization that such a deployment would consume at least 20 days. In the end, however, the Russians promised deployment by day 15, a promise that would prove to be wishful thinking. Although the Russian Northwest Army Group, under General Yakov G. Jilinsky (fl. 1900s), did begin to march west on August 12, 1914—actually earlier than the schedule promised—it stepped off prematurely, without adequate supply or communications. On the 12th, the First Russian Army, under General Pavel V. Rennenkampf (1854–1918), began to

cross into East Prussia. The Second Army, under Alexander V. Samsonov (1859–1914), was supposed to keep pace with Rennenkampf's command, so that the two armies could converge in an attack on the German Eighth Army, a force they collectively outnumbered almost three to one. Although the Russian plan was sound, it faltered in execution, providing an opportunity for the outnumbered German Eighth Army, under General Max von Prittwitz (1848–1917), to fight a delaying action. At Stallupönen, about 100 miles east of Eighth Army headquarters and near the East Prussian frontier with Russian Poland, one of Prittwitz's most aggressive corps commanders, Hermann von François (1856–1933), disobeyed standing orders to avoid decisive engagement by launching an offensive against Rennenkampf's center. François inflicted 3,000 casualties and pushed the Russians back across the frontier into Russian Poland. Defeat at the Battle of Stallupönen stunned Rennenkampf into near-paralysis.

THE BATTLE OF GUMBINNEN

German victory at Stallupönen prompted the usually cautious Prittwitz to take the offensive. He was further encouraged by the fact that the literacy level of Russian troops was so low that commanders had taken to transmitting radio messages in the clear rather than in code. The result was that Prittwitz and his officers received Russian orders simultaneously with the Russian officers. Based on intelligence gathered, Prittwitz decided to attack with three corps at the village of Gumbinnen on August 20. The corps led by François was triumphant, but the other two German corps failed to take Rennenkampf's center. The Battle of Gumbinnen was, therefore, a draw. Worse, the results of the engagement reawakened the customary caution of Prittwitz, who now proposed a general retreat. His staff protested; one of his staff officers, Lieutenant Colonel Max Hoffmann (1869–1927), made the counterproposal of attacking Samsonov's left flank near Tannenberg, on East Prussia's southern frontier with Galicia. Although Prittwitz reluctantly agreed, the German overall chief of staff, Helmuth von Moltke (1848–1916), realized that Prittwitz was not the man for the job. He called the redoubtable Paul von Hindenburg (1847–1934) out of retirement to assume command of the Eighth Army and assigned the brilliant Erich Ludendorff (1865–1937) a hero of the assault against Verdun on the western front, as his chief of staff. This command team would prove to be the most effective of the entire war. On August 22, Ludendorff formulated a plan that, coincidentally, duplicated what Hoffmann had proposed to Prittwitz. Elements would attack Samsonov's Russian Second Army while others remained farther east to delay Rennenkampf's First Army. It was a classic strategy of divide and conquer—prevent Rennenkampf and Samsonov from joining forces, and their armies could be defeated in detail, even by inferior numbers.

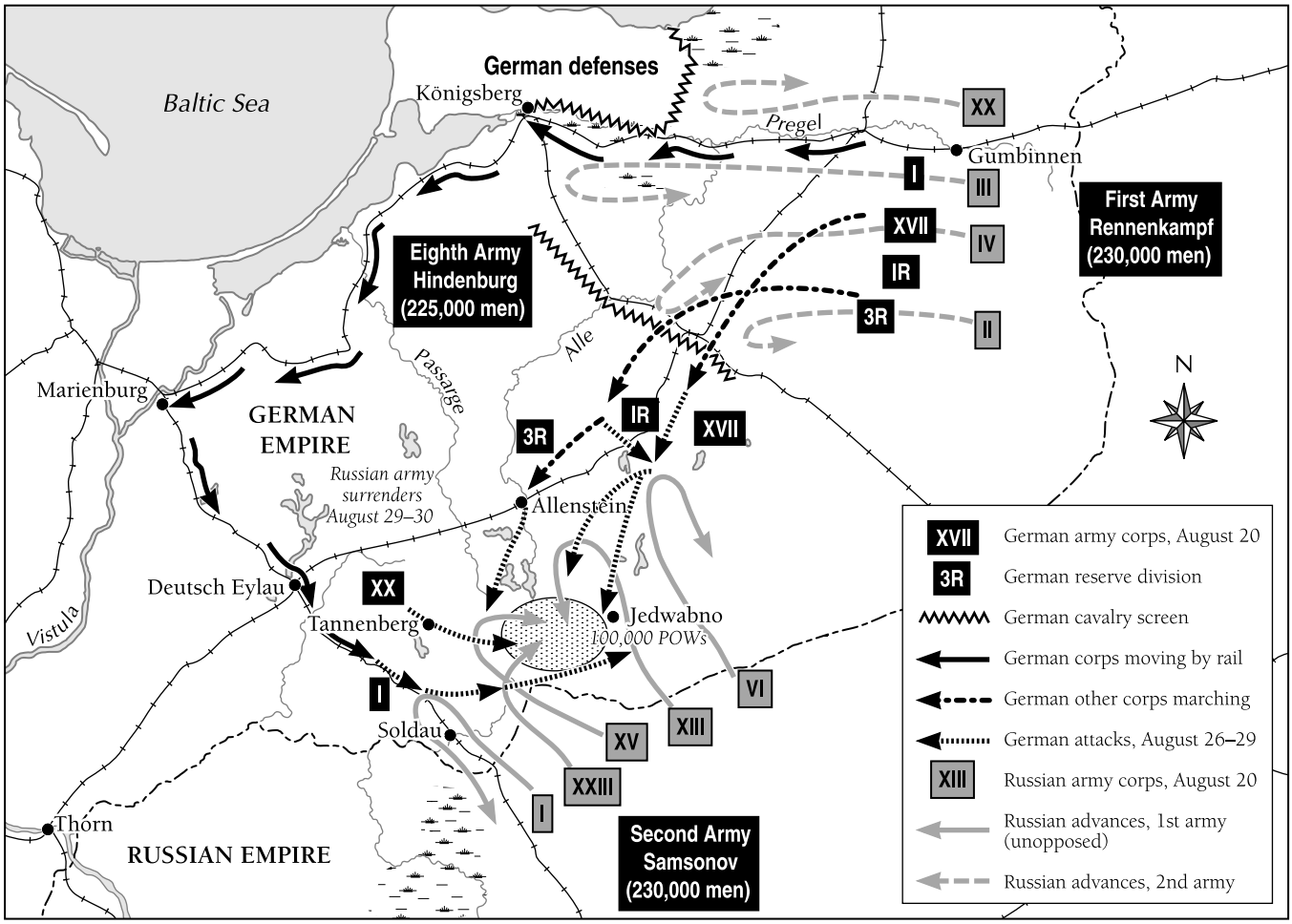
BATTLE OF TANNENBERG

On August 25, 1914, Erich Ludendorff received two intercepted messages. One was from General Rennenkampf, laying out the marching orders of the entire Russian Second Army. The uncoded message revealed the distance separating the Second and First Armies, and it revealed that Rennenkampf would not pose a threat to the German position for at least another day. The second message, from General Samsonov, betrayed the Russian general's mistaken belief that the German army was retreating from him. The message also laid out just how he planned to pursue the enemy he believed he had defeated.

Armed with the intercepted messages, Ludendorff could attack Samsonov in confidence that Rennenkampf could not come to his colleague's aid. Furthermore, the absence of Rennenkampf would allow the Germans to trap Samsonov's Second Army in a catastrophic double envelopment. For his part, believing himself in an excellent position for victory, Samsonov deployed on his extreme right (the northeast end of the Russian Second Army) his VI Corps, leaving that unit entirely isolated as he pushed the main body of his army westward for an assault on the Germans. Not only did this movement leave VI Corps vulnerable, it also drew Second Army farther from, not closer to, Rennenkampf's First Army. Samsonov was intent on placing himself between the Vistula River and what he believed was the retreating German army. In pursuing this error, Samsonov took his army farther and farther from sources of supply. His troops grew hungry and exhausted.

On August 26, Samsonov's VI Corps on the right was 50 miles from I Corps (and other elements) on the left. Between these, Samsonov had arrayed the rest of his army. At this point, however, Samsonov began to realize that his right flank was vulnerable. He had planned to pursue the retreating German army into Germany itself. Faltering, he ordered VI Corps to hold fast, to protect the army. But then he renewed his confidence and pushed the advance forward, only to countermand once again his order and instruct VI Corps to hold its position on the right. But it was too late. VI Corps was already on the move, and the right flank of the entire Russian Second Army was exposed.

As the Russian VI Corps marched toward Samsonov's center, unaware that this order had been changed, its commander received word that German forces had been sighted six miles behind it, to the north. Part of VI Corps was ordered to countermarch to meet the Germans. The unit was attacked, and VI Corps began taking devastating casualties. The command structure broke down; by the morning of August 27, what was left of VI Corps was a panic-stricken rabble. Quickly, the right wing of Samsonov's army collapsed, and the Russian center came under heavy attack. The Russian XIII Corps left the railway center of Allenstein to assist in the action at the Russian center. This left a wide gap at Allenstein, a perfect opportunity for the Germans.



Battle of Tannenberg, August 1914

Samsonov was being enveloped, but instead of cutting his losses in retreat—and thereby preserving some part of his army—he decided to reengage with the object of holding off the Germans with his center corps until Rennenkampf arrived to turn the tide.

At 4 A.M. on August 27, General François began an artillery barrage against the Russian I Corps at Usdau. The shelling was sufficient to rout the hungry and weary Russians, which left Samsonov's left flank completely exposed. At this point, Samsonov's only hope was to hold out with his two center corps until the arrival of Rennenkampf's First Army. A combination of Rennenkampf's indolence and incompetent orders from the Russian supreme command ensured that Rennenkampf would not arrive, and during August 27–28, 300,000 men were desperately engaged in one of the most violent battles in the history of modern warfare. By August 28, the Russian I Corps had collapsed on Samsonov's left, and VI Corps had been destroyed on the right. Both flanks of the Russian Second Army had been turned. As night fell on the 28th, Samsonov attempted to rally his troops through personal command. When this failed, he ordered a general retreat of what remained of the Russian Second Army. The Germans hammered away at the withdrawing forces during August 29–30. Tannenberg was no longer a battle but a slaughter. Some 30,000 Russians perished or were wounded at Tannenberg (compared to between 10,000 and 15,000 German casualties). Among the last of them was General Samsonov, who committed suicide on the night of August 29.

THE BATTLE OF THE MASURIAN LAKES

In 1914, the Masurian Lake district was in the southwestern corner of East Prussia, a region of some 2,000 separate lakes in marshy ground. Rennenkampf deployed the Russian First Army here, well north of Tannenberg. The now reinforced German Eighth Army, having crushed Samsonov, marched to meet Rennenkampf. On September 5, the German Eighth Army attacked the southern end of the Russian First Army. In response, Rennenkampf ordered a general withdrawal on September 9. François's I Corps pursued the retreating Rennenkampf, and Rennenkampf counterattacked the German center on September 10. The attack halted the Eighth Army for two days, buying the

Russians enough time to escape the fate of double envelopment that had destroyed the Second Army at Tannenberg. Nevertheless, Rennenkampf had lost about as many men as Samsonov had lost at Tannenberg, about 125,000 killed, wounded, missing, or captured. German losses may have numbered as many as 40,000, but the last of the Russian invaders had been cleared out of East Prussia, and from these two defeats, at Tannenberg and the Masurian Lakes, Russia would never recover.

THE AUSTRIAN FRONT

Austria-Hungary had conducted the first operations of World War I with the bombardment of Belgrade, capital of Serbia, on July 29, 1914, but it was August 12–21 before the attack was followed up by an invasion of Serbia with some 200,000 Austro-Hungarian troops under the command of General Oskar Potiorek. Expecting easy victory, the Austro-Hungarians were met by fiercely determined Serbs under Marshal Radomir Putnik, who sent the Austro-Hungarian army fleeing back across the River Drina.

INVASION OF THE POLISH SALIENT

On August 23, General Count Conrad von Hötzendorf (1852–1925), the Austro-Hungarian chief of staff, prepared to lead the First, Fourth, and Third Austro-Hungarian armies (positioned from west to east) in an invasion of the Polish Salient, a portion of Russian Poland projecting westward below East Prussia and above Galicia, constituting a broad wedge dividing Germany and Austria-Hungary.

The three Austro-Hungarian armies deployed along a 200-mile front north and east from Lvov (then called Lemberg), Poland, and met the Southwestern Russian Army Group (consisting of the Third, Fourth, Fifth, and Eighth Armies) southwest of the Pripet Marshes deep inside Russian Poland. The Battle of Krasnik was fought here during August 23–24; it resulted in the retreat of the northern flank of the Russian Fourth Army.

Next, from August 26 through September 1, the Battle of Zamosc-Komarów forced the retreat of the Russian Fifth Army. In the meantime, at the southern flank of the engaged forces, the Austrian Third Army (together with some elements of the Second, which arrived from the Serbian front) suffered a setback at the Battle of Gnila Lipa (August 26–30). The combined Russian Third and Eighth armies drove this outnumbered force back to Lvov. A hasty Austro-Hungarian defense was quickly pierced by the Russian Fifth Army in the Battle of Rava Russka (September 3–11). The Austro-Hungarian forces fell back 100 miles to the Carpathian Mountains, leaving behind only a garrison at the fortress of Przemysl.

Austria-Hungary had provoked what became World War I for the limited purpose of punishing Serbia. Now, the empire found itself menaced. Galicia—Austrian Poland—had fallen into Russian hands, and the Austro-Hungarian army had lost 250,000 men killed and wounded, with perhaps another 100,000 taken prisoner by the Russians. Worse, Austria-Hungary had counted on two potential rivals—Italy and Romania—joining the cause of the Central Powers. Neither did this, however, and both would eventually join the Allies. Most immediately threatening was the large Russian force that was assembled between Lublin and the Dniester River, poised to invade Galicia. In response to the vastly expanded war, the Austro-Hungarian high command shifted from its Plan B to Plan R, which required the transfer of an entire army from Serbia to Galicia. Dividing forces in this way consumed both time and resources, but the Austro-Hungarians pressed ahead. It was critically important to meet the Russian threat in Galicia, north of the Carpathian Mountains, where there was far more room to maneuver than in the mountains. Moreover, defeated in Serbia, Austria-Hungary was eager to achieve a victory in Galicia and to prove itself an effective ally of the Germans.

BATTLE OF RAVA-RUSSKA

Following defeat at the hands of the Russians in the Battle of Gnila-Lipa at the end of August 1914, by September, the Austro-Hungarian forces found themselves being pushed back toward the Carpathians. To arrest this movement, Austrian field marshal Von Hötzendorf ordered his Fourth Army to break off contact with the Russian Fifth Army and attack the Russian Third, which was pounding the retreating Austrian Third Army. The result, on September 5, was the Battle of Rava-Russka, which resulted in yet another humiliating Austrian defeat. Although the Austrian Fourth Army managed to save itself, the Third Army was severely depleted, and Field Marshal Conrad ordered a general retreat. During September 12–26, Austro-Hungarian forces withdrew 100 miles to a position 50 miles east of Cracow, Poland. Galicia was now in Russian hands.

GERMANY RESCUES ITS ALLY

With Galicia lost—save for the besieged fortress of Przemysl—and Serbia victorious, the Austro-Hungarian armies were demoralized but still intact. Having achieved great success against Russia, the German chief of staff, Erich von Falkenhayn (1861–1922), decided to create a new army, the Ninth, to rescue the Austrians. It was placed under the direct command of Hindenburg, and just in time, for on September 22 the Russian supreme headquarters decided to capitalize on its Galician successes by launching an offensive from the Polish Salient, around Warsaw and Lodz, into Silesia.

Hindenburg was quick to fathom the Russian intentions, and he knew that before the offensive could be launched, the Russian armies would have to be reinforced as well as realigned for purposes of maneuver and supply. The German commander decided to strike first, before the Russians could organize their offensive. On September 28, he led Ninth Army in a drive to take the Vistula River crossings from Warsaw to the San River. On September 30,

the Ninth Army, supported by the Austrians on the south, attacked west of the Vistula, battling through October 9. The Germans secured the Vistula south of Warsaw, but, greatly outnumbered, Hindenburg's Ninth Army was forced to retreat—not as a defeated force but as an engine of destruction. Hindenburg left behind a swath of wrecked roads and railroads as well as razed villages and farms. The Russians were unable to pursue.

BATTLE OF LODZ

Hindenburg as well as the Austro-Hungarian armies had withdrawn to their original lines by late October. But the retreat did not represent a Russian triumph. Fighting had cost the Russians heavily, and it had delayed the planned Russian offensive into Silesia. Hindenburg knew that it was suicidal to attack the strong Russian concentration southwest of Warsaw, so instead, in cooperation with Ludendorff, he shifted his army northwest to the vicinity of Posen and Thorn, ensuring that the intervening villages and farms were destroyed.

The shift put the German Ninth Army in an ideal position to exploit a fatal flaw in the Russian deployment. The Russian First and Second armies were on the northern flank of the Russian Northwest Army Group. The German Ninth Army—now under the direct command of August von Mackensen (1849–1945), since Hindenburg had been elevated to overall command of the entire eastern front—advanced between the Russian First and Second Armies in the Battle of Lodz, fought from November 11 to December 6. Rennenkampf's First Army was almost totally destroyed, and the Second suffered a double envelopment. It was saved from annihilation by the Russian Fifth Army advancing from the south and a hastily assembled mixed Russian force from the north. That the Russians had halted the German offensive meant that Lodz was a tactical Russian victory, but because Russian losses were massive and the Silesian offensive had to be abandoned, the battle has been judged a strategic victory for Germany. German losses at the Battle of Lodz were 35,000 killed or wounded. Russian losses were estimated at 90,000 killed or wounded.

GERMANY REINFORCES THE EAST

Because Hindenburg and Ludendorff had produced substantial results in the East, whereas the western front remained a stalemate at the beginning of 1915, the German high command reluctantly authorized the transfer of some forces from the West to the East. A new German force, the Southern Army, was created and placed under the command of General Alexander von Linsingen (1850–1935), intended to support the faltering Austro-Hungarians. Concerned that Russia would again advance into East Prussia, Hindenburg took it upon himself to create another new army, the Tenth, using four corps from the western front.

CARPATHIAN ACTION

Having failed to keep the Russians out of the Carpathians, the Austro-Hungarians, now supported by the German Southern Army, found themselves fighting in the deep Carpathian snows during January–March 1915. The Russians sought to break through to the Hungarian plains, whereas the Austro-German objective was not only to prevent this but also to relieve the fortress at Przemysl.

The Austro-German forces were up against one of Russia's few truly able commanders, General Aleksei A. Brusilov (1853–1926); Przemysl ultimately surrendered to the Russians on March 18. With this loss, the Austro-German force withdrew to the Hungarian plains, setting up defenses that discouraged a Russian invasion. A weak Russian offensive ended in April.

THE BATTLE OF BOLIMOV

Simultaneously with the action in the Carpathians, Hindenburg and Ludendorff planned a bold move in the north: the double envelopment of the Russian Tenth Army. As bait, the German command team used the German Ninth Army, east of Warsaw, to draw the Russians to Bolimov, about 30 miles west of the Polish capital. Once the Russians were concentrated there, the German Eighth and 10th armies would launch an offensive in the region of the Masurian Lakes.

At Bolimov, the Germans used a new weapon, xylyl bromide gas (code named *T-Stoff*), which proved remarkably ineffective—certainly giving no hint of the weapon that would soon terrorize the western front. Nevertheless, the artillery barrage that accompanied the gas attack did draw Russian troops away from the Masurian Lakes area, creating ideal conditions for the German offensive.

THE SECOND BATTLE OF THE MASURIAN LAKES (THE WINTER BATTLE)

The Second Battle of the Masurian Lakes began on February 7. It would also come to be called "the Winter Battle," because it began in a raging snowstorm. On the first day of battle, the Germans devastated the Russian Tenth Army's left flank; on the second day, the German Tenth Army rolled up the Russian right flank. Completely surprised, the Russians retreated 50 miles southeast to the Augustow Forest. On February 21, the Russian XX Corps surrendered, having, however, sufficiently delayed the German offensive to permit three other Russian Tenth Army corps to escape. The Russians thereby avoided total defeat, but not devastation. Some 200,000 Russians were killed or wounded, and another 90,000 taken prisoner. The German advance of 70 miles was halted on February 22 by the newly formed Russian Twelfth Army.

GORLICE BREAKTHROUGH

Hindenburg and Ludendorff had not achieved final victory, but they had dealt the Russians severe blows. After the

Winter Battle, Hindenburg continued to engage the Russians north of Warsaw, while Mackensen's German Eleventh Army, supported by Austrian units, attacked Russian positions between Tarnow and Gorlice, southeast of Cracow.

On May 2, 1915, the Austro-German forces broke through the Russian Third Army lines along a 28-mile front—making the first substantial crack in the Polish Salient. On June 3, the fortress at Przemysl was retaken; the town of Lvov was captured and occupied on June 22. During June 23–27, the Austro-German armies crossed the Dniester River, and the southern front now disintegrated. The German 12th Army advanced toward Warsaw, sweeping the Russians before it. Warsaw fell on August 7, heralding the total collapse of the Russian front and the end of the Polish Salient. By August 18, all of the Russian armies had retreated to the Bug River, 100 miles east of Warsaw.

But the Austro-German forces continued to press their advantage. Brest Litovsk fell on August 25, followed by Grodno, to the north, on September 2. Vilna (in present-day Lithuania) fell to the Austro-Germans on September 19. By the end of 1915, the Russian front was 300 miles east of where it had been at the beginning of the year, and, in this crisis, Czar Nicholas II (1868–1918) assumed overall command of Russian forces. Of all Russia's disastrous commanders, the well-meaning czar would prove the worst.

BATTLE OF LAKE NAROCH

From the perspective of Russia's Western allies, the value of the struggle in the East was mainly to draw off German resources from the western front. It was France, desperately defending Verdun, that called on Russia to make an offensive drive in the Vilna-Naroch area of what today is Lithuania. The Battle of Lake Naroch (March 18, 1916) began with an intensive two-day artillery preparation, but the Russian infantry advance that followed soon bogged down in the mud of a spring thaw. The German defenders lost 20,000 men, but the Russians suffered at least 70,000 and perhaps as many as 100,000 casualties.

THE BRUSILOV OFFENSIVE

Undaunted by defeat at Lake Naroch, the Russians again responded to a call for an offensive, this time from the Italians. The operation was led by General Brusilov. On June 4, he attacked the Austro-German line in two places, with great skill and in absolute secrecy. The Austrian Fourth Army crumbled almost instantly, and the Seventh soon followed it. With the collapse of these two armies, 70,000 prisoners were taken. Unfortunately for the Russians, the high command failed to capitalize on Brusilov's achievement, thereby missing an opportunity to take Austria-Hungary out of the war with a single decisive blow. As it was, German general Alexander von Linsingen led his army group in a counterattack against Brusilov on June 16 and checked the Russians' northern advance. Brusilov renewed the offensive on July 28, achieving some success, but he was frustrated by a shortage of ammunition and supplies. By this time, German reinforcements had been transferred east from Verdun, and they were sufficient to bolster the faltering Austro-Hungarians.

For all its success, the Brusilov offensive was carried out at a staggering cost to the Russians. By the end of June 1916, Russian casualties topped 1,000,000, a figure that helped propel the nation toward revolution.

ROMANIA ENTERS THE WAR

The Brusilov offensive propelled Romania, hitherto neutral, into the Allied camp on August 27, 1916. Romanian troops promptly invaded Austrian-controlled Transylvania, but they were repelled by the German Ninth Army. Simultaneously, the German-reinforced Bulgarian Danube Army crossed the Danube River on November 23, advancing into the Dobrudja region and trapping the Romanians between itself and the Ninth Army. Despite a skillful defense, the Bulgar-German forces soundly defeated the Romanian army at the Battle of the Arges River (December 1–4, 1916). Some 300,000 to 400,000 Romanians were killed or wounded (half of the deaths were from disease), and the survivors fled into Russia, leaving the rich grain and oil fields of their country in German hands.

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTIONS

The almost uniformly disastrous performance of the Russian army in World War I hastened the coming of the Russian revolutions of 1917. In March (February, according to the outmoded Julian calendar then used in Russia), the czarist government was overthrown and was replaced by a Provisional Government, and in November (by the old Russian calendar, October), the BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION installed the Soviet government of Vladimir I. Lenin (1870–1924). Between March and October, the Provisional Government and the Soviets struggled for control of the nation. Aleksandr F. Kerensky (1881–1970) attempted to establish a coalition of the Provisional Government and the Soviets, but the issue of whether to continue fighting the war deeply divided the now-starving nation.

THE SECOND BRUSILOV OFFENSIVE

While Lenin's Bolsheviks and Kerensky's Social Revolutionaries and Mensheviks fought for control of the government, General Brusilov led the Russian 11th and Seventh armies against combined German, Austrian, and Turkish forces under German general Felix von Bothmer (1852–1937) at Lvov, near the Polish frontier. Brusilov broke through the enemy lines for about 30 miles along a 100-mile front, and his subordinate commanders on either of his flanks made substantial inroads against the Austro-Hungarian Second and Third armies. But all of Brusilov's brilliance as a commander could do nothing to stop Russia itself from dissolving beneath him. Morale and supplies both failed, and on July 19, 1917, German general Max

Hoffmann led a counterattack that routed the starving Russian armies south of the Pripet Marshes in Galicia. The second Brusilov offensive came to an end.

THE RIGA OFFENSIVE

With the southern end of the Russian front destroyed, General Oscar von Hutier (1857–1934) led the German Eighth Army against the northern end of that front at the Baltic Sea port of Riga (in modern Latvia) and its fortress on September 1, 1917. Hutier employed rapid, violent tactics with special emphasis on the use of light, rapid infantry shock troops to penetrate the enemy lines at various weak points. This secured the all-important ability to maneuver. Hutier's technique was soon dubbed "Hutier tactics" and would be adopted by both the Central Powers and the Allies during the rest of the war. Under Hutier tactics, the Russian 12th Army fled the field in panic.

It was a panic that reflected the prevailing chaos of revolutionary Russia. Within weeks, Lenin's Bolsheviks would be in charge of the government and would open up peace talks with Germany.

RUSSIA'S SEPARATE PEACE

The Soviet government concluded an armistice with the Central Powers on December 15, 1917, and the following year signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. The Ukrainian Republic signed this treaty first, on February 9, 1918, although Soviet Russia held out for better terms. Germany was in no mood to negotiate and pressed its advance against undefended territory until, on March 3, Lenin signed.

The war on the eastern front ended, and tens of thousands of German troops were freed for service on the western front. Delivered either into direct German occupation or into the hands of newly created German puppet governments were Poland, Lithuania, the Baltic provinces, Finland, and the Ukraine. It was a total and ignominious defeat for Russia.

Further reading: Michael Howard, *First World War* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Keegan, *The First World War* (New York: Knopf, 1999); George F. Kennan, *Fateful Alliance: France, Russia and the Coming of the First World War* (New York: Knopf, 1984); Dominic C. B. Lieven, *Russia and the Origins of the First World War* (New York: St. Martin's, 1983); Geoffrey Jukes, *First World War: The Eastern Front, 1914–1918* (London: Osprey, 2002); Dennis E. Showalter, *Tannenberg: Clash of Empires* (Lanham, Md.: Shoe String, 1993); John Sweetman, *Tannenberg 1914* (London: Cassell, 2002).

World War I: Italian Front (1915–1918)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS (ITALIAN FRONT ONLY): Italy vs. Austria-Hungary
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S)(ITALIAN FRONT ONLY): Italy and Austria
DECLARATION: Italy against Germany and Austria-Hungary, April 26, 1915
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Italy primarily sought territorial gains at the expense of Austria-Hungary; *See also* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
OUTCOME: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
CASUALTIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
TREATIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)

This entry focuses on the Italian Front in World War I. *See* WORLD WAR I: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND (1871–1914) for the causes and outbreak of the war and for major statistics. *See* WORLD WAR I: WESTERN FRONT (1914–1918) for the war's resolution with the Treaty of Versailles and associated treaties. Also see the following entries, which treat the course of the war on other fronts: WORLD WAR I: AFRICA AND ASIA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: AT SEA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: THE BALKANS (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: EASTERN FRONT (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: MESOPOTAMIA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: TURKISH FRONTS (1914–1918).

ITALY ENDS NEUTRALITY

Despite its alliance with the Central Powers, Italy maintained neutrality at the outbreak of war while the Allies applied adroit diplomacy, promising Italy territorial gains at the expense of Austria-Hungary in exchange for an alliance. This resulted in the secret Treaty of London with Great Britain, France, and Russia, signed on April 26, 1915, by which Italy's obligations to the Triple Alliance were abrogated. The promised prizes were the Italian-populated Trentino and Trieste (both under Austro-Hungarian control) as well as the South Tirol, Gorizia, Istria, and northern Dalmatia. On May 23, 1915, Italy formally declared war on Austria-Hungary.

Italy brought to the conflict an army of 875,000 men, who were, however, poorly equipped (especially with regard to artillery, ammunition reserves, and transport) and poorly led. The army's longtime chief of staff, General Alberto Pollio (d. 1914), succumbed to heart attack in 1914 and was replaced by the unpopular General Luigi Cadorna (1850–1928), a commander entirely lacking combat experience.

THE ITALIAN STRATEGY

Relations between Italy and Austria-Hungary had long been strained. Austria-Hungary had heavily fortified its Italian frontier, threatening attack from Trentino, which bordered Venetia to the northwest. Equally vulnerable was the northern Italian region along the Carnic Alps.

Cadorna adopted a defensive posture in these areas, choosing to concentrate the main effort on an offensive that would proceed eastward from the province of Venetia across the lower valley of the Isonzo (Soca) River. Cadorna's objective was to force a salient into Austro-Hungarian territory with the aim of taking the town of Gorizia on the east bank of the Isonzo. Beyond this immediate objective, Cadorna envisioned an Italian army of conquest marching through Trieste and into Vienna itself.

FIRST BATTLES OF THE ISONZO

Lacking practical command experience, Cadorna began his advance eastward in May 1915, only to find his armies bogged down by seasonal flooding of the Isonzo River. He had simply ignored the weather. With the progress of the Italian army arrested, both the Austro-Hungarians and the Italians dug in, and the Isonzo front became a trench line. Cadorna as well as the other Allies had hoped the Italian front would be one of movement. Instead, it had instantly hardened into yet another static battle zone.

Cadorna resolved to avoid the kind of stalemate that gripped the western front. He ordered a series of offensives that would become known as the Battles of the Isonzo. Cadorna counted on his superiority of numbers over the Austro-Hungarians—some 200,000 men versus 100,000. But, as was apparent from the experience of the western front, the defenders always enjoyed a disproportionate advantage over the attackers. The First Battle of Isonzo (June 23–July 7, 1915) resulted in no progress. The Second (July 18–August 3) likewise failed; Cadorna was forced to break off his attack when his artillery ammunition was exhausted. Together, these battles counted 60,000 Italian casualties versus 45,000 for the Austro-Hungarian army. No ground had been gained.

Despite the complete failure of the first two offensives, Cadorna mounted a third from October 18 to November 4, using more guns. The result was another disaster. On November 10, Cadorna resumed the offensive, breaking off on December 10. The Third and Fourth Battles of the Isonzo killed or wounded 117,000 Italians. Casualties on the Austro-Hungarian side were 72,000.

ASIAGO OFFENSIVE

If Italy's Cadorna was obsessive in his ambition to break through at the Isonzo, his Austro-Hungarian opponent, Field Marshal Conrad von Hötzendorf (1852–1925), was similarly obsessed—by a personal hatred of Italy and Italians. He believed that his army could deliver a single massive blow that would knock Italy out of the war, eliminate the Italian front, and allow Austria-Hungary to devote itself to helping Germany defeat Russia. Conrad appealed to Germany's commander in chief, Erich von Falkenhayn (1861–1922), to authorize a German-Austrian assault against Italy; when Falkenhayn declined, Conrad resolved to proceed on his own. He formulated an offensive—the Asiago offensive—in the Trentino, behind the main Italian armies on the Isonzo front. His objective was to drive through Trentino's mountain passes, occupy the plain of northern Italy, and there trap the Italians deployed along the Isonzo front as well as those occupying the Carnic Alps.

Cadorna, preparing to mount the fifth Isonzo offensive, noted the fact that Conrad was assembling 15 divisions to menace the Trentino. Accordingly, Cadorna ordered General Roberto Brusati's (fl. 1900s) First Army to prepare for an anticipated Austro-Hungarian offensive there. Unfortunately, Brusati largely ignored Cadorna's orders, with the result that his men were wholly unprepared for attack by the Austro-Hungarian Eleventh and Third Armies.

The Asiago offensive at first went very well for the Austro-Hungarian forces, which made substantial gains over difficult terrain. Cadorna, however, responded quickly by breaking off the Fifth Battle of Isonzo to transfer 500,000 men to the Trentino. The reinforcements stemmed the Austro-Hungarian advance by June 2, 1916. Italian losses in the Asiago offensive were 147,000 killed or wounded, in addition to some 40,000 taken prisoner. Austrian losses totaled 81,000, including 26,000 POWs.

SIXTH, SEVENTH, EIGHTH, AND NINTH BATTLES OF THE ISONZO

The Sixth Battle of the Isonzo was fought during August 6–17, 1916, and, with Austro-Hungarian lines thinned by the Trentino offensive, resulted in the Italian capture of Gorizia. At the cost of 51,000 Italian dead and wounded (versus 40,000 Austrian casualties), this evidence of "progress" boosted badly flagging Italian morale.

The Seventh (September 14–26), Eighth (October 10–12), and Ninth (November 1–4) Battles of the Isonzo took a toll on the Austro-Hungarian army, but again at tremendous cost to the Italians. In this series of battles, 75,000 Italian soldiers became casualties versus 63,000 Austrians, killed, wounded, or taken prisoner.

THE ISONZO FRONT IN 1917

By early 1917, some Allied political leaders, most notably British prime minister David Lloyd-George (1863–1945), were proposing that French and British troops be diverted from the western front to aid the Italians. British and French military commanders opposed such a scheme, however, and Cadorna was left on his own. He pledged never to give up at Isonzo.

From May 12, 1917, to June 8, Cadorna mounted yet another offensive on the Isonzo front and managed to gain a small amount of territory. Although Austro-Hungarian casualties reached 75,000 killed and wounded, Italian losses were a staggering 157,000. Cadorna ignored the cost and focused instead on the slight gain he had made. On August 18, 1917, he commenced the 11th Battle of the Isonzo, with the Italian Second Army, under General Luigi Capello (1859–1941), attacking the Austrian line north of Gorizia, and the Italian Third, commanded by Duke

Emmanuel Philibert of Aosta (1869–1931), pushing south of this, into the hills between Gorizia and Trieste. The Austro-Hungarian Fifth Army checked this advance, but Capello's army advanced rapidly and captured the high ground at Bainsizza Plateau. The Austro-Hungarian forces here were close to collapse, but Capello had advanced so quickly and so far that he soon outran both his supply lines and his artillery. Capello, therefore, halted his advance, thereby providing the battered Austro-Hungarians sufficient respite to call on the Germans for help.

THE BATTLE OF CAPORETTO

Seven divisions of Austrians reinforced by Germans quickly concentrated at the small town of Caporetto. Cadorna apparently took no notice of this concentration, even as he paid little attention to the collapse of morale and discipline within his own exhausted and disgusted forces.

It was October before Cadorna began to suspect that the Austro-Hungarians were preparing for an offensive. Accordingly, Cadorna shifted from his own offensive preparations to mount a defense. However, he made the tragic mistake of discounting the mountainous Caporetto sector as the one place where an offensive was unlikely.

The combined Austro-Hungarian and German offensive was under the command of a German general, Otto von Below (1857–1944), who employed the rapid and violent "Hutier tactics" that had proven so effective against the Russians at Riga. The Battle of Caporetto (also called the 12th Battle of the Isonzo) began at 2 A.M. on October 24, 1917, with a massive artillery barrage of high explosives, gas, and smoke. Just six hours later, the German infantry assault commenced and punched through the Italian line at several points, allowing the Austro-German forces to outflank many positions. The attack was so violent and unexpected that many Italians simply surrendered or fled. By nightfall of the first day of battle, the attackers had penetrated 12 miles and had routed the defenders. Cadorna ordered a retreat to the Tagliamento River. His entire force had completed the withdrawal by the end of October. Ten thousand Italian troops had been killed in action, another 30,000 wounded, and an astounding 293,000 taken prisoner; 400,000 had broken ranks and deserted.

BATTLE OF THE PIAVE

Below's forces moved so far and so fast that they soon outran their lines of supply. The advance slowed. On November 2, they attacked the Italian line at Cornino, forcing another Italian withdrawal to a point north of Venice, on the Piave River, a heavily fortified position. Cadorna now commanded 300,000 troops—600,000 having become casualties or deserters.

Having withdrawn, Cadorna was relieved of command and replaced by General Armando Diaz (1861–1928). Recognizing Italy's dire straits, France at last sent reinforcements by November 10. Soon the British also contributed troops. Diaz was a more capable commander than Cadorna, and the Italian army was now motivated by the knowledge that it was fighting in direct and desperate defense of the homeland. Under Diaz, the Piave line was held, and it became the new principal Italian front.

Fighting continued along this entrenched front through early spring 1918, when the Germans pulled their troops out of the Italian front, once again leaving the Austro-Hungarian forces to fight alone. At this point, dissension tore the Austro-Hungarian command. Conrad argued with General Svetozar Borojevic von Bojna (fl. 1900s) over who would be in charge of finishing off Italy. The dispute was referred to the high command, and Archduke Josef Agustin (1872–1962) settled the matter by allowing both commanders to attack simultaneously. This misjudgment ensured the failure of what was planned as the decisive Austro-Hungarian offensive. The mountainous terrain of the region would prevent communication between the divided forces, which doomed them to act independently—whereas neither alone was sufficient to achieve victory.

The Battle of Piave began with a diversionary attack at the Tonale Pass; the Italians repulsed it on June 13. This was followed by the main attacks. Conrad targeted the city of Verona, and Borojevic took Padua as his objective. Diaz, having intercepted some Austrian deserters, had acquired sufficient intelligence to prepare strong defensive positions. When Conrad's Eleventh Army struck the Italian Fifth and Sixth Armies, it was repulsed by violent counterattacks that neutralized Conrad's forces, leaving Borojevic on his own. He attacked along the lower reaches of the Piave and at first made extensive progress, penetrating the Italian lines for three miles. Diaz, however, sent bombers to disrupt Borojevic's supply lines, then attacked the Austro-Hungarians with the Ninth Army, a fresh force that had been held in reserve. Under attack and completely cut off from the possibility of reinforcement, Borojevic withdrew during the night of June 22–23.

ITALIAN COUNTEROFFENSIVE

To the consternation of the French and British, General Diaz refused to order his exhausted army to mount an immediate counterattack. It was not until October 1918, after British and French divisions had been sent to reinforce him, that Diaz began counteroffensive operations against Vittorio Veneto, across the Piave River. Because Austria-Hungary had already asked for an armistice, Diaz assumed that the army would offer little resistance. In fact, the Austro-Hungarians fought fiercely, pushing back the Italian Fourth Army and inflicting heavy losses at the Battle of Monte Grappo (October 23, 1918). On the next day, the Austro-Hungarian Sixth Army halted the advance of the Italian Eighth on the Piave line. French and British reinforcements gained positions to the left and right of the Austrians, and a single American regiment, the 332nd

Infantry, also joined the battle. The combined Allied forces were able to split the Austrian front, creating a gap that allowed them to penetrate to Sacile by October 30. Shortly after this, the Austro-Hungarian defense entirely collapsed, and the Italians marched on Belluno (November 1) and the Tagliamento River (November 2).

AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN COLLAPSE

Immediately following the Italian breakthrough, the British and French took Trent on November 3, forcing the surrender of 300,000 Austro-Hungarian troops. Trieste fell to the Allies on this day as well, and Austria-Hungary signed an armistice. The war on the Italian front had ended—just seven days before World War I itself would be concluded by a general armistice.

Further reading: Richard J. B. Bosworth, *Italy and the Approach of the First World War* (New York: St. Martin's, 1983); George H. Cassar, *The Forgotten Front: The British Campaign in Italy 1917–18* (London: Hambledon and London, 1998); David G. Herrmann, *The Arming of Europe and the Making of the First World War* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1997); Michael Hickey, *First World War: The Mediterranean Front 1914–1923* (London: Osprey, 2002); Michael Howard, *First World War* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002).

World War I: Mesopotamia (1914–1918)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS (MESOPOTAMIA ONLY): Britain and Turkey
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S) (MESOPOTAMIA ONLY): Mesopotamian region (modern Iran and Iraq)
DECLARATION: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
OUTCOME: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
CASUALTIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
TREATIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)

This entry focuses on the Mesopotamian front in World War I. *See* WORLD WAR I: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND (1871–1914) for the causes and outbreak of World War I and for major statistics relating to the war. WORLD WAR I: WESTERN FRONT (1914–18) includes the war's resolution with the Treaty of Versailles and associated treaties. Also see the following entries, which treat the course of the war on other fronts: WORLD WAR I: AFRICA AND ASIA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: AT SEA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: THE BALKANS (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: EASTERN FRONT (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: ITALIAN FRONT (1915–1918); WORLD WAR I: TURKISH FRONTS (1914–1918).

As the British initially saw it, the strategic importance of Mesopotamia lay in its oil fields. Although most of the Royal Navy ran on coal in 1914–18, oil was still essential as a lubricant and as fuel for land vehicles. The British cabinet persuaded the Indian colonial government to mount an expedition to protect the great Anglo-Persian pipeline. At Qurna, this force brushed aside light Turkish resistance (April 12–14, 1915), an achievement British military planners inflated out of all proportion. A further advance was ordered, with the ultimate—and utterly unrealistic—objective of capturing Baghdad, which was seen as strategically more important than it really was. In fact, the campaign to take Baghdad was more a product of military frustration than it was of sound military strategy. Deadlocked on the western front, military planners sought movement wherever they might find it—even if such "progress" was of doubtful utility in hastening victory.

Major General Charles V. F. Townshend (1861–1924) led a reinforced division and naval flotilla up the Tigris River, took a Turkish outpost near Qurna on May 31, then proceeded to Amara, which he occupied on June 3. Major General George F. Gorringe (1868–1945) coordinated his movements with those of Townshend and led a small force up the Euphrates as protection of Townshend's flank. Commencing on July 24, at the Battle of Nasiriya, he pounded strong Turkish defensive positions. After a month of hard fighting, these positions were taken.

Having been sent reinforcements, Townshend was now ordered to attack and capture Kut-el-Amara, a village at the confluence of the Tigris and Shatt-el-Hai Rivers. His 11,000 men and 28 guns arrived just below Kut by September 16. Kut was extremely well defended by about 10,000 Turks, who were well furnished with 38 guns. Fearful that his communication and supply lines were vulnerable, Townshend decided to await supply before attacking. This also gave him time to study Kut closely. He determined that the position was indeed well fortified but that it had a key weakness. The Turkish forces were deployed astride the Tigris River, divided, with the only bridge fully five miles upstream. The Turks were firmly planted, but they had foolishly limited their own lateral mobility.

Townshend planned an attack to exploit this weakness. On September 26, he ordered two brigades to conduct a demonstration on the right bank of the Tigris to decoy the Turkish reserves. Once the Turks had taken the bait, he moved the two decoy brigades back to positions north of the river under cover of darkness on the night of September 27. Now, with his full forces, he attacked and enveloped the isolated left flank of the divided Turkish army, driving two-thirds of the defenders out of their

positions. Townshend had achieved a neat and efficient victory. But desert combat was grueling, and his troops were too exhausted to press their advantage immediately. The Turks, defeated, withdrew intact. They took up new positions farther up the Tigris at Ctesiphon.

After resting, reorganizing, and, as far as he was able, resupplying his troops, Townshend advanced on Ctesiphon during November 11–22. He was determined to press on to Baghdad. However, at Ctesiphon Townshend found himself confronting extremely well fortified defenses. He also learned that the Turks had been reinforced to a total strength of 18,000 tough Anatolian infantrymen in addition to various Arab auxiliary troops. With only 10,000 infantry and 1,000 cavalry, mostly Indian troops, Townshend was seriously outnumbered. Nevertheless, he attacked on November 22 in all-out effort that left nothing in reserve. Remarkably, the first results were highly encouraging. The Turkish vanguard disintegrated before the Anglo-Indian onslaught. But these initial gains were followed by Turkish counterattacks, which came in rapid succession over the next four days. Townshend held out against wave after wave before he withdrew. His Anglo-Indian army had suffered 4,600 casualties out of 11,000 engaged, whereas the Turks lost 6,200 killed and wounded.

The Turkish troops were too battered to pursue the retreating Anglo-British effectively. Townshend fought a single rear-guard action at Umm-at-Tubal on December 1, then returned to Kut, reaching it on December 3. Townshend understood that his infantry was too exhausted to retreat farther. He sent his cavalry to the rear to fetch reinforcements, while he hunkered down with his infantry to await the Turks. The siege began on December 7. In the meantime, alerted to Townshend's peril, General Fenton J. Aylmer (fl. 1900s) led two Indian divisions to his rescue. He was checked by Turkish resistance in January, however. General George F. Gorringe, sent to replace Aylmer, decided to overcome the Turkish roadblock with a surprise attack against the Turkish positions on the south bank of the Tigris on March 7. Turkish forces here were led by the superannuated German general Kolmar von der Goltz (1843–1916), who skillfully repulsed Gorringe's attack. This prevented the rescue of Townshend. Several more times, the British mounted rescue attempts but were foiled in every attempt. By April 1916, Townshend's food supply had failed, and with starvation looming, he surrendered Kut and his force of 2,070 British and approximately 6,000 Indian troops. The cost to the failed British relief forces had been high—21,000 casualties—but General von der Goltz, aged 73, was not able to relish his victory. He died from cholera just before Townshend surrendered.

In August 1916, Sir Frederick S. Maude (1864–1917) was appointed to the Mesopotamian command, but he was restricted to an entirely defensive role while the War Office in London debated with the Indian army command as to whether simply to abandon the Mesopotamian front altogether. In the end, the British presence in Mesopotamia was sustained, if only to continue to protect the oil fields. It was not until December 13, 1916, that Maude was given permission to mount a new offensive on this front. He embarked up both banks of the Tigris with an army of 166,000 men, most of them Indian troops. During February 22–23, 1917, Maude defeated the Turkish Sixth Army at the Second Battle of Kut, then, on March 11, after sustained fighting along the Diyala River, Maude marched into Baghdad—the prize that had figured so prominently in British eyes, the prize that had cost British forces dearly in Mesopotamia.

During September 27–28, Maude advanced out of Baghdad to secure the oil fields of Mosul. He was well on his way to achieving this objective when he succumbed to cholera.

Mosul was not definitively secured until the end of the war, when General A. S. Cobbe (1870–1931) engaged and defeated the Turkish Tigris Group on October 29, 1918. The Turkish armistice was concluded the very next day, but Cobbe was ordered to take and occupy Mosul, contrary to the provisions of the armistice. Cobbe prevailed, and the Turkish garrison of Halil Pasha withdrew without a fight. This was the last action on the Mesopotamian front.

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World War I: Turkish Fronts (1914–1918)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS (TURKISH FRONTS ONLY): Turkey vs. Russia, Britain, Australia, New Zealand, and Arab forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S) (TURKISH FRONTS ONLY): Caucasus; Daradanelles; Egypt, Palestine, and Arabia
DECLARATION: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
OUTCOME: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
CASUALTIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
TREATIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)

This entry focuses on the Turkish fronts of World War I. *See* WORLD WAR I: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND (1871–1914) for the causes and outbreak of World War I and for major statistics relating to the war. WORLD WAR I: WESTERN FRONT (1914–1918) includes the war's resolution with the Treaty of Versailles and associated treaties. Also see the following entries, which treat the course of the war on other fronts: WORLD WAR I: AFRICA AND ASIA (1914–1918); World WAR I: AT SEA (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: THE BALKANS (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: EASTERN FRONT (1914–1918); WORLD WAR I: ITALIAN FRONT (1915–1918); WORLD WAR I: MESOPOTAMIA (1914–1918).

Enver Pasha (1881–1922), a "Young Turk," was one of the cadre of determined Turkish military officers who engineered the transformation of the archaic and ailing Ottoman Empire into modern Turkey. At the outbreak of World War I, Enver was Turkey's minister of war, and in this capacity, without orders from any higher level, he authorized two German vessels, the *Goeben* and *Breslau,* to lead the Turkish fleet across the Black Sea to bombard the Russian ports of Odessa, Sevastopol, and Theodosia during October 29–30, 1914. The attack constituted Turkey's declaration of war and provoked Allied declarations against Turkey. Although its military was poorly equipped and poorly led, Turkey controlled the Dardanelles, the heavily fortified sea passage to and from Russia. This made Turkey a major power in World War I.

THE CAUCASIAN CAMPAIGN

Enver Pasha was eager for war as an opportunity to reap substantial territorial gains at the expense of Turkey's perennial foe, Russia. Against the strong advice of Turkey's ally Germany, Enver planned a campaign against Russia in the Caucasus Mountains, the natural border between Turkey and Russia. He assumed personal command of 95,000 ill-equipped and inadequately trained soldiers during November and December 1914, leading them over the forbidding Caucasian terrain. Soon Enver found himself snowbound, whipped by severe weather, and then thoroughly outgeneraled by his Russian rivals. The Battle of Sarikamish (December 29, 1914) wiped out all but 12,000 of the would-be invaders, a loss from which the Turkish army would not fully recover during the war.

DARDANELLES CAMPAIGN

By the fall of 1914, the war on the western front was stalemated. Repeatedly frustrated by the failure of attempts to break through the front, Britain's First Lord of the Admiralty Winston Churchill (1874–1965), together with First Sea Lord Admiral John Fisher (1841–1920) and Chancellor of the Exchequer David Lloyd George (1863–1945), proposed at the beginning of 1915 an "indirect approach." The deadlock might be broken by seizing control of the Dardanelles, opening an avenue of aid to beleaguered Russia. This, in turn, would force the Germans to transfer reinforcements from the western front to the eastern front, thereby giving the Allies an opportunity for a breakthrough on the West. Moreover, possession of the Dardanelles would offer the West access to the vast grain fields of Ukraine, a key advantage in what had already become a war of attrition. Finally, there was the important morale factor. The defeat of Turkey would boost flagging Allied morale.

Churchill's plan was to take the Dardanelles with an exclusively naval operation. The scheme was inviting but hardly workable. Although naval action might be effective against fortifications, a land operation was required to occupy whatever the navy might win. Churchill gave little thought to such a requirement.

The naval assault was launched on February 19, 1915, and encountered much greater resistance from Turkish shore batteries than had been anticipated. The effect of the artillery was compounded by inclement weather. Worst of all, however, was the damage inflicted by Turkish mines, which had been laid in dense patterns across the Dardanelles straits. The naval assault was broken off in March. However, in the meantime, Britain's most senior military commander, Lord Horatio Kitchener (1850–1916), decided to release a few divisions (including one French unit) from duty on the western front to make up a land assault force for the Dardanelles campaign. By the time the 78,000 men under the command of General Ian Hamilton (1853–1947) arrived in the straits on March 18, 1915, they were just in time to see the failure of the naval assault.

The land phase of the campaign did not begin auspiciously. Landing the troops was a confused operation, and the first soldiers did not step ashore until April 25. They were deposited on a rugged, narrow shore, thoroughly exposed to Turkish guns. Allied units, especially the ANZACs (Australia–New Zealand Army Corps), came under murderous machine-gun fire. Although the Allies outnumbered the Turkish defenders six to one, their position was untenable, and they were slaughtered daily. By May 8, British mismanagement of the Dardanelles landings had created a set of entrenched beachheads. As on the western front, deadlock now replaced advance. Machine-gun fire and disease—for the troops were exposed to the merciless sun and other elements—claimed many lives. Churchill, father of the entire operation, was disgraced, removed as First Lord of the Admiralty, then relegated to a minor cabinet post. (He soon resigned to take field command of the Sixth Royal Scots Fusiliers on the western front.)

Still, the British refused to give up. During August 6–8, 1915, a second landing was made at Suvla Bay, a few miles north of where the ANZACs had landed in the first assault. The new assault, like the first, failed, yielding only a harvest of Allied dead. On October 15, General Hamilton was relieved of command and was replaced by General Sir Charles Monro (1860–1929), who carried out a brilliant evacuation, which was concluded by January 9, 1916. It was the only aspect of the tragic Dardanelles campaign

that may be said to have succeeded. More than 250,000 Allied troops had been killed or wounded, and Russia was now hopelessly cut off from its allies. As for the western front deadlock, it continued without change.

EGYPT, PALESTINE, AND ARABIA

Early in 1915, the British extended their defenses of the vital Suez Canal eight miles into the Sinai Desert. To do so, they had to fend off an uprising of the Sanusi (Senussi) tribes of western Egypt (*see* SANUSI REVOLT). In the autumn of 1915, British and French officials negotiated an agreement with Hussein Ibn-Ali (1852–1931), the grand sherif of Mecca, pledging to help him gain territory and to support Arab independence from Turkey if he would cooperate with the Allies in operations against the Turks. A British officer, T. E. Lawrence (1888–1935), worked closely with Hussein's son Feisal (1885–1933) in a series of brilliant guerrilla actions, many of them directed against the railway line the Turks relied on for movement and supply. Lawrence's exploits would become the stuff of legend, and "Lawrence of Arabia" would emerge as one of the few genuinely romantic figures of an otherwise unremittingly grim war.

It was not until 1917 that the British made significant headway against the Turks in the Middle East. The Battle of El Magruntein (January 8–9, 1917) forced the Turks from the Sinai Peninsula and put the British in position to take Palestine. The March 26 First Battle of Gaza went badly for the British, as did the Second Battle of Gaza (April 17–19). After the failure of the second battle, the brilliant general Edward Allenby (1861–1936) assumed overall command in the area and drove his army in a campaign to reach Jerusalem before Christmas.

The Third Battle of Gaza, also called the Battle of Beersheba, began early in the morning of October 31, 1917. Allenby attacked with great skill and determination, decimating the Turkish Seventh Army and pushing it back upon Jerusalem. The city fell to him on December 9, 1917. Having accomplished his mission, Allenby was now forced to give up many of his men to service on the western front. With his conventional forces all but idled due to a shortage of personnel, Allenby made much use of T. E. Lawrence as leader of Feisal's small force of tribal warriors. These 6,000 men raided the Hejaz Railway, principal supply line for the Turks. The continual raids effectively tied down some 25,000 Turkish troops, neutralizing them as surely as if they had been defeated in battle.

In August 1917, Lawrence led a force of camel riders to disrupt Turkish rail communications and, ultimately, capture the port of Aqaba by means of a surprise strike from the rear. Early in the fall of 1918, the intrepid Lawrence approached Allenby with a plan for Arab participation in the offensive Allenby planned as the decisive campaign to end the war in the Middle East. Lawrence proposed that the Arabs form the British right flank in the army's advance through Palestine to Damascus, Syria. Allenby agreed—without understanding Lawrence's ulterior motive. A highly principled admirer of the Arabs, Lawrence was eager to help achieve Arab independence from the Ottoman Empire. Against Allenby's instructions, he planned to lead the Arab contingent in advance of Allenby and thereby capture Damascus before the main body of British troops arrived. This would give Feisal a claim on the city as the new capital of an independent Arabia. By early September 1918, under pressure from attack by Allenby and Lawrence, the Turks evacuated Damascus, and Lawrence, at the head of 3,000 Arabs, entered the city on October 1, three hours in advance of Allenby.

Allenby did fight the culminating action of the war in the Middle East, the Battle of Megiddo, which crushed the Turkish force by September 21, 1918. A masterfully executed attack, it was without doubt the most brilliant British action of World War I. Three enemy armies were annihilated and 76,000 prisoners taken. The cost to Allenby was light: 853 killed, 4,482 wounded, and 385 missing. From September 22 to October 30, Allenby pursued the fleeing remnants of the Turkish army. Damascus, as mentioned above, fell on October 1, and Beirut followed on October 2. Although elements of Allenby's infantry occupied these key cities, his Desert Mounted Corps—camel riders—led a further advance to the Syrian city of Homs (occupied October 16) and to Aleppo (occupied October 25), on Syria's border with Turkey. With the British on their border, the Turks agreed to an armistice on October 30, 1918. The war on the Turkish fronts was over.

Further reading: Cyril Falls, *Armageddon, 1918: The Final Palestinian Campaign of World War I* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2003); Michael Hickey, *Gallipoli* (London: J. Murray, 1995); Matthew Hughes, *Allenby and British Strategy in the Middle East, 1917–1919* (London and Portland, Oreg.: F. Cass, 1999); Alan Moorehead, *Gallipoli* (New York: HarperCollins Perennial Classics, 2002); Jeremy Wilson, *Lawrence of Arabia: The Authorized Biography of T. E. Lawrence* (New York: Collier Books, 1992).

World War I: Western Front (1914–1918)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Germany vs. Belgium, France, Great Britain, and United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Western Europe (chiefly Belgium and France)
DECLARATION: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
OUTCOME: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)

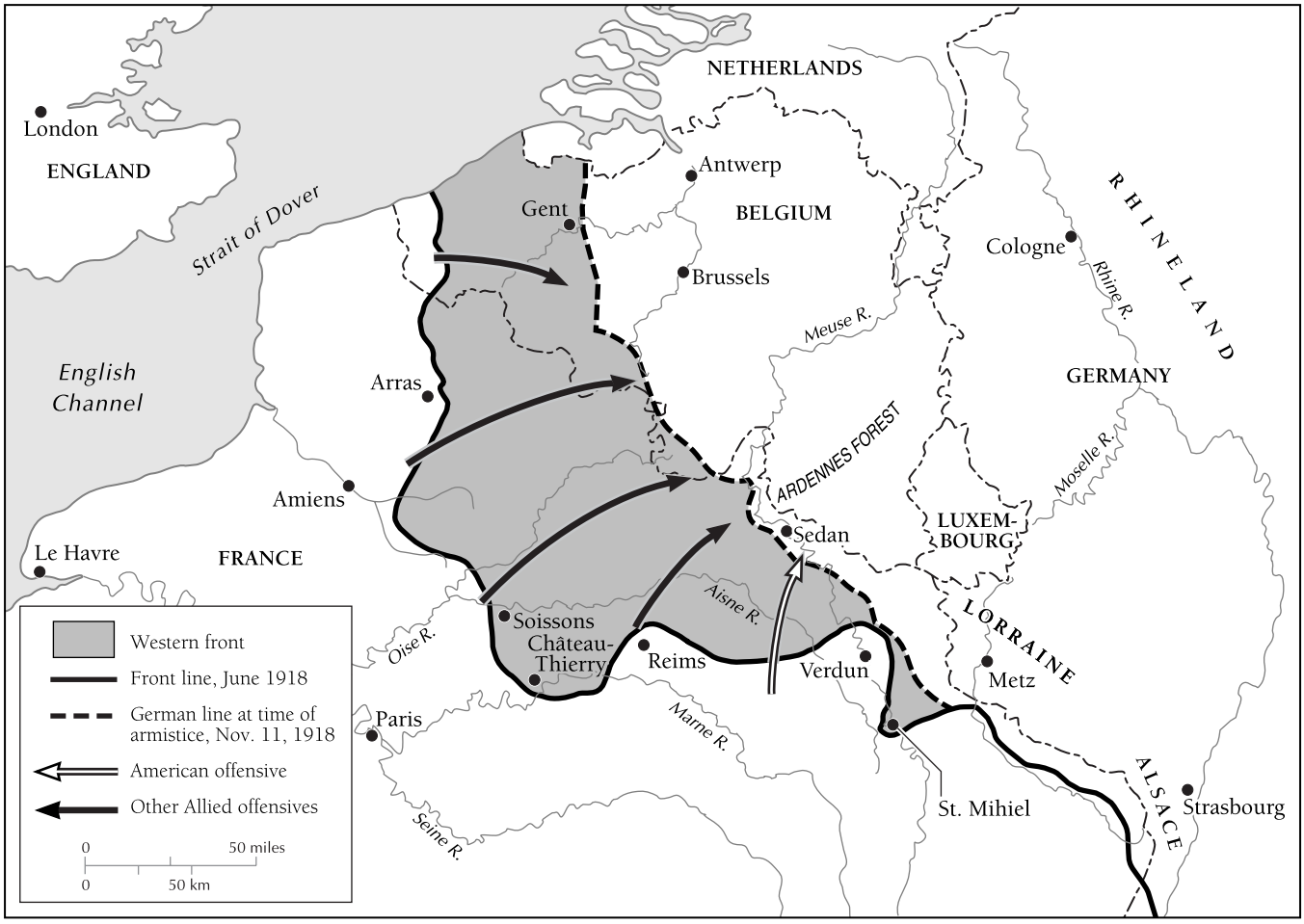
CASUALTIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)
TREATIES: *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914)

This entry focuses on the Western Front of World War I and on the war's resolution with the Treaty of Versailles and associated treaties. *See* World War I: Historical Background (1871–1914) for the causes and outbreak of the war and major statistics relating to the war. Also see the following entries, which treat the course of the war on other fronts: World War I: Africa and Asia (1914–1918); World War I: At Sea (1914–1918); World War I: The Balkans (1914–1918); World War I: Eastern Front (1914–1918); World War I: Italian Front (1915–1918); World War I: Mesopotamia (1914–1918); World War I: Turkish Fronts (1914–1918).

BATTLE OF THE FRONTIERS

On the western front, the period from August 2 to August 26, 1914, constituted the Battle of the Frontiers. This opening month of the war was occupied by the mass movement of troops, as Germany advanced through Belgium and into France. Belgium had been a neutral power since 1839, and its neutrality was guaranteed by a multilateral international agreement. Belgium's King Albert had long recognized the threat posed by Germany, but he dared not coordinate military planning with Britain or France, which might be interpreted as an abrogation of neutrality. At the outbreak of war, Belgium was largely left to defend itself.

The army of Belgium was small, a mere 100,000 men, but it did have one of the most formidable systems of fortresses in Europe. The mightiest, Liège, a veritable fortress city, commanded the Meuse River at a highly strategic point. According to the Schlieffen Plan, which outlined Germany's war strategy, the German First and Second Armies, the northernmost of the five German armies invading France, had to pass through the area dominated by Liège. A special task force of 30,000 elite troops was assembled to attack Liège by night. In the meantime, other units invaded Luxembourg, securing vital railheads into France and Belgium. On August 2, the German ambassador delivered an ultimatum demanding free passage through Belgium. King Albert refused and began blowing up bridges and rail routes into his country. Two days later,



Western Front, which changed little from 1914 to 1918

German troops crossed the Belgian frontier at Gemmerich, and on the night of August 5–6, the task force began its assault on Liège. Belgian resistance was fierce and inflicted disproportionate losses on the Germans. However, by August 6, a German brigade, with the aid of bombardment by zeppelins, forced the Belgians from the main citadel of the fortification system, and Liège fell on August 16. The Belgian army, what was left of it, retreated to Antwerp, where it succeeded in compromising the Schlieffen Plan timetable by harassing the German right wing.

FRENCH ERRORS

The commander in chief of French forces, Joseph Jacques Césaire Joffre (1852–1931), rotund and superannuated, called "Papa Joffre," mistakenly interpreted the attack on Liège as nothing more than a feint to decoy French forces away from the Ardennes, where, according to the assumptions of French Plan XVII, the Germans would make their main attack. In strict adherence to the plan, Joffre largely discounted the Belgian front and instead deployed his First and Second Armies to thrust toward the Saar River into Lorraine, while, to the north (the French left), the Third and Fifth Armies would stand prepared to launch an offensive between Metz and Thionville or to strike from the north at the flank of any German drive through the Ardennes. Because this deployment was well to the south of the Belgian border, Joffre had thus left his forces vulnerable to devastating attack on their left flank and rear.

BRITISH ERRORS

Great Britain declared war on August 4 and mobilized quickly and efficiently. The declaration had been motivated by Germany's invasion of Belgium; however, British strategy called for rendering aid directly to the French, not the Belgians. Sir John French (1852–1925), commanding the British Expeditionary Force (BEF), asked permission to deploy to Antwerp to aid the Belgians but was overruled by his government. Accordingly, the BEF, having arrived on the Continent on August 9, marched toward Mons in northwestern France. As Joffre had failed to deploy troops where they could halt the German advance, so now the British lost another opportunity to check the Germans.

THE GERMAN ADVANCE

After the "Liège bottleneck" had been broken, the German right wing—the two northernmost armies, under General Alexander von Kluck (1846–1934) (First Army) and General Karl von Bülow (1846–1921) (Second Army)—advanced rapidly through Belgium as the "rim" of a great wheel movement that would take them deep into France and behind the main positions of the French army. Wherever the Allies resisted, they were swept away. The technology of defensive weaponry, especially the machine gun, had greatly outstripped the technology of offensive weaponry. This gave defenders a great advantage—if they knew how to use it. France's Plan XVII, however, was wholly offensive in nature. This meant that as the Germans advanced the Allies would put up defensive lines, which typically succeeded in halting the advance. As soon as it was halted, however, the Allied defenders would resume the offensive called for in Plan XVII. For their part, the Germans, the invaders and attackers, nevertheless put strong emphasis on defensive as well as offensive tactics. By the time the Allies mounted their offensives, the Germans had dug themselves in and were prepared to defend. The result, invariably, was Allied slaughter, as German machine gunners cut down the attackers. In this way, the Allies were forced into retreat. By the end of August, German troops were just 30 miles outside of Paris.

Back in Belgium, the civilian population suffered terribly at the hands of the German invaders. Ordinary Belgians laid ambushes for the advancing soldiers and destroyed or sabotaged bridges, railways, and telephone lines. The Germans responded with outrageous cruelty, including mass reprisals in the form of summary executions. German theft, vandalism, arson, and rape were widely reported by the press and even magnified by the Allied propaganda machine. The stories not only goaded the Allies into pressing the fight even in the face of mounting losses and increasing discouragement but also deeply affected neutral nations, especially the United States, where public opinion steadily turned against Germany.

ACTION IN LORRAINE AND ARDENNES

On August 8, General Paul Pau (1848–1932) led the French Army of Alsace to Mulhouse, in German territory, not far from the Swiss border. This was followed farther north, during August 14–22, by a full-scale offensive led by General Auguste Dubail (1851–1934) (First Army) and General Noël de Castelnau (1851–1944) (Second Army) against the German Sixth Army led by Crown Prince Rupprecht (1869–1955) of Bavaria and the Seventh Army commanded by General Josias von Heeringen (1850–1926). Both of these forces withdrew under attack before converging and returning with a strong counterattack, which forced the French into retreat west to Nancy. Through the heroic efforts of General Ferdinand Foch (1851–1929), in command of the French XXth Corps, Nancy held, but the French First and Second Armies suffered devastating losses.

Just north of the First and Second armies, the Third Army, under General Pierre Ruffey (1851–1932) and, behind him, in reserve, the Fourth Army, commanded by General Fernand de Langle de Cary (1849–1931), held the Ardennes. These forces collided head on with the German Fourth and Fifth armies, under Duke Albrecht of Württemberg (1865–1939) and Crown Prince Wilhelm (1882–1951), respectively. Badly outnumbered, the French resisted vigorously during August 20–25, suffering

stunning losses before finally withdrawing to the Meuse River and into the great fortress of Verdun.

BATTLES ON THE SAMBRE AND AT MONS

Joffre had largely ignored warnings of the great German advance through Belgium, but General Charles L. M. Lanrezac (1852–1925), commanding the French Fifth Army on the French left flank (extreme north), was so insistent in his demand for reinforcements that Joffre directed British and Belgian forces at Namur, Belgium, to join with Lanrezac in battle to the north. On August 9, Lanrezac sent a reconnaissance force into Belgium and quickly concluded that he would be trapped in the Ardennes if he proceeded with the attack Joffre demanded there. At last, on August 15, Joffre agreed to send Fifth Army north to Namur, at the confluence of the Sambre and Meuse rivers. Here, on the 21st, Lanrezac collided with Bülow's Second Army. Lanrezac panicked and dug in for defense but failed to issue adequate orders to his subordinate commanders. The result was a weak and poorly coordinated defense. Uncertain of the state of his left flank and of the intentions of his British and Belgian allies, Lanrezac chose to defend the high ground along the Sambre.

The Battle of the Sambre began on August 21 and continued, in its first phase, through the 22nd, when Bülow succeeded in repelling all French attacks. Bülow then launched a counterattack, which forced a further French retreat, even while other German forces took the key Belgian fortress of Namur.

By August 23, the BEF was in position at Mons, Belgium, about eight miles west of where Lanrezac was engaged. Lanrezac, incredibly, made no attempt to coordinate an attack or defense with the BEF, instead withdrawing under cover of darkness. On the morning of the 24th, the German commanders were stunned to find that they had no one to fight. Lanrezac and his Fifth Army were gone. However, Bülow, having been given operational control of Alexander von Kluck's First Army, ordered that unit to move south to support the Second Army's attack on Lanrezac's left flank. This unexpectedly brought Kluck into collision with the BEF under Field Marshal Sir John French at Mons on August 22.

Although outnumbered, the British had time to dig into favorable defensive positions, against which the notoriously aggressive Kluck mounted a full-scale attack, beginning on August 23. Highly trained British riflemen responded with devastating rifle fire, which forced the attackers to withdraw and regroup. For his part, French prepared to resume defensive operations on the 24th, in the expectation of reinforcement from Lanrezac. In the nick of time, however, French learned that Lanrezac had withdrawn. French felt that he had no choice but to withdraw as well. Kluck pursued, inflicting 7,800 casualties on the British rear guard (a force of 40,000 men) at the Battle of Le Cateau on August 26. The rest of the BEF now joined the French Fourth and Fifth Armies in a general retreat.

THE ALLIES FACE DISASTER

The French attempt at an offensive had failed, at the cost of more than 300,000 of France's best troops and additional great losses among the other Allies. From August 27 to September 4, the defeated Allies withdrew deeper into France. For their part, the Germans, though victorious, faced grave problems of their own. Supply and communication lines were thin and vulnerable. In this all-out effort, there were no reserves to relieve the fatigued or replace the wounded and dead.

DEFENSE OF PARIS

With their nation deeply invaded and the army badly beaten, the French faced the imminent prospect of the fall of Paris, which was poorly defended and could not long withstand a siege. General Joseph-Simon Gallieni (1849–1916), a veteran of the Franco-Prussian War, appointed military governor of Paris, was charged with mounting a last-minute defense—even as Marshal Joffre proceeded to order troops out of the capital to reinforce positions at the front. It was clear that Joffre was willing to sacrifice the capital, if need be. Against all odds, Gallieni worked tirelessly to transform "the city of light" into an armed camp. He decided not to try to defend Paris from siege but to use it as a base of operations for battles that would be fought on the outskirts of the city. Gallieni understood that the "front" was about to become Paris itself. Preparations were made for mass demolition of buildings, to provide fields of fire, and of bridges, to impede German progress. Gallieni recruited bakers, butchers, and greengrocers to stockpile provisions, and farmers brought their cattle into the city to graze on the elegant Bois de Boulogne. In a rush to gather stores of ammunition, Gallieni pressed into service every transport vehicle available, including the city's legion of taxicabs.

REPRIEVE

At Le Cateau (August 25–27), the BEF successfully, though at great cost, resisted the entire strength of Kluck's army. On the 29th, Joffre at last ordered the French Fifth Army to the relief of the British, directing it to attack Kluck's flank. Initially unsuccessful, the attack eventually managed to check Bülow's advance, by forcing him to come to Kluck's aid, and was, therefore, the first French tactical victory in the Battle of the Frontiers.

As it turned out, this comparatively small triumph would have profound consequences.

General Bülow was forced to call on Kluck for help. The Schlieffen Plan called for the right wing of the German army to make a great sweeping movement of encirclement. This was vital to the plan. Now, in response to Bülow, Kluck instead turned his First Army, the German

right wing, abruptly to the southeast in order to hit what he believed was the vulnerable left flank of the entire remainder of the French army.

Up to this point, the French army had been rolled over by the Schlieffen Plan. Now the entire German right wing was turning so that it would pass east of Paris instead of west and around the capital. Realizing the opportunity this presented, Marshal Joffre now gave Gallieni an entire army, ordering the Sixth Army to concentrate in the Paris area.

Worried only that the French forces would escape him, Kluck had driven his First Army with great speed far in advance of the Second Army. He was totally unaware of the buildup of the French Sixth Army in and around Paris. Helmuth von Moltke (1848–1916), the German chief of staff, had learned of the buildup, however, and ordered Kluck to protect the right flank of the Second Army. But Moltke failed to specify a reason for his order, and Kluck, reasoning that this would allow the French to escape, concluded that he could disregard the letter of Moltke's order and still obey its seeming intention by continuing to move south in order to ensure that the French, whom he believed beaten and disorganized, were driven well to the southeast of Paris—where they could not menace the Second Army.

Thus Kluck departed even further from the already badly compromised Schlieffen Plan. He marched across the Marne River, exposing his own right flank just east of Paris—the very location at which the French Sixth Army had assembled. On September 4, Joffre issued orders for the Sixth Army to attack eastward, toward Chateau-Thierry, just to the northeast of Paris, while the BEF would move against Montmirail, farther east. The French Fifth and Ninth armies would operate in concert with the Sixth and the BEF as the developing situation required. The Fourth Army would hold on along the Marne, well to the east of these positions, ready to advance when ordered. The Third Army, stationed at the fortress of Verdun on the Meuse River, would strike westward. Properly coordinated, these attacks would result in the double envelopment of the German right wing. Kluck's turn had presented nothing less than an opportunity to save France.

THE BATTLE OF THE OURCQ RIVER

Under temporary command of Gallieni, the Sixth Army advanced from Paris to the Ourcq River, where Kluck had left exposed his right flank. At first, Kluck, still operating from his conviction that the French were done for, believed the attack on his right was nothing more than a feint. But when the Battle of the Ourcq raged for two days, Kluck realized that the French, although badly mauled, were not beaten. Quickly, he reversed himself and pulled his troops back north of the Marne, then turned to the west and unleashed a series of savage counterattacks, which sent the French reeling. They fell back toward Paris during September 7–9, even as Gallieni responded by rushing to the Marne the last of the troops stationed within the capital.

Between Kluck's First Army and Bülow's Second was a wide gap, which the BEF and the French Fifth Army (now under General Franchet d'Esperey [1856–1942], the faltering Lanrezac having been relieved of command) exploited, striking at the flank of the German Second Army. Southeast of this combined French and British operation, the French Ninth Army, under General Foch, attacked at St. Gond, only to be battered by the other end of the German Second Army and by the German Third Army. On September 8, Third Army troops launched a violent bayonet attack, which threw the French into confused panic—except for the unshakable Foch, who ordered an immediate renewal of his attack. Stunned by this resilience, the Germans halted their advance.

Elsewhere along the extensive Marne front, the fighting raged intensely, although indecisively. From his distant headquarters, Moltke at last dispatched a staff officer to inspect the front personally. What he saw was the German right flank being turned under pressure from the French Fifth Army. Bülow was commencing a retreat. Kluck, always aggressive, was making progress, but his left flank and rear were highly vulnerable to the BEF. Moltke approved Bülow's retreat and ordered Kluck to withdraw as well. Next, Moltke ordered a general withdrawal to the Aisne River and, on September 14, acknowledged the failure of his stewardship of the Schlieffen Plan by turning over command of the armies to General Erich von Falkenhayn (1861–1922).

Within the space of a month, the German army had made a massive invasion of France, only to turn before Paris. The initiative lost would never be regained. From the Battle of the Marne onward, World War I on the western front would cease to be a war of movement and would become a static orgy of death and destruction between opposing trench lines.

THE RACE TO THE SEA

Erich von Falkenhayn immediately set about trying to rescue what he could of the Schlieffen Plan by massing strength on the right flank to attack the Allies' left. This strategy brought about what historians have called the "Race to the Sea"—a movement toward the North Sea coast as each army tried to outflank the other by moving progressively farther north and west. As the two armies maneuvered in this way, they dug into a series of trench lines that would come to characterize the western front for the next four years.

Although the Germans had let victory slip, they were hardly defeated and, indeed, occupied a strong position on high ground. The German armies were deployed from west to east, beginning with the First Army (Kluck), the Seventh (under Josias von Heeringen), and the Second (Bülow); the

Third, Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth German armies stretched from this point eastward to the Swiss frontier. Against the First, Seventh, and Second armies Joffre hurled, beginning on September 14, the Sixth (under Michel Joseph Maunoury [1847–1923]), the BEF (Sir John French commanding), and the Fifth Army (under d'Esperey). To the east, the French Ninth, Fourth, Third, Second, and First armies were positioned. Despite these massed Allied attacks, the German defenses could not be breached, and on September 18, Joffre called off the offensive.

The two armies jockeyed for position, and by the beginning of October, the Allies had reached the North Sea at Niuwpoort, Belgium. German forces drove the Belgian army out of Antwerp and sent it fleeing to the coast and then south from the coast to Ypres. The BEF took over the line from Ypres, Belgium, south to La Basée, France, while the seven French armies entrenched themselves from this point—which was now the Allies' extreme left—all the way down to the Swiss border. The long line of entrenchments became the western front.

The First Battle of Ypres commenced on October 14 and lasted through the first three weeks of November. The first phase was a nine-day German offensive halted at last by a massing of French reinforcements and the deliberate flooding of the Belgian front by opening dikes. Nevertheless, more than one-third of the Belgian army had been lost by this early point in the war. On October 20, Foch counterattacked in vain. Falkenhayn counterattacked on the 28th, also without success. The heavy rains and snows that closed in by the middle of November brought the First Battle of Ypres to a close.

Dead, missing, or wounded were 2,368 British officers and 55,787 enlisted men—some 80 percent of the BEF committed in this region. French casualties numbered perhaps 50,000, whereas the Germans had lost at least 130,000 men. Overall, in the first three months of fighting, France had lost 380,000 men killed and about 600,000 wounded. German losses were only slightly less.

FRUSTRATION

At the end of 1914 and the beginning 1915, the Allies as well as the Central Powers were frustrated by the prospect of a stalemated war, a war that apparently could not be won, only lost.

Germany's chief of staff, Erich von Falkenhayn, believed that the outcome would ultimately be decided on the western front, but he also recognized that for the present the only opportunities for immediate gain lay in the East. In sum, the Germans were caught between the notion that victory had to be achieved in the west but that, at least in the short term, productive action was possible only in the East. Thus, Germany's western-front strategy became thoroughly dominated by defense.

The Allies were even more frustrated than the Central Powers. France and Britain were deeply divided over the conduct of the war. The subject of supply and provisioning created especially bitter disputes. After Turkey entered the war and cut off Russian access to supply from France and England, as well as Allied access to the Ukrainian grain fields, the young first lord of the Admiralty, Winston Churchill (1874–1965), advocated an immediate campaign to seize from Turkish control the Dardanelles, the strait affording passage between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. Others, including the British war minister Field Marshal Horatio H. Kitchener (1850–1916) and France's "Papa" Joffre, believed that diverting resources from the western front to address the Dardanelles would bring disaster. In the end, an amphibious operation against the Dardanelles was grudgingly approved, only to end in costly failure.

ACTION IN THE CHAMPAGNE

At the end of 1914, Joffre mounted a general Allied offensive from Nieuport on the Belgian coast of the English Channel all the way southeast to Verdun in the Argonne Forest. From December 14 to December 24 British and French forces beat vainly against German lines. On December 20, the First Battle of Champagne commenced and expanded into an Allied offensive throughout the Champagne and Artois regions. Joffre focused on the Noyon salient, an extensive pocket of German troops bulging into central France between Reims and Verdun.

The First Battle of Champagne gained 500 yards for the Allies, at the cost of 50,000 troops. The Germans made limited counterattacks along the La Bassé Canal and near Soissons during January 8 through February 5, halting the French advance. Joffre regrouped and made another foray in March but got nowhere. In all, combat in Champagne and Artois resulted in some 400,000 French casualties. British and German losses were also heavy.

AN INNOVATIVE APPROACH AT NEUVE-CHAPELLE

On March 10, 1915, British general Sir Douglas Haig (1861–1928) tried a new approach to battle at Neuve-Chapelle, just below the Lys River in northwestern France. He began an assault by his First Army with an intensive 35-minute "artillery preparation," using artillery to bombard a narrow front of 2,000 yards. This was followed by an infantry advance. Haig's idea was to concentrate combat in the hope of breaking through the deadlock to disrupt German supply and communication lines. At first, the operation went well, but then it fell apart due to poor execution, communication, and coordination. Haig felt that he had come close to achieving a breakthrough. Analyzing what had gone wrong, Haig and other Allied commanders decided that the artillery preparation had been insufficient. In the future, they decided, offensives would be preceded by long barrages; in many places along the western front, World War I now became a duel

between artillery batteries. The result would be battles that were ever more destructive but no more productive. Extended artillery bombardment sacrificed the element of surprise and so chewed up battlefields that attackers had great trouble advancing.

THE BATTLE OF WOËVRE

The western front was not a straight line running north to south but included bulges of German strength projecting into Allied territory. The two most prominent of these "salients" were the Noyon salient and the Saint-Mihiel salient. The latter, between Verdun and Toul, would loom throughout the war as an inviting target for Allied offensives. From April 6 to April 15, French units repeatedly attacked the northern face of the Saint-Mihiel salient at the Battle of Woëvre. The Germans held fast, and the French withdrew with heavy losses.

THE SECOND BATTLE OF YPRES

Far to the north of Woëvre, the Allies prepared for a second attempt at an offensive against Ypres, Belgium. While preparation was under way, the Germans launched the first poison-gas attack on the western front, on April 22, 1915. Five thousand Allied troops died, and panic was general along a four-mile stretch of front. Fortunately for the Allies, however, the Germans failed to exploit the breach in the lines, and both sides soon resumed their original positions after a series of attacks and counterattacks. Like the other western-front battles after August 1914, the Second Battle of Ypres ended in continued deadlock. German casualties numbered 35,000 killed and wounded; those of the British, 60,000; of the French, 10,000.

THE BATTLE OF VIMY RIDGE

Southeast of Ypres, in northwestern France, the British staged an offensive in May by which they gained little before they were stopped at Festubert, southwest of Neuve Chapelle on May 26.

To the south of the British position, the French launched a vigorous offensive against Vimy Ridge, seeking to push the Germans off this commanding piece of high ground. This battle, near the French town of Souchez, ground on from May 16 to the end of June, at which point the Allies broke off the attack, having achieved nothing. Both sides refrained from mounting new offensives throughout the rest of the summer of 1915.

RENEWED FIGHTING IN CHAMPAGNE AND ARTOIS

Joffre renewed the Allied offensive in the Champagne, sustaining the campaign from September 25 to November 6, 1915. The Second Battle of Champagne resulted in 75,000 German casualties and 100,000 men wounded or killed among the French. From September 25 to October 30, the Third Battle of Artois sought again to dislodge the Germans from Vimy Ridge. Minor territorial gains came at the cost of another 100,000 French casualties.

THE BATTLE OF LOOS

North of the French at Vimy, the British attacked Loos during September 25–October 14, making small gains in territory but at the cost of 60,000 casualties. Following this, the British high command replaced Sir John French with Sir Douglas Haig—who, as it turned out, would spend lives even more prodigally than French had.

TO BLEED FRANCE WHITE

If the British high command was bitterly dissatisfied with the course of the war at the end of 1915, so was the German. Looking for a way to break the deadlock on the western front, Falkenhayn concluded that England had to be thoroughly demoralized. But the way to accomplish this, he wrote to the kaiser, was to knock France out of the war. He believed France was already near the breaking point. To take it beyond that point, he proposed to direct a limited offensive against a single point the French perceived as vital.

The objective Falkenhayn chose was the fortress of Verdun, which had figured as an important fortress since Roman times. Located in a loop of the Meuse River, it occupied a strategic blocking position in the Meuse River valley. It was now a state-of-the-art military fortification, yet at the beginning of 1916 it was occupied only by a small garrison, and its fortress guns had been dismantled and transported elsewhere on the western front for use as field artillery. Ever since the front had hardened into a set of trenches, Verdun had been a quiet sector, which had seen little action. Nevertheless, even if Verdun had been downgraded in immediate military importance, Falkenhayn understood that it was still of great symbolic significance to France. With the western front stalemated, the French would not willingly allow a German breakthrough at the ancient fortress. By threatening this one point, the German commander guessed that he could force the French to keep feeding reinforcements into a front only eight miles wide. If the French gave up at Verdun, they would lose Verdun and allow a German breakthrough. If the French did not give up, they would be "bled white."

The German crown prince was given the mission of assaulting Verdun with his Fifth Army. He wanted to make an overwhelming assault on both sides of the Meuse River, but the conservative Falkenhayn overruled him and ordered the attack to be confined to the east bank of the river. Bad weather delayed the operation until February 21, 1916, giving Joffre time to order reinforcements to the menaced sector.

At 7:15 on the morning of February 21, the attack began with a massive, 1,400-gun artillery bombardment, which poured 100,000 shells each hour onto the small front.

Despite heavy losses, Verdun's defenders continued to resist; as Falkenhayn had predicted, Joffre resolved to hold Verdun at all costs. What Falkenhayn had not counted on was how costly this resistance would be to the Germans.

On February 25, an outlying fortress, Fort Douaumont, fell to the Germans, sending a shiver of panic through Verdun. Joffre responded with a promise to court-martial any commander who voluntarily gave up ground. He also replaced the hesitant General Langle de Cary, in overall command of the Verdun defenses, with Henri Philippe Pétain (1856–1951), who pledged *Ils ne passeront pas!*—They shall not pass! The phrase instantly became the battle cry of Verdun and, indeed, the French motto for the rest of the war.

Pétain was certainly willing to spend lives in the defense of Verdun, but he was also skilled at exacting tremendous casualties from the Germans as well. He did not merely hunker down but, on assuming personal command, used artillery to bombard the German columns as they threaded forward through the steep, narrow valleys east of the Meuse. Pétain also understood the crucial importance of keeping Verdun supplied with ammunition, provisions, and reinforcements. The general designated the one road that led to a depot—Bar-le-Duc, 50 miles westward—as an artery for the exclusive use of supply trucks. An entire division of Territorials was assigned to repair the road continually, filling in shell craters as soon as they were made. The route was christened the *Voie sacrée*—the Sacred Way.

On March 6, the Germans ordered a new assault, which made deadly progress until it, like the others, was finally repelled. Over the course of the month Falkenhayn sent wave after wave against the reinforced French, even reluctantly committing an entire reserve corps for an attack up the left bank of the river toward a small ridge with the sinister name of *Le Morte-homme*—The Dead Man. This would be the focus of the back-and-forth fighting for the rest of the campaign through April and May, when at last German energy and resources flagged. In the meantime, Pétain was promoted to higher command and was replaced at Verdun by the dashing Robert Nivelle (1856–1924).

In June, however, the Germans managed to take Fort Vaux, an outlying outpost on the east bank of the Meuse. This reinvigorated them sufficiently to renew their efforts. In late June and early July, the Germans unleashed their newest form of poison gas, phosgene, which worked by turning into hydrochloric acid in the lungs. At this point, even Pétain, overriding the new commander, Nivelle, recommended withdrawal from Verdun. Joffre refused, however. A Russian offensive in the East put a sudden demand on German forces, and 15 German divisions had to be withdrawn for duty on the eastern front. Verdun was saved, and, on August 29, 1916, having lost 400,000 men in his effort to bleed the French army white, Erich von Falkenhayn was relieved of command, to be replaced by the team that had been so successful in the East: Erich Ludendorff (1865–1937) and Paul von Hindenburg (1847–1934).

THE FRENCH GO ON THE OFFENSIVE

Shortly after the Germans replaced Falkenhayn, the French brought in a new commander at Verdun, Charles Mangin (1866–1925). During the closing months of 1916, Mangin took his army on the offensive, retaking Fort Douaumont on October 24 and Fort Vaux on November 2, ultimately pushing his lines forward, nearly to the position the French had held at the beginning of the battle. The cost to the French of the Verdun campaign was 542,000 killed and wounded, whereas German losses for the period totaled 434,000.

THE SOMME OFFENSIVE

The First Battle of the Somme began on June 24, 1916. Following a massive seven-day artillery preparation, the British Fourth Army, under General Henry S. Rawlinson (1864–1925), made the principal thrust north of the Somme, while General Edmund Allenby (1861–1936) led the Third Army in a supporting action to the north. Simultaneously, south of the Somme, Foch's French Army Group of the North made a holding attack. On July 1, the British infantry hit the strongly defended German Second Army, which yielded scant territory at a cost of 60,000 British casualties, the heaviest one-day loss in Britain's military history. Nevertheless, the British pressed the attack, and action on the Somme continued through July 14, when a British nighttime attack broke through the German second line. Unfortunately, the breakthrough faltered and failed because of poor communications, the attackers were slaughtered, and the German defenders retaliated with massive counterattacks. Through the rest of the summer, a series of smaller actions engulfed the Somme front.

On September 15, southwest of the village of Bapaume, Haig unleashed another major offensive, which employed for the first time the tank, a British innovation intended to break the trench-war stalemate by simply rolling over the trenches. The new weapon created shock and panic where it was used, but its numbers as well as its mechanical reliability were insufficient to make a significant impact on the battle.

The First Battle of the Somme spanned June 24 to November 13, 1916, and resulted in territorial gains for the Allies, but at tremendous cost. The British lost 420,000 men killed and wounded and the French 195,000; German losses numbered about 650,000.

THE UNITED STATES DRIFTS TOWARD WAR

U.S. president Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924) won a second term in the White House in 1916 in large part on the campaign slogan, "He Kept Us Out of War." Since its beginning in 1914, Americans had watched the war with

a combination of anxiety and relief but, in many quarters, also with an awareness that the war was profitable. As a neutral, the United States traded with all sides. Soon, however, it became apparent that American public opinion as well as business and capital favored the Allies over the Central Powers. U.S. financial institutions made huge loans to both sides, but far more to England and France than to Germany and Austria-Hungary. As the war ground on, then, neutral America drifted closer to the Allied camp.

THE *LUSITANIA* IS SUNK

Beginning early in the war, the German navy pursued a policy of unrestricted submarine warfare, meaning that German U-boats were authorized to attack all Allied shipping, military as well as civilian, without first surfacing to give warning. On May 7, 1915, a U-boat torpedoed and sank the British liner *Lusitania,* with the loss of 1,198 lives, including 124 Americans. Amid great public outrage, President Wilson issued a stern note of diplomatic protest to the Germans. Despite the American complaint, in August, a U-boat sank the *Arabic,* again with loss of American lives. But, then, Kaiser Wilhelm II, fearing that such action would provoke U.S. entry into the war, ordered an end to unrestricted submarine warfare.

UNRESTRICTED SUBMARINE WARFARE RESUMES

In January 1917, President Wilson appealed to the belligerents to agree on "peace without victory." Although Britain and Austria-Hungary responded favorably to the appeal, Germany boldly announced the resumption of unrestricted submarine warfare. Shortly after the announcement, a U.S. warship, the *Housatonic,* was torpedoed and sunk, and President Wilson severed diplomatic relations with Germany on February 3, 1917. On the 26th, he asked Congress for authority to arm U.S.-flagged merchant vessels and to take all other military measures to protect American commerce. The United States would pursue what Wilson now termed a course of "armed neutrality." Additionally, a military preparedness movement began throughout the United States, with young men voluntarily reporting to various training camps. Wilson also encouraged American industry and commerce to assume a war footing, and he created a number of emergency federal agencies, including the Council of National Defense, the Civilian Advisory Committee, and the Shipping Board.

THE ZIMMERMANN TELEGRAM

In February 1917, British intelligence authorities turned over to President Wilson a telegram that had been intercepted between Germany's foreign minister, Arthur Zimmermann (1854–1940), and the German ambassador to Mexico. Transmitted on January 16, 1917, the Zimmermann Telegram (as it came to be called) authorized the ambassador to propose a German-Mexican alliance to Mexican president Carranza. In return for a declaration of war against the United States, Mexico would receive Germany's support in the reconquest of its "lost territory in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona." Carranza was also to be asked to invite Japan to adhere to the anti-American alliance.

Although it was true that U.S.-Mexican relations had been strained of late, President Wilson had recently made many conciliatory gestures toward Mexico, and Carranza was therefore in no mood to fight with the United States. If the Zimmermann Telegram fell on deaf ears in Mexico, it opened eyes in America when President Wilson published it on March 1, 1917. One month later, on April 2, 1917, Wilson asked Congress for a declaration of war.

ALLIES IN CRISIS

The Americans were about to enter the Great War at a low point for the Allies. Every major Allied offensive had failed, and the Central Powers were in possession of huge tracts of Allied territory. Worse, the Germans knew that it would take many months for the United States to mobilize effectively. This gave the war renewed urgency, spurring Erich Ludendorff to mount a series of all-out offensives against the war-weary and depleted Allies before U.S. troops arrived in substantial numbers.

France did its best to refresh an aggressive spirit. In December 1916, when General Joffre was replaced by Robert Nivelle as army commander in chief, Nivelle proposed to use the "Verdun formula"—essentially the coordination of intense artillery bombardment with advancing infantry—to attack the Germans along a broad front. He meant to break that front in such a manner that the rupture could be immediately exploited and all reserve troops overcome. Nivelle planned for the British to make preparatory attacks north and south of the old Somme battlefield at Arras and Bapaume, with Cambrai as the objective. This would draw out the German reserves. In the meantime, French forces would launch the major offensive north of the Asine in Champagne in an attack that would combine, as Nivelle put it, "great violence with great mass"—that is, intense artillery bombardments (the violence) followed by massive frontal attacks (the mass).

Unfortunately for Nivelle, Ludendorff had thoroughly intuited the meaning of Nivelle's having replaced Joffre. The advocate of defense was out, and the champion of offense was in; therefore, an offensive was in the offing, and the only place it could come was on the Somme. Ludendorff therefore strengthened his defenses by establishing a third line of defenses, well out of range of the French artillery. It was called the *Siegfriedstellung,* the Siegfried Zone—or, more commonly by the Allies, the Hindenburg Line—and Ludendorff confounded the Allies by withdrawing to this new position, as much as 20 miles behind the original German front line. The withdrawal was completed by March 16, 1917. The towns that lay within the territory evacuated by the Germans, including Bapaume, Péronne, Roye, Noyon, Chauny, and Coucy,

were left to the Allies—after having been rendered totally uninhabitable. The Germans mined the roads, destroyed the trees, poisoned the wells, and blew up houses and other buildings. They sowed the ruins with an array of booby traps. The Hindenburg Line itself was ingeniously fortified and seemed all but impregnable.

THE NIVELLE OFFENSIVE

General Nivelle refused to take heed of the new developments. On April 9, he ordered the commencement of the British preliminary attack at Arras. Indeed, the attack went remarkably well at first. At the northern end of the 15-mile battlefront, Vimy Ridge was taken by the Canadian Corps, but the British reserves were unable to exploit this breach, because of congested conditions in the rear lines. Although the British gamely sustained the attack until May 5, by that time German resistance had been augmented sufficiently to repulse all assaults against the line, and the advances made in the first five days of the British offensive would be the sum total of the British advance for the entire battle.

Nivelle launched the principal attack in Champagne on April 16, moving along the Aisne River front from Vailly east to Craonne and Reims. His strength was massive, at 1.2 million men and 7,000 guns. But the great Nivelle offensive was destined for disaster. The element of surprise, which had demonstrated its value time and time again, had not been achieved, or even sought. Worse, the French artillery could not be coordinated effectively with the infantry advance. The result was horrific slaughter as the French infantry struggled to attain the Chemin des Dames Ridge, a feature that dominated most of the sector.

Despite all that had gone wrong, the French forces managed to take the first German line before they were stopped. It was, however, an advance of no more than 600 yards, whereas Nivelle's plan had called for an initial thrust of six miles. In five days, Robert Nivelle had lost 120,000 French soldiers, killed and wounded. He captured 21,000 or more German prisoners, but other German casualties were relatively light.

THE FRENCH MUTINIES

The Nivelle offensive not only failed against the Germans but also provoked a widespread mutiny within the French army, beginning on April 29. There was no violence against commanders, just mass refusal to move up or attack. During the first three weeks of May, word of the rebellion traveled swiftly through the long trench line. By June, 54 French divisions were hit by mutinies, and only two reliable divisions stood between the Germans and Paris.

If French military strategy was less than brilliant, the forces of French censorship were extraordinarily effective. French counterintelligence successfully blocked all news of the mutiny, keeping not only the French people but also General Ludendorff in the dark for weeks. By the time Ludendorff caught wind of dissent in the French ranks, the British under Haig had renewed attacks to distract him and his army.

In the wake of the disastrous offensive and the mutinies that followed, Robert Nivelle was removed from command and replaced by Pétain. He moved swiftly to address the troops' grievances, and gradually he restored order to the army.

BATTLE OF ARRAS

While the Nivelle offensive faltered, Haig, now commanding the British forces on the western front, renewed the offensive at the Battle of Arras in an effort to draw off some pressure from the French. Once the French mutinies began, Haig was compelled to assume the burden of action on the western front.

THIRD YPRES CAMPAIGN

Haig formulated a plan for a Third Ypres campaign in the hope of achieving objectives that were of great concern to the British, if only of minor interest to the French:

- To aid British shipping by attacking U-boat pens believed to be located in Belgium, at Ostend and Zeebrugge.
- To show the Germans that the Allies had no intention of waiting for the Americans before pressing an offensive.
- To keep the focus on the western front. The British government of Lloyd George, discouraged by the deadlock, had turned increasingly to the Italian front and the Middle East for a breakthrough. Haig believed it dangerous to draw off needed strength from the western front.
- To achieve Britain's original stated objective for having entered the war—the restoration of Belgium as a sovereign and neutral state.

Before a full-scale offensive could be launched from the Ypres salient, the high ground dominating the area, the Messines-Wytschaete ridge, had to be secured. Haig chose General Sir Herbert Plumer (1857–1932) and his Second Army to assault this position. The battle had been thoroughly planned and was brilliantly executed; on June 7 the ridge quickly fell into British hands. Haig had every reason to be optimistic.

PASSCHENDAELE

But the success of Messines was not to be repeated. Organizing the main assault took more time than anticipated, creating a fatal lag between the initial inroads made at the Battle of Messines and the principal assault. When Haig finally commenced the operation, he did so with the biggest artillery preparation of the entire war, beginning on July 18—65,000 artillery shells from 3,091 guns. This time, however, the shells fell directly on the territory staked out for the British advance. The bombardment cratered the poorly drained ground, which the heaviest

rains the region had seen in 30 years transformed into a quagmire. The infantry assault slogged through the mud, against devastating German defenses. Bogged down, the British were slaughtered by machine-gun fire and by airborne strafing attacks. A new gas—mustard gas—was also used. It caused intense chemical burns on contact with skin, eyes, and the lining of the human lungs.

Despite monumental difficulties, the British infantry took Passchendaele Ridge as well as Passchendaele village by November 6. Of Belgium, only five miles had been regained. The cost was 300,000 British dead and wounded, plus 8,528 French casualties. German losses were also high, however, at 260,000.

THE BATTLE OF CAMBRAI

Haig seemed unaffected by the terrible cost of Passchendaele and immediately ordered General J. H. G. Byng's (1862–1935) Third Army to attack at Cambrai, France, 50 miles south of the site of the Belgian battle. This time, terrain conditions were highly favorable for the attackers, and Byng did not precede the assault with an artillery preparation, so both the element of surprise and the excellent ground were preserved. For the first time in the war, large numbers of tanks—200—were used.

At first, the attack went well, and a five-mile breach was torn into the Hindenburg Line. But just as Byng was ready to exploit the breach, his tanks began to break down in large numbers. This gave time for German reinforcements to plug the gap, which the British cavalry and infantry follow-up now proved too weak to breach. On December 3, Haig ordered a partial withdrawal. Both sides suffered approximately equal casualties, about 45,000 each (including 11,000 Germans and 9,000 British taken as POWs), and no territory was permanently gained by either side.

ANOTHER BLOW TO THE ALLIES: THE RUSSIANS WITHDRAW

On the eastern front, the BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION and the Russian Revolutions of 1917 greatly undermined the already disastrous Russian war effort. In March 1917, Czar Nicholas II (1868–1918) abdicated the throne, and the Russian Duma appointed a Provisional Government, which gave way in October 1917 to a communist regime led by Vladimir I. Lenin (1870–1924). Among the very first acts of the new Soviet government was the conclusion of a "separate peace" with Berlin. Negotiations resulted in an immediate armistice on December 15, 1917, which was formalized the following year by the two treaties of Brest-Litovsk. Russia was out of the war, and Germany could now concentrate virtually all of its troops on the western front.

U.S. MOBILIZATION

On May 18, the Selective Service Act of 1917 was signed into law; 23.9 million men were registered for the draft over the next two years, and 2.8 million, most between the ages of 21 and 30, were actually drafted. In 1916, the U.S. Army mustered 133,000; by Armistice Day, November 11, 1918, 4.5 million men were in army uniforms. Spectacular as it was, the mobilization took more time than the Allies thought they could afford. America had entered the war in April 1917, and the commander of the American Expeditionary Force (AEF), General John J. Pershing (1860–1948), arrived in Paris with a small staff on June 14. A massive transport effort was organized to bring the bulk of the U.S. Army to Europe, but Pershing declared that it would be February 1918 before an effective American force could be committed to battle. The Allies, especially the French, demanded that U.S. troops be turned over to French command as they arrived. Pershing stoutly resisted this attempt to fritter away American lives in piecemeal fashion. With great difficulty, he succeeded in persuading the Allies to allow him to consolidate his forces into viable units under American command.

By the end of 1917, only 175,000 U.S. troops were in Europe. In the meantime, Ludendorff had begun launching his all-out offensives.

THE LUDENDORFF OFFENSIVES

Once the Schlieffen Plan had collapsed in 1914, German strategy became increasingly defensive on the western front. The idea was to let the Allies wear their armies down in fruitless attacks on well-defended German trenches. By the winter of 1917–18, however, Ludendorff realized that the impending approach of massive American manpower on the western front required a push for decisive victory as soon as possible. This would not be accomplished by a defensive strategy, he reasoned, and so he set about mounting the massive concentration of a series of offensives.

Using troops freed up from the eastern front, Ludendorff instituted a rigorous training program designed to convert soldiers who had been accustomed to defensive warfare to troops capable of aggressive offense. The best of his trainees he assigned as shock troops to spearhead the assaults.

A brilliant if mercurial strategist, Ludendorff understood that the British and French were typically at cross-purposes. The British were perpetually concerned to maintain lines of communication with the English Channel ports, whereas the French focused on the protection of Paris. Ludendorff decided to exploit this divergence of purpose by driving a wedge between the two allies. This accomplished, he would concentrate on destroying the British army, which would, in turn, force the French to negotiate a favorable peace.

THE SOMME OFFENSIVE

The first of the Ludendorff offensives, on the Somme, began on March 21, 1918, when three German armies attacked the British on their right flank along a 60-mile front. Initially, the British were driven back, and, as

Ludendorff had correctly surmised, Pétain was more concerned with protecting Paris than he was with aiding his British colleagues. When General Sir Henry Wilson (1864–1922), British chief of staff, protested, the Supreme War Council responded by appointing Foch commander in chief of the Allied forces in France. Not only did Pershing approve of the appointment, but, contrary to his own buildup policy, he offered eight American divisions to Foch on an emergency basis.

In the meantime, by April 5, after creating a 40-mile salient, the German advance petered out. Foch had shifted French reserves to check the advance at Montdidier, but the Somme offensive had inflicted some 240,000 Allied casualties. Nevertheless, it had been just as costly to the Germans, whose heaviest losses were among the elite shock troops. Thus it was a tactical success for the Germans but a strategic victory for the Allies. The Germans had penetrated the Allied lines but in so doing had lost men they could not replace—even as the Allies were about to be reinforced from the seemingly limitless pool of American doughboys. Perhaps even worse for Ludendorff, the offensive aimed at splitting the British and the French ended by uniting them—along with the Americans.

THE LYS OFFENSIVE

Yet Ludendorff pressed on with a second offensive, against the British at the Lys River, forming part of the Belgian-French border. This attack directly threatened the English Channel ports, and the initial impact of the assault was indeed devastating. A Portuguese division fighting under British control in the sector was all but annihilated, creating a gap that threatened the British flanks. Within a mere three hours of the initial onslaught, the German Sixth Army reached the open country behind the British rear lines. The defenders were caving in everywhere.

It was at this point, on April 11, 1918, that Haig issued perhaps the most famous order of the war. Telling his men frankly that their backs were "to the wall," he ordered them to stand their ground—even if this meant death. Perhaps astoundingly, the "backs to the wall" order worked. Not only did they hold, but they began to push back, so that by April 29 Ludendorff was compelled to break off his second offensive. British losses in the Lys offensive were 239,000, among whom were 28,000 dead. The Germans, who had come so close to a major victory with this offensive, lost 348,300, including some 50,000 dead.

THE AISNE OFFENSIVE

The third German offensive, on the Aisne River, began on May 27 against lightly held French positions on the Chemin des Dames Ridge. This was supposed to be a diversionary attack only, but it was so successful that it became the major effort of the offensive. In 24 hours, the Germans advanced 20 miles, and by May 30, they had reached the Marne, just 50 miles outside of Paris.

U.S. forces had played a minor role in assisting the British on the Lys. The first major U.S. action now occurred, when on April 20 two companies of the 26th Division came under heavy attack near Seicheprey along the St. Mihiel salient. About 2,800 regular German troops spearheaded by 600 elite shock troops overran the American positions. A large number of Americans were taken prisoner, and 669 others were either killed or wounded. German losses were slight. It was a disappointing baptism by fire. Pershing was unshaken, however, and rushed the U.S. Second and Third Divisions to reinforce the French along the Marne. In the meantime, Major General Robert Lee Bullard (1861–1947) launched the first U.S. offensive of the war, at the village of Cantigny, some 50 miles northwest of the action at Chemin des Dames and about 60 miles north of Paris.

Cantigny was the site of a German advance observation post and was very strongly fortified. On May 28, the U.S. First Division attacked the village and drove the Germans out. Later in the day and on the next day, the Americans repulsed German counterattacks. The American victory boosted Allied morale and gave the U.S. troops great confidence.

The spearhead of the German offensive was at Château-Thierry, on the Marne. The U.S. Second and Third Divisions rushed to block the Germans from crossing the river at this point. The Third Division defended the Marne bridges, holding them against the Germans, then counterattacking. The French 10th Colonial Division, inspired by the Americans, joined the fray, and pushed the German onslaught back across the Marne at Jauglonne.

BELLEAU WOOD

As the U.S. Army had performed so well at Cantigny and Château-Thierry, now the U.S. Marines ventured into Belleau Wood as the spearhead of the army's Second Division. To capture Belleau Wood, the marines advanced across a wheat field that was swept by machine-gun fire. The casualties incurred on June 6, 1918, were the heaviest single-day losses in Marine Corps history to that time (the record would endure until November 1943, during World War II, when the marines took the Japanese-held island of Tarawa). During June 9 through June 26, the marines and the army's Second Division took, lost, and retook Belleau Wood and the nearby villages of Vaux and Bouresches no fewer than half a dozen times before the Germans were expelled for good.

THE NOYON-MONTDIDIER OFFENSIVE

Deserters from the increasingly demoralized German army revealed to the French the strategy of Ludendorff's next two offensives. The next assault, they said, would come at Noyon and Montdidier, just southeast of Cantigny and northwest of Château-Thierry. Foch and Pétain were well prepared for the assault, which came on June 9, and a combined Franco-American counterattack checked the

advance of the German Eighteenth Army by June 11. The next day, the Allies repulsed an attack by the German Seventh Army.

By this time more than 250,000 Americans were arriving in France each month. By June 1918, seven of the 25 U.S. divisions in France were in action at the front.

THE CHAMPAGNE-MARNE OFFENSIVE

The increasingly desperate Ludendorff was determined to end the war with the fifth German offensive in five months. As before, Ludendorff's principal objective was the destruction of the British army in Flanders, but he would precede the main thrust with a preliminary offensive against the French and Americans in the Champagne region, focusing the attack on the fortified city of Reims. Foch, however, had been informed by the German deserters of the impending attack. He used his artillery to arrest the advance of German shock troops during the night of July 14–15. East of Reims, General Henri Gouraud's (1867–1946) Fourth Army checked the German attack within a matter of hours.

West of Reims, the Germans reached the Marne and crossed it with 14 divisions. Here American troops became heavily engaged, and the U.S. Third Division earned the nickname "Rock of the Marne" for its determined and highly successful defense of the region west of Reims.

SECOND BATTLE OF THE MARNE

Ludendorff's five great offensives had cost more Allied lives than German—but they had cost many German lives indeed, and they had failed to win the war. Adequate replacements could no longer be found. On the German homefront, the British naval blockade, long in place, was taking its toll. People were hungry and weary of the war.

On July 17, 1918, Foch concluded that Ludendorff was pulling troops away from the Marne sector, which had threatened Paris, to send them north, against the British positions. The French commander saw an opportunity. He decided that the time was now ripe for an Allied counteroffensive, to be launched before the Germans could commence action against the British. Colleagues argued that he should wait until additional American forces could be summoned into action, but Foch realized that time was of the essence. He concentrated his available forces around the Marne salient, the bulge of German penetration, and decided deliberately to leave Haig's British armies exposed before the growing German concentration to the north. It was a trick designed to encourage Ludendorff to continue weakening the Marne sector even while Foch built it up. Foch would attack here, on the Marne, after Ludendorff had withdrawn many troops, but before he had concentrated them in the north to overwhelm Haig. It was a bold gamble, with a large part of the British army at stake.

As Ludendorff shifted his troops from the Marne salient, the Allied counteroffensive stepped off, at 4:35 on the morning of July 18.

The French Tenth, Sixth, and Fifth Armies, from left to right along the front, made the assault, while the French Ninth Army waited in reserve. The Tenth was commanded by General Charles Marie Emmanuel Mangin, a native of Sarrebourg, in Lorraine, territory lost to the Germans in the Franco-Prussian War. He was spoiling for revenge and was precisely the tiger Foch needed to lead the main attack. The infantry advance was accompanied by a precisely timed rolling barrage, which battered the German lines.

U.S. forces were also active in the Second Battle of the Marne. The American First and Second Divisions spearheaded Mangin's main assault, and six other divisions also fought valiantly.

Ludendorff, the brilliant tactician, was this time taken by surprise. He desperately ordered four of his reserve divisions into the Marne sector, but he soon realized that withdrawal was his only viable option. He began to move eastward across the Marne on the night of July 18. Although this action was an Allied victory, with heavy German losses, Ludendorff's army remained intact on August 6, when the counteroffensive came to an end.

THE AMIENS OFFENSIVE

Ludendorff interpreted the fact that Foch had ended his counteroffensive as a sign that this action had been an isolated incident; he decided to mount a new offensive himself. Others in the German high command, most notably the crown prince, objected, arguing that the war had been lost and that it was time to stop the fighting. In the end, a terrible compromise was reached among the German officers—there would be no new offensive, but there would be no surrender, either.

On the Allied side, Haig proposed an Anglo-French attack east of Amiens in northwestern France along the Somme River, with the objective of freeing up the rail network in the area. Agreeing, Foch placed the French First Army under Haig's direction; Haig chose the British Fourth Army, under General Henry Rawlinson (1864–1925), to operate in conjunction with the French First. Rawlinson carried out a lightning attack along a 14-mile front, using artillery, infantry, and air power, as well as virtually the entire British tank corps, 604 vehicles.

The British advance, on August 8, was led by Canadian and ANZAC (Australian–New Zealand Army Corps) infantry, preceded by the tanks, and was protected by a thick blanket of fog. On the right, the French assault was preceded by a brief artillery preparation. The Allies rolled over the Germans, taking more than 15,000 prisoners and capturing 400 guns. Years later, in his memoirs, Ludendorff would call August 8 the "Black Day" of the German army.

Nevertheless, Ludendorff did not give up but reestablished a position 10 miles behind what had been the nose of the salient. On August 10, however, the French Third Army, under General Georges Humbert (1862–1921), pushed the Germans out of Montdidier. Haig, however, paused to regroup, which gave the German army a reprieve.

The Allies resumed the offensive on August 21, when the British Third Army, on the left, and the French armies, on the right, again attacked. On the 22nd, the British Fourth came racing up the center, followed by the British First on the far left. The German positions crumbled, and Ludendorff withdrew not only from the Lys salient in Flanders but also from Amiens, to the south, in France. At this point, however, the ANZACs struck, advancing across the Somme during August 30–31 and taking the German-held village of Péronne. On September 2, a Canadian corps forced its way through the German lines near Quéant. The German withdrawal turned into flight back to the Hindenburg Line.

In the Amiens offensive, the Germans suffered casualties in excess of 100,000 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner. Some 22,000 British soldiers and 20,000 French were killed or wounded. The western front was no longer stalemated, and now Ludendorff himself recommended an end to the war.

AGAINST THE ST. MIHIEL SALIENT

The U.S. First Army, with the French II Colonial Corps attached to it, was assigned to the St. Mihiel sector on August 30. Its assignment was to push back this western German incursion, which had existed since 1915.

The assignment came at a critical time, for Ludendorff, on September 8, ordered withdrawal from the salient, to begin on September 11. If his troops were allowed to retreat to the Hindenburg Line, the salient would be vacated, but the German army would also be saved. General Pershing was determined to prevent Ludendorff from withdrawing without a fight.

Early on the morning of September 12, 16 U.S. divisions attacked, supported by French artillery and French tanks, as well as a mixed force of American, French, Italian, and Portuguese pilots flying some 600 planes (out of 1,400 deployed) under the command of U.S. military air pioneer Colonel William "Billy" Mitchell (1879–1936). The U.S. I and IV Corps smashed into the south face of the salient, while the French II Colonial Corps jabbed at the salient's nose and the U.S. V Corps closed in from the west.

The massive battle raged for 36 hours, but its outcome was a foregone conclusion. Stunned Germans surrendered in droves, the salient was cleared of the enemy, and the German army had been dealt another severe blow. The reduction of the St. Mihiel salient by half a million U.S. troops was the largest U.S. military operation since the UNITED STATES CIVIL WAR.

MEUSE-ARGONNE OFFENSIVE

Pershing did not allow his army to rest on its laurels following the reduction of St. Mihiel. Immediately after the sector was secured, he marched the entire U.S. First Army, unrested, 60 miles to the Verdun area to participate in Foch's Meuse-Argonne offensive.

Foch's plan was for the Franco-American forces to drive forward from Verdun toward Mézières, a key German rail junction and supply depot. Simultaneously, British units would attack between Péronne and Lens, with the objective of controlling the rail junction at Aulnoye. Foch understood that it was important to kill the enemy, but that it was even more vital to seize control of its lifelines along the western front. With the railroads severed, the Germans would be cut off from the rear.

Pershing brilliantly executed the transfer of a 500,000-man army, by night, into position for the attack that would initiate the offensive. It began at 5:25 on the morning of September 26 against a German army group under Max von Gallwitz (1852–1937) and another commanded by the crown prince. The German defenses were well prepared and heavily fortified. The terrain, rugged and heavily wooded, was deadly for any attacker. Indeed, after an initial rapid advance penetrating the first two German lines, the American drive flagged along the line between Apremont and Brieulles by October 3.

By October 4, it was apparent that the dense Argonne afforded no room for maneuver. Pershing's only option was to make a series of brutal frontal assaults. The Argonne operation stretched through nearly the end of October before the third German line was broken. Although an impatient French premier Georges Clemenceau wished to relieve Pershing of command, Foch stood by his American colleague. He could see that the Germans were using themselves up, fighting Pershing in the Argonne.

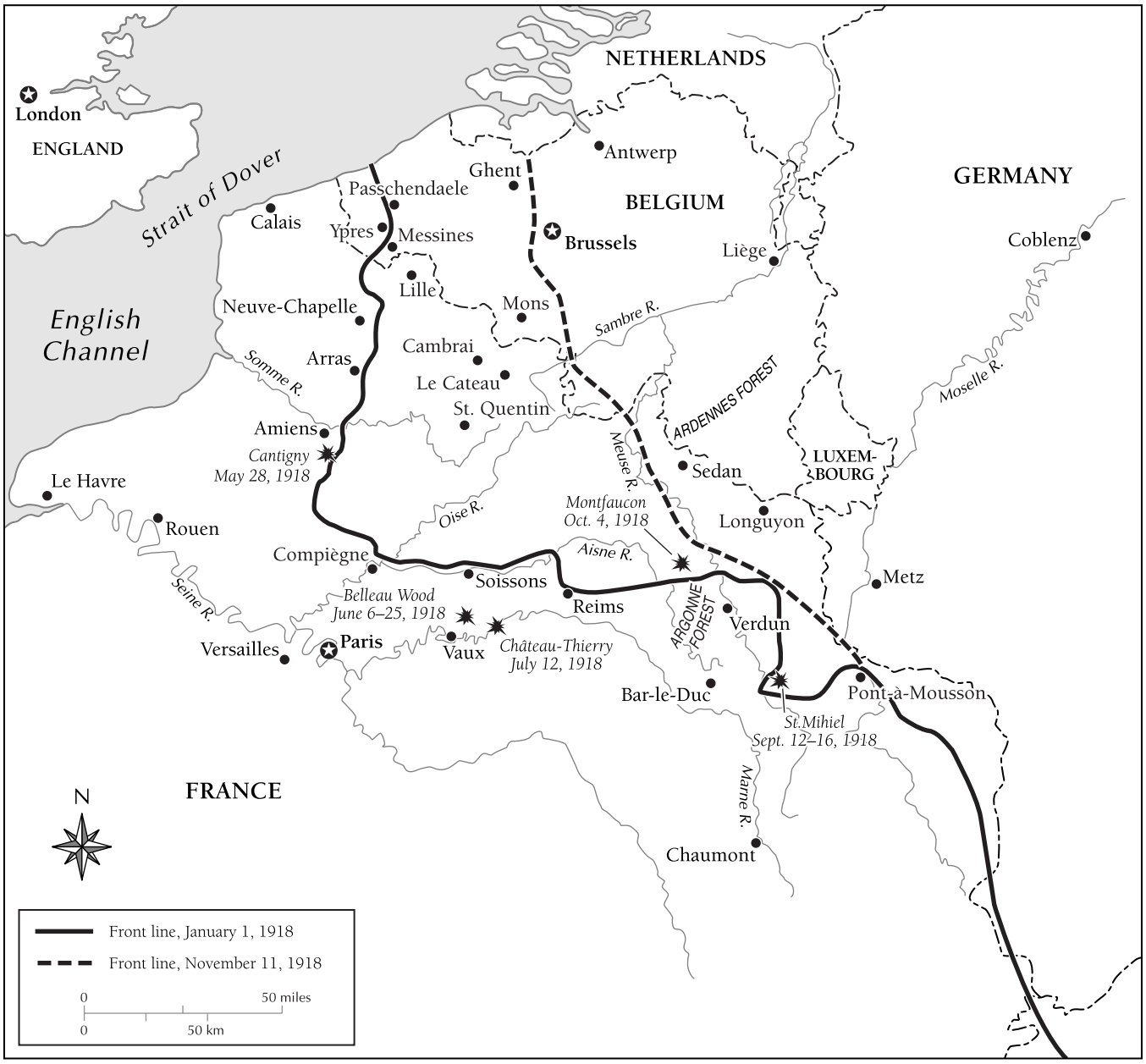
APPROACHING THE ARMISTICE

During the first 11 days in November, the last days of the war, the U.S. Army raced, now in the open, through the last German positions in the Meuse Valley. The U.S. First Division was about to take Sedan on November 6, when higher command ordered a halt. The honor of conquering that city, it was decreed, must be French. Only this would blot out the stain that had endured since the humiliating defeat at this place during the Franco-Prussian War in 1870. On November 10, the U.S. Second Army, under Bullard, launched an attack in its drive toward the village of Montmédy, only to break it off the next day at 11 A.M., the hour of Armistice.

THE BRITISH FLANDERS OFFENSIVE

The Amiens offensive not only inflicted great losses on the Germans but also resulted in the capture of a complete and detailed plan of the Hindenburg Line. Haig used this to plan what he saw as a decisive, war-ending break through Germany's last-ditch defense.

Haig commenced the Flanders offensive on the evening of September 26, 1918, with an artillery barrage precisely targeted against such key points as headquarters, artillery positions, and troop shelters, all of which were revealed in the captured plans. Haig also employed a new, more concentrated form of mustard gas, and he now laid



Western Front after United States entry into the war, late 1917–November 11, 1918

down tons of it. The following morning, the First and Third armies quickly captured the area around Cambrai, including Bourlon Woods, long a concentration of German strength. On the 28th, a combined force of British, French, and Belgian troops advanced through Flanders, taking the area in front of battered Ypres, and on the 29th the British Fourth Army, with French units in support, breached the Hindenburg Line.

To Haig's dismay, this success did not end the war. By October 5, the British attacks had succeeded in driving through the last of the Hindenburg Line positions, yet the Germans kept finding new positions to which to withdraw, and Haig's momentum slowed.

ALLIED PRESSURE, GERMAN COLLAPSE

Disappointed that the war had not instantly ended, the Allies nevertheless were confident of victory, and they resolved to keep the pressure up. On October 17, General Rawlinson led his British Fourth Army against German defenses at the Selle River and broke through them. On October 20, Byng's British Third Army crossed that river at a point farther south. The German army group commanded by General Max von Boehn (1850–1921) fell back toward the Sambre River, some 50 miles east of his original position, while Crown Prince Rupprecht's army group was pushed toward the Schelde River, about 40 miles east of the line held before the offensive. Boehn lost

20,000 men as prisoners of war, and still the British and Belgians kept coming, giving the Germans no time to form new lines of defense.

On September 29, Ludendorff advised Wilhelm II to seek an immediate armistice, and the kaiser accordingly appointed Prince Max of Baden (1867–1929) as chancellor of Germany to open negotiations—initially with President Wilson. The president shocked Prince Max by replying that nothing short of Germany's complete and unconditional surrender would end the war. Moreover, Wilson declared that the Allies would not negotiate with what he called the present German military dictatorship. In response to this, the kaiser effectively compelled Ludendorff's resignation on October 26, effective on the 27th. Yet the kaiser himself refused to abdicate in favor of one of his grandsons, and so negotiations were put off. At this juncture, an intensely war-weary Germany began to feel the shudder of revolution, much as Russia had earlier. When, on November 7, Austria-Hungary capitulated to the Allies, Bavarian revolutionaries declared the overthrow of the monarchy and the creation of the Bavarian People's Republic. In response to this, Friedrich Ebert (1871–1925), leader of Germany's majority Social Democrat Party, called on Prince Max to persuade the kaiser to abdicate, if only to save Germany from communism. Max announced Wilhelm's abdication on November 9; Hindenburg informed the former kaiser that he no longer had the army's support. Wilhelm fled to the still-neutral Netherlands (November 10).

In view of developments in Germany, the Allies opened armistice negotiations with a German delegation led by Matthias Erzberger (1875–1921), a civilian politician, at Rethondes, in the Forest of Compiègne, in a railway carriage that served Foch as his traveling headquarters. The armistice was set for the 11th hour on the 11th day of the 11th month.

THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

On November 17, 1918, under terms of the Armistice, Allied troops began to reoccupy the parts of France and Belgium that had been held by the Germans since 1914. Allied troops occupied the German Rhineland beginning on December 9, and a peace conference—among the Allies and excluding the Central Powers—was convened at Paris on January 18, 1919.

Twenty-seven Allied nations participated in creating the Treaty of Versailles, but the four major Allied powers—Britain, France, Italy, and the United States—dominated. Woodrow Wilson championed a conciliatory settlement based on the so-called "Fourteen Points," which he had enumerated before a joint session of Congress on January 8, 1918:

- Point one, "open covenants, openly arrived at," mandating an end to the kind of secret treaties and alliances that had dragged Europe into war
- Point two, freedom of the seas
- Point three, removal of economic barriers to international trade
- Point four, radical reduction of armaments to the lowest point consistent with domestic security
- Point five, modification of all colonial claims on the basis of the self-determination of peoples

Eight additional points addressed specific postwar territorial settlements, and the 14th point called for a league of nations, an international body that would guarantee political independence and territorial integrity for all nations and that would provide a forum for the peaceful resolution of conflict.

French premier Georges Clemenceau opposed Wilson, demanding vengeance as well as measures that would crush Germany economically and militarily. Britain's Lloyd George personally favored moderation, but he had been elected on his promise that Germany would be punished. Italy's Vittorio Orlando (1860–1952) was primarily concerned to ensure that his nation would receive the territories it had been promised in 1915 as inducement to join the Allied cause.

In the end, the treaty emerged as largely punitive, as well as humiliating to Germany and the other Central Powers. Chief provisions included German territorial cessions, German admission of guilt for the war, German disarmament, and an assessment against Germany (and the other Central Powers) of ruinous monetary reparations.

- The population and territory of Germany was reduced by about 10 percent by the treaty.
- Alsace and Lorraine were returned to France.
- The Saarland was placed under the supervision of the League of Nations until 1935.
- Three small northern areas were given to Belgium.
- Pursuant to a plebiscite in Schleswig, northern Schleswig was taken from Germany and returned to Denmark.
- A new Poland was created and given most of formerly German West Prussia and Poznán (Posen), as well as a "corridor" to the Baltic Sea; pursuant to a plebiscite, Poland also gained part of Upper Silesia.
- Danzig (Gdansk) was declared a free city.
- Germany's overseas colonies in China, the Pacific, and Africa were taken over by Britain, France, Japan, and other Allied nations.
- Germany was compelled to endorse a "war guilt clause," deeming itself the aggressor.
- Kaiser Wilhelm II was accused of war crimes and was to be brought to trial. (The Dutch government declined to extradite him to the jurisdiction of the Allies. He died in Dutch exile on June 8, 1941.)
- Reparations were called for but were not computed by the time the treaty was signed. (In 1921, they were fixed at $33,000,000,000, a sum calculated to destroy the German economy.)

- The German army was limited to 100,000 men, and the general staff was abolished.
- Arms manufacture was mostly prohibited.
- Germany west of the Rhine and 30 miles east of that river was declared a demilitarized zone.
- Allied occupation of the Rhineland was set to continue for at least 15 years, and possibly longer.
- The League of Nations was created.

Additional treaties, all essentially congruent with the Treaty of Versailles, were drawn up with the other Central Powers. The most important of these, the Treaty of St. Germain, dissolved the Austro-Hungarian Empire. (See the heading *Treaties,* in WORLD WAR I: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND)

With great reluctance and under protest, Germany signed the treaty on June 28, at the Palace of Versailles. Although President Wilson signed the Treaty of Versailles as well as the Covenant of the League of Nations, which was attached to it, the conservative Republican-controlled Senate refused to ratify either document. The United States subsequently drew up brief separate peace treaties with the Central Powers.

The unremittingly punitive treaty created the political, economic, and emotional climate that promoted the rise of Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) and Naziism, and that made a second world war inevitable.

Further reading: Martin Gilbert, *First World War: A Complete History* (New York: Henry Holt, 1996); Martin Gilbert, *The Routledge Atlas of the First World War: The Complete History* (London: Routledge, 2002); Michael Howard, *First World War* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); John Keegan, *The First World War* (New York: Knopf, 2000); Hew Strachan, ed., *Oxford Illustrated History of the First World War* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000).

World War II: Historical Background
(1920s–1939)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Axis powers (including Germany, Italy and Japan) and Allied powers (including Austria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Belgium, Netherlands, France, Britain Canada, Australia, New Zealand, China, and later, the United States and the Soviet Union)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Europe, the Atlantic, the Pacific, Pacific islands, Asia (especially China, Burma, India, and Japan)
DECLARATION: The war began with the German invasion of Poland, September 1, 1939; formal declarations followed.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The causes of World War II are many and complex; the principal source of German aggression may be found in Adolf Hitler's pursuit of *Lebensraum* (living space).
OUTCOME: *See* World War II: Pacific, World War II: Russian Front, and World War II: Western Front
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* World War II: Pacific, World War II: Russian Front, and World War II: Western Front
CASUALTIES: *See* See World War II: Pacific, World War II: Russian Front, and World War II: Western Front
TREATIES: *See* See World War II: Pacific, World War II: Russian Front, and World War II: Western Front

This entry provides the historical background of World War II in Europe. For the outbreak of the war, *see* WORLD WAR II: OUTBREAK AND EARLY GERMAN CONQUESTS (1939–1941). For historical background of the war in Asia and the Pacific, *see* SINO-JAPANESE WAR (1937–1945) and WORLD WAR II: PACIFIC (1941–1945), which also include discussion of the course and conclusion of the war in these theaters. For entries that treat the course and conclusion of the war in its other theaters, *see* WORLD WAR II: AFRICA AND THE MEDITERRANEAN; WORLD WAR II: ATLANTIC FRONT; WORLD WAR II: CHINA-BURMA-INDIA THEATER; WORLD WAR II: GREECE AND THE BALKANS; WORLD WAR II: ITALIAN FRONT; World War II: Pacific; WORLD WAR II: RUSSIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: WESTERN FRONT. For the development and deployment of the atomic bomb, *see* World War II: Pacific. For the treatment of the major Allied summits, the Holocaust, and the Nuremberg trials, *see* World War II: Western Front.

Germany had been defeated in WORLD WAR I, yet it had suffered less devastation than France or Italy, two of the victorious Allies. Its army, though it had suffered terrible losses, was intact, as was the nation's civilian infrastructure. The Treaty of Versailles, which ended the war and which was imposed on Germany by the Allies, was less concerned with creating world peace than it was with punishing Germany and crippling it economically as well as militarily. In addition to saddling Germany with reparations of impossible magnitude, the treaty limited the German army to a mere 100,000 men, of which only 4,000 were to be officers. Heavy weapons, aircraft included, were prohibited. The German navy was limited to only 15,000 sailors and was forbidden to build any new submarines. Economic hardships and the collective national humiliation created by the Treaty of Versailles combined with the effects of worldwide economic depression and the threat of communist revolution to push Germany into the most hazardous of political situations.

In this climate of desperation, Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) rose to power. Austrian born, Hitler had been frustrated in every attempt at making a living until, following service as a corporal during World War I, he became increasingly active in popular politics, which played on fear of communism and hatred of Jews. Hitler orchestrated a premature uprising in Munich in 1923—the so-called

"BEER HALL PUTSCH"—for which he was convicted of treason but imprisoned only briefly. He used the few months of his confinement to write a political autobiography, *Mein Kampf* (*My Struggle*), which became the blueprint for his rise to power during the next decade.

Even before Hitler achieved power, however, German military leaders found ways to turn the Treaty of Versailles to their advantage. Under General Hans von Seeckt (1866–1936), the puny army permitted by the Versailles Treaty was forged into a *Führerheer*—literally, an "army of leaders," composed of the military elite. This small force consisted of volunteers only, recruited in a highly selective manner to form the professional core around which a new, full-sized army could be quickly, efficiently, and effectively created through mass conscription when the time was right. The German military also circumvented treaty restrictions on weaponry, including by means of the Treaty of Rapallo with the Soviet Union (1922), which established a program of military cooperation between Germany and the USSR. Although the Treaty of Versailles restricted or barred the development of weapons within Germany, the Treaty of Rapallo provided facilities in Russia where Germany could develop advanced ground weapons and aircraft. Another document, the London Naval Treaty, concluded in 1935 with Britain and other nations, allowed Germany increased tonnage in warships and even gave Hitler the hope of an eventual alliance with Britain. Emboldened, Germany greatly increased the pace of rearmament during the 1930s, ultimately in direct defiance of the Versailles Treaty.

While Germany rearmed, its military planners also developed a new approach to war. Determined to avoid another unproductively static trench war, German militarists developed the doctrine of *Blitzkrieg* ("lightning war"), which combined tactics and weapons designed to be brought to bear against an enemy with overwhelming force and speed, quickly penetrating its frontline defenses while encircling and destroying it.

In contrast to the German blitzkrieg doctrine, clearly suited to an offensive war, France adopted a resolutely defensive posture. André Maginot (1877–1932), France's minister of war, authorized construction of a great system of fortifications that would bear his name. Completed in 1938, the Maginot Line was a string of elaborately hardened fortresses connected by a network of tunnels through which troops and supplies could be transported by rail. The Maginot Line covered the entire French-German frontier, from the southern tip of Belgium down to the top of Switzerland; out of respect for Belgian neutrality, however, it was not extended along France's border with that nation. Thus was created an Achilles' heel of tragic proportions.

The hunker-down mindset responsible for the Maginot Line was all too typical of the post–World War I European democracies and was in stark contrast to the German attitude, which Adolf Hitler, who became chancellor (prime minister) of Germany in 1933 and *Führer* (absolute dictator) the following year, skillfully developed and nurtured. Hitler borrowed a concept developed in the 19th century by the German geographer and ethnographer Friedrich Ratzel (1844–1904) called *Lebensraum* (literally, "living space"). Ratzel had pointed out that states tend to expand their boundaries according to their ability to do so. Hitler distorted the concept of *Lebensraum* as a quasi-philosophical justification of national conquest. He declared it both natural and inevitable that the German people should have whatever living space the might of the German state could obtain for them. By the mid-1930s, Hitler's clearly aggressive talk of *Lebensraum* had prompted a reluctant Britain, France, and Italy to issue a joint statement opposing German expansion. The French entered into a defensive alliance with the Soviets in 1935, and the Soviets concluded a similar pact with the Czechs.

That Italy should voice concern over German expansionism was inconsistent with its own aggressive international policy, developed under Benito Mussolini (1883–1945), who had effectively become dictator of Italy in 1922 and whose Fascism both inspired and, in its brutal spirit, resembled Hitler's Nazism. In 1935, Mussolini's forces invaded Ethiopia, prompting the British foreign secretary, Sir Samuel Hoare (1880–1959), to attempt to "appease" Mussolini by offering him most of Ethiopia in return for a truce that would preserve the defensive alliance against Germany. The cowardice of Hoare's plan outraged the British public and forced Hoare's resignation, but the idea of appeasing aggression would resurface in the policies of Neville Chamberlain (1869–1940), who became prime minister of Britain in 1937.

Mussolini proceeded with a brutal war against Ethiopia, which was annexed to Italy in 1936 (*see* ITALO-ETHIOPIAN WAR [1935–1936]). The timidity with which Britain and France reacted to the aggression of Italy against Ethiopia emboldened Hitler to take the first step in his program of expansion. In defiance of the Treaty of Versailles, which ordered the evacuation of all German forces from the Rhineland, Hitler, on March 7, 1936, ordered 22,000 soldiers back across the bridges of the Rhine. This was little more than a token force, easily withdrawn if France responded. But neither France, Britain, nor Italy protested, let alone resisted, the German remilitarization of the Rhineland. Now the manifest weakness of France and Britain persuaded Mussolini to conclude a pact with Hitler. After Mussolini agreed on July 11, 1936, that Austria should be deemed "a German state"—something Italy had long resisted—Mussolini and Hitler concluded the Rome-Berlin Axis on November 1, 1936, which was followed on November 25 by the German-Japanese Anti-Comintern Pact—an alliance ostensibly against communism but in fact an alliance of general military cooperation.

In this climate of growing menace, Britain's Chamberlain, eager to preserve peace, developed a policy of "active

appeasement" with regard to Germany. As he saw it, his task was to discover what Hitler wanted and then give it to him, in order to conserve military resources to fight what Chamberlain regarded as the more serious military threats posed by Italy and Japan.

Having remilitarized the Rhineland, Hitler now made his next bold move. On March 13, 1938, he invaded and annexed Austria. Neither Austria nor Italy opposed this *Anschluss* (annexation), and Hitler was therefore emboldened to further aggression. He now demanded possession of the Sudetenland, a large portion of Czechoslovakia bordering Germany and home to a substantial number of German-speakers, who complained of oppression at the hands of the Czechs. At first, Chamberlain sternly warned Hitler to negotiate a solution with the Czechs, but when Hitler stood firm in his insistence on annexing the Sudetenland, Chamberlain traveled to Berchtesgaden, Hitler's Bavarian retreat, and proposed to give Hitler all that he demanded. Chamberlain persuaded Hitler to delay his invasion until he could persuade Paris and Prague to go along with the plan. The French appealed to President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945) but were unable to shake the United States out of its post–World War I attitude of isolationism. Without support from any other nation, France agreed to hand the Sudetenland to Hitler. Chamberlain subsequently organized the Munich Conference on September 29–30, 1938, which effectively abrogated Czech sovereignty in return for Hitler's promise to make no more territorial demands in Europe. The Munich Pact signed, Chamberlain returned to London, proclaiming that he had returned with "peace for our time."

Almost immediately after signing the Munich Pact, Hitler broke his promise by moving against all of Czechoslovakia and occupying Prague on March 16, 1939.

Joseph Stalin (1879–1953), premier of the Soviet Union, took notice, along with the rest of the world, of German aggression. Although Nazism and communism were ideological rivals and Stalin was by definition the archenemy of Hitler, Stalin sought to forestall German aggression against the USSR by proposing to Hitler a "Non-Aggression Pact." Signed on August 23, 1939, the document gave Hitler free rein to invade Poland; the Soviets would not only refrain from defending Poland but would even aid the invasion—in return for Hitler's agreement not to interfere with Stalin's plan to invade Finland, which Stalin wanted as a military buffer zone against Germany.

World War II: Outbreak and Early German Conquests (1939–1941)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Germany vs. Poland, Belgium, France, USSR
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Poland, Belgium, Netherlands, Luxemburg, Denmark, Norway, France, USSR
DECLARATION: *See* World War II: Historical Backgound
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* World War II: Historical Backgound
OUTCOME: *See* World War II: Russian Front
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: *See* World War II: Russian Front
CASUALTIES: *See* World War II: Russian Front, World War II: Western Front
TREATIES: *See* World War II: Russian Front; and World War II: Western Front

This entry focuses on the outbreak and early course of the war in Europe. For the historical background of the war, *see* WORLD WAR II: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND (1920s–1939). For entries that treat the course and conclusion of the war in various theaters, *see* the SINO-JAPANESE WAR (1937–1945); WORLD WAR II: AFRICA AND THE MEDITERRANEAN; WORLD WAR II: ATLANTIC FRONT; WORLD WAR II: CHINA-BURMA-INDIA THEATER; WORLD WAR II: GREECE AND THE BALKANS; WORLD WAR II: ITALIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: PACIFIC; WORLD WAR II: RUSSIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: WESTERN FRONT. For the development and deployment of the atomic bomb, *see* World War II: Pacific. For treatment of the major Allied summits, the Holocaust, and the Nuremberg trials, *see* World War II: Western Front.

OUTBREAK

At 4:30 on the morning of September 1, 1939, Hitler's Luftwaffe (air force) commenced the bombing of airfields all across Poland. Simultaneously, a German battleship "visiting" the Polish port of Danzig opened fire on Polish fortifications, and the Wehrmacht (army) surged across the Polish frontier. The rapid combined air, sea, and land assault was the essence of blitzkrieg (lightning war), and the superbly trained and equipped German forces swept aside the valiant but outgunned and outnumbered Polish forces. On September 27, Warsaw fell to the invaders; the next day, the town of Modlin surrendered. In a single action, 164,000 Polish soldiers became prisoners of war. By early October, the last organized Polish force, at Kock, had been crushed. It mattered not at all that two days after the invasion both France and Britain honored their treaty obligations to Poland by declaring war on Germany.

As agreed in the Non-Aggression Pact between the Soviet Union and Germany, Stalin also invaded Finland, which the Soviet Union annexed on March 12, 1940, after a brief but bloody war (*see* RUSSO-FINNISH WAR).

So it began again, a war sparked by nationality conflicts in east-central Europe and provoked, in part, by a German stab at continental hegemony that expanded into a global conflict touching every continent. It was more a total war than even WORLD WAR I had been, since the belligerent powers' civilians not only contributed to their war efforts but also became targets for their enemies. Subject populations also became targets. Most horrific was Hitler's attempt to exterminate the Jews of Europe, but Germany

also attacked Slavs and other ethnic, social, and political groups deemed inferior by or a threat to Nazi ideology. Stalin expanded the Russian terror against the Ukrainians to the conquered Poles. Even in the Pacific, the Japanese-American conflict at times degenerated into brutal race war. Indeed, World War II all but eliminated the age-old diplomatic distinction between combatants and noncombatants, with the result that not only would its death toll greatly exceed that of the Great War, but also civilian casualties would vastly outnumber those of the military.

Yet again the war in Europe developed into a contest between a German-held Europe and an Allied coalition attacking on its periphery. Again, the United States kept clear of the conflict until its own sovereignty was insulted by direct attack. But unlike the last war, the Italians quickly joined the Germans rather than remaining neutral, and the Soviet Union—itself soon invaded by Germany—did not collapse as imperial Russia had. Instead, Joseph Stalin's Russia held out while France fell to the Nazis, and thus ultimately the Soviets instead of the French joined the British and the Americans in the wartime conferences of the "Big Three." Although Japan, joining the Axis powers, invaded China and Southeast Asia and provoked the entry of the United States into the war, it also managed to remain neutral toward Russia. In turn, the anti-Fascist Allies, while determined to reduce Germany to rubble, nevertheless simmered with tension over varying strategies and war aims. In fact, World War II was in many ways a label for several parallel or overlapping wars, and the central conflict in Europe overlay a three-way struggle for power among Nazism, democracy, and communism. Once Germany fell and Japan was bombed into submission, these subterranean struggles among the Allies burst into the open in a new kind of war and an odd sort of peace (*see* COLD WAR).

EARLY FIGHTING

While Poland reeled and withered under blitzkrieg, no significant fighting took place in the West. Although France and Britain had declared war on Germany, they took little action, and, in its first months, World War II on the Western Front was derisively described by the British as a "Sitzkrieg" or, more commonly, the "Phony War." France and England did cooperate in an attempt to mine and occupy Norwegian ports to close them to German U-boats. The German navy and Luftwaffe, however, were quick to occupy Denmark and then, with the help of Norwegian turncoat Vidkun Quisling (1887–1945), took over Norway as well, installing Quisling as head of a Nazi puppet regime. The British military hurriedly evacuated Norway on June 6, 1940, and, at the insistence of Parliament, Neville Chamberlain (1869–1940) appointed his harshest critic, Winston Churchill (1874–1965), First Lord of the Admiralty in his war cabinet on September 3, 1939.

Austria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Denmark, and Norway had all fallen under Nazi control when, on May 10, 1940, German forces surged into Holland, Luftwaffe bombers almost totally leveling Rotterdam. Simultaneously, German ground forces advanced through Belgium, marching around the northern end of the Maginot Line. Within 10 days, sweeping ineffectual French resistance aside, the German armies reached Abbeville, on the French coast, just below the Straits of Dover.

The invasion of France cut the Allied armies in two, with French forces to the south of the invaders and British to the north. Belgium had little choice but to surrender, which it did on May 28, 1940; the British Expeditionary Force, which had been dispatched to the continent, now faced almost certain annihilation or capture. By means of a heroic and massive amphibious operation, most of the British forces made a hair's-breadth escape across the English Channel from the coastal town of Dunkirk. This evacuation not only saved the British army from complete destruction but also rescued Britain from imminent invasion.

Despite the lightning speed with which France had been overrun, Premier Paul Reynaud (1878–1966) wanted to continue the war. He was voted down, however, and chose to resign rather than accept an armistice. His vice premier, a popular hero of World War I, Marshal Henri Phillipe Pétain (1856–1951), sued for peace, asking Hitler for an armistice, even as Pétain's World War I subordinate and protege, Brigadier General Charles de Gaulle (1890–1970), broadcast to France from London (where he happened to be stationed at the outbreak of the war) an appeal to the French people never to surrender. Despite de Gaulle's plea, on June 22, 1940, Pétain signed an armistice by which two-thirds of France was yielded to German occupation. The rest of the country was to be administered by Pétain from Vichy as a German puppet.

The fall of France left Germany master of the European continent, and it left England to stand alone against Nazi aggression—although de Gaulle, operating from England, worked feverishly to organize the "Free French" resistance against the Nazi occupation of his homeland.

Winston Churchill, who had replaced Chamberlain as prime minister on May 10, 1940, appealed to President Roosevelt for aid from the United States. On November 4, 1939, Roosevelt had secured repeal of a U.S. arms embargo on belligerent nations. In response to Churchill's appeals, on Decmeber 8, 1940, he proposed instituting the Lend-Lease program, which was passed into law in March 1941. This gave the president authority to aid any nation whose defense he believed vital to the United States and to accept repayment for such aid "in kind or property, or any other direct or indirect benefit which the President deems satisfactory." The United States, not yet in the war, was rapidly on its way to becoming the "arsenal of democracy."

From August 8 to August 18, 1940, the Luftwaffe began the first phase of the Battle of Britain, mainly by attacking coastal areas and ports. The British Royal Air Force (RAF), although outnumbered, outflew the Germans

and inflicted severe losses on the attackers. From August 24 through September 5, the second phase of the battle began with attacks concentrated on RAF bases. These attacks were far more effective, but, at Hitler's direction, the Luftwaffe shifted its strikes from the RAF bases to the civilian population, with massive bombing raids on London during September 7 through September 30.

In the meantime, the British responded by bombing Berlin (August 24–29), which caused relatively little damage but did have a profound psychological effect on the Germans and was instrumental in Hitler's (militarily poor) decision to concentrate on civilian targets instead of wiping out the RAF. Once the Germans had lost momentum, British forces were able to destroy vessels massed for an invasion of Britain (Operation Sea Lion) during September 14–15, thereby preventing a rapid German victory. Sporadically, from November 1940 to May 1941, a number of English cities, including London, were subjected to the "blitz," an intensive nighttime bombing campaign. Designed to break the English will to fight, it served only to strengthen the people's desire to resist and to win.

During 1940–41, war also raged in the Balkans, the Mediterranean, and in Africa, theaters in which Germany's ally Italy fought with poor success. Japan, which, on September 27, 1940, had formally signed a three-power pact with Germany and Italy to form the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis, was fighting in China, India, and Indo-China. At the end of 1941, by attacking Pearl Harbor and the Philippines, Japan would bring the United States into the war.

On June 22, 1941, without warning, Germany suddenly abrogated the nonaggression pact with the USSR by invading the Soviet Union and penetrating deep into Soviet territory. On December 8, 1941, the day after Japanese aircraft attacked Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, the United States joined Britain in its lonesome and perilous stand against the Axis. But the year closed with Germany, in a phrase Chancellor Otto von Bismarck (1815–98) had used to justify his nation's aggression in the late 19th century, very much "in the saddle."

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World War II: Africa and the Mediterranean (1940–1943)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain, United States, and Colonial French forces (capitulated early) vs. Germany and Italy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): North Africa and Mediterranean Ocean
DECLARATION: *See* World War II: Outbreak and Early German Conquests and World War II: Pacific
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Allies wanted to protect the Suez Canal and oil-rich Middle East, while also creating a staging area for an invasion of mainland Italy and Europe via Sicily.
OUTCOME: The Axis forces were defeated in North Africa by 1943.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Britain, 160,000; United States, 107,000; Italy, 325,000 in East Africa and Libya; Germany, 113,000
CASUALTIES: Britain, 35,476 killed, 184,500 wounded or missing; United States, 16,500 killed, wounded, or dead of disease; Italy, 13,748 killed, 8,821 missing; Germany, 18,594 killed, 13,000 captured, 3,400 missing
TREATIES: *See* World War II: Western Front

This entry focuses on the course of World War II in Africa and the Mediterranean. For the historical background of the war, *see* WORLD WAR II: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND (1920s–1939). The outbreak of the war and its early course in Europe are treated in WORLD WAR II: OUTBREAK AND EARLY GERMAN CONQUESTS. For entries that treat the course and conclusion of the war in various theaters, *see* the SINO-JAPANESE WAR (1937–1945); WORLD WAR II: ATLANTIC FRONT; WORLD WAR II: CHINA-BURMA-INDIA THEATER; WORLD WAR II: GREECE AND THE BALKANS; WORLD WAR II: ITALIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: PACIFIC; WORLD WAR II: RUSSIAN FRONT; World War II: Western Front. For the development and deployment of the atomic bomb, *see* World War II: Pacific. For the treatment of the major Allied summits, the Holocaust, and the Nuremberg trials, *see* World War II: Western Front.

As long as the fighting was confined to Europe, the majority of Americans favored neutrality in the early days of World War II, but all question of continued neutrality was destroyed by the December 7, 1941, Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. Although Americans understood that the

nation was now deeply involved in a two-front war, popular opinion craved vengeance against the Japanese as payback for their sneak attack. If most Americans had had their way, the initial war effort would have been directed against Japan, not the Atlantic and Europe. The U.S. high command, diplomats, and politicians, however, were anxious to work in earnest with Britain and Russia to contain and defeat Hitler. It seemed all too apparent that neither of these two allies, the last anti-Nazi holdouts in Europe, would be able to stand indefinitely against an all-conquering Germany without aid from a large American force.

Mobilization of U.S. forces would take time, however, and for most of 1942 the United States did concentrate on the Pacific, because the Japanese held Americans under fire in the Philippines and posed a real threat to the United States itself. In the meantime the United States helped Britain and Russia primarily by serving these nations as the so-called arsenal of democracy, producing and convoying a continual supply of munitions and other materiel. In the case of Britain, convoys ran the deadly north Atlantic, whereas supplies to the Soviets traveled via the equally hazardous Murmansk Run—along the coast of Norway and into the Arctic Ocean—or via the longer, though less dangerous, Persian Corridor, which terminated in the ports of Iran.

Not that American military planners were any less than eager to get U.S. personnel actively involved in Europe. They intended to use England as a staging area on which to build a large force for a cross-Channel invasion. Initially, the plan was to attack German forces from the west while the Soviets continued to resist from the east—essentially, to wage a two-front war against Germany. British planners, however, were concerned that it would require far too much time to build up an effective invasion force, time during which Germany would create defenses in continental Europe that simply could never be breached, let alone overcome. Besides, the British had already attempted continental invasions by way of France, Norway, and Greece. Each time, they had failed miserably.

The British solution to the invasion dilemma, a solution especially favored by Prime Minister Winston Churchill (1874–1965), was to delay a frontal assault on what was being called Hitler's "Atlantic Wall" and attempt, first, an invasion via what Churchill called the "soft underbelly of Europe." The British proposal was to gain victories against the Germans and the Italians in North Africa, then jump off from North Africa to Sicily and then onto the Italian mainland. The Allies would advance up the Italian Peninsula and, ultimately, into the rest of Europe. This type of semi-indirect invasion would accomplish several things: It would give the Allies time to build up, train, and equip an overwhelming invasion force from the west. It would win victories where they could be won, and thereby improve Allied morale. It would dispose of Italy as an enemy. It would tie down German forces that otherwise would be used against the Russians, thereby enabling the Russians to turn their desperate defense into an offensive from the east. Ultimately, it would also tie down German troops who would otherwise be used against the Allies invading from the west. The Germans would be surrounded on three sides—west, south, and east.

American planners resisted the "soft underbelly" approach until the actions of the brilliant German tank tactician General Erwin Rommel (1891–1944) in North Africa forced their hand. By the autumn of 1942, Rommel, dubbed the "Desert Fox" by the wary and weary Allies, had pushed the British out of every North African nation and bottled them up in Egypt. At immediate stake was the Suez Canal, without which the flow of Allied supplies would quickly be strangled. It was clear that attacking North Africa was no longer optional. It had become an urgent necessity.

British commander Bernard Law Montgomery (1887–1976) led his Eighth Army to a hard-fought victory against Rommel's hitherto invincible Afrika Korps at the second Battle of El Alamein during October–November 1942. On November 13, Tobruk fell to Montgomery, followed by Tripoli on January 23, 1943. Capitalizing on these victories, Montgomery pursued the Afrika Korps across the Tunisian frontier throughout February 1943.

In the meantime, beginning on November 8, 1942, U.S. troops were landing in North Africa in Operation Torch. Employing a combination of military and diplomatic means, the American supreme commander, General Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969), secured U.S. bases of operation in French-occupied Morocco and Algeria by November 15. From these bases, U.S. forces launched operations eastward against Tunisia, into which Montgomery was pushing Rommel's Afrika Korps. Eisenhower's intention was to trap Rommel, catching him between the American forces and the British. This was easier said than done. In the first battle between U.S. troops and the Afrika Korps, at Kasserine Pass, Tunisia, during February 14–22, 1943, the American forces, poorly equipped for the desert and poorly led by Major General Lloyd Fredendall (1883–1963), suffered a humiliating defeat. Fortunately for the defeated Americans, Rommel did not capitalize on his victory at Kasserine. He withdrew, leaving the U.S. forces stunned and demoralized but intact.

In the wake of Kasserine, Eisenhower called in Major General George S. Patton (1885–1945) to take over command of the U.S. II Corps. Patton quickly instilled discipline and pride in the bloodied unit, and, collaborating with Montgomery, led II Corps in a pursuit that drove the Afrika Korps into full retreat from its positions in Tunisia.

As Patton now prepared to lead the invasion of Sicily, Major General Omar Bradley (1893–1981) was put in command of U.S. forces in North Africa. Under his direction, the U.S. and Free French armies descended on a combined German-Italian army from the north while Montgomery's Eighth Army came up from the south. On May 13, 1943, the Italian First Army surrendered to Montgomery in a

major defeat that signaled the collapse of the entire Axis position in North Africa. In one fell swoop, approximately 275,000 Axis soldiers became Allied prisoners of war, and North Africa was cleared of the enemy. With victory in North Africa, Patton and Montgomery were ready to step off toward Sicily, from which they would invade the Italian mainland.

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World War II: Atlantic Front (1939–1945)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States and Britain vs. Germany
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Atlantic Ocean
DECLARATION: *See* World War II: Outbreak and Early German Conquests and World War II: Pacific
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The German navy waged a campaign of commerce destruction; the Allies fought to regain control of the sea lanes.
OUTCOME: The Battle of the Atlantic lasted throughout the war, but by the end of 1943, most Allied convoys were reaching their destinations.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the beginning of the war, Allied warships of all types numbered 735; Axis warships, 540.
CASUALTIES: Allies, including merchant marine, 50,000 killed; Germany, 32,000 killed; Allies and neutrals lost 2,575 vessels; Germany lost 781 U-boats
TREATIES: *See* World War II: Western Front

This entry focuses on the course of World War II on the Atlantic Front. For the historical background of the war, *see* World War II: Historical Background (1920s–1939). The outbreak and course of the war in Europe are treated in World War II: Outbreak and Early German Conquests. For entries that treat the course and conclusion of the war in various theaters, *see* the Sino-Japanese War (1937–1945); World War II: Africa and the Mediterranean; World War II: China-Burma-India Theater; World War II: Greece and the Balkans; World War II: Italian Front; World War II: Pacific; World War II: Russian Front; World War II: Western Front. For the development and deployment of the atomic bomb, *see* World War II: Pacific. For the treatment of the major Allied summits, the Holocaust, and the Nuremberg trials, *see* World War II: Western Front.

At the outbreak of war in Europe, Great Britain proclaimed a naval blockade of Germany. Germany's fleet was too small to declare in return anything so grandiose as a blockade, but it was prepared to wage a war of commerce destruction, using U-boats and some surface ships to attack British and Allied merchantmen as well as warships escorting them. On September 3, 1939, a German U-boat sank the British passenger liner *Athenia,* and on September 17 the carrier HMS *Courageous* was sunk. From September through the end of 1939, the pocket battleship *Graf Spee* raided the South Atlantic, capturing or sinking 11 British merchant vessels and rendering itself the object of an intensive search mission. Also lost to the Germans in 1939 were the battleship HMS *Royal Oak* and HMS *Rawalpindi,* a merchant vessel that had been converted to a cruiser.

By 1940, the United States, though still a noncombatant, was shipping large consignments of materiel to Britain, and on December 8, 1940, President Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945) proposed a "Lend-Lease" policy, enacted in March 1941, which gave him executive authority to aid any nation whose defense he believed vital to the United States and to accept repayment for such aid "in kind or property, or any other direct or indirect benefit which the President deems satisfactory." By September 1941, American warships were escorting, west of Greenland, materiel convoys bound for Britain. In effect, America was engaged in an undeclared naval war with Germany. The U.S. Navy destroyer *Kearny* was damaged by German torpedoes on October 17, 1941, and the destroyer *Reuben James* was sunk on October 31.

In the meantime, during 1941, the Germans unleashed U-boats operating in "wolf packs," groups of up to 15–20 boats spread out along the sea lanes so that they could trap more merchantmen and conduct coordinated attacks on convoys. Working in concert with the wolf packs, German long-range bombers attacked vessels as they approached Britain. To combat the wolf packs and the bombers, Britain began deploying escort carriers, which allowed fighter planes to accompany convoys. As more escort carriers were constructed and deployed, they proved increasingly effective against the bombers and wolf packs.

On the surface, during 1941, the German battleships *Hipper* and *Bismarck* raided the North Atlantic. *Bismarck* sunk the battle cruiser HMS *Hood* and badly damaged the battleship HMS *Prince of Wales* in the May 24, 1941, Battle of Denmark Strait. The loss of the *Hood* was so profound a shock that Prime Minister Winston Churchill (1874–1965) personally authorized an all-out campaign against the *Bismarck,* which was sunk on May 28, 1941, with the loss of 2,300 German sailors, including Admiral Günther Lütjens (1889–1941).

The sinking of the *Bismarck* chastened the German Navy, which, as it had done in World War I, now kept its

surface fleet close to home and relied almost exclusively on U-boat action against commerce vessels. As important as the sinking of the *Bismarck* was, both strategically and as a badly needed boost to British morale, even more crucial was the ongoing work on cracking the German "Enigma" naval code. By 1941, British intelligence officers were able to read much of the coded radio traffic to and from the U-boats, giving the beleaguered convoys and their escorts a much-needed advantage.

When the United States entered World War II in December 1941, the German navy redoubled its efforts to block the sea lanes between North America and Europe. By early 1942, German U-boats were also being dispatched to U.S. coastal waters, where they wreaked havoc on undefended merchant vessels that, at night, made vividly silhouetted targets against the background of U.S. coastal urban lighting. However, by the late spring and into the summer of 1942, U.S. Navy and Coast Guard defenses were greatly improved, as were Army Air Force coastal patrols; the U-boats working in or near American waters began to take heavy losses. Farther out in the sea lanes, U-boat attacks on Allied convoys intensified, but so did the Allied response. In 1942, 1,027,000 tons of Allied shipping was sunk by German U-boats—but at the staggering cost of 85 U-boats sunk.

The year 1943 brought a new approach to the operation of the Allied convoys. During April 28–May 6, Commander Peter W. Gretton of the Royal Navy led across the Atlantic a convoy in which the transports were not only escorted by more warships but also were kept in tight formation. Accepted doctrine called for spreading out the vessels, since it was believed that pulling them together simply made them more convenient targets. In fact, close convoy formations made it much easier to defend the convoy, especially when escorted by large numbers of armed ships. The new-style convoy tactics proved highly effective, and from this point forward the tide of the U-boat war began to turn against the Germans. The submarines, once almost invulnerable to attack, were now more readily targeted, and, indeed, the hunters became the hunted. Beginning in June 1943 and extending through the end of the year, the U.S. 10th Fleet organized a "hunter-killer" campaign, which was aggressively directed against the U-boats. American warships and aircraft were organized into "killer groups" and conducted well-coordinated attacks that located and destroyed many wolf packs. By the end of 1943, although the U-boats still took a heavy toll on Allied shipping, the hunter-killer campaign made assignment in the U-boat service all but suicidal. By the end of the year, Allied U-boat kills exceeded the Germans' ability to replace the vessels and crews.

The year 1943 also brought the end of the German surface menace to the vital Murmansk convoys, which supplied the Soviet Union. During September 6–9, 1943, the German battleship *Tirpitz* and battle cruiser *Scharnhorst,* in concert with 10 destroyers, raided Spitzbergen, causing serious damage to important Allied coal mining and loading facilities. In the attack, however, *Tirpitz* was badly damaged by British midget submarines during September 21–22, and on December 26 the *Scharnhorst* was destroyed by a combination of artillery bombardment and torpedo attack.

During 1944, U.S. hunter-killer groups became increasingly effective in combating the U-boat menace, in time to allow the transport of more than one million U.S. troops in preparation for the invasion of France. Technological improvements in sonar and hydrophone devices made the detection of U-boats easier and more accurate. Although an intensive U-boat campaign in shallow British coastal waters during November–December 1944 spiked Allied shipping losses, retaliation against the U-boats was swift and effective.

In November, another German naval menace, the repaired battleship *Tirpitz,* was sunk by British aerial bombardment as it attempted to hide in a Norwegian fjord.

Although German naval chief Karl Dönitz (1891–1980) poured new U-boats into the Atlantic theater during the first quarter of 1945, Allied countermeasures were so firmly in place—convoys escorted by a double screen of destroyers, aircraft carriers on continual patrol in the sea lanes—that the U-boats had no chance. On May 6, 1945, the USS *Atherton* and *Moberly* sunk the *U-853* off Block Island in the last naval engagement in the Atlantic. Allied merchant ships no longer needed to travel in convoys. The sea lanes had been opened, and the long Battle of the Atlantic won.

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World War II: China-Burma-India Theater
(1941–1945)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Britain, British Commonwealth nations, China, and the United States vs. Japan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China, Burma, and India
DECLARATION: Various; United States declared war on Japan, December 8, 1941
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Japan sought control of China and southern Asia, which was rich in various raw materials, especially rubber.

OUTCOME: Allied resources in the CBI theater were minimal until late in the war; once adequately supplied and manned, the Allied offensive was totally successful in Burma and India; Japanese occupation of China ended only with the total surrender of Japan.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: In Malaya and Singapore, Japan, 68,000; British Commonwealth, 88,000. During the Japanese invasion of Burma, Japan, 85,000; British Commonwealth, 47,000; Chinese, 95,000

CASUALTIES: In Malaya and Singapore, Japan, 9,824 killed, wounded, or missing; British Commonwealth, 138,708 killed, wounded, missing, or captured. In Burma, Japan, 185,149 killed in battle or from other causes; British Commonwealth, 15,326 killed, 44,731 wounded, 14,852 missing; United States, 3,349 killed, 2,177 wounded, 707 missing, 710 captured, 2,721 died of disease or other causes; Chinese, unknown

TREATIES: *See* World War II: Pacific

This entry focuses on the course of World War II in the China-Burma-India Theater. For the historical background of the war, *see* WORLD WAR II: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. For the outbreak and early course of the war in Europe, *see* WORLD WAR II: OUTBREAK AND EARLY GERMAN CONQUESTS. For entries that treat the course and conclusion of the war in various theaters, *see* the SINO-JAPANESE WAR (1937–1945); WORLD WAR II: AFRICA AND THE MEDITERRANEAN; WORLD WAR II: ATLANTIC FRONT; WORLD WAR II: GREECE AND THE BALKANS; WORLD WAR II: ITALIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: PACIFIC; WORLD WAR II: RUSSIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: WESTERN FRONT. For the development and deployment of the atomic bomb, *see* World War II: Pacific. For treatment of the major Allied summits, the Holocaust, and the Nuremberg trials, *see* World War II: Western Front.

In coordination with the attacks on the U.S. naval and army bases at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on December 7, 1941, and on the Philippines and other Pacific targets, imperial Japanese forces attacked objectives in Asia during December. They invaded Kowloon, Hong Kong, during December 8–10, forcing the British to withdraw to Hong Kong Island. When British major general C. M. Maltby refused a Japanese demand for surrender on December 13, the British crown colony came under continuous heavy attack during December 18–25 and fell on Christmas Day, with the loss of the British garrison of 12,000 killed, wounded, or taken prisoner. At the same time, on December 8, northern Malaya was invaded by 100,000 Japanese troops, who faced a British force of approximately equal numbers. Taken by surprise, the British forces were pushed steadily to the south; they fell back on Singapore by December 31. With the new year came British defeat on the Malay Peninsula, which was followed during February 8–15 by the Japanese conquest of Singapore.

While Malaya and Singapore were being taken, Thailand and Burma fell under attack and were invaded during January–March. Here, with the aid of Chinese forces under the command of American general Joseph "Vinegar Joe" Stilwell (1883–1946), Allied forces were able to regroup and offer sustained resistance. Nevertheless, under ceaseless pounding from the Japanese, the Allies were forced to retreat from Mandalay and from Burma. China was now cut off from the other Allies.

All that was left of Allied military presence in China was air power, chiefly in the form of the American Volunteer Group, better known as the "Flying Tigers," under Colonel Claire Chennault (1890–1958). Flying a small number of semi-obsolescent P-41 pursuit aircraft, Chennault's skilled and daring pilots were highly effective in the skies over China and Rangoon, intercepting Japanese bomber attacks and defending Rangoon itself. Together with British RAF squadrons, the Flying Tigers also supported the Allied troop withdrawal from Burma and were instrumental in preventing the destruction of this force.

Air power was also vital in the form of airlift, as General Stilwell organized the continuous air cargo supply of Kunming, China, after Burma fell to the Japanese. Cargo craft routinely flew the "Hump," an extraordinarily hazardous route over the eastern Himalayas, and thus kept Chinese forces supplied.

THE BURMESE THEATER

For much of the war, the Allies fought little more than holding actions in the so-called China-Burma-India (CBI) Theater, for the greatest share of Allied resources in the war against Japan had to be committed to the Pacific campaign. CBI commanders, such as Stilwell and the supreme Allied CBI commander, Louis Mountbatten (1900–79), had to improvise with whatever meager resources were available. Nevertheless, the Allies did plan offensives in this theater. They attempted to consolidate strength in India and China for an invasion of Japanese-held Burma. For their part, the Japanese planned to use Burma as a staging area from which to invade British-held India.

It was not until the beginning of 1944 that the British began their offensive, by advancing into Arakan, Burma. They were almost pushed back by a sharp Japanese counterattack during February 4–12, but a deftly executed British strike against the Japanese encircling force resulted in the envelopment of the attackers. At this point, however, the Burmese climate intervened. The onset of the seasonal monsoon in May brought action to a muddy halt on both sides for the rest of the year.

In northern Burma, the principal Allied offensive effort was directed against the Japanese stronghold of Myitkyina. Combined American-Chinese forces under Stilwell attacked Myitkyina during May 17–18 but were repulsed by troops firing from very well prepared defenses. Stilwell decided to lay siege to Myitkyina, despite the punishing monsoon. The

Americans' perseverance paid off, and the starving garrison surrendered to Stilwell on August 3, 1944. However, the campaign in northern Burma had to be cut off at the end of the year when Chinese generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek (1887–1975) ordered the withdrawal of Chinese troops from Burma to defend China itself against a renewed Japanese offensive.

With the offensive in the north thus stalled, British forces repelled a Japanese invasion of India that was launched from central Burma. By September 1944, the British had all but totally destroyed the Japanese Fifteenth Army. From India, the victorious British advanced into central Burma. Their immediate objective was to secure the Burma Road, the great overland route of supply and communication between India and China.

THE CHINA THEATER

By early 1944, Chennault's Flying Tigers, which had been transferred into the U.S. Army Air Force as the U.S. 14th Air Force, were making substantial progress against the Japanese air and ground forces in China. Anxious to neutralize the 14th Air Force, the Japanese launched a major counteroffensive in east China. Seven of 12 14th Air Force airfields were overrun and captured, and the cities of Kunming and Chongqing (Chungking) were put in imminent danger of capture. Chennault consolidated his 14th Air Force and used it to support the Chinese ground forces, but Chinese resistance inexorably fell away.

Late in 1944, Chiang Kai-shek asked U.S. high command to recall Stilwell. Although he was a formidable commander, the strong-willed Stilwell had never worked easily with the equally strong-willed Chiang. He was replaced by General Albert C. Wedemeyer (1897–1989), who immediately established a fine rapport with the Chinese generalissimo. By December 1944, under Wedemeyer, combined U.S. and Chinese ground forces, supported from the air by Chennault, at last checked the Japanese advances throughout China.

CBI THEATER: LATE PHASE

By the start of 1945, the Japanese situation in the Pacific was desperate, yet, in defeat, the Japanese resolve to resist became, if anything, stronger than ever before. Although Japan's Pacific perimeter had greatly contracted, the empire still held much of Burma and southern Asia, and it still controlled much of China at the beginning of 1945. Therefore, after years of operating on a shoestring in the CBI, the Allies were at last prepared to commit more adequate resources to the theater.

At the start of 1945, four Allied forces converged on Burma. The British XV Corps pushed through Arakan toward Akyab, while the British Fourteenth Army advanced through the dense jungle between the Chindwin and Irrawaddy rivers. Simultaneously, yet another British force, the Northern Combat Area Command, moved in on the vital Burma Road from the west, while the Y-Force of the Chinese army approached China's frontier with Burma. These Chinese troops succeeded in opening up the Burma Road on January 27, and land convoys began rolling into China. With supply lines now fully open, the pace of progress in Burma accelerated. By the middle of March 1945, all of northern Burma was back in Allied hands.

Central Burma, however, remained a problem. General William Slim (1891–1970), the resourceful commander of the British Fourteenth Army, outguessed his Japanese counterpart, General Hyotaro Kimura (served in theater, 1943–45). Kimura planned to draw Slim deep into central Burma, then counterattack just as Fourteenth Army attempted to cross the Irrawaddy north of Mandalay. Anticipating this trap, Slim used a decoy unit to draw off Kimura as the bulk of the Fourteenth Army made a surprise crossing of the Irrawaddy. Slim's maneuvering culminated in the Battle of Mandalay during March 9–12, in which the city fell to the British. In desperation, Kimura counterattacked at Meiktila, but Slim readily checked this action, and Meiktila also fell to the British.

The war in Burma was all but won. Rangoon was captured on May 2. Despite the drenching monsoon, Slim relentlessly pursued the remaining Japanese forces, which were in full retreat.

Even as its positions in the Pacific and in Burma collapsed, the Japanese made extensive gains in China itself during early 1945, especially in the region close to the border with French Indochina. During the early spring, from March through May, the Japanese also advanced deeply into central China as well. In April, however, the Soviet Union began preparations for a declaration of war against Japan. As the Soviets built up their forces for an invasion of Japan and Japanese-held China, the Japanese had little choice but to pull troops from coastal and central China in order to concentrate them in Manchuria, the inevitable route of a Soviet invasion.

As it turned out, Joseph Stalin (1879–1953), the Soviet dictator, put off a declaration against Japan until August 8, after the atomic bombing of Hiroshima made Japan's doom all but certain. At this late date, the Soviets commenced their advance into Manchuria, which extended several days beyond August 14, the day of Japan's unconditional surrender. The surrender ended the Japanese occupation of China.

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World War II: Greece and the Balkans
(1939–1941)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Italy, Germany, and the Soviet Union vs. Greece (with British assistance) and Romania
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Greece, Crete, Yugoslavia, and adjacent Mediterranean waters
DECLARATION: *See* World War II: Outbreak and Early German Conquests and World War II: Pacific
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* World War II: Outbreak and Early German Conquests
OUTCOME: Greece, Yugoslavia, and the rest of the Balkans remained in Germans hands until the end of the war in Europe.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Axis, 260,000 (13 divisions), Yugoslavia, 800,000, Britain, 56,600 (in Crete)
CASUALTIES: In Greece: Britain, 3,700 killed, 8,000 captured; Greece, 70,000 killed or wounded, 270,000 captured; Germany, 4,834 killed or wounded; Italy, 6,000 killed or wounded. In Yugoslavia, Germany, 151 killed, 407 wounded; Italy, 1,000 killed or wounded; Yugoslavia, 3,000 killed (in Belgrade), 341,000 captured. In Crete, Allies, 1,742 killed, 2,225 wounded; Germany, 3,352 killed, 3,346 wounded
TREATIES: *See* World War II: Western Front

For the historical background of the war, *see* WORLD WAR II: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND (1920s–1939). The outbreak and early course of the war in Europe are treated in WORLD WAR II: OUTBREAK AND EARLY GERMAN CONQUESTS. For entries that treat the course and conclusion of the war in various theaters, *see* the SINO-JAPANESE WAR (1937–1945); WORLD WAR II: AFRICA AND THE MEDITERRANEAN; WORLD WAR II: ATLANTIC FRONT; WORLD WAR II: CHINA-BURMA-INDIA THEATER; WORLD WAR II: ITALIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: PACIFIC; WORLD WAR II: RUSSIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: WESTERN FRONT. For the development and deployment of the atomic bomb, *see* World War II: Pacific. For the treatment of the major Allied summits, the Holocaust, and the Nuremberg trials, *see* World War II: Western Front.

Although Italy was bound by the "Pact of Steel" between Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) and Benito Mussolini (1883–1945) to enter any war on which Germany might embark, Mussolini declined to declare war until he felt certain of his ally's victory. Thus on October 28, 1940, General Sebastiano Visconti Prasca (1883–unknown), already occupying Albania with an army of 160,000 men, invaded Greece with the bulk of his forces. To the chagrin of the poorly led, poorly equipped, and indifferently motivated Italians, Greek forces under General Alexander Papagos (1883–1955) offered fierce resistance. Deploying 150,000 men in skillfully prepared defensive positions, Papagos pushed the invaders back.

On November 9, Visconti Prasca was replaced by General Ubaldo Soddu (1883–1949), who soon faced a determined Greek counteroffensive, spanning November 22 to December 23. With air support from the British Royal Air Force (RAF), the Greeks not only drove the Italian invaders out of their country, but pushed them back into Albania as far as the Valona-Tepelino-Lake Ochrida line. Loss of men and materiel was great, but even greater was the loss of Italian military prestige. As Italian forces huddled near Valona, British warships bombarded the Valona naval base. Defeat was so complete that Marshal Pietro Badoglio (1871–1956), Italy's chief of staff, was forced to step down.

While the Italians were suffering defeat in Greece and Albania, the Soviets—at the time more or less allied with the Germans—occupied Bessarabia and northern Bukovina during June 26–28, 1940, while German forces took the Romanian oil fields on October 8. Crete was occupied by British forces under General Archibald Wavell (1883–1950).

Early in 1941, the Balkan front heated up further as Hitler threatened Yugoslavia, prompting the prince regent, Paul (1893–1976), to agree to join the Axis rather than offer resistance. This, however, triggered a coup d'état on March 21, 1941, by anti-German elements of the Yugoslav army, which established a provisional government that denounced the alliance with the Axis. Hitler concluded that the coup had been made possible by Italy's failure in Greece, and he ordered an immediate invasion of Yugoslavia as well as Greece. With truly terrifying speed, the German 12th Army under Field Marshal Wilhelm List (1880–1971) and the First Panzer Group under Paul von Kleist (1881–1954), augmented by the German Second Army and the Italian Second Army, invaded Yugoslavia during April 6–17. The *Blitzkrieg* (lightning war) invasion was executed so swiftly that much of the million-man Yugoslav army was never even mobilized. Zagreb fell on April 10, Belgrade on April 12, and Sarajevo on April 15. The provisional Yugoslav government surrendered on April 17. The stunning operation had cost the Germans no more than 558 men killed, whereas Yugoslav losses were staggering—at least 300,000 captured and perhaps as many as 100,000 killed or wounded.

Despite the horrific losses, a core group of Yugoslav military men fled into the mountains and organized partisan resistance against the invaders. Unfortunately, the two principal partisan groups, the Chetniks (Četniks) and the Yugoslav communists (led by Josip Broz, Marshal Tito

[1892–1980]), hated each other as much as they did the Germans, and Yugoslavia was effectively gripped by a three-way war before the end of 1941.

While Yugoslavia fell under Nazi control, 57,000 British troops under General Maitland Wilson (1881–1964) arrived in Greece during March 2–27, 1941, in anticipation of a German invasion. Greek forces resisted valiantly but quickly crumbled under the onslaught, and the British were forced to withdraw north of Mount Olympus. During April 12–20, the Germans pressed into central Greece, dividing the Greek First Army from the British forces. General Papagos gallantly advised the British army to save itself while he bought time for his Greek forces by a covering action. General Wilson withdrew to Thermopylae. The Greek army held out until April 23, when it finally surrendered. On the next day, Wilson began evacuating his troops by means of a hazardous amphibious operation under Luftwaffe strafing and bombardment. The air attacks took a heavy toll, but most of Wilson's army—43,000 men—escaped, having had to abandon a huge stock of materiel. Total British casualties amounted to 11,840 killed and wounded, whereas Greek losses were more than 70,000 killed and wounded and 270,000 captured. German losses amounted to no more than 4,500 men. The invasions of Greece and Yugoslavia were examples of Blitzkrieg at its most efficient and devastating.

Some 15,500 of the British troops evacuated from the Greek mainland were landed on Crete to assist in repelling an anticipated German invasion. This force was joined by 12,000 British troops from Egypt and was augmented by a Greek garrison of 14,000. The expected assault came during May 20–28 and was executed with the usual German efficiency, violence, and speed. Aerial bombardment was followed by a paratroop attack. The Allies offered strong resistance and inflicted casualties far beyond what the Germans had expected; however, the Germans had reinforcements available and poured in troops, mostly by air. The island fell to the invaders on May 31 and was the first significant airborne assault in military history. Although it succeeded in attaining its objective, the losses incurred—almost 6,000 paratroops—were so high that Hitler never again used the airborne tactic.

While suffering disaster on land, the British fought gallantly in the Mediterranean. In the Battle of Cape Matapan on March 28, 1941, the British Mediterranean fleet under Admiral Andrew Cunningham (1883–1963) dealt the Italian fleet a stunning blow, sinking two cruisers, four destroyers, the heavy cruiser *Pola,* and the battleship *Vittorio Veneto,* pride of the Italian fleet. In this single action, the Italian surface navy was effectively neutralized. Surviving ships remained bottled up in port at La Spezia. However, on December 19, the British fleet suffered crippling damage to the battleships *Queen Elizabeth* and *Valiant,* victims of attack by Italian midget submarines, and the loss of three cruisers and a destroyer to mines. On Christmas day, the battleship *Barham* was sunk by a German U-boat.

Greece, Yugoslavia, and the rest of the Balkans remained in German hands until the end of the war in Europe.

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World War II: Italian Front (1943–1945)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States and Britain vs. Germany and Italy
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Italy
DECLARATION: Italy against Britain and France, June 10, 1940; Italy against United States, December 11, 1941
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Allies saw Italy as the "soft underbelly" of Europe—a means of invading the continent from the south.
OUTCOME: Italy officially surrendered early in the invasion, but Germany held northern Italy, where some Italian forces remained a threat to the Allies. After a long and difficult campaign, the Allies prevailed against the Germans in Italy.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Initial assault, U.S. and Britain, 160,000; Germany and Italy, 350,000
CASUALTIES: Allies, 313,495; Germany, 434,646; 200,000 Italians fighting the Allies were killed; 130,000 Italians fighting the Axis powers were killed.
TREATIES: Instrument of Surrender of Italy, September 29, 1943; Peace Treaty between the Allies and Italy, February 10, 1947

This entry focuses on the Allied invasion of Italy during World War II and its consequences. For the historical background of the war, *see* WORLD WAR II: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. For the outbreak of the war and its early

course in Europe, *see* WORLD WAR II: OUTBREAK AND EARLY GERMAN CONQUESTS. For entries that treat the course and conclusion of the war in other theaters, *see* the SINO-JAPANESE WAR (1937–1945); WORLD WAR II: AFRICA AND THE MEDITERRANEAN; WORLD WAR II: ATLANTIC FRONT; CHINA-BURMA-INDIA THEATER; WORLD WAR II: GREECE AND THE BALKANS; WORLD WAR II: WORLD WAR II: PACIFIC; WORLD WAR II: RUSSIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: WESTERN FRONT. For the development and deployment of the atomic bomb, *see* World War II: Pacific. For treatment of the major Allied summits, the Holocaust, and the Nuremberg trials, *see* World War II: Western Front.

Pursuant to the Allied strategy of first invading Europe by way of what British prime minister Winston Churchill (1874–1965) called its "soft underbelly," British and American forces invaded North Africa and defeated German and Italian forces there between 1941 and 1943, then stepped off to invade Sicily.

OPERATION HUSKY

The Allied invasion of Sicily from North Africa, called Operation Husky, began on the night of July 9–10, 1943, when 3,000 ships and landing craft carried 14,000 vehicles, 600 tanks, 1,800 guns, and 160,000 men of the Fifteenth Army Group to a landing on the island. Air strikes to soften up defenses had prepared the way for the landings, and an advance guard of paratroopers, from the British First Airborne and U.S. 82nd Airborne also participated. Combined German and Italian land forces, about 350,000 men, outnumbered the attackers, but 3,680 Allied planes overwhelmed the 1,400 Axis planes in the area and quickly achieved air supremacy, greatly facilitating the landings. The Allies rapidly secured beachheads, and the British Eighth Army captured Syracuse on July 12, then Augusta on July 14. Axis resistance stiffened at Catania, where the enemy held the slopes of Mount Aetna. While the British forces were stalled at Catania, U.S. general George Patton (1885–1945) continued his advance, taking the port of Licata, then beating back a counterattack at Gela. After this, the U.S. II Corps, under Omar Bradley (1893–1981), drove up the center of Sicily to capture San Stefano.

After Gela and San Stefano, the thrust of the American advance turned east in two columns. One proceeded along the coast, while the other advanced via an inland route. The bifurcated American advance drew off pressure from the British Eighth Army, which was able to take Catania. However, it was the capture of Messina by U.S. units that ended the 38-day campaign for Sicily.

FALL OF MUSSOLINI

At a cost of 167,000 Axis casualties, mostly Italian, and 31,158 Allied losses (including 11,923 Americans), the Allied offensive had been brought to the doorstep of the Italian mainland and the European continent. The rapid advance of the Allies pulled the last supports from Benito Mussolini's (1883–1945) tottering Fascist regime. Many in Mussolini's own party, including his foreign minister and son-in-law Galeazzo Ciano (1903–44) and his general Pietro Badoglio (1871–1956), had already denounced him and been sacked by February of 1943. With the Allied invasion, a Grand Council of Fascist leaders convened on July 25 and, after a vicious debate, voted to depose Il Duce and return their country to "the King and parliament." Mussolini resigned the next day. Victor Emmanuel III (1869–1947) appointed Badoglio to head a new government and issued a warrant for Mussolini's arrest.

Faced with a dilemma—Italy wanted peace but was afraid to break with Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) and provoke a German attack—Badoglio feigned loyalty to Germany but made secret contact with the supreme Allied commander, Dwight Eisenhower (1890–1969). Badoglio was hoping to time an armistice with immediate Allied occupation in order to avoid having to fight Germans, but the Americans made it clear in August that Italy's surrender had to be unconditional. Worse, Eisenhower would not promise to land as far north as Rome.

The Germans were growing suspicious as two British corps crossed the Strait of Messina unopposed, and Badoglio agreed on September 3 to Allied occupation. The Italian surrender was announced on the 8th and Allied landings followed immediately, that very night, in the Bay of Salerno south of Naples. Before the week was out, Hitler's commandos parachuted into northern Italy, rescued Mussolini, and set him up as puppet dictator. All Badoglio's efforts to exit the war proved fruitless when the Allies demanded that the Italians declare war on Germany. He executed the volte-face on October 13, and Italy became an Allied "co-belligerent."

Allied confusion over just what Italians under Badoglio would do—would they honor the peace? would they resist?—stayed the British and Americans from rushing to occupy all of Italy. The delay bought the Germans time to occupy the mainland with a large force. The Allies now realized that even with Italy formally out of the war the invasion would not be the swift stroke that would open up the rest of Europe.

MAINLAND ITALY CAMPAIGN, 1943

The object of fighting up through Italy was not only to take Italy and invade Europe by its back door but also to force the Germans to withdraw troops from the Russian front to defend Italy. This, it was hoped, would enable the Russians to defeat the vast German forces that had invaded Soviet territory. With Allied pressure applied from the Italian south and the Russian east, a massive landing in the west, across the English Channel, would successfully complete the invasion and subsequent liberation of Europe.

What Allied planners had not counted on was how fiercely and effectively the Germans would resist Italy's invasion. On September 3, 1943, the British Eighth Army landed on the mainland at Calabria, the toe of the Italian boot. On September 9, the day after Badoglio concluded

an armistice with the Allies, the U.S. Fifth Army under Lieutenant General Mark Clark (1896–1984) landed at Salerno, where German resistance was extremely intense. It was not until September 18, after much bloodshed, that British and American operations were sufficiently coordinated to enable the U.S. Fifth Army to declare the Salerno beachhead secure. The cost had been tremendous. The able German general Albert von Kesselring (1885–1960) inflicted more than 15,000 casualties on the Allies while incurring 8,000 losses.

Slowly and painfully, during September and early October, the U.S. Fifth and British Eighth Armies advanced northward, methodically consolidating gains in southern Italy. The advance was all but halted during the Volturno River campaign (October 12–November 14) by especially effective German resistance along what Kesselring called the "Winter Line," or "Gustav Line," a series of very well prepared defenses extending from the Gulf of Gaeta to the Adriatic Sea. Here the Allied advance was stalled through the end of 1943, when a standoff developed in rugged and frozen terrain just five miles southeast of the Rapido River.

Heartbreaking as the Italian campaign was for the Allies, the effort of resistance did take a terrible toll on German forces as well, and, as the Allies had hoped, it also tied up forces that might otherwise have been used against the Russians. Thanks in some measure to the Italian campaign, the Soviet army was able to make significant progress, and 1943 proved to be a turning point on the Russian front. Whereas the Soviets had continuously fallen back since 1941, the seemingly interminable Stalingrad campaign, which ended in the loss of 300,000 Germans and the surrender of the 93,000 survivors of the German Sixth Army, brought, at the end of 1943, the launch of a major Soviet offensive. The tide had turned, and if Allied pressure pushing up from the south had stalled, it had nevertheless allowed the Russian push from the east to become overwhelming.

ITALIAN CAMPAIGN, 1944

By January 1944, the U.S. Fifth Army and British Eighth Army had advanced to the Rapido River but got no farther. A fresh Allied landing took place on January 22, when an Anglo-American force of 50,000 hit the beaches at Anzio and encountered almost no resistance. Unfortunately, Major General John P. Lucas (1890–1949) decided to take time to consolidate his forces before commencing his inland advance. This delay allowed Kesselring to reinforce his positions in Anzio and, during February 16–29, mount a fierce counterattack, which forced Lucas to retreat.

Lucas was relieved by Major General Lucien K. Truscott, Jr. (1895–1965), who had earned a reputation as an uncompromisingly aggressive commander. Yet even Truscott could not compensate for the momentum that had been sacrificed. Anzio rapidly hardened into a bloody stalemate that brought to mind the unproductive slaughter of World War I trench warfare.

With the opposing armies locked in a death grip at Anzio, the U.S. Fifth Army continued to strike against the Gustav Line along the Rapido. Three assaults were hurled against Monte Cassino. The Allies were repulsed in the first Cassino battles, on February 12 and during February 15–18; the Third Battle of Cassino (March 15–23, 1944) also failed to produce a breakthrough, even though massive air support was employed. The Anzio-Rapido-Cassino operations produced 23,860 U.S. and 9,203 British casualties during the four months before a brute-force frontal assault during May 11–25, coordinated with Allied air bombardment of German supply lines (Operation Strangle), finally produced a breakthrough toward Rome.

Rome was an important objective, and it lured Clark to shift the advance of his Fifth Army in order to attain it. This decision, however, saved the German Tenth Army from envelopment; thus, while Clark was able to enter Rome in hard-won triumph on June 4, the German Tenth remained a viable force and continued to exact a heavy toll on the Allies. Still, the liberation of Rome set up a rapid Allied advance to the Arno River during the summer of 1944. The Fifth Army crossed the Arno on August 26, and the British Eighth Army took Rimini on September 21. Resistance at Bologna proved too strong for Clark to overcome, and Bologna remained in German hands, even after a full-out assault in October.

ITALIAN CAMPAIGN, 1945

In contrast to the war's other fronts, Allied progress in Italy remained slow as 1945 began. In April, the British Eighth Army made a major breakthrough against the German Tenth Army just southeast of Bologna. Shortly after this, the U.S. Fifth Army penetrated the Po Valley in an action that sent the remaining German defenders there into full retreat. The German stronghold of Bologna was at last in Allied hands, and the U.S. Fifth and British Eighth Armies steadily and relentlessly pursued the retreating Germans far into northern Italy. On May 4, 1945, the U.S. Fifth Army linked up with the U.S. Seventh Army at the Brenner Pass, at long last marking the end of the Italian campaign.

DEATH OF MUSSOLINI AND POLITICAL CHAOS, 1943–1945

After his dramatic rescue, Mussolini, in German-occupied northern Italy, renamed the Fascist Party the Republican Fascist Party and created the Italian Social Republic as Germany's new ally. Meanwhile, anti-Fascist parties were springing up all over Italy, merging and remerging, and launching a resistance campaign that drew Nazi reprisals against tens of thousands of civilians. Left-wing anti-Fascist parties in the south, which had refused participation in the current regime (because they wanted the king, tainted by long association with the Fascists, to abdicate), executed their own about-face when Joseph Stalin (1879–1953) recognized Badoglio's government. Coalitions between royalists and communists, Christian Democrats

and traditional socialists, conservatives and liberals, produced an uneasy provisional government of national unity in March 1944, shortly before Rome was liberated in June.

The situation was, to say the least, complicated. Rome was declared an "open" city; the Nazis still occupied the north; American and British troops fought alongside Italian soldiers they had been fighting against only recently; communist partisans roamed the countryside; Sicily, whose well-established Mafia had aided the Allied invasion, was openly separatist; Italian colonies were up in arms. The government called for a constituent assembly to write a new constitution when all of Italy had been liberated but then fell in a crisis created by its refusal to purge with enough gusto Fascists from its administration. The government that replaced it was even more right-wing. By the spring of 1945, a general partisan uprising was under way, and Allied forces were closing in on Milan and Mussolini. Mussolini and his mistress, Clara Petacci (d. 1945), fled but were captured by Italian partisans and executed by firing squad on April 28. Their bodies were hung by their heels in a Milan public square.

After the entire peninsula had been liberated, long negotiations to form a government resulted in the formation of yet another coalition, this one headed by the Committee of National Liberation's Ferrucio Parri (1890–1945), a compromise candidate between Socialist Pietro Nenni (1891–1980) and Christian Democrat Alcide De Gasperi (1881–1954). But Parri's leftist leanings led to the coalition's collapse in November 1945, and De Gasperi, the ablest of the Italian political leaders emerging from the war, took control and, backed by the Allies, began formulating Italian policies along moderate lines.

PEACE AND INSTABILITY

In May 1946, Victor Emmanuel III abdicated in favor of his less compromised son, Umberto II (1904–83). A referendum on the constitution and elections to the constituent assembly limited the government's powers to drafting the constitution and ratifying treaties. With the increasing strength of the left evident, De Gasperi took conservative steps to strengthen the powers of the state and maintain law and order.

By January 1947 what would come to be called the COLD WAR was clearly having an impact on Italian politics, and De Gasperi declared which "side" he was on by that month visiting the United States, and a month later—a little over three years after Badoglio's surrender—the Italian government signed the peace treaty with the Allied powers in New York on February 10, 1947.

The treaty acknowledged that Fascism in Italy had been toppled not only because of the Allied victory but also "with the assistance of the democratic elements of the Italian people." Accordingly, Italy enjoyed special status in comparison to the other Axis nations. While its government had willed aggressive war, a large portion of its people had worked for peace.

Italy's frontiers were reestablished as they had existed on January 1, 1938, except that the conquests of Albania and Ethiopia were annulled, the Dodecanese was ceded to Greece, and certain Adriatic islands were likewise ceded to Greece or Albania. The boundary between Italy and France was also subject to adjustment. The Italian armed forces were strictly limited until modified "by agreement between the Allied and Associated Powers and Italy or, after Italy becomes a member of the United Nations, by agreement between the Security Council and Italy." A schedule for the withdrawal of Allied occupation troops was established and reparations were fixed—the Soviet Union receiving about $100 million over a seven-year period, with additonal amounts going to Yugoslavia ($125 million), Greece ($105 million), Ethiopia ($25 million), and Albania ($5 million). For their part, France, Britain, and the United States agreed to forgo reparations claims.

Despite fears in the West that Italy might go the way of Eastern Europe—become communist and fall into the orbit of the Soviet Union—the Constituent Assembly completed its work by approving on December 22, 1947, the text of a new constitution (which entered into force on January 1, 1948) that clearly established Italy as one of the West's liberal democracies. That did not mean, however, that Italy became a steady member of the European postwar community. Instead it suffered through years of instability; the republic saw six successive Christian Democratic administrations rise and fall between 1953 and 1958. While the Christian Democrats did manage to produce a Ten-Year Plan for Growth and Development, the limited maneuverability of these governments severely hampered their attempts to pass essential legislation. As laws for instituting the regions called for in the constitution, for establishing the Constitutional Court, and for replacing the Fascist codes were postponed again and again, Italy gained a reputation for corruption, violence, and political volatility that it has never completely shaken.

Further reading: George F. Botjer, *Sideshow War: The Italian Campaign, 1943–1945* (College Station: Texas A&M University Press, 1996); Edwin Palmer Hogt, *Backwater War: The Allied Campaign in Italy, 1943–1945* (Westport, Conn.: Praeger, 2002); W. G. F. Jackson, *The Battle for Italy* (New York: Harper & Row, 1967); John Keegan, *The Second World War* (New York: Viking, 1989); Richard Lamb, *War in Italy, 1943–1945: A Brutal Story* (New York: Da Capo, 1996); Eric Morris, *Circles of Hell: The War in Italy, 1943–1945;* A. J. P. Taylor, ed., *History of World War II* (London: Octopus Books, 1974).

World War II: Pacific (1941–1945)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States (with British Commonwealth and Philippine allies) vs. Japan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Pacific Ocean and islands

DECLARATION: United States against Japan, December 8, 1941, following Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor, December 7, 1941

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Japan sought control of most of the Pacific Ocean as a vast defensive perimeter for its empire.

OUTCOME: Japan suffered total defeat.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the beginning of the war, United States, 2,169,000; Japan, 2,391,000.

CASUALTIES: United States, 107,068 battle deaths, 194,299 wounded; Japanese, 1,506,000 battle deaths, 500,000 wounded; Japanese civilian dead, 300,000

TREATIES: Japanese surrender, September 2, 1945; definitive Treaty of Peace, September 8, 1951

This article focuses on the entry of the United States into World War II, the fighting in the Pacific, the development and deployment of the atomic bomb, and the Japanese surrender and its consequences. For the historical background of the war, *see* WORLD WAR II: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. For the outbreak of the war and its early course in Europe and a brief discussion of U.S. neutrality prior to December 7, 1941, *see* WORLD WAR II: OUTBREAK AND EARLY GERMAN CONQUESTS. For entries that treat the course and conclusion of the war on other fronts, *see* the SINO-JAPANESE WAR (1937–1945); WORLD WAR II: AFRICA AND THE MEDITERRANEAN; WORLD WAR II: ATLANTIC FRONT; WORLD WAR II: CHINA-BURMA-INDIA THEATER; WORLD WAR II: GREECE AND THE BALKANS; WORLD WAR II: ITALIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: RUSSIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: WESTERN FRONT. For the treatment of the major Allied summits, the Holocaust, and the Nuremberg trials, *see* World War II: Western Front.

By the fall of 1941, U.S. relations with Germany had deteriorated to the point of undeclared war in the North Atlantic, as German U-boats attacked U.S. destroyers detailed to escort Allied convoys traveling west of Greenland. Although Americans and Japanese did not exchange fire, a U.S. embargo on trade with Japan moved the German-allied militarist dictatorship of that nation to decide on waging war against America.

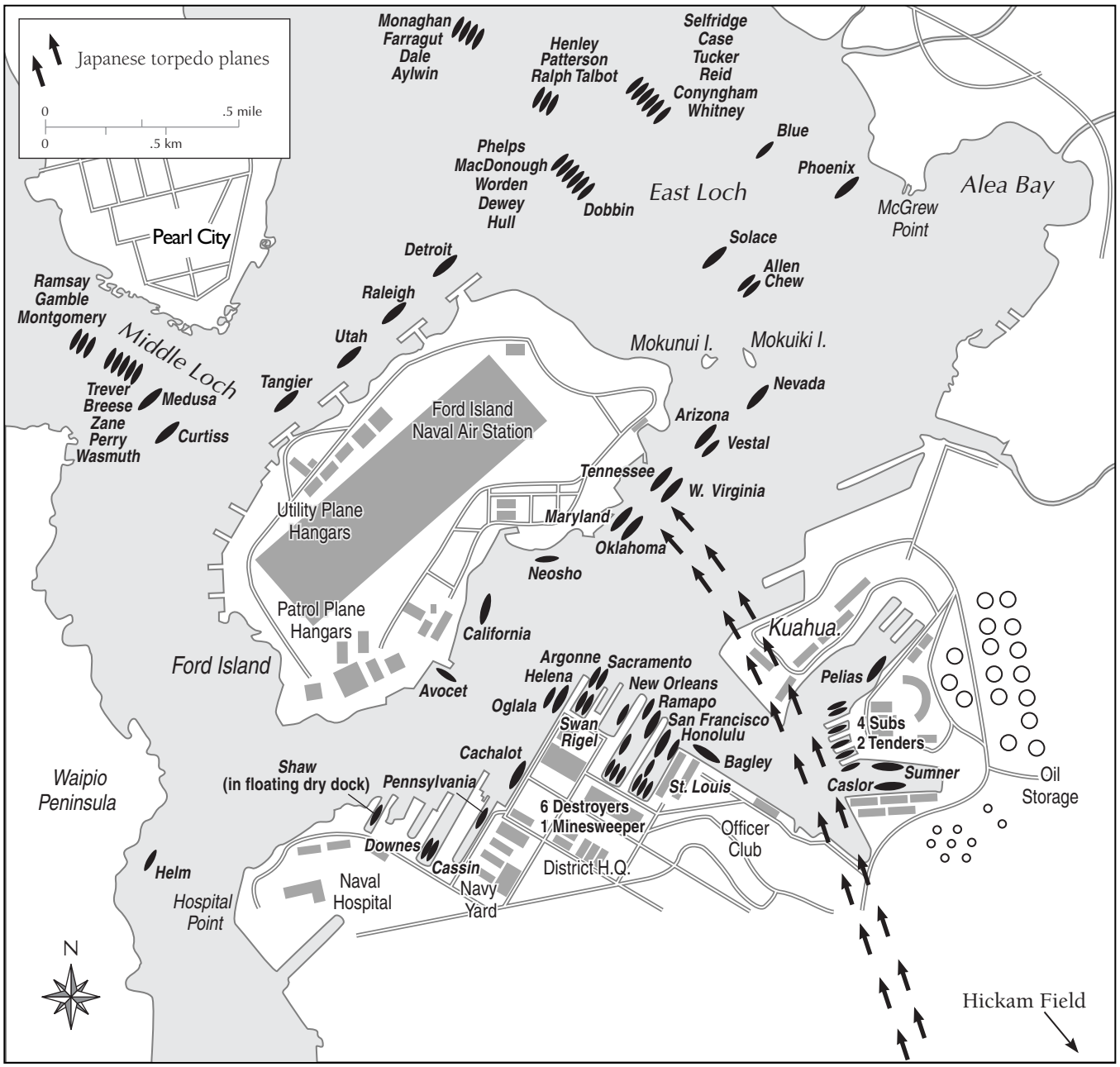
At 7:55 A.M., December 7, 1941, approximately 200 Japanese carrier-launched dive-bombers, torpedo planes, and other assault aircraft hit U.S. military bases at Pearl Harbor, Hawaiian Territory. Sunk in the attack were the battleships *Arizona, Oklahoma, California, Nevada,* and *West Virginia,* and three other battleships, three cruisers, three destroyers, and other vessels were severely damaged. One hundred eighty U.S. aircraft were destroyed on the ground, and U.S. casualties exceeded 3,400 men, including more than 2,403 killed. Japanese losses, in contrast, were light: 29 to 60 planes shot down, five midget submarines, possibly one or two fleet submarines lost. Total deaths were fewer than 100 Japanese sailors and airmen. President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945) secured from Congress a declaration of war the next day. Inasmuch as Japan was a member of the Berlin-Rome-Tokyo Axis, the U.S. declaration against Japan was a de facto declaration against Germany and Italy, as well.

The attack on Pearl Harbor was devastating; only the U.S. aircraft carriers, which were at sea, escaped destruction. The Japanese strategy was to hit U.S. and British holdings in the Pacific hard and fast in order to create an impregnable circle of defenses distant from the Japanese homeland, so, beginning on December 8, 1941, Wake Island, gallantly defended by hopelessly outnumbered U.S. naval personnel and marines, came under attack and managed to hold out until December 23. Guam, defended by a small garrison of marines and sailors, fell quickly on December 10. Simultaneously, in Asia, Japanese forces defeated British forces.

The myth is that the United States was totally unprepared for war. In fact, it was as prepared as it had ever been—and far more prepared to fight than had been the case on the eve of entry into WORLD WAR I. In 1932, the army had a strength of only 134,024 men and women, which doubled to 267,767 by 1940. With the threat of a two-front war imminent, a peacetime draft was instituted, and by mid-1941, months before Pearl Harbor, 1,460,998 men and women were on active duty. A vigorous shipbuilding program was also well under way, as was the fulfillment of a mandate to build 10,000 aircraft.

Yet the attack took Pearl Harbor's defenders completely by surprise. It shouldn't have. Even while Japanese negotiators were conducting business in Washington, ostensibly to avert war, "Purple" and "Magic" messages (Japanese diplomatic ciphers U.S. intelligence had broken) were being decoded continually. By November 24, Admiral Harold Stark (1880–1972) had telegraphed Admiral Husband Kimmel (1882–1968), commanding naval forces at Pearl Harbor, that "chances of favorable outcome of negotiations with Japan very doubtful" and that "a surprise aggressive movement in any direction" was anticipated. On November 25, Stark told Kimmel that Roosevelt and Navy secretary Cordell Hull (1871–1955) half-expected the Japanese to launch a surprise attack. Before war alert messages were issued to the military on November 26, Secretary of War Henry Stimson (1867–1950) even spoke of the strategic desirability of maneuvering the Japanese into war. Yet, through inertia, inaction, and just plain blundering, the Pacific fleet and an array of aircraft, including many B-17 bombers, were left as easy prey for the Japanese carrier-based dive-bombers and torpedo planes.

As costly as the attack was in terms of American lives lost and materiel destroyed or damaged, it ultimately cost the Japanese and their German allies far more. Pearl Harbor instantly forged an America more unified than it ever had been or, perhaps, would ever be again. On the Monday



Disposition of American ships at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, December 7, 1941

following Pearl Harbor, tens of thousands jammed recruiting offices, rushing to enlist, and the government conscripted millions more, rapidly building a fighting force of more than 16 million men and women. Roosevelt used his unprecedented war powers not only to launch this immense mobilization but also to build a massive war machine, which worked production miracles that astonished the nation, its allies, and its foes. Before Pearl Harbor, the American public and the U.S. Congress had been deeply divided over the drift of U.S. policy toward a declared war. The surprise attack ended that debate for good and created an America grimly determined, and soon well equipped, to wage global war.

FALL OF THE PHILIPPINES

Since the SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR (1898), the Philippines had been a U.S. possession and were now the home of a major American military installation. Under General Douglas MacArthur (1880–1964) were 130,000 troops, including 22,400 U.S. regulars (among them 12,000 Philippine Scouts), 3,000 members of the Philippine Constabulary, and the Philippine army, consisting of 107,000 men—the

latter partly untrained, virtually unorganized, and in some cases unarmed. Under MacArthur's command as well was the Army Air Corps' Far East Air Force (FEAF), which consisted of 35 B-17 bombers and about 90 other combat aircraft. Most of the U.S. warships stationed in the Philippines were hurriedly withdrawn from the islands and sent to safety in Java; however, four destroyers, 28 submarines, and smaller surface craft remained in island bases.

MacArthur deployed most of his ground troops north of Manila, under Major General Jonathan M. Wainwright (1883–1953), with orders to resist an anticipated invasion via Lingayen Gulf. An aggressive commander, MacArthur planned to use the B-17s to hit Formosa by way of counterattack. But his principal objective was to hold the Philippines against the invasion forces until U.S. naval action could open the way for reinforcements. This proved a forlorn hope. For their part, the Japanese intended to overwhelm the defenders rapidly, destroy them, and take the islands long before any reinforcement was possible. Japanese planners believed that the combination of an air attack from Formosa and an amphibious landing of 50,000 troops would take the islands within 50 days. The Japanese wholly discounted the fighting ability of the Filipino troops, despite their substantial numbers.

The attack was launched on December 8, 1941, and, like the attack on Pearl Harbor, it effectively exploited the element of surprise. Japanese air attacks hit Clark Field near Manila, destroying more than half of the B-17s on the ground, along with 56 fighters and other aircraft. The losses immediately prevented MacArthur's planned air assault on Formosa. Two days later, Japanese bombers destroyed the naval base at Cavite, while troops began to land at Luzon. Japanese forces rapidly established air bases in the northern Philippines, and within days the invaders also claimed beachheads in the south, at Mindanao and the island of Jolo. Caught in the as yet wide jaws of a pincer movement, the Philippine army withdrew into the hills. The Japanese now held naval bases from which they could freely strike at the Dutch East Indies—and the main invasion was not yet even under way.

On December 22, Japanese troops overran Luzon, the inadequately trained and armed Filipinos falling away before the onslaught. However, U.S. regulars and Philippine Scout units made an orderly and effective armed retreat, which cost the invaders heavily. Nevertheless, the invasion was relentless. Two days after the assault on Luzon began, another Japanese invasion force landed in the south, at Limon Bay. To avoid immediate envelopment, MacArthur pulled his troops back to Bataan, abandoning the Philippine capital, Manila, which MacArthur declared an open city on December 26. The Japanese occupied it unresisted.

The Bataan withdrawal was costly both to the Japanese and to American and Filipino forces, but by January 7, 1942, these defenders were hunkered down in hardened positions strung across the upper Bataan Peninsula. The tenacity of the resistance stunned the Japanese, and the process of taking the Philippines proved far more costly in men, materiel, and, above all, time than Japanese planners had bargained for.

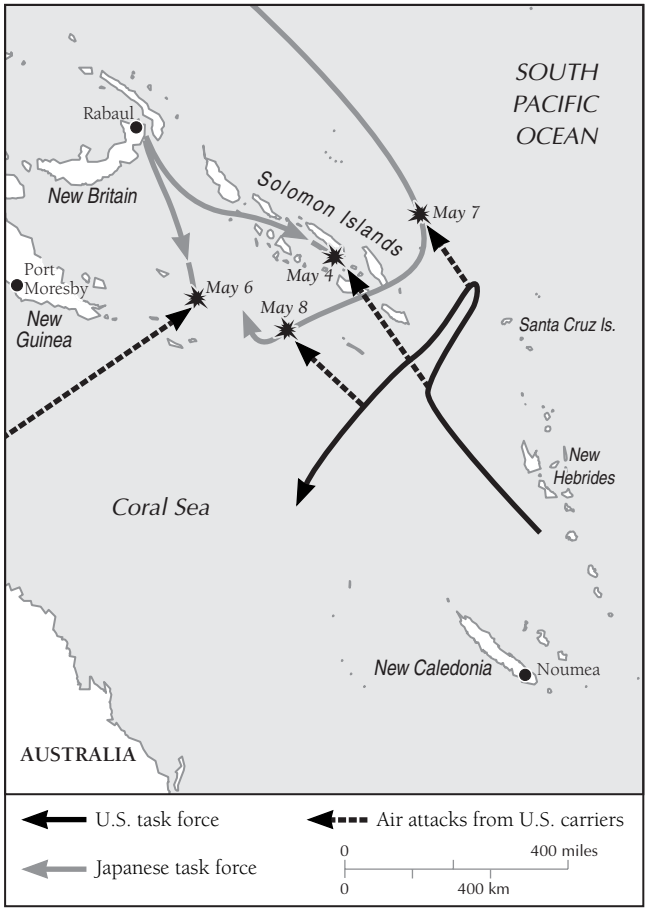
Yet the U.S.-Filipino situation was hopeless. In mid-March, President Roosevelt ordered MacArthur to leave the Philippines in order to assume command of Allied Pacific forces. He and his family made a daring and hazardous escape by PT boat through enemy lines to Mindanao, from which they flew to Australia. There MacArthur broadcast his famous promise to the thousands of Filipinos and Americans still on the island: "I shall return." Within less than a month, however, those troops, under Wainwright, were starving. After enduring a heavy artillery attack at Bataan, Major General Edward P. King, Jr., surrendered U.S. and Filipino forces there on April 9. Corregidor, still held by Wainwright, hung on until May 5, when, after a five-day barrage, Wainwright surrendered.

THE BATTLE OF THE CORAL SEA

By early 1942, the Japanese plan was to seize Tulagi in the Solomon Islands and Port Moresby in New Guinea while the Imperial Combined Fleet destroyed the American fleet, then captured Midway Island. These gains would enable Japanese forces to create an unbreakable defensive chain all the way down from the Aleutian Islands, through Midway, Wake, the Marshalls, and the Gilberts. Once these islands were in Japanese hands, New Caledonia, the Fijis, and Samoa would easily fall, and Australia would be entirely isolated.

Essential to Japanese domination of the Pacific was the destruction of the American fleet, in particular the aircraft carriers, which had been out of port during the attack on Pearl Harbor. So important was the objective of destroying the fleet that Japan's chief admiral, Isoroku Yamamoto (1884–1943), decided on a strategy that overextended even the great Japanese military machine. What prevented Yamamoto's immediate implementation of an all-out deployment to destroy the American fleet was a combination of certain misgivings within the high command and an incredibly daring U.S. air strike against no less a target than Tokyo.

Under the leadership of Lieutenant Colonel James Doolittle (1896–1993), 16 B-25 medium bombers were launched from the aircraft carrier *Hornet* on April 18, 1942, in a surprise air raid on the Japanese capital. The mission was desperate enough to be deemed nearly suicidal; for the twin-engine Mitchell bombers could not carry sufficient fuel to return to any American base and certainly could not land on an aircraft carrier. The plan was for the fliers to land in China, where Doolittle's raiders would find safe haven among Chinese resistance fighters, and then somehow find a way to return home. Risky as it was, the raid was highly successful. If damage to Tokyo



Battle of the Coral Sea, May 4–8, 1942

was minor, the psychological effect on the Japanese military was profound: Confidence was shaken, more military aircraft were reserved for home defense, and the timetable of Japanese conquest was considerably delayed. More immediately, the attack gave American morale a terrific boost, and, almost miraculously, most of Doolittle's bomber crews were eventually rescued.

Japanese invasion forces sailed to Tulagi and Port Moresby, New Guinea, in May 1942. Tulagi fell without opposition, but the larger force sailing to New Guinea was intercepted on May 7 by aircraft launched from *Lexington* and *Yorktown*. The Battle of the Coral Sea began on May 8, a duel between carrier-launched aircraft—the first sea battle in history to be fought at such great range that the opposing ships never saw one another. U.S. aircraft damaged the carrier *Shokaku,* but 33 out of 82 of the attacking U.S. planes were lost. The Japanese sank the *Lexington,* a destroyer, and a tanker, losing 43 of 69 aircraft in the attack. The Battle of the Coral Sea ended as a Japanese tactical victory but a strategic defeat; for while U.S. losses were greater, the Japanese advance had been stopped—for the first time in the war—Port Moresby saved, and the Japanese fleet driven out of the Coral Sea.

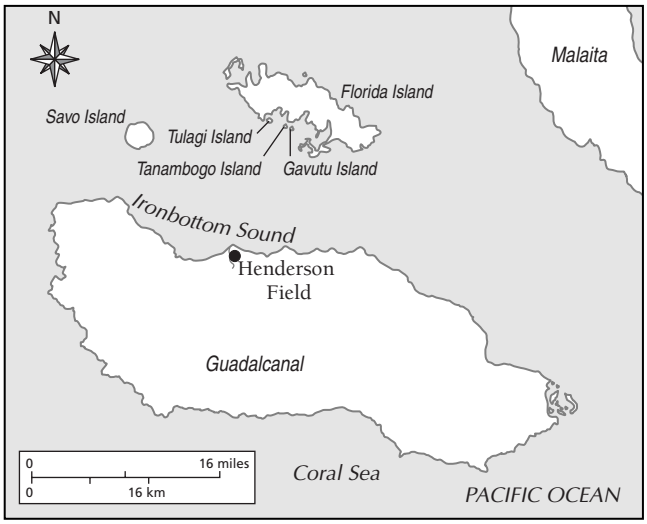
THE BATTLE OF MIDWAY

Although the Japanese had failed to achieve strategic victory in the Battle of the Coral Sea, Midway Island remained the Japanese objective. Admiral Yamamoto sent a diversionary force to the Aleutian Islands, while Admiral Chuichi Nagumo (1886–1944), who had led the Pearl Harbor attack, took a four-carrier strike force followed by an invasion fleet—88 ships in all—to Midway. His American opponent, the perspicacious Admiral Chester A. Nimitz (1885–1966), had anticipated just such an attack. Therefore, he assembled two forces east of Midway, designated Task Forces 16 (under Admiral Raymond Spruance [1886–1969]) and 18 (under Admiral Frank Fletcher [1885–1973]). The task forces included the carriers *Enterprise, Hornet,* and *Yorktown,* in addition to land-based aircraft on Midway itself. The Midway-based planes attacked elements of the Japanese fleet on June 3 but inflicted little damage. Worse, on June 4, 108 Japanese aircraft struck Midway, destroying 15 of 25 U.S. Marine aircraft based there. These reverses notwithstanding. American carrier-based torpedo bombers attacked the Japanese fleet. The first two attacks failed—with heavy U.S. losses—as did a third attack, by Midway-based B-17 heavy bombers. A fourth attack, again by torpedo bombers, resulted in the loss of 35 of the 41 aircraft launched. However, the attack opened the way for a massive sortie by 54 dive-bombers from *Enterprise* and *Yorktown;* within five minutes three Japanese aircraft carriers were sunk, their planes still on deck. A fourth Japanese carrier, *Hiryu,* was sunk in a separate attack later in the day—but not before *Hiryu*'s aircraft sank the *Yorktown.*

Despite the high cost in American lives and aircraft—and the loss of the *Yorktown*—the Battle of Midway was an American triumph that turned the tide of the Pacific war, and Japanese forces began withdrawing on June 5, 1942. U.S. losses were 307 men, 150 planes, a destroyer, and the *Yorktown,* whereas the Japanese lost 275 planes, four carriers, a cruiser, and about 4,800 men. From Midway forward, the U.S. Pacific strategy became offensive rather than defensive.

GUADALCANAL

Defeated at Midway, Japan abandoned the plan of taking New Caledonia, the Fijis, and Samoa. Now imperial forces concentrated on the southwest Pacific instead. They targeted Port Moresby for invasion, not by direct amphibious assault but overland, using troops landed at Buna-Gona, New Guinea. This required a buildup at their major naval base on Rabaul and at lesser bases in the Solomon Islands. As soon as the Japanese began building an airfield on the island of Guadalcanal, American commanders decided to launch an offensive there and also against Tulagi, using 19,000 marines under General Alexander Vandergrift (1887–1973), in 89 ships. The Guadalcanal landings, begun on August 7, 1942, took the Japanese by complete



Guadalcanal and associated islands: scene of an epic Pacific campaign, 1942–1943

surprise. On Tulagi, however, marines met severe resistance, and from Rabaul the Japanese launched a fierce counterattack by sea, sinking three American cruisers and one Australian cruiser. With his fleet in grave danger, Admiral Richmond K. Turner (1885–1961) had no choice but to withdraw and, for the present, leave the marines to fend for themselves on Guadalcanal. What had begun as a bold U.S. offensive was suddenly converted into one of the most heroic defensive stands of World War II; for the next four months the marines resisted Japanese counterattacks. Finally, on the night of November 12–13, an outnumbered U.S. cruiser force under Admiral William "Bull" Halsey (1882–1959) rescued the beleaguered marines. Once the flow of Japanese reinforcements to Guadalcanal was stemmed, more marines were landed, and by early February 1943 the Japanese had evacuated the island. As Midway was the turning point of the Pacific war at sea, so Guadalcanal changed the course of the land war.

While the Guadalcanal defense, rescue, and counteroffensive were under way, Australian and U.S. forces defeated the Japanese attack on Port Moresby, New Guinea. The Australians pushed the attackers clear of the port city, while a combination of U.S. and Australian troops counterattacked the Japanese beachhead at Buna-Gona, driving the Japanese off the island.

ISLAND-HOPPING STRATEGY: THE SOUTH PACIFIC

U.S. and Australian victories on Guadalcanal and New Guinea penetrated the outer perimeter of Japan's defenses of its homeland. In response, Japan reinforced Rabaul and the lesser military outposts it held in the South Pacific and Southwest Pacific. American strategists focused on an "island hopping" strategy, attacking selected Japanese-held islands while leaving others alone. The Japanese perimeter strategy presupposed an attack on one island after another, step by step. American strategists realized, however, that by "hopping" past some of the islands, Japanese forces on those missed islands would be isolated, rendered useless, even though they had not been attacked. In this way, the Americans forced the Japanese to invest extravagant amounts of manpower. At the same time, each successful U.S. assault pushed the Japanese perimeter closer to the homeland.

U.S. forces targeted Rabaul, the main Japanese base in the South Pacific. MacArthur directed a two-pronged offensive aimed ultimately at taking Rabaul. MacArthur ordered Halsey's fleet to drive northwestward through the Solomon Islands, while General Walter Krueger (1881–1967) was to lead the Sixth Army through New Guinea and New Britain toward Rabaul. An Australian force established a forward base at Wau on January 9; by the end of June, Krueger's U.S. troops had landed at Nassau Bay, New Guinea. This was followed by operations at Lae and Salamaua, New Guinea, by combined Australian and American troops, which drove the Japanese out of Salamaua by mid-September. Finschafen was enveloped on September 22 and fell on October 2, thereby securing southeastern New Guinea for the Allies to use as a base from which to mount an assault on New Britain during October through December. By the end of 1943, an Allied beachhead had been established on New Britain.

Simultaneously with the assaults on New Guinea and New Britain, U.S. land and naval forces stepped off from Guadalcanal to attack the central and northern islands of the Solomons chain. Russell Island fell on February 11, 1943, followed by Rendova Island on June 30. From here, U.S. forces assaulted New Georgia during July 2–August 25 but faced fierce resistance in jungle combat. The fighting ended only when the Japanese troops had been virtually wiped out.

Overlapping the assault on New Georgia was an attack on Vella Lavella, from August 15 to October 7, which finally delivered the central Solomons into American hands—at a cost of 1,136 U.S. troops killed and 4,140 wounded. Of the 8,000-troop Japanese garrison on Vella Lavella, 2,500 died.

What had been bought with so much blood was a staging area for a thrust against Bougainville, which, with Rabaul and Choiseul, was the last Japanese stronghold in the Solomons. Bougainville fell in December and became a major Allied naval and air base. In the meantime, U.S. carriers began striking at Rabaul on November 5 and 11, 1943. As a result, a major Japanese cruiser and destroyer force under Vice Admiral Takeo Kurita (1889–1977) retreated to Truk Island.

The fighting in the South Pacific combined ground, sea, and air operations. Air-to-air and air-to-ground encounters were frequent. The combined Australian-American Fifth Air

Force achieved air superiority—neutralizing the Japanese fighter force—by May; however, the high point of the South Pacific air war for the Allies was without doubt the Battle of the Bismarck Sea, during March 2–4, 1943. U.S. aircraft attacked a Japanese squadron of eight destroyers escorting troop transports from Rabaul to Lae. Seven Japanese transports were sunk, along with four destroyers, making it impossible for the Japanese to reinforce and resupply their forces on New Guinea.

Although his air strength had been severely depleted by early 1943, Yamamoto committed the bulk of his remaining aircraft to a counterattack during April 7–12. The new Allied bases in New Guinea and the Solomons were hit hard, but the attacks were costly in Japanese aircraft. Also, in the course of the action, thanks to intercepted Japanese radio traffic, an air transport carrying Yamamoto was identified and shot down. The death of Yamamoto was the greatest single disaster the Japanese navy suffered during the war.

CAMPAIGN IN THE CENTRAL PACIFIC, 1943

During the fall of 1943, the Fifth Fleet, under Vice Admiral Raymond A. Spruance (1886–1969), which included the Fifth Amphibious Force (Army) and the Fifth Amphibious Corps (Marines), the largest naval force the United States had ever assembled, sailed west across the Pacific with the Seventh Air Force and elements of the Third Fleet. Beginning during November 13–20, USAAF bombers strafed Tarawa and Makin in the Gilbert Islands preparatory to an amphibious assault, which stepped off on November 20 against Makin. Makin fell on November 23; from Makin, Tarawa was assaulted during November 20–24. The cost of taking this tenaciously defended island was 985 marines killed and 2,193 wounded. The extent of Japanese losses is not known, but the island was defended to the death. Of the 100 prisoners taken, only 17 were Japanese combat soldiers. With Tarawa gained, Nimitz was poised to attack the Marshalls and then to destroy the major Japanese naval base at Truk.

NORTH PACIFIC COMBAT IN 1943

Japanese occupation forces held Attu and Kiska, westernmost of the Aleutian Islands—the only part of the North American continent the Japanese invaded. The Battle of the Komandorski Islands on March 26 forced Japanese transports to divert from Attu and seriously impeded resupply of the islands. During May 11–29, U.S. ground forces cleared Attu of the invaders, and a Canadian-U.S. force landed on Kiska on August 15, only to find that it had already been evacuated.

CAMPAIGNS IN THE SOUTH PACIFIC AND SOUTHWEST PACIFIC, 1944

By the beginning of 1944, the Allies were progressively securing the Solomons. On February 15, New Zealand troops captured Green Island, and on March 20 Emirau fell. This completed the isolation of Rabaul. To the west, Saidor, the Admiralty Islands, and New Britain all fell to Allied control early in the year. However, as they continued to yield island after island to U.S. and Allied forces throughout the South Pacific, the Japanese resolve to hold western New Guinea only increased. During March and April, U.S. and Australian forces encircled the Japanese at Hollandia, New Guinea, inflicting extremely heavy casualties. From here, the Allies pacified or captured the islands of Wake (May 17), Biak (May 27–June 29), Wewak and Aitape (June 28–August 5), Noemfoor (July 2–7), and Sansapor (July 30).

CENTRAL PACIFIC CAMPAIGN, 1944

Along with action in the South Pacific and Southwest Pacific, Nimitz conducted a Central Pacific campaign that targeted the Marshall Islands. Kwajalein Island, in the Marshalls group, was invaded on January 29 and cleared of Japanese resistance by February 7. Of the 8,000-man Japanese garrison, 7,870 were killed; U.S. losses were 372 dead and about 1,000 wounded.

The next big target was Truk, a key Japanese naval base. Air assault was conducted during February 17–18, sinking many Japanese cargo vessels and destroying 275 out of 365 Japanese aircraft on Truk. A Japanese light cruiser and a destroyer were also sunk. Simultaneously, marine and army forces landed in the Eniwetok atoll on the island of Engebi, then proceeded to Eniwetok Island and Parry Island, where they had to overcome suicidal Japanese resistance. Eniwetok Island served as the rendezvous point for the large Fifth Amphibious Force, a collection of warships and landing craft capable of delivering 127,000 men. Using Eniwetok as a staging area, U.S. forces landed on Saipan beginning on June 15. The conquest of this key island was one of the bloodiest campaigns of the Central Pacific war. More than 3,000 Americans were killed and 13,160 wounded, whereas Japanese losses amounted to 27,000, including many hundreds of civilians who, having been told by Japanese occupiers that U.S. forces would torture and cannibalize them, committed mass suicide by jumping off the island's cliffs.

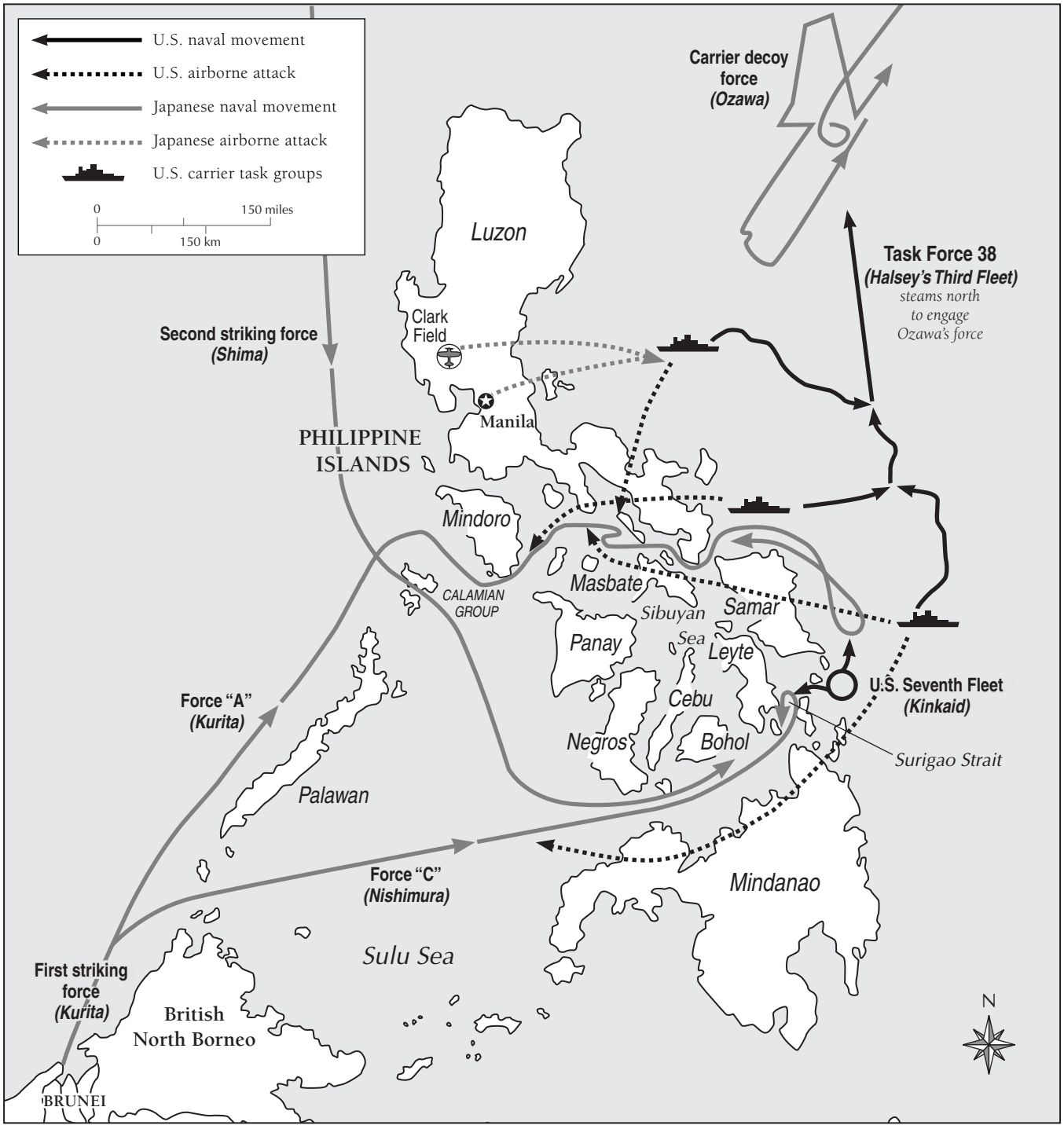
PHILIPPINE CAMPAIGN, 1944

The importance of the assaults on Saipan and the Marianas was in forcing the Japanese fleet out into the open for the first time since its defeat at Midway and Guadalcanal. The Battle of the Philippine Sea, which began on June 19, pitted carrier-based U.S. aircraft against Japanese land- and carrier-based planes. After eight hours of continuous aerial combat, 330 of the 430 Japanese aircraft engaged had been lost. Of 450 U.S. aircraft in combat, only 30 were downed. This single most decisive aerial battle of the war was dubbed the "Marianas Turkey Shoot." While the air battle raged, U.S. submarines sank two Japanese aircraft carriers, sending the Japanese fleet into full retreat by nightfall. On June 20, U.S. admiral Marc Mitscher (1887–

1947) launched 209 carrier-based planes against the fleeing Japanese ships. The carrier *Hiyo* was sunk, and 40 of the 75 Japanese planes sent to defend against the attack were lost; however, U.S. aircraft losses were also high, reaching 100, although many of the aviators were rescued.

The Saipan landings and the Battle of the Philippine Sea put American forces in a position to redeem the famous pledge MacArthur had made when he fled the Philippines at the start of the war—"I shall return." On September 15, 1944, units of MacArthur's forces made a surprise landing on the island of Morotai, south of the Philippines. Pelelieu was attacked next and proved much more formidable; the island fell only after a month of bitter fighting.

MacArthur had planned to advance from Morotai and Pelelieu to Mindanao and Yap, but Halsey recommended



Retaking the Philippines: the Battle of Leyte, October 17–December 25, 1944

skipping these intermediate steps to launch an immediate invasion of Leyte, at the center of the Philippine archipelago. It was a daring gamble, but if successful it would split in two the quarter-million-strong Japanese army there. With the enemy forces thus divided, they could be defeated in detail—first on Leyte, then on Luzon, and finally on Mindanao. If the Japanese decided to attempt to reestablish a continuous front across these islands, they would have to bring in their fleet, which would afford Nimitz an opportunity to destroy it.

During October 13–16, 1944, Halsey's Third Fleet attacked Formosa, Okinawa, and Luzon. More than 650 Japanese aircraft were lost in these attacks, making Leyte all the more vulnerable.

Landings on Leyte commenced on October 20 and extended through October 22, with MacArthur wading ashore a few hours after a beachhead had been established. From a radio truck he broadcast, "People of the Philippines: I have returned! By the grace of Almighty God our forces stand again on Philippine soil—soil consecrated in the blood of our two peoples . . . Rally to me!" Retaking the islands would not be easy, however. The Japanese quickly counterattacked, both on land and in Leyte Gulf, where the biggest naval battle in history soon got under way.

The Japanese fleet was divided into three groups: the Northern Group (under Admiral Jisaburo Ozawa [1886–1966]), built around four carriers; the Center Force (Admiral Takeo Kurita), consisting of battleships and cruisers; and the Southern Group (Admiral Shoji Nishimura [d. 1944]), also a battleship and cruiser force. The Northern Group was to lure the U.S. Third Fleet away from Leyte Gulf while the Center Force came down on the American invasion fleet from the north and the Southern Force, passing up through Surigao Strait, converged on the invaders from the south. Once the invasion fleet was destroyed and the American army stranded, the combined Japanese forces could turn on the Third Fleet and destroy it.

The attack began badly for the Japanese when U.S. submarines sank two cruisers, and aircraft sank the battleship *Musashi*. When Kurita retreated, Halsey concluded that the Center Force had been defeated and set out to pursue the Northern Group—thus taking the Japanese bait and leaving the invasion fleet exposed. Admiral Jesse B. Oldendorf (1887–1974), commanding six obsolescent battleships, eight cruisers, and an assortment of destroyers and PT boats, was left to face the Southern Group in the Battle of Surigao Strait of October 25. Incredibly, the outgunned U.S. forces succeeded in sinking two Japanese battleships, including Nishimura's flagship, with Nishimura on board. However, during this battle, the Japanese Center Force ended its retreat, turned, and bore down on the still-unprotected U.S. invasion fleet. Only three modest forces of small carriers stood between Kurita's Center Force and the vulnerable invasion fleet. Outgunned and outnumbered, the American vessels nevertheless managed to drive Kurita off. By this time, Halsey, far to the north, had effectively destroyed Ozawa's Northern Group. All four Japanese carriers were sunk, as were a cruiser and three destroyers. It was the end of the Japanese navy as a strategic force.

On December 7, 1944, General Krueger's troops joined U.S. forces already landed on Leyte, and the island fell to the Americans before the month was out. From here, an assault was launched against Luzon, and thence to Bataan. Manila fell to the Americans in January, and the last Japanese garrison on the islands, at Corregidor, surrendered in February 1945. Mop-up operations, especially on Mindanao, continued almost to the very end of the war. It was not until July 5, 1945, that MacArthur formally declared that the Philippines had been retaken.

IWO JIMA, 1945

As Japan's situation became clearly hopeless, the Japanese will to resist became more desperate than ever. USAAF strategic bombing of the Japanese mainland did little to break the people's will to fight, and Allied planners resigned themselves to a costly invasion of the Japanese homeland. If the Japanese held each Pacific island virtually to the last man, the Americans feared, how much more fiercely would they defend their homeland? An important stage in that invasion was the capture of Iwo Jima, a tiny, rocky island in the Bonin group, which the Japanese used as a base for fighter aircraft to intercept incoming American bombers. U.S. forces not only needed to clear the Japanese out but also wanted the island as a forward air base to use against the Japanese mainland.

The invasion began on February 19 when the U.S. Fifth Fleet landed Major General Harry Schmidt's (1886–1968) V Amphibious Corps of marines on the southeastern end of the island. In the very first day, marine casualties were 2,420 killed or wounded. The high ground, Mount Suribachi, was captured on February 23 (the marines raising the Stars and Stripes in an event immortalized first in a Pulitzer Prize–winning news photograph and then in a famed Washington, D.C., sculpture group). After the capture of Mount Suribachi, the battle consisted of mopping-up operations. Total marine casualties were 6,891 killed and 18,070 wounded. Of the Japanese garrison of 22,000, only 212 lived to surrender.

OKINAWA CAMPAIGN, 1945

The Ryukyu island group, midway between Formosa and Kyushu, the southernmost island of Japan itself, was the last stepping-stone to invasion. Okinawa, the major island of the group, was the principal objective of Operation Iceberg, a massive amphibious assault by a 130,000-man army against formidable Japanese defenses.

The campaign began, in the second half of March, with heavy bomber attacks; however, Admiral Spruance's Fifth Fleet was attacked by a new weapon of Japanese des-

peration. After limited use at the Battle of Iwo Jima, the *kamikaze* ("divine wind") attack was now employed in earnest. Japanese pilots transformed their explosives-laden aircraft into human-guided missiles, purposely crashing them into American ships. At Okinawa, the carriers *Franklin, Yorktown,* and *Wasp* were severely damaged by kamikazes, with the loss of 825 officers and men killed and 534 wounded. Yet the invasion went on, and the landings took place during April 1–4.

On land, the heaviest resistance came from the Machinato Line, a dense, interlocking system of defenses in the island's mountain region. At sea, on April 7, two U.S. destroyers, two ammunition ships, a minesweeper, and a landing ship were sunk by mass kamikaze attacks, which also damaged 24 other ships. Losses among the kamikazes were 383 aircraft and pilots—and, on that very day, American aircraft sunk the pride of the surviving Japanese navy, the giant battleship *Yamato*.

Progress on land was slow but steady until the end of April 1945, when the invasion was stalled. More kamikazes—some 3,000 sorties—were launched against the amphibious force, sinking 21 ships, damaging another 23 beyond immediate repair, and taking 43 more out of action. With the invaders stalled on land, the Japanese counterattacked during May 3–4. However, the counterattack was quickly defeated. By counterattacking, the Japanese had revealed their previously well-hidden positions, and the U.S. invaders were able to knock out Japanese artillery and resume a full-ahead offensive during May 11–31.

Japanese casualties in the Battle of Okinawa totaled a staggering 107,500 dead (it is believed an additional 20,000 were sealed in their defensive caves during the fighting and died). American casualties were in excess of 12,000 killed and 37,000 wounded, but the fall of Okinawa meant the loss of what remained of Japan's navy and air force.

THE BOMB

With invasion of Japan itself in the offing, the USAAF conducted intensive strategic bombing of major Japanese industrial centers and cities. The most destructive raid was against Tokyo during March 9–10, which created an incendiary firestorm that instantly killed 83,000 and wounded at least 100,000 more. As U.S. planes pounded Japan from the sky, American naval vessels, especially submarines, contracted their blockade around Japan in an effort to starve the country while MacArthur and Nimitz assembled a vast amphibious invasion force.

Unknown even to the top American commanders, the United States had succeeded in creating nuclear weapons—two "atomic bombs." This would not only prove the key to ending the fighting in the Pacific but also, perhaps more than anything else that occurred during World War II, would shape the postwar years.

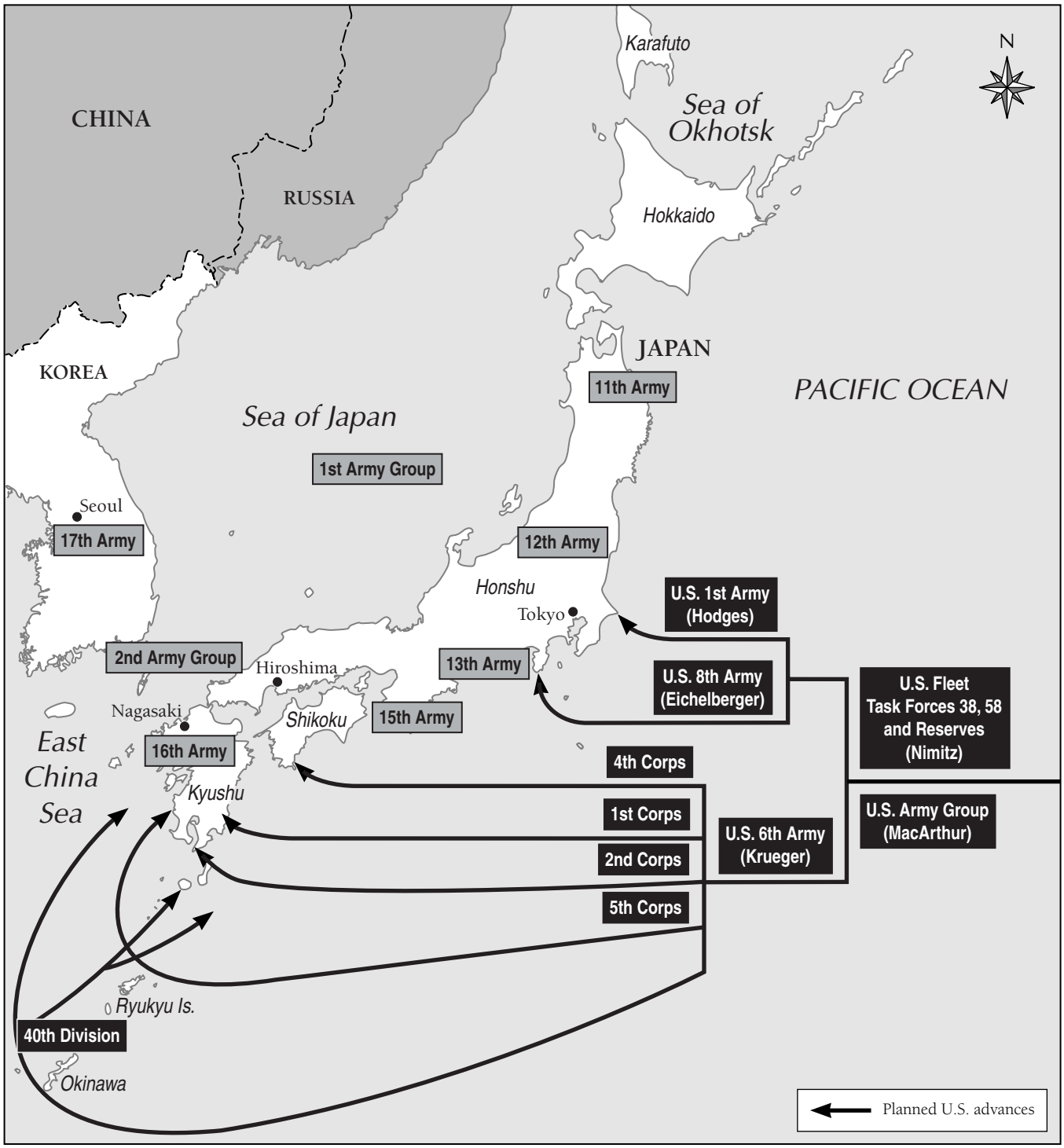
Because everyone mistakenly assumed that German scientists—under the leadership of the brilliant theoretical physicist Werner Heisenberg (1901–76)—had a head start in the first nuclear arms race, the creation of the bomb became the object of perhaps the world's most famous secret project. Even before the war, the Hungarian-born physicist Leo Szilard (1898–1964)—who in 1938 had first imagined that nuclear fission could produce an atomic chain reaction capable of releasing enormous amounts of energy—had prevailed upon no less a prominent scientist than Albert Einstein (1879–1955) to write to President Roosevelt about the destructive possibilities of such a weapon and to warn him that German scientists were perfectly capable of producing an atomic bomb. On December 6, 1941, just one day before Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor, Roosevelt signed a secret order authorizing the Manhattan Project to investigate the feasibility of nuclear weapons and to create a fission bomb. The project was headed by Brigadier General Leslie R. Groves (1896–1970), the army engineer who directed construction of the Pentagon.

Groves's assignment was stated in starkly simple terms—develop a bomb before the Nazis do. He assembled a group of scientists directed by physicist J. Robert Oppenheimer (1904–67), who spent months confined to a secret base at Los Alamos, New Mexico, feverishly experimenting with the "gadget," as they called it. The scientists and their "gadget" were backed by the costliest engineering and manufacturing program the U.S. government had ever undertaken to develop a single weapon. As it turned out, Heisenberg either purposely or accidentally misled his team of scientists, and the German atomic program meandered off toward dead-end experiments for developing a "heavy-water" atomic bomb. Meanwhile, the Allies had marched toward the successful construction of an implosive device that would trigger a chain-reaction in "enriched" uranium. "Trinity," the first test of the bomb, took place in the New Mexico desert at 0529:45 on July 16, 1945, well after Germany had been defeated, and three months after the death of Franklin Roosevelt.

It fell to Harry S. Truman (1884–1972) to decide whether to use the weapon against the remaining enemy, the empire of Japan. Even with most of their cities reduced to rubble by the massive fire-bombings, even with their navy and air force effectively neutralized, the Japanese steadfastly refused to accept unconditional surrender. Invading the islands, it was estimated, would cost the lives of perhaps one million Allied soldiers, not to mention the toll it would take on the Japanese themselves. Truman faced a U.S. public anxious to pay back the Japanese for Pearl Harbor and fully supportive of the demand for unconditional surrender, but one that would hardly have tolerated the high American casualties of an invasion if it became known he had possessed all along the technology to end the war immediately without them. He was fearful,

too, that Japan's resistance to such an invasion would give Soviet dictator Joseph Stalin (1879–1953) sufficient time to enter the war against the Japanese, as he had promised at the Yalta Conference, and claim his share of the spoils of victory as he was doing in Europe.

At the same time, however, a small group of scientists—including many of those who had played roles in theorizing about and building the bomb—were now arguing against its deployment, especially against civilians, and proposed steps that could be taken to avoid the poten-



This U.S. plan for the invasion of Japan was rendered unnecessary by Japan's surrender after the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki on August 6 and 9, 1945.

tial for a nuclear arms race in the future. Despite such sentiments among scientists, Truman—and Roosevelt before him—along with Winston Churchill (1874–1965) were not unmindful of the military and political advantages they imagined would result from an American-British nuclear monopoly. How large a role these various considerations played in Truman's decision to drop the bombs is a matter of much conjecture among historians, but the fact is that Harry Truman did decide that fateful summer to deploy the weapon the United States had developed. He ordered the only nuclear attacks in history.

On August 6, 1945, a specially equipped B-29 called the *Enola Gay* appeared in the skies over the Japanese military port of Hiroshima and dropped a single atomic bomb. The blast destroyed everything in the vicinity, burning four and a half square miles, killing more than 66,000 people, and horribly injuring some 70,000 others. Stalin immediately declared war on Japan and invaded Manchuria. Three days later, Truman—to prove the first nuclear attack was no one-time fluke—dropped a second bomb on Nagasaki, killing nearly 40,000 more.

THE JAPANESE SURRENDER

Emperor Hirohito (1901–89) of Japan summoned his cabinet to an audience, told them that to continue the war would be suicidal, and expressed his wish that Japan accept the terms of the Potsdam Protocol—produced by the Allied conference that had set "unconditional surrender" as the goal of the fighting—with one exception, that Hirohito should remain emperor and sovereign of Japan. He then upbraided the military men present for failing to perform as they had promised him. On August 10, the day after the attack on Nagasaki, Japan sued for peace on condition that Emperor Hirohito be allowed to remain its ruler.

If this was not completely unconditional, it was close enough. Truman and his advisers decided that even had the emperor not raised the issue, they would probably have kept him on under Allied supervision, if for no other reason than to ensure the surrender of the Japanese armies scattered across East Asia and the Pacific. The Americans replied on August 11 that the emperor and the Japanese government's authority would be subject to the Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers, as required by Potsdam, but also implying that Hirohito could retain the title of emperor. A few of the more fanatical officers attempted a coup on the palace grounds, but their revolt failed. On August 14, Hirohito accepted Potsdam, and a "cease-fire" was announced. On the morning of September 2, 1945, General MacArthur, on board the battleship *Missouri* anchored in Tokyo Bay, received the Japanese delegation and accepted the surrender. The greatest war in history had come to an end.

Some historians have argued that if the Americans had made their willingness to retain Hirohito as titular emperor clear earlier, even if under the yoke of an Allied supreme commander, the Japanese might well have surrendered much sooner and there would have been no need to employ nuclear weapons. As it was, the Allies carefully employed the authority of the emperor throughout the surrender process, accepting the surrender documents from the delegation to the *Missouri* as the "First Instrument of Surrender," then carefully proclaiming the emperor's receipt of the surrender, and finally securing additional "instruments of surrender" in other parts of the Pacific theater, such as the Philippines and Singapore.

ALLIED OCCUPATION

MacArthur became the Allied commander of the Japanese occupation between 1945 and 1951. Certainly autocratic, if not megalomaniacal, MacArthur nevertheless proved to be an effective and humane administrator. He directed the demobilization of the Japanese military forces, seeing to the complete expurgation of the island empire's entrenched militarists, and he guided the restoration of the Japanese economy and the drafting of a liberal constitution, which was adopted in 1946. Under his tutelage, Japan inaugurated significant reforms in land distribution, education, labor relations, public health policies, and the treatment of women. Serving also as head of the U.S. Army's Far East command, MacArthur was called upon to take charge of UN forces when the KOREAN WAR broke out in 1950. He soon ran afoul of President Truman, who removed MacArthur from command—and from the Far East—for his insubordination and his unwillingness to fight a limited war. Thus MacArthur was gone and his influence over Japanese affairs at an end, when the peace treaty, which he had long negotiated, was finalized.

The signing of the 1951 treaty was the culmination of negotiations essentially completed during MacArthur's day. These included the establishment of territorial boundaries as they existed at the end of the war, with Japan affirming its renunciation of rights to all territories surrendered by the armistice concluded aboard the *Missouri*. It also renounced any special rights with regard to China. However, the treaty conveyed to the Soviet Union no special title to the Kuriles and southern Sakhalin. Nor did it turn over Taiwan to China. For these reasons, the Soviet Union and the two Chinas declined to sign the treaty—though a majority of the Allies did sign, making it universally effective.

Although the treaty established the principle that Japan should pay reparations, it left the amounts to subsequent bilateral negotiation. The treaty also brought to bear the principles of the United Nations Charter, to which Japan agreed to subscribe, further agreeing to follow internationally accepted fair trade and commerce practices. The treaty provided for the transition from a government of military occupation to sovereignty and independence within 90 days of the date on which the treaty came into force. Of signal importance was the absence of military

clauses restricting armed forces in Japan. A central feature of the Treaty of Versailles and other World War I treaties, these were made unnecessary by the Japanese constitution adopted in 1946, which forbade the maintenance of any Japanese armed forces. However, Japan agreed to accept "the obligations set forth" for nation states under the UN Charter, and, for their part, the Allied signatories recognized "that Japan as a sovereign nation possesses the inherent right of individual or collective self-defense referred to" in that charter. (In part at the insistence of the United States, a small defense force was later created.)

One might say MacArthur had learned the lessons of Versailles and applied them in Japan, avoiding its punitive aspects and carefully nurturing the economic reconstruction of the defeated country. Many Japanese would have disagreed; certainly MacArthur's dictatorial rule sometimes felt punitive, and the total disarmament forced on the Japanese under their constitution more resembled the intent of Versailles than not. MacArthur's time in Japan was an occupation—more subtle than the Soviet occupation of East Germany, even benign perhaps, but an occupation nevertheless. And in many ways, the peace treaty signaled only the official end of the postwar occupation.

By 1951, under MacArthur's stewardship, Japan had already become a political and economic asset to an America engaged in the COLD WAR, although nothing like the financial juggernaught the island would become in future decades. However, having—at the insistence of the United States as an occupying power—constitutionally disarmed, the Japanese without American protection were defenseless against the two neighboring communist giants, the Soviet Union and China, who—in the wake of Mao Zedong's (1893–1976) takeover of the mainland in 1949—appeared at the time to be more a single ideological and political monolith than later proved to be the case. Especially with the coming of the Korean War, which witnessed both a massive invasion of South Korea by Chinese communist troops and significant technical support for North Korea from the Soviet Union, it became important for the United States at last not only to sign a permanent peace with Japan but also to reach some agreement on security.

Thus, on the same day that the peace treaty was signed, Japan concluded the Japanese-U.S. Security Treaty, which allowed (among other provisions) the United States to maintain military forces in Japan. This treaty was supplanted in 1960 by the Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security between the United States and Japan. The postwar arrangements between the United States and Japan proved an unexpected boon for the island kingdom. Freed of the need to maintain a costly security sector, the Japanese economy, fully industrialized before the war but saddled with none of the outmoded plants (courtesy of Allied bombing) such industrialization might have implied, eventually took off to dizzying new heights.

In short, Japan, though it had suffered tremendously at the end of the war, reaped unexpected benefits from the postwar occupation. Protected in many ways from foreign competition, freed to develop an all but entirely new industrial infrastructure, and forbidden to invest in the costly weapons and security programs that would consume so much of the budgets of other industrialized powers, Japan developed a truly world-class economy that in the coming decades became a marvel and a model around the globe, made the Pacific Rim a hot-bed of economic growth, and came to rival that of its occupier.

Defense spending for the Allied countries grew ever more expensive after the war precisely because the United States had dropped the atomic bombs on Japan and unleashed a nuclear age in world history. Immediately after the war, the United States sat content in the knowledge that it and only it possessed the atomic bomb, but unknown to Truman and Churchill, Klaus Fuchs (1911–88), who had worked on the Manhattan Project and was among the scientists who objected to the deployment of the bombs, had already passed atomic secrets to the Soviets. By war's end, Stalin knew all about the bomb. He had not built one yet, but he soon would, and over the succeeding decades the USSR and the United States would create thousands of nuclear weapons that could be launched from almost anywhere on land, at sea, or in the air. Within a few years the victors in World War II had become prisoners of their own technology, former allies turned "superpower" rivals who would spend 40 years locked in a cold war dance of death called "mutually assured destruction" that neither could really control or bring to a good end, and from which Japan was all but exempt.

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World War II: Russian Front (1941–1945)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Nazi Germany and allies (Italy, Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, co-belligerent Finland, and the Croats and volunteer "Spanish Legion" in support) vs. the Soviet Union and allies (Great Britain, United States)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): European Russia
DECLARATION: Germany against Soviet Union, June 22, 1941
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Adolf Hitler's plans envisaged the military defeat of the Soviet Union, the eradication of "Jewish-Bolshevism," the extension of German's *Lebensraum* ("living space") to the east, and the subjugation, exploitation, and extermination of the Slav *Untermensch* ("sub-human"). In response, the Soviet Union waged the "Great Patriotic War" (*Velikaia Otechestvennaia voina)* inspired more by feeling for endangered "Mother Russia" than commitment to communism.
OUTCOME: In spite of huge initial successes, the German forces were defeated in the east, and the Red Army liberated Soviet territory, advanced deep into the Balkans, Eastern Europe, and Germany itself, capturing Berlin on May 2, 1945. By May 1945, Vienna and Prague had also fallen to the Red Army.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Total Soviet wartime mobilized military manpower amounted to 29,574,900. Red Army strength in June 1941 was 4,826,900, in May 1945, 11,390,600. German Army (Wehrmacht) strength in the east was 3.3 million in June 1941, 3.10 million in 1942, 2.56 million in 1943, 3.13 million in 1944, 2.53 million in January 1945. On average, over four years, more than 9 million troops were continuously committed on the front.
CASUALTIES: Even after 50 years, there are no final loss figures, German or Soviet. German troop losses in the east from June 1941 to March 1945: total 6,255,000 (1,001,000 killed, 3,966,000 wounded, 1,288,000 missing). Soviet figures for German prisoners of war: 2,289,600 of whom 450,600 died in captivity. Losses of Germany's allies in the east: 1,725,800 (killed, missing, prisoners) according to Soviet figures.

Protracted controversy surrounds Soviet battlefield losses. One total for killed and missing is 10,008,434 (yet another sets that figure at 11,444,100); wounded and sick, 18,190,693, giving a total of 28,199,127 (revised upward by some to 29,629,205). Figures for Soviet prisoners of war vary between 5,245,000 and 5,734,528; 1,836,000 were repatriated in 1945, leaving a deficit of some 3.3 million prisoners presumed shot, executed, starved, maltreated. Recent Russian figures put total wartime permanent losses, military and civilian, at 26–27 million, though this is contested as too conservative.
TREATIES: *See* World War II: Pacific and World War II: Western Front

This entry focuses on the Russian front in World War II. For the historical background of the war, *see* World War II: Historical Background. For the outbreak and early course of the war, *see* World War II: Outbreak and Early German Conquests. For entries that treat the course and conclusion of the war in various theaters, *see* the Sino-Japanese War (1937–1945); World War II: Africa and the Mediterranean; World War II: Atlantic Front; World War II: China-Burma-India Theater; World War II: Italian Front; World War II: Pacific; World War II: Western Front. For the development and deployment of the atomic bomb, *see* World War II: Pacific. For treatment of the major Allied summits, the Holocaust, and the Nuremberg trials, *see* World War II: Western Front.

Historians judge the Soviet-German war, the "Great Patriotic War of the Soviet Union, 1941–1945," to be the greatest land campaign ever fought on a single front, more geographically extended than any other in history. In terms of duration, numbers of men engaged, levels of guns, tanks, aircraft, and casualties, the Russian front dominated World War II. The Wehrmacht never had less than 60 percent of its divisions committed in the east against the Red Army, which in turn claimed the destruction or disabling of 607 enemy divisions in the course of nine campaigns, seven of them offensive, for the reported loss of 297 Soviet divisions (177 in 1941 alone). An extensive, savage partisan war developed in the German rear, adding more terror and brutality. Soviet population loss was on the order of 23.5 percent, the physical destruction enormous, 1,170 towns, 31,850 industrial plants, 84,000 schools, and 7 million dwellings.

ORIGINS

As early as 1925 in *Mein Kampf,* Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) widely advertised his virulent anticommunism and pronounced war a test of national virility and the conquest of *Lebensraum,* "living space," for the German master race, the latter to be achieved by war on the Slavs in the east. "If we want to rule we must first conquer Russia." The war against the Soviet Union was both an ideological war to destroy "Jewish-Bolshevism" and a war of racial subjugation. The August 23, 1939, German-Soviet Treaty of Non-Aggression, the "Nazi-Soviet Pact," ushered in a temporary *rapprochement* between Hitler and Joseph Stalin (1879–1953), the latter affirming that he used the pact to buy time, though throughout 1940–41 he pursued appeasement of Germany as much as he prepared for war.

In the summer of 1940, the German high command initiated the first operational studies for an attack on the Soviet Union. The November 1940 Berlin conference between Hitler and Vyacheslav Molotov (1890–1986), the Soviet foreign minister, disclosed serious differences and confirmed Hitler in his view of Stalin as a "cold-blooded blackmailer." On December 5, 1940, Hitler received a

detailed briefing on the operational plans for war on Russia, and on December 18 he issued his Directive No. 21 stipulating that "the German Armed Forces must be prepared to crush Soviet Russia in a swift campaign (Operation Barbarossa)," preparations to be completed by May 31, 1941.

Repeatedly warned by intelligence about Hitler's intentions and German plans, Stalin refused as late as June 1941 to believe in the imminence of a German attack, denouncing all warnings as "lies" and "provocations." While reinforcing the Red Army on the frontiers, he declined to authorize an operational alert until late on June 21. In effect, the Red Army in June 1941 could neither attack nor defend. Between 3:00 and 3:30 A.M. on Sunday, June 22, 1941, 3,050,000 German troops—148 divisions, including 19 panzer (armored) divisions, 15 motorized divisions (75 percent of Wehrmacht field strength), 3,350 tanks, 7,184 guns, 600,000 motor vehicles, and 650,000 horses—supported by 2,500 Luftwaffe aircraft, opened the greatest land campaign in history, unleashing a high-speed offensive that achieved almost complete tactical surprise.

HALTING THE *BLITZKRIEG*, 1941–1942

On June 22, 1941, three massive German army groups—North, Center and South—spearheaded by the tanks of four Panzer groups, smashed into a Red Army that was largely without orders, badly deployed, its reorganization and reequipping far from complete. Neither Stalin, who anticipated further negotiation, nor the Soviet people expected imminent German attack. The Luftwaffe destroyed 800 Soviet aircraft parked on their airfields in a matter of hours. Army Group North struck deep into the Baltic States, and Army Group Center, advancing north of the Pripet Marshes, trapped Soviet armies in the huge Bialystok-Minsk encirclement operation. Army Group South met more organized resistance but began its advance on Kiev.

At the front, the Red Army succumbed to chaos and confusion, mobilizing under fire and hampered by the lack of a functioning war machine. The State Defense Committee (GKO), created after a delay of a week on June 30, 1941, assumed full military and political power, with Stalin as its chairman. Stalin's own belated national broadcast followed on July 3, ordering a "scorched earth" policy, calling for partisan warfare, appealing to Russian patriotism, and welcoming aid from the West. A vast, improvised movement to evacuate key industries to the eastern hinterland began, producing the greatest industrial migration in history.

At the front, Red Army losses mounted—thousands of tanks, aircraft, a huge tally of prisoners. The creation on July 10, 1941, of three Soviet "strategic high commands" (*glavkoms*)—Northwest, West, and Southwest—cumbersome as they were, did little to restore a gravely dangerous and deteriorating situation. The German plan aimed to destroy the Red Army between the Dnieper and Dvina rivers. The German command concluded this had been accomplished by early July, anticipating only disorganized resistance to the east. The final drive to take Leningrad was planned for August 10, whereas on August 5, Army Group South had already trapped up to 20 Soviet divisions and raced into the Dnieper bend.

The initial phase of Barbarossa closed in mid-August with Hitler deciding to concentrate, not at the center, a drive on Moscow, but to attack in the south, taking the Crimea and the industrialized Donets Basin, thus cutting off the Soviet oil supply from the Caucasus. Simultaneously, in the north the Germans would finally occupy Leningrad, linking up with the Finns. The advance on Moscow was to be resumed only after Leningrad had been captured and operations in the south well developed. On August 25, German troops linked up to the east of Kiev, trapping seven armies and taking some 600,000 prisoners. But Leningrad did not fall. Hitler decided that it should only be surrounded and besieged. On October 2, after a six-week delay, Army Group Center resumed the advance on Moscow, carrying out three huge encirclements at Viazma and Briansk, bringing the Red Army near to collapse, and precipitating panic in Moscow, which was hurriedly evacuated. Soviet war production plummeted disastrously, grain lands were lost, Red Army manpower dropped to its lowest level, more than 3 million men were taken prisoner, and 177 divisions were destroyed or disabled.

On November 15, 1941, Army Group Center launched its double envelopment to close east of Moscow, two panzer groups attacking to the north, a third to the south. Early in December 1941, in freezing temperatures, German advance units were 21 miles north and 40 miles south of Moscow, but German commanders reported exhaustion, lack of reserves, and stiff resistance. In the south late in November, a Red Army counteroffensive had recaptured Rostov and forced German troops back to the Mius River; in the north at Tikhvin, Soviet troops were closing on the German garrison. With the Red Army still fielding some 280 rifle and cavalry divisions, the German offensive halted in its tracks on December 5, 1941; the following day General (later Marshal) Georgii Zhukov (1896–1974) opened his counterstroke on the center, joined on the northern left flank by the Kalinin Front (army group) and to the south by Marshal Semyon Timoshenko's (1895–1970) Southwest front. The Soviet attacks quickly developed into a counteroffensive, with a shattering effect on Army Group Center, catastrophe barely averted by Hitler's personal "stand fast" order of December 18, 1941.

Stalin steadily expanded the Soviet operations against Army Group Center and extended them to Army Group North. Soviet penetrations north and south of Army Group Center forced the German command to suspect a Soviet plan to encircle the entire army group. On January 15, 1942, Hitler sanctioned a major withdrawal to shorten

the German lines. Though the German southern flank was stabilized, to the north extreme danger persisted until mid-February 1942.

On January 5, 1942, Stalin decided on a strategic counteroffensive involving all Soviet fronts, much against the advice of Zhukov and the General Staff, who recommended one all-out effort to finish off Army Group Center. In the late winter of 1942 the Soviet offensives lost momentum, followed by a gradual German recovery throughout March. Army Group Center stabilized in the north and closed the gap with Army Group North. The Ostheer, the German army in the East, had survived.

Hitler had earlier taken over personal control of operations in the East and on April 5, 1942, specified German objectives for the summer campaign with Directive No. 41. The main weight of the German effort would be directed to the south—to the Don, Stalingrad, and the Caucasus oilfields—designed to bring the Soviet Union to its knees. Leningrad would become a secondary theater, but the Kerch Peninsula had to be cleared and Sevastopol captured. Defending the vital oil fields would finally deprive the Soviet Union of its remaining strength. The offensive would develop in two stages, Blau I and Blau II, the first designed to bring German troops to the Don River, the second moving on to Stalingrad and threatening the Soviet flank in the Caucasus. Once fully engaged, Army Group South would split into Army Groups A and B, the former striking in the north, the latter into the Caucasus.

Stalin, though pressed to remain on the defensive and concentrating reserves before launching a counteroffensive, sanctioned immediate offensive operations by Marshal Timoshenko's Southwest Front, aimed at the recovery of Kharkov and a subsequent advance southwestward. On May 12, 1942, Timoshenko attacked, but within days his forces were encircled, Soviet armor decimated, and a quarter of a million men taken prisoner. Stalin refused to believe in a major German offensive in the south, insisting that Moscow remained the German objective, but on June 28, 1942, two panzer armies, the Second and Fourth, opened the German offensive against the Soviet southern wing. The original intention behind Hitler's Directive No. 41 was the destruction of the Red Army west of the Don with two huge armored thrusts from Voronezh and Taganrog closing near Stalingrad, after which the advance into the Caucasus would be resumed. But the first thrusts to Voronezh and east of Kharkov did not bring about huge encirclements in the style of 1941. Few Soviet forces remained west of the Don, having begun a large-scale, orderly withdrawal. The previous appalling "hold at any cost" policy was abandoned. Hitler now determined to eliminate an elusive Red Army on the lower Don. Rostov was captured on July 23, 1942, but Soviet divisions were falling back east and south. Stalin issued his own draconian "not a step back order" and began hurriedly moving reserves southward. Hitler produced Directive No. 45, ordering Army Group A to drive on Batum and the oilfields and Army Group B to capture Stalingrad and prepare the Don as a defensive line. Fritz von Manstein's (1887–1973) Eleventh Army received orders to move from south to north, from the Crimea to Leningrad.

Stalin frantically rushed three reserve armies into the recently established Stalingrad Front under Timoshenko. In Stalingrad itself, the evacuation of industry, previously halted, was now resumed. German advances continued throughout August 1942 but without achieving decisive success. Army Group A struck deep into the Caucasus, covering the 200 miles to Maikop only to find a ruined oilfield. Far to the north, German forces frustrated a Soviet attempt to lift the siege of starving Leningrad but at the cost of forcing Army Group North to abandon its own plans to take the city. The German Sixth Army, the most powerful in the East, under the command of Friedrich von Paulus (1890–1957), advanced into the Don bend and toward the Volga. On Hitler's specific orders, the Fourth Panzer Army had reverted to Army Group B, now striking northeastward and joining the attack on Stalingrad. Early in August, Stalin decided to split the sprawling Stalingrad Front in two. He formed a new Stalingrad Front to defend Stalingrad from the northeast and established the Southeastern Front under Colonel General Andrey Yeremenko (1892–1970) to take positions opposite the city itself and to cover the southern flank.

To screen an ever-lengthening flank, Army Group B deployed the Second Hungarian and the Eighth Italian armies on the Don north of Stalingrad. By mid-September 1942, Soviet troops had been forced back into a bridgehead at Stalingrad itself, nine miles long but nowhere more than three to four miles deep, the Volga at their back. Here, from October to November, General (later Marshal) Vasily Chuikov's (1900–82) Sixty-second Army, inside Stalingrad, fought one of the most savage battles of attrition ever seen. In early October, desperate for men to fight inside Stalingrad, the German Sixth Army turned to the Romanian troops of Third Army to defend its own left flank on the Don immediately north of the city. This was the prelude to disaster.

On August 23, a German panzer division crossed the Don and reached the Volga north of Stalingrad. Stalin erroneously assumed the city had fallen, though the Soviet defensive perimeter was shrinking fast. On September 14, German troops took the main railway station, broke through to the waterfront, and cut the defending Sixty-second Army in two, already separated from Sixty-fourth Army defending to the south. The first half of October now saw the final effort to subdue Stalingrad, but already two future Soviet marshals, Zhukov and Aleksandr Vasilevskii (1895–1977) had begun to formulate plans for a Soviet offensive. It envisaged a double envelopment with armored thrusts, one from the north driving southeastward, the other from the south of Stalingrad moving northwestward,

designed to link up at Kalach on the Don, trapping two German armies, the Sixth and Fourth Panzer.

Twelve Soviet armies, including a tank army, launched the massive Soviet offensive on November 19, 1942, smashing through the Romanian Third Army north of Stalingrad and to the south routing the Sixth Romanian Corps deployed with Fourth Panzer Army. On November 21, Hitler ordered Paulus and his staff to move back into the Stalingrad area and to prepare an all-round defense. Paulus flew back into an encirclement completed on November 23 at 2 P.M. when Soviet armored spearheads linked up southeast of Kalach, cutting the land communications of the German Sixth Army and elements of the Fourth Panzer, trapping five corps headquarters, 14 German infantry divisions, three motorized and three panzer divisions, two Romanian divisions, and a Croat infantry regiment, in all some 250,000 men. The Red Army accomplished the encirclement in four days.

German resistance at Stalingrad ended on February 2, 1943, in surrender. The battle for Stalingrad waged from July 1942 to February 1943 cost the Red Army 1,129,619 men dead, missing, or wounded. The German army lost 20 divisions, and 209,500 men, 91,000 of them prisoners.

LIBERATION AND CONQUEST 1943–1945

After Stalingrad, Stalin aimed to destroy the entire German southern wing. The Red Army offensive struck out north, west, and south of Stalingrad with a deep southwesterly drive, aimed originally at Rostov, to trap the German divisions deep in the Caucasus seeking to withdraw. Soviet armies also attacked from the Don north of Stalingrad southward to the Donets, threatening to envelop the remnants of Army Group B and Army Group Don (Manstein's new command), the latter fighting to hold open a German escape route from the Caucasus. As Manstein fell back, Army Group B lost Kharkov, but in late February and early March Manstein struck back, trapping Soviet divisions west of Kharkov and advancing to Belgorod. German troops regained the line of the Donets. To the north the Red Army held a huge salient jutting out west of Kursk.

During an unusual lull in the east and after much hesitation, Hitler decided to try once more for victory with Operation Citadel, a two-pronged attack to reduce the Soviet salient at Kursk. It was the prelude to the mightiest tank battle ever seen. The Red Army undertook prodigious defensive preparations but amassed a huge reserve force for a counteroffensive. The Wehrmacht was at the peak of its strength. On July 5, 1943, the German Ninth Army in the north and the Fourth Panzer in the south attacked across the base of the Soviet salient. On July 13, 1943, after massive losses on both sides, Hitler halted the attack. Hitler's bid for victory had failed. Henceforth the German army in the east was condemned to inevitable withdrawal and to eventual defeat.

On August 3, the Red Army unleashed its massive counteroffensive, blasting a path to the Dnieper. In little more than a month, the northern flank of Army Group South was shattered, with German troops falling back on the Dnieper. In October, Soviet armies regrouped and front commands were renamed. Attacking from the extensive Soviet bridgeheads on the Dnieper, the First Ukrainian Front took Kiev on November 3, 1943, pushing on west and south to threaten the left flank of Army Group South. Further Soviet thrusts southward, aiming for the Black Sea coast, had trapped Army Groups South and A between the Dnieper and Dniester rivers. The German army's entire southern wing was imperiled in January 1944, the year during which the Soviet high command intended to launch "ten decisive blows," isolating each German army group, destroying them one by one.

The deblockading of Leningrad and the assault on Army Group North opened this sequence. At the end of February, the Red Army deployed all of its six tank armies against Army Group South, a massive force employed in an offensive that, by mid-April, had forced the Germans back to the Carpathians. In April–May, the Fourth Ukrainian Front cleared the Crimea. The German command anticipated further Soviet operations in the south, an impression actively encouraged by Soviet deception measures, but the Soviet high command intended to destroy Army Group Center in Belorussia to the north.

The Red Army attacked on June 22–23, 1944, on the third anniversary of Barbarossa and two weeks after the D-day landings in Normandy. In 11 days, four Soviet Fronts ripped Army Group Center apart, inflicting a defeat greater than Stalingrad, in which 28 German divisions were destroyed and 300,000 men lost. A huge 250-mile gap had been torn in the German lines, leaving the Baltic States and East Prussia open to attack, a situation Stalin was determined to exploit by clearing Belorussia, entering Poland, and striking into the Baltic States before this gap could be closed. Seizing this opportunity on July 15, the First Baltic Front pressed ahead through Lithuania into Latvia, operating in the gap between Army Groups Center and North. Farther north, a Soviet offensive against the Finns had opened on June 9, a weight of men and metal that forced the Finns to seek an armistice on September 2, 1944. Soviet troops in the far north finally halted their pursuit operations of German troops northwest of Kirkenes in Norway.

Army Group North Ukraine, formerly Army Group South, was the target of a second huge Soviet offensive. General Ivan Konev's (1897–1973) First Ukrainian Front and Marshal Konstantin Rokossovskii's (1896–1968) left flank armies (First Belorussian Front) attacked and seized Galicia and southern Poland, Lublin, and Warsaw in central Poland respectively. At the end of July, three armies of First Ukrainian Front reached the Vistula, while Rokossovskii's tanks and infantry passed Lublin, turning

northwestward toward Warsaw. The lead Soviet tank corps, however, was encircled and destroyed east of the Polish capital. Within hours, on August 1, the Warsaw rising began, an inferno raging for two months, during which time the Red Army on the Vistula remained only a bystander.

Striking once more in the south on August 20, the Second and Third Ukrainian Fronts burst into Romania, encircling the German Sixth and Eighth Armies. Romania's subsequent defection from the Axis and the Soviet advance into Bulgaria, which also abandoned Hitler, shattered Germany's southeastern theater. The two Soviet Ukrainian fronts prepared to strike northward into Hungary and northern Yugoslavia. They took Belgrade on October 20 and closed on Budapest early in November. Though encircled by late December 1944, the German-Hungarian defenders fought on until February 13, 1945.

At the end of October 1944, the Soviet General Staff worked on plans for the final campaign of the war, the invasion of the Reich, designed to be one of the greatest strategic operations ever conceived. All German army groups had suffered drastic losses in Soviet offensives sweeping from the Barents to the Black Sea. The Red Army had completely destroyed 96 divisions, inflicting 1.5 million casualties and destroying 6,700 tanks. The "central sector," the most direct route into Germany, assumed decisive importance for the Red Army. In November, the Soviet General Staff submitted that the German war machine could be smashed in 45 days by offensive operations reaching to a depth of 375–440 miles and mounted in two stages without an "operational pause." Stalin fixed January 15–20, 1945, as a provisional date for the Soviet offensive; he also appointed himself operational "coordinator" for the four Soviet fronts involved and named Marshal Zhukov commander of the Soviet forces assigned to capture Berlin. The nature of the tempest about to break over the Eastern Front and Germany was indicated by Red Army strength: 6.5 million men, 100,000 guns, 13,000 tanks, 15,000 aircraft, 55 field armies, six tank armies, 13 aviation armies, and 500 rifle divisions.

The Soviet offensive, the Vistula-Oder operation, timed for mid-January 1945, was planned around two huge, parallel, armored blows, the lines of advance converging on Berlin. To the south, on the First Ukrainian Front, Konev planned to attack from the Vistula toward Breslau and Silesia; in the north, Zhukov's First Belorussian Front aimed at Poznan, first enveloping Warsaw. The Oder River, only a short distance from Berlin, was the specific objective. The Second and Third Belorussian Fronts received orders to attack northwestward and westward into East Prussia. Between January 12 and 14, 1945, Konev and Zhukov attacked, achieving a massive breakthrough in four days, smashing or overrunning the German defensive system, and crushing the Fourth Panzer Army and the Ninth Army. By January 20, the Red Army had ripped a 350-mile gap across the German lines from south to north. Striking from north of Warsaw, the Second and Third Belorussian Fronts devastated East Prussia and, by January 26, 1945, reached the Baltic coast to the east of Danzig.

German attempts to relieve Budapest in January failed. Hitler's attempt to regain the Danube line early in March ended in defeat. The Second and Third Ukrainian Fronts turned at once from defensive to offensive operations. Sweeping past Lake Balaton, Soviet forces moved into Austria and took Vienna on April 13, 1945. Farther north on February 3, the First Belorussian Front reached the Oder on a broad front, 37 miles from Berlin. Zhukov's neighbor Konev with the First Ukrainian Front had already advanced to the middle Oder by the end of January. Attacking across the Oder from bridgeheads north of Breslau, Konev invaded Silesia, halting his advance on the Neisse River in early March.

In mid-February, the Soviet drive to Berlin came to an abrupt halt. Zhukov was forced to divert a tank army and infantry to counter the threat from East Pomerania to his right flank, a potential danger that had been recognized earlier in October 1944 but ignored. Zhukov's right flank and Rokossovskii's left flank (Second Belorussian Front) attacked on March 1, sweeping north to the Baltic coast, closing on Danzig and Gdynia by March 10, and clearing the entire right bank of the Oder. At the end of March, Stalin suddenly reacted to what he perceived to be "the race for Berlin" between the Red Army and the Anglo-American armies. He summoned a major command conference at the end of March to finalize preparations for a giant Soviet attack aimed directly at Berlin, timed to begin no later than April 16 and to be completed in 12–15 days.

The Soviet attack on Berlin involved a race not only with the Western allies but also between Zhukov and Konev to be the first to break into Berlin. The operational plan envisaged three Soviet fronts (First Belorussian, Second Belorussian, First Ukrainian) striking along several axes, cutting the German "Berlin grouping" into isolated elements and taking the city itself. Between the 12th and 15th day of operations, Soviet assault forces were ordered to reach the river Elbe on a broad front and link up with the Anglo-American troops. Under cover of smokescreens, Konev's tanks and infantry opened the Berlin offensive on April 16, forcing the Neisse and achieving a major breakthrough on the first day. Zhukov attacked from the Küstrin bridgehead on the Oder but took two days to break out from the Seelow Heights. Swinging two tank armies to the northwest, Konev's front closed rapidly on Berlin from the southeast, but Zhukov lagged behind in the north. By April 24, Berlin was fully encircled by the two Soviet fronts.

The German Ninth Army was also trapped south of the city between the flanks of First Belorussian and First Ukrainian Fronts. North of Berlin, the Second Belorussian

Front had beaten back the Third Panzer Army from the Oder. The outer encirclement was complete when, on April 25, the Soviet Fifth Guards Army linked up with the U.S. First Army at Torgau on the Elbe. Berlin was isolated, Germany split in two. Inside Berlin, savage street fighting pulverized much of the city, overwhelmed the defenses, and engulfed the citizenry in a nightmare. Hitler committed suicide on April 30, while the storming of the Reichstag by units of the First Belorussian Front allowed Zhukov to be acclaimed "victor of Berlin." On May 2, 1945, Berlin surrendered.

In Czechoslovakia, the Second and Fourth Ukrainian fronts were advancing on Prague from the east. In yet another race with the Allies, Stalin ordered Konev to swing his tank armies south from Berlin and race for the Czech capital at top speed. Shortly after noon on May 9, 1945, the lead tanks and infantry from Konev's First Ukrainian Front linked up in Prague with the tanks of Sixth Guards Tank Army from Marshal Rodion Malinovskii's (1898–1967) Second Ukrainian Front advancing from the southeast. In Czechoslovakia, this final Soviet encirclement operation of the war trapped the last shrunken remnants of what had for years been the formidable, inveterate foe of the Red Army, Army Group Center.

THE RECKONING

In this war of unparalleled, sustained ferocity, waged across a half-million square miles, stretching from Moscow to Berlin and inflicting combined casualties on the order of 40 million, the Red Army outfought the Wehrmacht, and the Soviet war industry outproduced that of Hitler's Germany. Both Hitler and Stalin waged coalition warfare, the former unsuccessful, as his allies were defeated or defected, the latter militarily and politically triumphant within the "Grand Alliance," which endured in spite of mutual suspicions and ill-concealed animosities.

Hitler and Stalin were comparable in their roles of dictator-commander, committed to calamitous or impetuous strategies, indistinguishable in their profligacy with the lives of soldiers. Behind the "heroic myth" of Soviet popular resistance and sacrifice lay a terrible reality, that of a draconian regime that callously abandoned its populace or subjected it to inhuman coercion, at the front, in the factories, on the land. The arbitrary practices of Stalin's wartime regime too often prejudiced communal safety or individual survival. The battlefields alone cannot adequately convey all the political, social, and human dimensions of the war in the east. Stalin waged war not only against Nazi Germany but also on his own people, wherever the security and continuity of his own personal power demanded. Prisoners were condemned as traitors and their families punished, labor illegally militarized, suspect nationalities deported, the barbarities and treacheries of partisan warfare concealed, the cost in human life deceitfully, disgracefully minimized.

The magnitude and intensity of this gigantic military encounter produced numbers, figures, and statistics astronomical enough to encourage disbelief or promote skepticism. Evidence from the archives of the former Soviet Union confirms the magnitude of human losses, the scale of destruction, the depth of suffering, and the rigors of self-sacrifice. Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union have both disappeared as states, but the totality of the human tragedy they unleashed will remain a stark historical memory unlikely to fade for generations to come.

Further reading: Bob Carruthers and John Erickson, *Russian Front, 1941–1945* (London: Cassell, 199); Alexander Dallin, *German Rule in Russia, 1941–1945: A Study of Occupation Policies* (New York: St. Martin's, 1957); Walter S. Dunn, Jr., *Hitler's Nemesis: The Red Army, 1930–1945* (Westport, Conn.: Praeger, 1994); John Erickson, *The Road to Berlin: Continuing the History of Stalin's War with Germany* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1983) and *The Road to Stalingrad: Stalin's War with Germany* (Boulder, Colo.: Westview, 1984); John Garrard and Carol Garrard, eds., *World War 2 and the Soviet People* (New York: St. Martin's, 1993); David M. Glantz and Jonathan House, *When Titans Clash: How the Red Army Stopped Hitler* (Lawrence: University of Kansas Press, 1995); David M. Glantz, *From the Don to the Dnepr: Soviet Offensive Operations, December 1942–August 1943* (London and Portland, Ore.: Frank Cass, 1991); John Keegan, *The Second World War* (New York: Viking, 1989); Eric von Manstein, *Lost Victories* (Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1958); Harold Shukman, ed., *Stalin's Generals* (New York: Grove, 1993); A. J. P. Taylor, ed., *History of World War II* (London: Octopus Books, 1974); Chester Wilmot, *The Struggle For Europe* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1972); Georgi Konstantinovich Zhukov, *The Memoirs of Marshal Zhukov* (London: Cape, 1971); Earl F. Ziemke, *Stalingrad to Berlin* (Washington, D.C.: Office of the Chief of Military History, U.S. Army, 1968); Earl F. Ziemke and Magna E. Bauer, *Moscow to Stalingrad: Decision on the East* (Washington, D.C.: Center of Military History, U.S. Army, 1987).

World War II: Western Front (1943–1945)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: United States, Britain, Free French forces, and USSR vs. Germany
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): France, Belgium, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Germany, and Czechoslovakia
DECLARATION: *See* World War II: Outbreak and Early German Conquests and World War II: Pacific
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: *See* World War II: Historical Background
OUTCOME: Germany surrendered to the Allies unconditionally.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Germany, 10,200,000; Allies, 4,581,000 (on VE Day)

CASUALTIES: Allies, 186,900 killed, 545,700 wounded (United States, 135,576 killed; Britain, 30,280 killed; France, 213,324 killed); Germany, 80,819 killed, 265,526 wounded, 490,624 missing, 2,057,138 captured
TREATIES: Act of Military Surrender (Rheims), May 7, 1945, and Act of Military Surrender (Berlin), May 8, 1945

This entry focuses on the Allied air war aginst, invasion of, and occupation of Europe during World War II, including the major Allied summits, the Holocaust, and the Nuremberg war crimes trials. For the historical background of the war, *see* WORLD WAR II: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. For the outbreak of the war and its early course in Europe, *see* WORLD WAR II: OUTBREAK AND EARLY GERMAN CONQUESTS. For entries that treat the course and conclusion of the war in other theaters, *see* the SINO-JAPANESE WAR (1937–1945); WORLD WAR II: AFRICA AND THE MEDITERRANEAN; WORLD WAR II: ATLANTIC FRONT; WORLD WAR II: CHINA-BURMA-INDIA THEATER; WORLD WAR II: GREECE AND THE BALKANS; WORLD WAR II: ITALIAN FRONT; WORLD WAR II: PACIFIC; WORLD WAR II: RUSSIAN FRONT. For the development and deployment of the atomic bomb, *see* World War II: Pacific.

After Germany's early victories on the western front from 1939 through early 1941, little major resistance was possible on this front until the United States collaborated with Britain in beginning a campaign of strategic bombing against Germany and and German-occupied France. Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1882–1945), the president of the United States, and Winston Churchill (1874–1965), the British prime minister, had already met in secret off the Newfoundland coast in the summer of 1941. At that time, Roosevelt was engaged in the last great battle with an isolationist Congress over his Lend-Lease agreement, and Churchill was trying to keep up the spirits of a Britain that for almost a year had been holding out alone against the onslaught of the Axis powers. The two leaders issued a joint manifesto, the Atlantic Charter, outlining for the world—and for their new ally, the Soviet Union, which had only a month before been invaded by Nazi Germany—the principles upon which an anti-Axis alliance should be founded. There were eight of them: the renunciation of territorial aggression; prohibition of territorial changes without consent of the peoples concerned; restoration of sovereign rights and self-government; guaranteed access to raw materials for all nations; world economic cooperation; freedom from fear and want; freedom of the seas; and disarmament of aggressors.

Since September 1940, Germany, Italy, and Japan had been united in their pursuit of world domination following the Axis Pact, but on the day Roosevelt and Churchill issued their joint statement—August 14, 1941—the United States was not yet even a belligerent, although Roosevelt was seeking to extend Lend-Lease to the Russians and was fighting an undeclared naval war in the Atlantic with the Nazis. Roosevelt clearly expected soon to be engaged in the war, believing it would come—as World War I had come—as the result of German U-boat attacks on U.S. ships. Instead, Roosevelt achieved his day of infamy via the Japanese sneak attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. On December 11, Germany and Italy declared war on the United States. The United States became an ally of both Britain and Russia in the war in Europe against Germany and Italy, but only Great Britain and the United States were allied in the Pacific war against Japan.

The first attempt to draft the terms of this Grand Alliance came when Churchill, immediately following Pearl Harbor, requested an emergency conference with Roosevelt, and the two met for three weeks following December 22 in Washington, D.C. Called the Arcadia Conference, the meeting saw the two leaders reaffirm a "Europe first" policy, which meant that the United States would put its considerable resources toward defeating Nazi Germany rather than seeking instant revenge against Japan, which most Americans probably favored. That meant, most immediately, an air war against the Germans as well as a fight against Erwin Rommel's (1891–1944) forces in North Africa.

AIR WAR

Although the United States deployed forces to the Pacific and to North Africa soon after Pearl Harbor, it took a little longer for the U.S. industrial war machine to produce the necessary bombers and for the U.S. Army Air Force to strain the pilots, crews, and ground personnel needed to begin strategic bombing. It was not until 1943 that the U.S. Eighth Air Force arrived in Britain to conduct, in coordination with the Royal Air Force (RAF), round-the-clock air raids against France and Germany. Generally, the British attacked during the night, while the Americans bombed by day. Daylight raids were much more accurate and, therefore, effective than night bombing, but also far more dangerous and costly in aircraft and crews. Half of USAAF casualties during World War II were incurred by the Eighth Air Force—more than 47,000 casualties, including more than 26,000 killed. Military historians continue to debate the effectiveness of strategic bombing, which was intended to cripple German industrial capacity as well as wear down civilian morale. However, no one disputes that the fighter squadrons of the Eighth achieved air superiority by effectively destroying the Luftwaffe, downing a total of 9,275 German aircraft.

Whatever the shortcomings of the strategic bombing, the air raids were certainly highly destructive. During July 26–29, 1943, Hamburg was totally destroyed by air raid. During August 17–18, Peenemünde, location of development of the German V-1 "buzz bomb" (a pilotless, rocket-propelled, high-explosive bomb, typically directed at civilian targets) and the V-2 rocket (a long-range rocket weapon),

was hit. Although the attack did not end the V-1 and V-2 programs, it probably crippled and delayed them.

Other important targets in 1943 included Wilhelmshaven (June 11), the oil fields of Ploesti, Romania (August 1), the ball-bearing industries at Schweinfurt (October 14), and the capital city of Berlin (November–December). German air defenses, including fighters and ground-based antiaircraft artillery, took a devastating toll on U.S. bomber planes and crews. The situation improved dramatically after the introduction of P-51 Mustang fighters at the end of 1943. Not only were these high-performance aircraft, which could outfly comparable German fighters, but also they had sufficient range to escort bombers deep into enemy territory and back again. Earlier fighters had had to turn back well before the bombers had deeply penetrated enemy air space.

The combination of the air war and action in the other theaters, especially the Russian front, North Africa, and Italy, put Germany on the defensive by the beginning of 1944. In desperation, Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) launched his "vengeance" weapons, the V-1 "buzz bomb" and later the V-2 rocket, against targets in England, especially London, during the entire second half of 1944. The damage was severe, and some 20 percent of the British capital was reduced to ruins; however, the British will to fight was undiminished, and, as the tide of war turned against him, Hitler found himself opposed at home by many of his own officers who had turned against him. On July 20, 1944, a cabal of high-ranking military officers attempted to assassinate Hitler by detonating a bomb in his headquarters. Hitler survived the blast, and the war continued, but now Hitler took a much more direct role in strategy. Although Hitler's death would surely have shortened the war, the failed assassination attempt, in prompting Hitler to distrust his top military commanders, did benefit the Allies, for Hitler was not a competent military strategist.

THE 1943 ALLIED SUMMITS

Once the strategic bombing of Europe had been planned in secret summits, Roosevelt and Churchill began holding a series of well-publicized conferences on the conduct of the war. The Allied leaders always discussed matters of substance and came to major decisions at these conferences, and they issued statements, reports, or declarations about many of them, though much of what was discussed of necessity remained secret. Some of the public announcements were significant in themselves, however, beyond the propaganda purposes their language was clearly meant to serve. The Casablanca Conference, one of the earliest summits in January 1943, produced just such a significant declaration.

Roosevelt and Churchill met in Casablanca in the wake of Operation Torch, the combined Allied invasion of North Africa, to determine the strategy for the coming year. Roosevelt once again soothed Churchill's feelings by putting off the opening of a second front in France in favor of operations in Sicily. General George Marshall (1880–1959) and Admiral Ernest Joseph King (1878–1956) won approval at the conference for offensives in Burma and the Southwest Pacific. The two leaders spent a lot of time trying to persuade the rival military leaders of Free France—Charles de Gaulle (1890–1970) and Henri Giraud (1879–1949)—at least to feign unity. Then, as the conference was drawing to a close, Roosevelt made the parting pronouncement that peace could only come with the total elimination of Germany and Japan's military and their "unconditional surrender."

With this declaration, which was not nearly so spontaneous as he would have had those in attendance believe, Roosevelt was trying to send a signal to Joseph Stalin (1879–1953) about American resolve in the war. He felt he needed to do so because his commander in Operation Torch, Dwight Eisenhower (1890–1969), had blundered politically in North Africa. The collaborationist Vichy government had severed diplomatic relations with Washington and ordered French forces to resist the Allied invasion. Looking for a French leader with enough prestige to rally French Africa against the Axis, the Allies had turned to Henri Giraud, a hero of the Free French who had escaped from a prison camp. The only trouble was that Giraud demanded command of the whole invasion force. Then Admiral François Darlan (1881–1942) showed up suddenly in Algiers. A leading fascist, Darlan was, according to the Vichy government, the commander of the local French forces, and he promised Eisenhower he would make them stop fighting the Allies if the American commander recognized him as the political chief of North Africa. Eisenhower made the deal, and the Americans escaped utter humiliation only when a French royalist assassinated Darlan and de Gaulle outmaneuvered Giraud to become de facto leader of the Free French. The point, however, was that it all seemed rather sinister to Stalin, who had objected to the North Africa invasion from the start, suspecting his Western allies of delaying a direct invasion of the mainland as a way of bleeding the Red Army by letting it do the brunt of the fighting against the Nazis. Thus Roosevelt's "unconditional surrender" was aimed as much at the ally who was absent from Casablanca as it was at the enemies whose future it was destined to dictate.

Couched in the "tough-guy" phrasing and casual punctuation of American wartime propaganda, the Casablanca Declaration was in many ways a rash act. It committed the United States to a power vacuum in postwar Europe rather than a balance of power, which would vastly complicate the peace and give Stalin ample opportunity to fill the vacuum with puppet regimes. It may also have discouraged Germans from attempting to oust Hitler even when facing sure defeat. It certainly underlay Japan's determination to fight on in Asia long after losing all realistic hope. The Soviets themselves would not attend any of

these summits to discuss war aims and set Allied strategies until the winter of 1943, although Roosevelt in particular remained aware of the need to make Stalin feel part of the Allied effort.

But Roosevelt's openness to Stalin had its limits. At the Quebec Conference in August 1943, the Americans decided to share with the British their results under the top-secret Manhattan Project, which would produce the atomic bombs that ended the war in the Pacific, but they announced that agreement to neither the public nor the Russians. Following the conference, however, at which Roosevelt and Churchill agreed on May 1944 as the deadline for an invasion of France, the British and Americans sent Anthony Eden (1897–1977) and Cordell Hull (1871–1955) to Moscow to reassure Stalin of their governments' intentions to open this Allied "second front" and to make sure that he was in tune with other Allied plans.

At the Moscow Conference, Eden and Hull first and foremost secured Stalin's blessing for the arrangements Roosevelt and Churchill had made concerning Italy. Anglo-American commanders on the spot would run the occupied country, whereas the inter-Allied commission that Stalin had requested as a governing body would instead merely advise those commanders. Following their conference, the diplomats issued a joint declaration to include China, which at the Cairo Conference a month later would formally become one of the Great Powers of the Alliance. Stalin's cooperation at the conference was deceptive. Later, when the Red Army liberated the Axis-controlled states of Eastern Europe, Stalin would point to the Italian precedent to justify his imposition of unilateral military control by the Soviet Union through long occupation of what became East Germany, the installation of a puppet communist government in Poland immediately after the war, and the communist takeover of Czechoslovakia in 1948.

In 1943 Nationalist Chinese leader Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek (1887–1975) joined Roosevelt and Churchill at the war council held in Cairo between November 22 and 26. Churchill was not at all happy that Roosevelt had invited Chiang, whom Churchill viewed as not much better than a corrupt warlord. Certainly Chiang represented trouble for British colonial interests in China and East Asia, and—always a greedy man—he was proving more bothersome than helpful in Allied attempts to prosecute the war in the China-Burma-India theater. Nationalist Chinese generals under Chiang demanded an unlimited supply of weapons and goods but were totally unreliable on the battlefield, except for troops trained and led by Chinese communists. The communists were supposedly allied with Chiang's Nationalists in a United Front but Chiang subverted their participation whenever possible. But Roosevelt, whose family also had financial roots in the Far East, was insistent, and Cairo established Chiang as the voice of a Great Power ally in the war.

At the Cairo Conference the three leaders discussed at length the war in Burma and issued a declaration setting goals for ending the war in the Pacific, which included—in addition to an unconditional surrender—the retaking from Japan of Manchuria, Formosa, Korea, the Pescadores, and all the Pacific islands Japan had conquered or acquired since 1914. But Chiang's inclusion among the Great Powers' leaders of World War II would turn out to be an embarassment. Not only would he prove less than useful in fighting the Japanese in the Pacific, but also the long-corrupt and immensely vain Chiang would find himself and his Nationalist government chased off the mainland by the Chinese communists under Mao Zedong (1893–1976) soon after the war.

The last of this series of diplomatic and strategic-planning conferences held by the Allied powers in 1943, the Tehran Conference was also the first "Big Three" summit. Stalin had not attended the meetings in Casablanca, Quebec, or Cairo, and neither Roosevelt nor Churchill had gone to Moscow in October. But all were present at the November 25–December 1 conference, and for the first time the personal and ideological dynamics that would have such impact on the peace process following World War II came into play.

From Stalin's point of view, the meeting probably underscored the validity of Marxist theory, as the inevitable conflict between national imperial powers predicted by communist ideology certainly became evident. It was hardly surprising that Roosevelt, the product of a Puritan culture that just yesterday had clung to its moral isolation from the rest of a corrupt world, should have trouble with the contradictions inherent in the views of Winston Churchill, who represented a colonial empire that had been protecting its assets and imposing its will on the world for two and a half centuries via a combination of sea power, free trade, and diplomatic chicanery. To Stalin both no doubt seemed self-serving, the one wishing to remake the world in its image, the other seeking to maintain a centuries-old policy of a balance of power in Europe. As for the Soviet dictator himself, Churchill certainly had no illusions about the ruthlessness of this canny survivor of the treacherous political culture of the Bolsheviks, who clung to power by relentlessly destroying any who could even remotely pose a threat to his rule and who—as it turned out—engaged in mass murder as blithely as any Nazi. Roosevelt, on the other hand, chose to believe he could reason with the man if only he could get beyond Stalin's evident suspicions.

So while Roosevelt openly, even buoyantly, criticized Churchill in Stalin's presence and demanded that the prime minister come to terms with the need to end European colonizing—including British imperialism—after the war, Stalin steadfastly insisted on the strategies and policies that would allow the Soviet Union to realize many of Imperial Russia's fondest dreams in Eastern Europe, while

Churchill—and others, even other Americans—brooded in silence. Churchill wanted to fight the Nazis to the last drop of Russian blood, and Stalin knew it; Stalin wanted to establish a hegemony over Eastern Europe, and Churchill knew it. Roosevelt wanted to end the war and build a new world order in which such wars could never recur, and neither Churchill nor Stalin believed it.

Stalin demanded the territories he had already gained with the acquiescence of the Nazis—the 1941 frontier in Poland at the Curzon Line (Poland could be compensated with German land to the west)—plus the Baltic coast of East Prussia. Churchill advocated the breaking up of Germany and turning the Danube area—Austria, Hungary, Bavaria—into a "peaceful, cowlike confederation." He wanted similar confederations in Eastern Europe, but Stalin—worried that his Allies were reviving the notion of a *cordon sanitaire* between the West and the Bolsheviks that the peacemakers at Versailles tried to establish in 1919—objected, especially because it would interfere with his plans to establish hegemony over the area, piece by piece if need be. The Allies should, he insisted, Balkanize Eastern Europe, punish France for collaborating and strip away her colonies, and keep Poland and Italy as weak as they had ever been. Stalin, as some at the conference, such as U.S. diplomat Charles Bolen noted at the time, wanted the Soviet Union to be the only important military power and political force on the continent of Europe.

All this the Big Three discussed and debated, but that is not what they declared to the world public. Instead they chose to emphasize the agreement that Roosevelt wrung from the others to form a international organization that would become the globe's diplomacy in a postwar world—led, naturally enough, by the United States, Britain, the Soviet Union, and, he insisted, China. The Tehran declarations, then, fit the tone of the propaganda proclamations issued by the previous summit conferences, but for the first time the Allies floated the notion of a United Nations to arise from the ashes of the most destructive war in history. The Big Three also announced the military conclusions of the conference in relation to the continuation of the war, including the deadline that Churchill and Roosevelt had already set for the opening of the "second front" in Europe that had all along been the diplomatic obsession of the Russians. That second front now had a code name—Operation Overlord. Thus, at Tehran the Allies got a glimpse of Stalin's vision for postwar Europe, one Roosevelt chose to ignore and Churchill to brood over. Stalin got what he wanted most—a commitment to the opening of a second front on the Continent.

INVASION AT NORMANDY

The broad Allied strategy, then, was to press Germany on three fronts: from the south, via Italy, which Winston Churchill referred to as the "soft underbelly" of Europe; from the east, where the Russians were driving the Germans out of Russia and steadily back into Eastern Europe; and, finally, from the west. This major thrust would require a full-scale invasion across the English Channel and into France. It was decided to land 1 million men at Normandy during the first week of June 1944. Preparatory to the invasion, Allied planners staged a brilliant campaign of disinformation, which successfully deceived the Germans into believing that the invasion would come not at Normandy but at the Pas de Calais. Although the Germans did not leave Normandy undefended, they concentrated their still-formidable might at Pas de Calais.

Allied planners targeted five Normandy beaches. The westernmost was designated Utah Beach, with Omaha Beach just east of it. At these two points, Lieutenant General Omar Bradley's (1893–1981) First Army would land. The big risk here was that Bradley was obliged to divide his force on either side of an impassable estuary, so that troops landing at Utah Beach could attack north, to Cherbourg, a port city that was critical to the logistical support of the rest of the invasion, whereas those landing at Omaha would press east. East of Omaha Beach were beaches designated Gold, Juno, and Sword. The British Second Army (with a Canadian corps attached), under Sir Miles Dempsey (1896–1969), would land at these points. Overall command of the invasion was assigned to General Dwight D. Eisenhower, supreme Allied commander; command of ground forces was given to British field marshal Sir Bernard Law Montgomery (1887–1976). The initial landing force consisted of approximately a million men, who were supported by another million troops in logistical functions. Two-thirds of the invasion force was American.

Although Hitler's army was certainly depleted, the defenses of what Hitler liked to call "Fortress Europe" were formidable—a so-called "Atlantic Wall," consisting of a network of fortifications, minefields, and underwater obstacles manned by 10 panzer (armor) divisions, 15 infantry divisions, and 33 coast-defense divisions (mostly novice troops, still in training). German defenders were deployed from Norway in the north to the Mediterranean in the south, with the very greatest concentration of troops, including the entire Fifteenth Army, stationed at what was perceived as the most vulnerable invasion point: Pas de Calais. At Normandy, there was the smaller Seventh Army (commanded by Colonel General Friedrich Dollmann [1882–1944])—still a force to be reckoned with. Two great advantages were in the Allies' favor at this point in the war: The Luftwaffe was all but finished as a credible fighting force, as was the German navy. As strongly fortified as the coast of France was, Hitler lacked any substantial naval defense here.

Operation Overlord was the biggest and most complex amphibious operation in military history. In the initial (D-Day) landings on June 6, 1944, 176,000 troops were conveyed by 4,000 ships and landing craft escorted by 600 warships. Air support was provided by 2,500 heavy

bombers and 7,000 fighters. Five divisions were ashore by nightfall, and beachheads were firmly established everywhere except on Omaha Beach, where German resistance was heaviest and Allied casualties correspondingly severe. The gallantry and initiative of individual line commanders pushed the advance inland even in that difficult area, however, and kept the invasion from bogging down. During June 7–18, the invasion expanded, as German reinforcements were slow to arrive in Normandy. The single greatest impediment to the Allied advance was the landscape of coastal Normandy, which was dense with *bocages,* or hedgerows. These restricted the passage of foot troops as well as vehicles, even tanks. In two attempts, Montgomery failed to take Caen (June 13 and 18), but Cherbourg did fall to the Allies on June 27 and then provided a vital harbor by which troops and supplies could be continually funneled into the invasion. Thus the beachhead expanded through July, even though the hedgerow country, by slowing the Allied inland advance, bought time for the Germans to mount a very determined defense. By the end of the early phases of the invasion, the Allies had incurred 122,000 casualties, killed and wounded, compared to about 114,000 casualties among the German defenders. On July 25, Operation Overlord became Operation Cobra—the breakout from the Normandy beachheads.

BREAKOUT FROM THE BEACHES

While Bradley led the U.S. First Army against the German defenses west of St. Lô, the newly organized U.S. Third Army, under George S. Patton (1885–1945), took the Allied right on August 1 and led the principal breakout through Brittany by way of Avranches. For Patton and his Third Army this was just the beginning of a remarkable drive through France and, ultimately, into Germany itself. Patton's armor swept through Brittany, then wheeled south into the Loire while his infantry moved to the left toward Le Mans. Behind the Third Army, the First Army pivoted left. Although the Germans mounted a strong counterattack at Avranches, hoping to cut off the Third Army from the First, British ground forces, with close air support, counterattacked the counterattack and relieved the pressure on the American forces, which pressed their advance. Nevertheless, an immediate opportunity to destroy much of the German Seventh and Fifth Panzer divisions was lost when these units escaped through a gap in the Allied line, the Falaise-Argentan pocket. The Allies pursued the retreating German divisions during August 20–30.

LIBERATING FRANCE

On August 25, U.S. and Free French troops liberated Paris, and by the early fall, German forces in western France were isolated. In the meantime, on August 15, Operation Anvil-Dragoon landed U.S. Seventh Army troops (plus elements of Free French forces) under Lieutenant General Patch Alexander (1889–1945), on the Côte d'Azur in the south of France. The Seventh was victorious against German forces in the region, and, by the end of the month, the Germans had been ejected from southern France. After this victory, the Seventh Army marched north to the Vosges, where it linked up with Patton's Third Army and other elements as part of the general and ongoing steamroller drive to the east.

While American and Free French forces advanced through central and southern France, British troops advanced in the north, pursuing the retreating Germans into the Netherlands. The pursuit was highly successful, but it required diverting fuel and other supplies from Bradley's army group (including Patton's Third Army), so that when on August 30 Third Army crossed the Meuse (Maas) River, it ran out of gas and halted. During much of September, in the meantime, the Canadian First Army and the British Second Army ceaselessly pounded at German positions blocking Antwerp. Even while fighting to gain that city, British and Canadian forces besieged Le Havre; one by one, they took the Channel ports. Of particular importance was the capture of several V-1 missile bases near the Pas de Calais. With these out of commission, the V-1 menace to London was greatly reduced.

OPERATION MARKET-GARDEN

Although temporarily slowed by a shortage of fuel and supplies, the Allies continued to advance closer to the German frontier. Field Marshal Montgomery launched Operation Market-Garden, with the object of turning the northern flank of the German army by gaining a bridgehead over the Meuse River, then clearing Antwerp. Market-Garden was a bold operation that depended heavily on airborne troops dropped behind German lines to prepare for the advance of the British Second Army. However, the joint Anglo-American parachute drops at Arnhem, Nijmegen, and Eindhoven met with such heavy resistance (culminating in the Battle of Arnhem during September 17–26) that the German defenses remained intact. Operation Market-Garden proved disappointing and nearly disastrous, a waste of troops and time.

Undaunted by the failure of Market-Garden, Montgomery continued his campaign to secure Antwerp, a port city believed essential to continuing the Allied advance. During October–November 1944, Montgomery's troops, augmented by American units, took the South Beveland Peninsula and Walchern Island, two great Scheldt estuary fortresses guarding Antwerp. With these positions secured by November 8, extensive minesweeping operations were undertaken to enable Allied convoys to use the Scheldt. The convoys began arriving at the end of November, and the invaders were thus assured of a strong line of supply.

While Montgomery campaigned in the north, Bradley attacked the last-ditch German defenses known as the Siegfried Line. This perimeter was breached at Aachen; the U.S. Third Army reached Metz on October 3, and the

U.S. First Army captured Aachen itself on October 21. Throughout November, the thoroughly resupplied Allies fought an all-out offensive west of the Rhine, concentrating during November 16–December 15 on the Roer River–Hürtgen Forest region and, to the south, Lorraine. Simultaneously, Free French and other Allied units fought in Alsace and liberated Mulhouse and Strasbourg.

THE BATTLE OF THE BULGE

By December 1944, the Allies had reason to be confident of imminent victory. Germany's armies were either surrendering or in retreat. But then, incredibly, Hitler, in his fanatic determination to prevail, mounted a final—and completely unanticipated—counteroffensive against the Allies. He planned to drive a wedge between Allied forces, then defeat in detail the invaders north of the line formed by Antwerp, Brussels, and Bastogne. The Ardennes offensive—popularly called the Battle of the Bulge—began on December 16 with a massive assault by 20 German divisions coming out of fog and snow. The onslaught pushed a great bulge into the U.S. First Army line. Outnumbered and overwhelmed in this sector, Allied forces scrambled. General Bradley understood that Bastogne was the key to the entire Ardennes region. If he lost it, the Germans could indeed divide the Allied forces. Desperate to delay the fall of Bastogne, Bradley ordered the U.S. 101st Airborne Division to join the 10th Armored Division to hold the town. Major General Anthony McAuliffe (1898–1975), the 101st commanding officer, set up a defensive perimeter that was rapidly enveloped by overwhelming German forces and became an Allied enclave within the German-held bulge. The situation of the 101st was perilous in the extreme, and when bad weather prevented the use of air support during the first week of the battle, that situation became desperate. Nevertheless, when the German commander demanded McAuliffe's surrender, he replied with a single word: "Nuts!"

Fortunately, McAuliffe's bravado did not prove hollow. At virtually the last possible moment, the weather cleared sufficiently to allow air support. Meanwhile, in an incredible show of tactical genius, General Patton had halted the advance of his Third Army in the Saar, turned the entire force 90 degrees to the north, and advanced against the German southern flank at the Ardennes. This move rescued the Bastogne defenders and very quickly transformed the Battle of the Bulge from an Allied disaster to an Allied triumph. At the end of December, U.S. forces defeated a final German attempt to take Bastogne. During the first two weeks of January 1945, the Allies mounted a fierce counterattack that reduced the bulge entirely by January 16. The cost to the Allies was 7,000 killed, 33,400 wounded, and 21,000 captured or missing. German losses were about 120,000 killed, wounded, or captured. The destruction of materiel was something from which the Germans would never recover: 600 tanks and assault guns were destroyed, along with 6,000 other vehicles; some 1,600 German aircraft of the already moribund Luftwaffe were also downed.

Lesser action in Alsace and Lorraine broke out during January 1945, but the campaign in the Ardennes proved to be the last German offensive of the war. With the Americans, the British, and the Free French crossing the German frontiers in the west, the Americans and British driving through Italy from the south, and the Russians steadily closing on Germany from the east, Hitler's "Thousand Year Reich" was enveloped and doomed.

THE BOMBER OFFENSIVE CONTINUES AND CULMINATES

High casualty rates and doubtful results notwithstanding, the Allied bomber offensive was carried into the last year of the war, even as the ground war was drawing to a climax. German technology had produced the first jet fighters, which outperformed even such superb American piston-engine fighters as the P-51 Mustang; fortunately for the Allies, the jets were introduced too late in the war and were produced in quantities too small to make an impact on the air war.

During February 13–14, the RAF and U.S. Eighth Air Force fire-bombed Dresden, igniting a firestorm that killed more than 100,000 German civilians and razed the great medieval city. Dresden was targeted in part because Allied planners were running out of strategic targets. Most of them had already been destroyed. Thereafter, air operations focused increasingly on finishing off the Luftwaffe and on directly supporting the ground offensive.

YALTA

During the summer of 1944, Churchill—who had cast a critical eye on the Bolsheviks since 1919 and had no great love for his putative ally Stalin—had lobbied for an Italian campaign in the European theater of the war in hopes that the Western Allies would reach the Danube before the Red Army. Representing a Britain that was the weakest of the "Big Three" powers in the alliance (the other two, of course, being the United States and the Soviet Union), Churchill was interested in restoring a balance of power in Europe that might keep England competitive with its old imperial rival Russia. Toward that end, he preempted Roosevelt by meeting with Stalin in October to make a deal on their respective nations' "spheres of influence" in the postwar world. Roosevelt seemed hardly to mind. Not only was he ill and growing sicker, but American war aims in general were nebulous at best, effectively nonexistent except for a reaffirmation of Woodrow Wilson's (1854–1924) post–World War I internationalism. Stalin, for his part, was perfectly willing to barter. He planned ultimately to honor only those arrangements he was forced to honor. Like Churchill, Stalin realized that Roosevelt's unwillingness to strain the alliance helped the Soviet leader to

undermine Churchill's ministers' diplomatic goals. In fact, Roosevelt's pliant attitude toward Stalin made the British prime minister gloomy about his country's postwar prospects. Heading for the last summit of the war, he warned colleagues that this world conflict might prove even more disappointing than the last one.

When a dying Roosevelt arrived at Yalta on the Crimean Peninsula in February of 1945, he was exhausted from the strenuous journey. If Churchill saw Yalta as the final opportunity for the British and Americans to take a firm stand against Soviet control of eastern Europe, Roosevelt probably viewed it as the last chance to forestall the disintegration of the alliance upon what everyone knew was the coming victory. Certainly the U.S. position showed little evidence of economic motives. Indeed, Roosevelt seemed not even to have a contingency plan for the breakdown of relations with an increasingly assertive USSR. What he feared more than that, evidently, was a retreat at home into isolationism, which would scuttle his Wilsonian vision of a great-power postwar condominium, an effective United Nations organization. Wishing for Soviet participation in a postwar UN, Roosevelt was prepared in both word (at the Yalta Conference) and deed (in the Allied advance across Europe) to assure Stalin that the Anglo-Saxons were not ganging up on him. But Stalin, for all his former revolutionary zeal, proved as old-fashioned a European as Churchill; he sought postwar security through military and political control of Eastern Europe, control that would create a buffer for Russia against the liberal democracies and the kind of ideas that might threaten his iron control even over the varied peoples of the USSR.

At length, the Big Three were able to maintain their unity at the Yalta Conference only by resorting to vague language and postponing the more explosive issues that divided them. The Yalta agreements reaffirmed earlier pronouncements in that nothing less than unconditional surrender by the Axis powers would be accepted. Inviting the Free French to join them, the Big Three decided to divide the defeated Germany into zones of occupation, with the French zone carved out of land held by the Americans and British, while the Soviet zone would extend to the Elbe. The German capital, Berlin would also be divided into four zones, although it would be located in Soviet-held territory. Overall, the occupation would be run by a joint European Advisory Commission. The Western powers had rejected extreme plans discussed earlier at Quebec to turn Germany into a pastoral nation, pushing instead for a revitalized German industry under Allied control; still, Stalin continued to insist on reparations, on stripping the vanquished foe of some $20 billion in industrial machinery and raw materials. The conference meekly assigned the question to a reparations commission. Stalin also revived earlier talk about breaking up Germany into small states, but here at least the Americans heeded British warnings about further Balkanization in central Europe in the face of the newly powerfully Soviet behemoth, and this too they left for additional study.

Stalin was more conciliatory when the rest of the Allies wished to issue a call—pursuant to proposals made at the Dumbarton Oaks Conference back in August through October of 1944—for a "Conference of United Nations" to be held in San Francisco on April 25, 1945. He nevertheless demanded that all 16 of the republics that made up the USSR be represented. Although the United States might have made a similar argument for its individual states, it did not; Stalin's rationale again owed something to Russia's long-standing competition with the British Empire; he needed such representation, so he claimed, to balance all the nations of that empire, which would naturally vote with London. The Soviets also demanded that the permanent members of the Security Council, which of course included Russia, retain a veto on all issues, instead of merely on questions involving sanctions and threats to the collective peace. In light of concessions elsewhere, however, Stalin settled for three members in the General Assembly and a limited veto. A relieved Roosevelt declared, "The Russians have given in so much at the conference that I don't think we should let them down." Like Wilson, Roosevelt put much—as it turned out, too much—stock in international peacekeeping organizations.

The Americans also put great stock—and, as it turned out, too much—in free elections. Roosevelt proposed a Declaration on Liberated Europe by which the Big Three would commit to help all liberated peoples to solve their pressing political and economic problems "by democratic means" and would endorse free elections of governments "responsive to the will of the people." To Bolshevik ears—which interpreted the lexicon of democracy quite differently than American ears—this may well have sounded like more Wilsonian rhetoric, perhaps meant by Roosevelt for domestic consumption to keep his nation from once again isolating itself from European affairs. Because Roosevelt announced—much to Churchill's dismay—that the United States intended to withdraw its troops from Europe within two years, Stalin would feel perfectly comfortable that he could, if he wished, soon simply ignore the declaration.

Poland, as always with the Soviets, proved the biggest sticking point at Yalta. The British and Americans wanted to keep the Curzon Line, agreed to in Tehran, as the Soviet-Polish border, even to modify that line slightly in Poland's favor. Churchill, however, objected to assigning 2.7 million Germans to western Poland, to—as he put it—stuffing "the Polish geese so full of Germans that it died of indigestion." Once again, the three leaders put off the question; it would be resolved, they declared, at a peace conference come war's end. Roosevelt, with Churchill's stout backing, secured a promise from Stalin to permit free elections among "non-Fascist elements" within a month

of that peace. But it was a vague promise, and Stalin reserved for himself the sole right to determine who exactly was "Fascist" and rejected international supervision of the elections.

The conference also took up the question of Yugoslavia, once again trying to yoke the future interests of communists and democrats, and then arranged for the foreign secretaries of each power to keep in closer contact for the duration of the war.

As the Big Three—Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin—concluded in the Report of the Yalta (Crimea) Conference on February 11, 1945, "Nazi Germany [was] doomed." The Japanese cause, too, was doomed, but the Japanese military seemed—much more than the German military—unwilling to admit it. Invasion of the Japanese home islands was inevitable, but the Allied experience in taking back the Japanese-held islands of the Pacific suggested that the Japanese would resist invasion virtually to the last man. Hitherto, the Soviets had refrained from declaring war on Japan, for Stalin had everything he could do to resist provoking a German invasion of his country, and when it came, to avoid fighting his own two-front war. Having incurred the greatest losses of all the powers involved in the war, the Soviets had no desire to turn from an incalculably dear victory over Germany to help Britain and the United States finish off Japan. Franklin Roosevelt, however, persuaded Stalin to declare war on Japan "two or three months after Germany has surrendered" in return for U.S. support of the Soviet acquisition of territories lost in the RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR from 1904 to 1905 and Soviet dominance in Outer Mongolia and Manchuria—all the objectives of Imperial Russia in East Asia.

GERMANY COLLAPSES

The Allies were accurate in their conclusions at Yalta about Germany. By early February 1945, the Colmar pocket, a position in the Vosges held by the German Nineteenth Army, was cleared, enabling the British and American forces to sweep through the Rhineland. On March 7, a task force of the U.S. Ninth Armored Division in the vanguard of the First Army's advance found that the railroad bridge across the Rhine at Remagen had not been demolished by the enemy. The task force took the bridge, which was then used to expedite the Allied advance across the Rhine. On March 22, General Patton led the Fifth Division across the Rhine at Oppenheim in a surprise crossing that met with virtually no resistance. Within two days, multiple bridges had been thrown across the river, and the Third Army began rolling into Germany in great numbers. Close behind Patton was Montgomery, who crossed his forces above the Ruhr, north of Patton's positions. On March 24, the U.S. Ninth Army crossed at Dinslaken. The U.S. First Army broke out of Remagen on March 25 and crossed there. Additional crossings followed before the end of the month. Troops poured into Germany.

Dwight D. Eisenhower, the Allied supreme commander, had originally set Berlin as a focal objective for U.S. and British advance. With progress of Third and First Armies so rapid, he now decided to send the Twelfth Army Group east through central Germany, to advance on Leipzig instead of Berlin. For both strategic and political reasons, Eisenhower decided to leave Berlin to the Russians, whose push westward was now also rapid. Eisenhower decided it prudent to destroy whatever remained of the German army, even if that meant leaving Berlin to an ideologically antagonistic ally. Sound enough from a military point of view, the decision was politically shortsighted and created the conditions for much friction throughout the COLD WAR that followed World War II.

Acting on Eisenhower's new strategy, the Americans and British encircled the Ruhr, entrapping some 300,000 survivors of German Army Group B. To the north, Germany's Army Group H was being beaten in Holland and northwestern Germany. Army Group G, located to the east and the south of the encircled Army Group B, continued to fight fiercely but with poor organization and to relatively little effect. Adolf Hitler, cowering in a bunker beneath the ruined streets of Berlin, issued orders for all German forces to "hold in place"—in other words, to fight to the death.

As British and Canadian forces defeated the last German resistance in Holland and the northwest, the U.S. 12th Army Group swept around far to the east, marching into Czechoslovakia, and, on April 25, made contact with the advancing Soviets at Torgau. The U.S. Sixth Army Group advanced through southern Germany and Austria, capturing, among other sites, Berchtesgaden, Hitler's Bavarian retreat. At the Brenner Pass, the U.S. Seventh Army made contact with the U.S. Fifth Army, which had completed, at long last, its heartbreakingly difficult advance through Italy.

At the end of April 1945, with Eisenhower's troops in control of a liberated France and western Germany, with Allied bombs dropping on Berlin almost daily, and with his capital surrounded by Russian troops hungry for revenge, Adolf Hitler married his long-time companion Eva Braun (1912–45), denounced the German people as unworthy of him, appointed Admiral Karl Dönitz (1891–1980) to succeed him as head of state, and, on April 30 committed suicide in his Berlin bunker. The Nazi government, now under Admiral Dönitz, surrendered not just unconditionally but twice, first at Eisenhower's headquarters on May 7 and then again to the Russians in Berlin on May 8.

World War II had ended in Europe.

THE OCCUPATION ZONES

Already the suspicions and strains that had plagued the Allied war effort were becoming more evident, especially the historical distrust and dislike between Britain and Russia. Churchill had already vented his worries about Stalin at Yalta and would do so again as the "peace" pro-

cess progressed. As it was, it took the occupying powers—the United States, Britain, Russia, and France—a month to come up with their final declarations for handling the defeated Nazis. The Potsdam Conference—attended by Stalin, Churchill, and the new U.S. president, Harry S. Truman (1884–1972)—reflected the agreements at Yalta and produced the Potsdam Protocols, which became the basis for the Allied occupation.

The surrender—or more precisely, the surrenders—of Germany restored its frontiers to their extent as of December 31, 1937, prior to the *Anschluss* with Austria, the acquisition of the Sudetenland, and the invasion of Poland. This contracted Germany was divided by the protocols "for the purposes of occupation . . . into four zones, one to be allotted to each Power as follows: an eastern zone to the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics; a northwestern zone to the United Kingdom; a southwestern zone to the United States of America; a western zone to France." Each of the four occupying nations was to designate a commander in chief with responsibility for its zone. The Allies set up the "control machinery" for Germany during the "period when Germany is carrying out the basic requirements of unconditional surrender." The isolation of Berlin in the Soviet zone of occupation made it necessary to establish three air corridors into Berlin (from Hamburg, Bückeburg, and Franfurt am Main).

THE HOLOCAUST AND THE NUREMBERG TRIALS

The end of the war and the occupation of a defeated Germany revealed to the world yet another aspect of Nazi rule, one that defied belief—although the Nazi's treatment of the Jews from the beginning had led many outside Germany to suspect that something like it was possible. Still, the reality was more horrible than any had imagined and would take a powerful hold on the postwar world's attempt at reconstruction, leading many to question the very notion of "civilization." Toward the end of World War II, British troops, hardened by battling their way across Europe into the heart of Nazi Germany, were horrified when they marched up to the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp in Lower Saxony. There they found emaciated and diseased Jewish prisoners, together with some 13,000 unburied corpses. They had just discovered the results of a genocidal policy the Nazis called the "final solution" to the "Jewish question" and that a stunned world would come to call the Holocaust.

The 20th century had, of course, no monopoly on unbridled intolerance and irrational hatred, but what the century did have was the political and technological means to act upon such collective psychopathologies with unprecedented viciousness, thoroughness, and bureaucratic efficiency—all on a scale that was almost inconceivably vast. Jews had been persecuted for some 1,800 years, but between 1933 and 1945, Adolf Hitler directed the murder of more Jews than had been killed in 18 centuries of pogroms and organized persecution. Some 6 million human beings, two-thirds of Europe's Jewish population, became victims of the systematic Nazi genocide of an entire race in specially designed and equipped "death camps."

Early in his political development, Adolf Hitler had riveted on the Jews as the cause of Germany's degradation. He did not tailor his anti-Semitism from whole cloth but summoned up a welter of pseudoscientific theories and allegations that had been in the air at least since the 19th century in the writings of the Anglo-German political scientist H. S. Chamberlain (1855–1927), who developed theories of racial purity, and the French ethnologist J. A. Gobineau (1816–82), who argued the superiority of the "Aryan race." Indeed, anti-Semitism was virulent in most of Europe and a well-organized movement in Germany long before Hitler came to power; his Nazi party, however, made it official government policy.

Between 1933 and 1938, the Nazis instituted boycotts of Jewish businesses, established Jewish quotas in Germany's professions and schools, enacted the Nuremberg Laws of 1935, banning intermarriage between Jews and Gentiles, and, in 1933, established the first concentration camp, at Dachau, near Munich. The camp was first intended for the detention of communists and other political undesirables. By 1935, Theodor Eicke (1892–1943), acting under the direction of Hitler's Gestapo chief, Heinrich Himmler (1900–45), standardized the administration of the camp, which would serve as the pattern for others, including those at Buchenwald and Sachsenhausen. In 1938, after years of persecuting them, Hitler decided to "deport" all Jews from Germany and instituted mass arrests in May 1938. Dachau and the other camps were soon supplemented by additional forced-labor facilities, all intended to house the deported Jews.

On November 9–10, 1938, using as a pretext the assassination of Ernst von Rath (1909–38), a German legation secretary in Paris, Nazi storm troopers burned 267 synagogues and arrested 20,000 Jews. Jewish homes and businesses were destroyed; so much smashed glass littered the streets that the nocturnal orgy of destruction was given the ironically poetic name *Kristallnacht*—crystal night, the night of broken glass. Following the arrests came more deportations to the camps, but not before Hitler levied an atonement fine of $400 million against the Jews to pay for the damage that had been done—to their own property.

In 1940, after Poland had been overrun, the German invaders rounded up Warsaw's more than 400,000 Jews and confined them to the ancient ghetto, which was then cut off from the rest of the city. Many died from starvation and disease, and about 300,000 more were sent to concentration camps. Then German authorities drastically contracted the size of the quarter and on April 19, 1943, attacked it, with 2,000 German regulars supplemented by a

force of Lithuanian militiamen and Polish police and firefighters. The attackers had expected to be executing a slaughter. Instead, they were confronted by some 60,000 Jews—all those who remained in the ghetto—armed with a few pistols, rifles, machine guns, and homemade weapons. They put up a heroic, though ultimately futile, resistance. The Nazis countered by setting fire to the ghetto block by block, then flooding and smoke-bombing the sewers, through which the inmates attempted escape. On May 16, 1943, General Juergen Stroop (1895–1951) reported: "The former Jewish quarter of Warsaw is no longer in existence." Stroop further reported that his men had killed about 56,000, some 20,000 in the streets of Warsaw and the remainder, presumably, in death camps.

For that is what the concentration camps had become—not places of deportation and detention, not even primarily sites for the forced labor the German war machine desperately needed, but instruments of execution. The decision to institute this "final solution," and the first use of that blandly horrible euphemism by one of Himmler's Chief lieutenants, Reinhard Heydrich (1904–42), occurred in January 1942 at a conference in Wannsee, chaired by Heydrich.

Auschwitz, as the Germans called the southern Polish town of Oswiecim, was the site of the camp chosen as the center of annihilation. Here 1 to 3 million—no one knows just how many—human beings were herded naked into gas chambers disguised as delousing showers and were murdered with hydrocyanic gas produced by "Zyklon B" crystals. Other Nazi methods of execution included carbon monoxide asphyxiation, electrocution, phenol injections, immolation by flamethrower, death by hand grenade, gunshot, beating, torture, and "medical experimentation." Their clothing and valuables were systematically collected, including gold dental fillings, which were melted down to finance the war machine. The bodies themselves were burned in massive crematoria constructed expressly for the purpose. The killings at Auschwitz began in March 1942 and included large numbers of Poles, Russians, and gypsies in addition to Jews. Concentration camps at Oranienburg, Buchenwald, Dachau, Bergen-Belsen, and elsewhere became death camps as well.

During the war there had been Jewish resistance to the mass roundups and deportations to concentration camps that accompanied this policy, of which the Warsaw Ghetto is only the best known. In fact, outbreaks of resistance occurred at 17 of the Nazi concentration camps, notably Sobibor and Treblinka, and in the ghettos of Vilna, Kaunas, Minsk, and Slutsk. As many as 60,000 Jews served in partisan resistance units from North Africa to Belorussia. But it was to no avail. Worse, the Allies—who were, perhaps willfully, uninformed of the full genocidal extent of the execution programs—did nothing to prevent the murders and persecution of which they were aware. Only after the liberation of Europe, as British, Soviet, and American forces marched into camp after camp, did the horror of six million Jewish deaths—and of some 3 million more ethnic civilians and prisoners of war the Nazis considered "subhuman"—become unmistakably apparent.

In the wake of the horrifying discovery, the victorious Allies set up an International Military Tribunal at Nuremberg, Germany, to indict and try former Nazi leaders as war criminals. The indictments lodged four counts—crimes against peace, or the planning, initiating, and waging of wars of aggression in violation of international treaties and agreements; crimes against humanity, including exterminations, deportations, and genocides; war crimes, or violations of the laws of war; and "criminal conspiracy" to commit the crimes included in the indictment. The tribunal rejected the two major defenses offered by the defendants that only a state, and not individuals, could be found guilty of war crimes and that the acts of the tribunal itself were ex post facto—that is, that the tribunal was leveling charges of crimes that had not been declared crimes at the time they were committed. To the first, the tribunal ruled that crimes against international law were committed by men, not nations, and that only by punishing such individuals could such law be enforced. To the second, it responded that the acts committed by the Nazis had been considered criminal long before World War II.

In 1946, under the impact of revelations at Nuremberg and other war-crimes trials, the General Assembly of the United Nations affirmed a convention that stated "genocide is a crime under international law which the civilized world condemns." In 1948 the General Assembly approved the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide, which went into effect in 1951. Unlike the Nuremberg Tribunal, which had associated genocide with war crimes, the United Nations declared that it was a crime whether committed in peace or war and established the principle that even if genocide was perpetrated by a government within its own territory, it was not merely an internal matter but one of international concern.

The Holocaust also had a profound effect on the postwar Middle East. As European Ashkenazi Jews poured into Palestine at war's end, they provided an immense boost to the Zionist movement. Determined never again to suffer the fate of their relatives under the Nazis, and supported in that determination by the Allies in general, they joined the political and action wings of the movement, including such underground terrorist organizations as the Irguns, and pushed Zionist agitation to new levels. The British still administered Palestine under their World War I mandate and were in many ways responsible for these troubles—the Balfour Declaration having had the effect of promising the Jews the same territory Britain had promised the Arabs in the Great War. Now, as violence escalated between Arab and Jew in Palestine, the British passed the problem onto the newly created United Nations. Sympathy for the Jewish

plight during the war was marked, and in 1948 the UN partitioned Palestine into Jewish and Arab sections. The Zionists immediately proclaimed the new state of Israel, sparking the first in a long series of Arab-Israeli wars that would last beyond the coming cold war.

A NEW INTERNATIONAL ORDER

The end of World War II brought American commitment to a major role in international affairs. Unlike at Versailles after World War I, the victors in the Second World War held no grand peace conference to attempt a comprehensive postwar settlement. Partly this had to do with the abject failure of the old Versailles peace, partly with the "total" nature of the present conflict, partly with the way the war ended in two completely separate victories (one in Europe, spearheaded by Russia, and one in Japan, courtesy of the Americans), and partly with the irreconcilable differences in ideology and needs of the Allies themselves. Instead of a peace conference, there was only a complete surrender and a long occupation.

Although the early occupation agreements might suggest accord, the four Allies ultimately failed to agree on whether (or how) to reunite the occupied zones. As World War II was replaced by the cold war, the temporary dividing lines between the Soviet zone in the east and the British, French, and U.S. zones became permanent boundaries. Late in March 1948, the Soviets, wary of the West's growing determination to establish a separate capitalist state in the western zones of Germany, began detaining troop trains bound for West Berlin. On June 7, 1948, the Western democracies officially announced their intention to create West Germany. Two weeks later, the Soviets blockaded West Berlin, arguing that Berlin, because of its location, could not serve as the capital of West Germany. Truman responded by ordering the most massive airlift in history in order to keep West Berlin supplied. In this, the first great "battle" of the cold war, the West emerged victorious. After some 272,000 flights over 321 days—an unparalleled logistical achievement—the Soviets backed down, on May 12, 1949. Later that month, East and West Germany became separate nations. Over the next several months and years the Soviets erected a wall of barbed wire, with armed patrols and checkpoints, between East and West Berlin.

The Berlin Airlift was proof that the United States was not withdrawing from the international scene as it had after World War I. Other signals were just as clear. The United States put its considerable power and influence behind the creation of the United Nations and the establishment of such international agreements as the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). These understandings had been arrived at during wartime Allied meetings, such as the Bretton Woods Conference, when all the parties involved still needed each other to finish the business of defeating the Axis powers. Because the United States was determined to see these instruments survive the conflict, they were not marginalized and abandoned the way the League of Nations had been. However weak, tentative, and ineffectual the United Nations at first appeared, it became the underpinning of a new international order still in operation today. Likewise, such financial instruments as the World Bank and GATT, despite the opposition and self-imposed exclusion of the Soviets, underwrote a global market that eventually played no small role in the fall of the communist world. This new international order, much tested, often found wanting, nevertheless outlasted the bitter postwar rivalry of the world's two new "superpowers," the Soviet Union and the United States, brewed first in Berlin.

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Wudi Conquests (140–80 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Han China vs. (severally) Xiongnu (Hsiung-nu) nomads and indigenous peoples of the wars' several theaters

PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China, region of modern Vietnam, Manchuria, northern Korea, Jaxartes Valley of Central Asia

DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Removal of a barbarian threat, followed by general imperial expansion
OUTCOME: Under Wudi (Wu Ti), Han China expanded prodigiously, and an era of peace and prosperity commenced.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: The Han fielded more than 100,000 men, mostly cavalry; Xiongnu numbers are unknown.
CASUALTIES: At the momentous Battle of He Si (121 B.C.E.), the Xiongnu lost 40,000 as prisoners of war. At the Battle of Mo Bei (119 B.C.E.), Xiongnu casualties included 70,000 killed. During the campaign into Central Asia (105–102 B.C.E.), the Han army of 60,000 lost 50,000 men, killed or missing.
TREATIES: Unknown

The so-called Martial Emperor, Wudi (156–87 B.C.E.), ascended the throne in 140 B.C.E. at age 16 and, from the beginning, formulated a strategy to defeat the Xiongnu, which he considered to be the greatest threat to his kingdom. Under Wudi, the military was greatly expanded, and the cavalry was forged into a formidable weapon. His diplomatic efforts to secure an alliance with the Yuezhi (Yueh Chih or Tocharian people) against the Xiongnu failed in 138, and Wudi resolved to face the enemy on his own.

In 133 B.C.E., the emperor sent his ablest general, Wei Qing (Wei Ch'ing; dates unknown), to invade and take the territory between the Great Wall and the northern bend of the Yellow River. Early efforts proved fruitless, but Wei Qing refused to give up and by 119 had recovered territory lost to the barbarians in the previous century. In 121 B.C.E., Wei Qing dispatched his nephew Huo Qubing (Huo Ch'u Pang; d. 117) with a huge army of 100,000, mostly cavalry. At the Battle of He Si, Ho routed the Xiongnu, taking 40,000 prisoners, including the king. The territory west of the Yellow River was now under Han control.

The final defeat of the Xiongnu came in 119 B.C.E., when Wei and Ho pushed the barbarians into the Gobi Desert, then north of it. In Ulaan Bataar, at the Battle of Mo Bei, 70,000 Xiongnu were killed, thereby ending the threat from that quarter forever.

Just two years after the triumph at Mo Bei, Huo Qubing died (at age 22), but Wudi continued his policy of imperial expansion nevertheless. Between 111 and 109, having consolidated control over the former Xiongnu regions, Wudi invaded the southern kingdom of Yueh (encompassing Vietnam) and compelled the people there to acknowledge Han suzerainty. From here, in 108, Wudi turned to Manchuria and northern Korea—collectively the kingdom of Ch'ao Hsien—which he quickly annexed.

Beginning in 105 B.C.E., Wudi's general Li Guang (Li Kuang) penetrated the Jaxartes Valley of Central Asia. Suffering defeat by the surprisingly well-united tribespeople of the region, Li regrouped and attacked again. By 102, the people of the region bowed to Chinese suzerainty. The campaign came at a great cost, however. Of an army of 60,000, only 10,000 returned to China.

From 100 to 80 B.C.E., Wudi worked to consolidate and govern his conquests, laying the foundation for the long period of peace and prosperity known as the Pax Sinica (80–1 B.C.E.).

See also CHINESE CONQUEST OF NAM VIET.

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Wyatt's Rebellion (1554)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Rebel forces of Thomas Wyatt vs. English government
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): London
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Wyatt and his rebels wanted to overthrow Mary I ("Bloody Mary") and elevate Elizabeth (later Queen Elizabeth I) to the English throne.
OUTCOME: The rebellion stepped off prematurely and without promised aid from the French; it was quickly quelled after a single sharp battle.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Wyatt's Rebellion was a short-lived uprising led by Sir Thomas Wyatt (c. 1521–54) against Queen Mary I (Bloody Mary; 1516–58) of England. The daughter of Henry VIII (1491–1547), Mary sought to reverse the English Reformation initiated by her father and became betrothed to the Catholic monarch of Spain, Philip II (1527–98). The prospect of a counter-reformation and English vassalage to Spain incited a number of English nobles to rebel. The nobles secured the aid of France in an uprising designed to overthrow Mary and replace her with her half-sister, Elizabeth (later Queen Elizabeth I, 1533–1603). (Young Elizabeth was almost certainly not a participant in the plot.)

When France leaked word of the impending rebellion, its chief architect, Sir Thomas Wyatt (son of the diplomat and poet of the same name), acted prematurely, pushing the rebellion from March 1554 to February. This meant that the rebellion would not be coordinated with French aid—and that proved fatal. Wyatt led his forces to London from Kent, fought a sharp battle in the city, then surrendered to superior government numbers. Meanwhile, young Elizabeth, remanded to the Tower of London, narrowly escaped the execution that had been the fate of her mother,

Anne Boleyn (c. 1507–36). After two months of extensive investigation, interrogations under torture of the conspirators, and constant spying produced no conclusive evidence of involvement on her part, she was released and placed under house arrest for a year at Woodstock. Wyatt, who had, with great dignity, proclaimed Elizabeth innocent of the plot, was executed for treason.

See also ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1549–1550); ANGLO-FRENCH WAR (1557–1560).

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X

Xiongnu Invasion of China (c. 200 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Xiongnu (Hsiung-nu; later known as the Huns) vs. Han China
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Northwestern China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest of the border region.
OUTCOME: The Xiongnu acquired the border territory and the Xiongnu leader, Mo Du, was given the Han emperor's daughter in marriage.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Xiongnu, 300,000; Han forces unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but probably heavy among the Han
TREATIES: Treaty between Mo Du and Gaozu (Kao Tsu), 200 B.C.E.

The Xiongnu were a collection of Mongol tribes, which would later become known to the West as the Huns. Some time before 200 B.C.E., the various Xiongnu tribes were unified under the leader Mo Du. At the head of an army of 300,000, Mo Du (or Mao-tun, fl. c. 209–174 B.C.E.) invaded northwestern China. His forces were met by an army under Gaozu (256–195 B.C.E.), first of the Han emperors. Gaozu was quickly overwhelmed; however, his forces sought refuge in a fortified border town. Held under siege, Gaozu at last surrendered and made a treaty with Mo Du, whereby he ceded to the Xiongnu much border territory and betrothed his daughter to Mo Du.

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Xiongnu Invasion of Turkestan, First (73 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Xiongnu (Hsiung-nu) vs. the Wu Sun tribe
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Turkestan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Xiongnu were repelled.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Xiongnu (later known to the West as the Huns) were defeated by Chinese forces at the Battle of Mo Bei (Mo Pei) in China in 119 B.C.E. They turned their attention to Turkestan early in the next century, during a period often called the Pax Sinica, the Chinese Peace—nearly a century in which China was ascendant and the once mighty Xiongnu were increasingly confined to Outer Mongolia.

In 73 B.C.E., the Xiongnu broke out in a major invasion of Turkestan, which was met by the Wu Sun tribe, a Chinese and Indo-European people who lived in the

region of the Jaxartes River. The Wu Sun repelled the Xiongnu invaders.

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Xiongnu Invasion of Turkestan, Second
(54 B.C.E.)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Xiongnu (Hsiung-nu) vs. the Wu Sun tribe (with Chinese aid)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Turkestan
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Conquest
OUTCOME: The Xiongnu were repelled.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The Wu Sun tribe, living in the Jaxartes River region of Turkestan, successfully repelled the First XIONGNU INVASION OF TURKESTAN, in 73 B.C.E., then faced a new invasion 20 years later. With the aid of the Chinese, at the height of the Pax Sinica period, the Wu Sun again repelled the invaders.

Further reading: E. A. Thompson and P. J. Heather, *The Huns* (Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1995).

Y

Yakama War (1855–1857)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Yakama (Yakima) Indians and allied tribes vs. United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Washington and Oregon
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Yakama were resisting attempts to confine them to a reservation; the United States sought to so confine them.
OUTCOME: Inconclusive
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: United States, 700 regular and volunteer troops; Yakama, 500
CASUALTIES: Probably less than 100 for both sides
TREATIES: None; the aging General Wool, finding Yakamas acting peacefully, simply declared the war over.

The fuse that touched off the Yakama War had been lit in May 1855 when Isaac Stevens (1818–62), the youthful and aggressive governor of Washington Territory, hastily concluded a treaty with the Yakama and 13 other tribes binding the Indians to relinquish their lands in exchange for life on a single, large reservation. He promised the tribes east of the Cascades—the Nez Percé, Cayuse, Umatilla, Walla Walla, and Yakama—homes, schools, horses, livestock, and generous annuities. He also pledged that removal to the reservation would be delayed two or three years after they signed the treaty. The majority of the tribal representatives believed that resistance was ultimately useless and that Stevens's offer and pledge were the best treatment they were likely to secure at the hands of the Anglo-Americans. Accordingly, they signed.

A stubborn minority, including, most importantly, the Yakama chief Kamiakin (c. 1800–77), revered among the tribes of the Columbia River basin, refused to add their assent, for they believed they could not take Stevens at his word. A scant 12 days after the signing, Kamiakin and his fellow skeptics were proved right, as Stevens summarily declared the Indian country "open" to white settlement.

Kamiakin, distressed at the growing population of miners in the Colville region, forged an alliance that included the Walla Walla, Umatilla, and Cayuse as well as his own Yakama. Even so, he thought it best to bide his time, organize, and plan before confronting superior white forces. As often happened when Indians contemplated war, hot-headed young warriors acted independently—and rashly. A group of five braves led by Kamiakin's nephew, Qualchin (d. 1858), attacked and killed six prospectors in mid-September 1855. A. J. Bolen, the local Indian agent, was sent to investigate the incident; he too was killed.

Although dismayed by the precipitate act, Kamiakin made the most of it, issuing a warning that a similar fate would befall any other whites who ventured east of the Cascades. In October, a small force of regulars—84 men and a howitzer—under Major Granville O. Haller (d. 1897), out of Fort Dalles, reconnoitered the east face of the mountains with the intention of coordinating, with 50 men out of Fort Steilacoom under Lieutenant W. A. Slaughter (d. 1855), a pincers attack against the Indians. Five hundred of Kamiakin's warriors ambushed Haller's column, killing five of their number, forcing the abandonment of the howitzer, and driving the remainder back to the fort. Fortunately for Slaughter's command, the lieutenant was warned of the action and escaped by making a night march back to Puget Sound.

With few troops now in the area, local Indians raided a settlement along the White River above Seattle, killing nine. The survivors of the attack fled in panic to Seattle, where they hastily erected a stockade in anticipation of a siege. At this point, Lieutenant Slaughter reappeared and engaged the Indians repeatedly until they gradually broke off the attack on Seattle. This action cost the lieutenant his life; he was shot through the heart one night when he made the mistake of approaching too close to a campfire, thereby making himself a clear target.

Governor Stevens, who was busy making treaties in Montana, received a greatly exaggerated account of the Yakama "war" and incidents involving another group of Native Americans the settlers called Rogue Indians (*see* ROGUE RIVER WAR). He immediately dashed through hostile territory back to Washington. Hastily organizing a militia company of friendly Spokane Indians (the "Spokane Invincibles"), Stevens took personal command of a white militia he called the Stevens Guards. Combined, the forces numbered only 50 men, who were understandably fearful of making their way to Fort Dalles. Fortunately for them, they encountered no hostiles; Major Gabriel Rains, with a mixed force of regulars and volunteers, was keeping the Yakama amused by his inept attempts to ambush them.

Seventy-one-year-old General John Ellis Wool (1784–1869), commander of the U.S. Army's Department of the Pacific, did not approve of "amateur" and "illegal" volunteer actions by Stevens and his ilk. Stevens persistently argued with Wool over the conduct of the "wars" with the Rogue Indians and the Yakama, pushing him to conduct a winter campaign. Wool protested, but responded by releasing reinforcements in the early spring of 1856 to the beleaguered Andrew Jackson Smith (1815–97) at Fort Lane, under attack by the Rogues, and assembled an additional 500 regulars under George H. Wright to march against Chief Kamiakin.

Wright and his regulars went on the hunt for hostiles. By then, however, Chief Kamiakin had retreated eastward, and all Wright found were Indians peacefully fishing for salmon. Wright spoke with these Yakamas, who convinced him that they intended no further harm. When the colonel reported this to General Wool, the old commander declared the Yakama War ended. In July, there was another engagement between the Yakamas and some of the volunteers Wool despised, and Governor Stevens had opportunity to savor his own private victory, as the War Department at last agreed to the removal of Wool as commander of the Department of the Pacific, citing (to the governor's delight) his lack of initiative in punishing the Indians. In May 1857, Wool was replaced by Newman S. Clarke (d. 1860).

Wool may have declared the Yakama War over, but in truth Chief Kamiakin was hardly finished. While the general and the governor bickered, the Indian chief was already inciting another group of Indians to rise and follow him against the hated whites (*see* COEUR D'ALENE WAR).

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993), Robert M. Utley, *Frontiersman in Blue: The United States Army and the Indian, 1848–1865* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1981).

Yamasee War (1715–1716)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: South Carolina colonists and Cherokee allies vs. Yamasee Indians
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Retribution for a Yamasee raid
OUTCOME: Yamasee were driven from their lands.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 100 settlers killed in Yamasee raid; number of Yamasee killed, unknown
TREATIES: None

The Yamasee War was as brief as it was terrible. The Yamasees of South Carolina had suffered a range of abuses at the hands of white traders and squatters, ranging from insults and land fraud to debauchment with liquor and enslavement. The whirlwind of the Yamasee discontent was reaped on Good Friday, April 15, 1715, when Yamasee, Catawba, and other, smaller tribes, probably encouraged by the French, attacked English settlements north of present-day Savannah, Georgia (then under the jurisdiction of South Carolina). More than 100 settlers were killed, and the survivors fled to Charleston, where South Carolina's governor, Charles Craven (1682–1754), mustered the militia.

By June, Craven's forces had driven the Yamasee from their villages, and through the fall he pursued them into Spanish Florida, giving no quarter but visiting death and destruction upon them nearly to the point of tribal extinction. Yamasee lands were carved up by James Edward Oglethorpe (1696–1785) for his new proprietary colony of Georgia.

The victories over the Yamasee in part persuaded the Cherokee to ally themselves with the English, and together they drove out remaining Yamasees and members of the Lower Creek tribe from territory northwest of Port Royal, which South Carolina settlers had attempted to occupy. Although casualties were heavy on both sides, the Cherokee-English alliance prevailed against the Yamasees.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars: From Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1992); Walter Edgar, *South Carolina: A History* (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1998).

Yangdi, Revolts against (613–618)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Yangdi (Yang Ti), Sui emperor, vs. internal rebels and Eastern Turk raiders
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China, especially the northern frontier region
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The rebels responded to the ruinous cost of Yangdi's many wars of conquest.
OUTCOME: The rebellion ended in the assassination of Yangdi, but the Sui dynasty continued.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Yangdi (560–618) of China's Sui dynasty was an aggressive expansionist who undertook massive operations in Sinkiang, Yunnan, Manchuria, and Korea. The Korean campaigns of 611–14 proved disastrous and brought great economic hardship upon the Chinese people. This in turn touched off a revolt against Yangdi beginning in 613. Exploiting the internecine conflict, the Eastern Turks raided China's northern frontiers during this period. To neutralize the threat from the Eastern Turks, the emperor personally took the field—only to suffer defeat at the Battle of Yenmen in 615. Yangdi was surrounded in this fortified town but was rescued by one of his generals, Li Shimin (Li Shih-min; 597–649), who later became the second emperor of the Tang dynasty. The war continued, ending only with Yangdi's death at the hands of rebel assassins in 618. With Yangdi's demise, the Sui dynasty came to an end, and the Tang dynasty came into being.

Further reading: Arthur F. Wright, *The Sui Dynasty* (New York: Random House, 1978).

Yangtze Campaigns

See JUCHEN MONGOL INVASION OF THE SUNG EMPIRE.

Yellow Turban Rebellion (184–c. 204)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Yellow Turban Taiping (Great Peace) Taoist rebels vs. the Han dynasty
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): China
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Yellow Turbans rebelled against the Han emperor in the belief that his dynasty's commitment to power had brought natural disaster on China.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was ultimately suppressed, but the Han dynasty was left so weakened that it collapsed within a few years.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At their height, the Yellow Turban rebels numbered 400,000; imperial forces were fewer in number but far better equipped and led.
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Although the Han dynasty had been restored by 23 C.E. thanks to the RED EYEBROW REVOLT, eight of the 12 sovereigns during the dynasty's second incarnation became rulers before they were 15 years of age. While the throne passed from one child emperor to the next, real power was wielded first by imperial deputies and regents, then by consort families, and ultimately by the palace eunuchs. Chronic intrigue and political machinations at court continuously eroded the strength of the central government, and increasingly, provincial warlords began to fill the vacuum. By the middle of the second century, signs that the Han were toppling had become clear to virtually everyone.

Contributing to the ultimate fall of the Han was a secret Chinese society, the Yellow Turban, led by a Taoist faith healer in Taiping named Zhang Jiao (Chang Chueh; 140–184) who gained numerous adherents during a widespread pestilence, forged them into an army of rebellion, and directed a revolt against the tyrannical eunuchs who dominated the emperor. The rebels wore yellow headdresses to signify their association with the yellow "earth," which they believed would succeed the red "fire" that represented Han rule in the five elements of Chinese cosmology (the others being water, metal, and wood). In 184, the Yellow River flooded, rendering thousands homeless and triggering the great epidemic. As thousands sought spiritual comfort in the Taiping sect, Zhang Jiao persuaded his followers that the emperor's commitment to fire—which implied a heedless pursuit of power—had brought on the floods.

To suppress the uprising, which erupted in east China, the Han emperor, Cao Cao (Ts'ao Ts'ao; 155–220) conscripted huge armies at great cost, but their efforts were hampered by the inefficiency and corruption in the imperial government. Zhang was killed in 184, but the rebellion was a continuing menace to the government. By the time of his death, some 400,000 Chinese had joined the Yellow Turban movement and were in armed revolt against the Han. Despite their overwhelming numbers, however, the Yellow Turban rebels were defeated by the better-equipped and more thoroughly disciplined armies

of the emperor. The rebellion died around 204, but the Yellow Turbans continued to plague Chinese life for the next two decades until the Han dynasty, badly shaken, finally fell in 221, victim of its own corruption.

See also FIVE PECKS OF RICE.

Further reading: Michael Loewe, *Divination, Mythology and Monarchy in Han China* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1994).

Yen Bai Uprising *See* VIETNAMESE UPRISINGS.

Yemenite Civil War (1962–1970)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Yemeni rebels (with Egypt and Syria) vs. the imam of Yemen (with Saudi Arabia and Jordan); South Yemeni rebels (with Egypt) vs. North Yemen (with British aid); conservative North Yemen forces vs. leftist North Yemeni government; conservative North Yemeni forces (aided by Syria, the Soviet Union, and South Yemen) vs. royalist forces (aided by Saudi Arabia)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Yemen
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: This complicated series of conflicts centered on control of Yemen.
OUTCOME: Ultimately, South Yemen achieved independence from the northern portion of the country, which overthrew its king and became the Yemen Arab Republic.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: 10,000 republicans; 70,000 Egyptian-Syrian expeditionary troops; 40,000 royalists
CASUALTIES: 50,000–100,000 on both sides, total
TREATIES: Agreement between Yemeni republicans and royalists, 1970

A remote country in the southwest corner of the Arabian Peninsula, Yemen first made international news on September 25, 1962, when an uprising overthrew the Islamic kingdom of Imam Mohammed al-Badr, who had himself been on the throne for only a week, following the death of his father. Now the new and newly deposed *imam* (Islamic ruler) fled into the interior, to the mountains, as Colonel Abdullah al-Sallal proclaimed a republic in the capital at San'a. While the imam rallied tribes to the royalist cause, third-world leader Gamal Abdel Nasser (1918–70) and his United Arab Republic (the short-lived alliance of Egypt and Syria) broadcast support for the revolutionary government and came to its aid with both men and guns.

As the fighting against royalist guerrillas stretched on, the Egyptian military's involvement continued to grow, reaching 28,000 troops by the end of 1963 (then 40,000 by 1964, 60,000 by 1966, and 70,000 by 1967), while the Yemeni republican army totaled only some 7,000. Backing the 40,000-strong Yemeni royalists were the more tradition-minded Arab monarchies, Saudi Arabia and Jordan, who sent the imam and his forces arms, supplies, and advisers. The war, then, became something of an Arab civil war, as attempted mediation by the United Nations failed to prevent its escalation.

The fighting soon spread to what is now South Yemen but was then an area dominated by Great Britain since the 1950s through a group of dynastic chieftains. Backed by Egypt, the Front for the Liberation of Occupied South Yemen fought the British and their clients, as did the left-wing National Liberation Front. In the long run, the latter proved the stronger of the two revolutionary factions, and the NLF took control of the region, forcing the British out and declaring an independent South Yemen on November 29, 1967.

Meanwhile, Egypt had not had much luck in supporting the Republic of Yemen. Despite massive air bombardments and the reported use of mustard and phosgene gas in a series of air-delivered poison-gas attacks in 1966 and 1967 (the first use of internationally outlawed poison gas since 1938 in Spain), the allied forces of the UAR and the Yemeni Republic simply could not best the imam's army, entrenched in the mountains. Nasser had his own problems. His defeat in the ARAB-ISRAELI WAR of 1967 and the continued Israeli threat led him to withdraw the entire 70,000 UAR expeditionary force from the conflict. The royalists, who were by then in control of three-fourths of Yemen—everything but the cities—stepped up their siege of San'a and its 3,000-strong republican garrison late in 1967. Just as things looked their bleakest, however, a 1,000-man armored column, supported by 30 Soviet-built, Syrian-piloted MiGs and including in their number some 600 veterans of newly independent South Yemen's NLF broke through the royalist siege lines and saved the city.

This republican victory marked a turning point. Royalist morale collapsed just as the Saudis began to get cold feet. After Colonel al-Sallal's radical government had been ousted by right-wing conservatives in a military coup on November 5, 1967, the Saudis, weary of the imam, began pressuring him to end his resistance to republican Yemen, now under a government they found more tolerable. Thus the republican victory at San'a only increased Saudi impatience. There was little the imam could do but acquiesce. Peace was proclaimed on April 14, 1970. Though many leading royalists garnered positions in the new government of what was now called the Yemen Arab Republic, the imam and his family were forced into exile as the new government gained international recognition.

Further reading: B. R. Pridham, ed., *Contemporary Yemen: Politics and Historical Background* (New York: St. Martin's, 1984).

Yemenite Civil War (1986)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of South Yemeni president Ali Nasser Muhammad vs. opposition forces led by Abdul Fattah Ismail
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): South Yemen; most fighting took place in the capital city of Aden
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Radical Marxists objected to President Muhammad's political overtures to non-Marxist Arab neighbors.
OUTCOME: Muhammad was overthrown, and a new government installed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: At least 10,000 died in one week.
TREATIES: None

This civil war may be unique in history in that it began with a gunfight between a sitting president and leaders of the opposition during a meeting of an official government body, the Politburo. On January 13, 1986, South Yemen president Ali Nasir Muhammad (fl. 1986–1990) exchanged shots with opposition leaders, touching off a short-lived civil war in the Marxist Arab republic, which had broken away from northern Yemen in the YEMENITE CIVIL WAR (1962–70).

Over the course of one week following the shooting, perhaps as many as 10,000 died in fierce fighting, which was especially intense in the capital city of Aden. At issue was President Muhammad's overtures to non-Marxist Arab neighbors, which enraged the rabidly Marxist opposition, led by former president Abdul Fattah Ismail (1939–86). If Ismail had expected support from the Soviet Union, he was mistaken; the USSR announced its complete noninvolvement in what it deemed a civil conflict. Nevertheless, when Ismail's forces managed to overthrow Muhammad, the Soviet Union quickly disavowed him, and he fled for his life to Ethiopia. After Muhammad's departure, Haydar Abu Bakr al-Attas (b. 1939), former prime minister in the Muhammad government, was named interim president on January 24. He was elected in his own right to a five-year term in November 1986.

See also YEMENITE WAR.

Further reading: Fred Halliday, *Revolution and Foreign Policy: The Case of South Yemen, 1967–1987* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990).

Yemenite War (1979)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Yemen Arab Republic (North Yemen) (with support from Saudi Arabia and the United States) vs. the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen (South Yemen) (with support from Soviet Union, Cuba, and East Germany)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Border region of North and South Yemen
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Ideological differences triggered combat.
OUTCOME: The two sides reached a truce and began discussions toward the reunification of Yemen.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: About 500
TREATIES: Truce concluded on March 19, 1979

On June 24, 1978, Ahmad al-Ghashmi, the president of the Yemen Arab Republic (North Yemen), was assassinated. The government of the nation accused the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen (South Yemen), a Soviet-aligned breakaway state (*see* YEMENITE CIVIL WAR [1962–1970]), of perpetrating the act. Two days after the assassination, the president of South Yemen, Rubayi Ali (1934–78), was ousted and then executed by South Yemeni Marxist extremists in a military coup. The president, a moderate, had been working on a plan to reunite South Yemen with the pro-Western North Yemen. His execution immediately widened the gulf between North and South. A war of words developed, and, on February 24, 1979, troops on the border exchanged fire. Radical elements among the North Yemeni forces invaded South Yemeni border regions. In response, the South Yemeni army, bolstered by Soviet, Cuban, and East German elements, invaded North Yemen.

The invasion of North Yemen, an ally of Saudi Arabia, prompted the Saudis to convene an emergency session of the League of Arab States. Saudi Arabia and the United States supplied arms to North Yemen, and a U.S. naval task force was dispatched to the Arabian Sea. Under this pressure, a number of cease-fires were arranged, only to be violated almost immediately. An effective truce was reached on March 19, 1979. By agreement, both sides withdrew their forces from the border, and an Arab League peacekeeping force was sent to patrol the borderland and enforce the truce. The North and South Yemeni governments began reconciliation talks and planned for the reunion of the nation.

See also YEMENITE CIVIL WAR (1986).

Further reading: Fred Halliday, *Revolution and Foreign Policy: The Case of South Yemen, 1967–1987* (Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990).

Yom Kippur War *See* ARAB-ISRAELI WAR (1973).

Young Turks' Revolt (1908–1909)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Young Turks vs. Ottoman sultan
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Salonika and Constantinople
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Young Turks called for a restoration of the constitution abrogated by the sultan and sought to reform and modernize the corrupt and tottering empire
OUTCOME: Ultimately the Young Turks seized power and instituted reforms, but the empire collapsed in the Balkans, indirectly precipitating World War I.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

On July 3, 1908, the Ottoman Empire's Third Army Corps in Macedonia launched a revolt against the provincial authorities in Resna that quickly led to rebellion throughout the empire and brought into positions of power and authority the Young Turks, European-influenced young revolutionaries intent on modernizing Turkey. Though they succeeded internally in reforming the government and fostering Turkish nationalism, their revolt seriously destabilized the Balkans and helped to launch World War I, during which their mishandling of foreign affairs resulted in the dissolution of the Ottoman state.

Established six centuries earlier, the Ottoman Empire had at its height controlled most of central and eastern Europe, western Asia, and North Africa. For the last 300 years, the Ottomans had steadily been losing ground, a process so rapidly accelerated in the previous quarter-century that by 1908 the empire was being called "the Sick Man of Europe." All but bankrupted by constant warfare and corrupt rulers, the Turks had watched their provinces slip away "like pieces falling off an old house"—Cyprus in 1878, Tunisia in 1881, Egypt in 1882. However decadent, the empire yet encompassed a vast territory—including Macedonia, Albania, Palestine, Libya, Syria, Mesopotamia, Crete, Bulgaria, and lands along the Red Sea and Persian Gulf—and still played a key political role in the European balance of power established by Otto von Bismarck's (1815–98) system of interlocking alliances. The three great powers of Central and Eastern Europe—Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia—all cast greedy eyes on certain Ottoman holdings, especially in the Balkans, but since no one in Europe could agree on how to carve them up, it became essential to European peace that no single major player stake a claim. The nations of Europe—including England and France—saw to it that the tottering giant did not fall.

Late in the last century, the empire's ruler—Sultan Abdul Hamid II (1842–1918)—had revoked the constitution that governed its polyglot of provinces and unleashed a vicious secret police force. The sultan's state terror horrified the empire's intelligentsia, but it was his massacre of tens of thousands of Armenians in the 1890s that made him an international pariah (*see* Armenian Massacres [1894–1897]). Beset by a tide of rising nationalism among its subject peoples and Balkan neighbors, twisted hither and yon by the ambitions and demands of the Great Powers, Ottoman rule verged ever closer toward collapse. The Young Turks staged their revolt in 1908 to save the ailing empire, not destroy it.

By 1908, the Young Turk movement itself was some 50 years old, having begun back in the 1860s among writers inspired by European culture and philosophy. It was kept alive by exiled intellectuals, most of whom had fled to Paris in 1889 when a student-spawned plot against the sultan had been uncovered by his secret police. One faction, called the Committee of Union and Progress (CUP), which included the most notable of the liberal emigrés, Ahmed Riza (1859–1930), advocated orderly reform under a strong central government and the exclusion of all foreign influence. Another called for administrative decentralization and European assistance in creating the reforms. Both called for reinstating constitutional government; both prepared the groundwork for the future revolution against the sultan. When young officers from the Third Army Corps stationed in Macedonia's Salonika (Thessalonika, Greece), frustrated by irregular pay and inferior equipment, formed the Ottoman Liberty Society and began conspiring with the exiled intellectuals of the CUP, the stage was set.

First came a series of mutinies, then an uprising in Macedonia. The rebels did not demand that the sultan step down—however corrupt and tyrannical, he was the caliph (or spiritual leader) of many of the world's Muslims. What the rebels wanted was a restoration of the constitution and a recall of parliament. On July 23, amid the spreading revolt, Abdul Hamid surprised everybody by giving the rebels what they wanted, in theory reducing his status to that of a constitutional monarch. But the deep-seated ideological differences among the Young Turks resurfaced, preventing them from taking effective control of the government, and over the next two years, the sultan staged a destabilizing counterrevolution. His intrigues led the extremely reactionary Muhammadan Union to step up pressure on the loyalist troops in the First Army Corps, who stormed the Chamber of Deputies and demanded restoration of the Sacred Law. The sultan, pretending regret, "gave in" to their demands, and the CUP government fell. There followed not only the proclamation of martial law, the arrest of the 1908 rebels, and the reduction of the Constantinople garrison, but also a renewed massacre of the Armenians, who were literally annihilated in Adana, to the outrage of the civilized world (*see* Armenian

MASSACRES [1909]). In response, the Salonika CUP sent an army of liberation under Mustafa Kemal, later to be known as Kemal Ataturk (1881–1938), to Constantinople, where it deposed the sultan—with the support of Muslim religious leaders—and put his brother Muhammad V Reshid (1844–1918) briefly in charge of a new CUP administration. Not until 1913, when new leaders took over Riza's faction—the triumvirate of Talat Pasha (1874–1921), Ahmed Cemal Pasha (1872–1922), and Enver Pasha (1881–1922)—did the Young Turks set themselves up as the arbiters of Ottoman politics.

Meanwhile, the old empire fell apart. Bulgaria promptly took advantage of the chaos to declare its independence in 1908, and that same year Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, which it had ruled jointly and uneasily with Turkey. Turkish Crete proclaimed its union with Greece, though threats from Constantinople kept Greece from immediately acting on the declaration. In 1911, Italy invaded and overran Tripoli (Libya) (*see* ITALO-TURKISH WAR). The Italian conquest spurred the ambitions of the Balkans' small Christian states, and Serbia, Montenegro, Greece, and Bulgaria—all once provinces of the Ottoman Empire—suddenly attacked European Turkey in October, 1912 (*see* BALKAN WAR, FIRST). The Turkish army collapsed. By November 3 the Bulgarians had reached Constantinople, and five days later the Greeks entered Salonika. The Serbs took Durazzo on the Adriatic, and thus provided themselves with a seaport, on November 28. On December 5, the Turkish government begged the Balkan belligerents for an armistice.

Europe was shocked by the Ottoman defeat. England immediately called for a conference of the great powers, which opened a week later in London, on December 10, 1912. The Turks agreed to give up all they had lost to Serbia and Greece, but they drew the line at turning over to Bulgaria the city of Adrianople (Turkish Edirne), which their troops still occupied. The armistice collapsed. As the great powers continued to confer, the Balkans went back to war with the Ottomans for a second time in February 1913 (*see* the BALKAN WAR, SECOND). Adrianople promptly fell to a combined army of Bulgars and Serbs, and the Turks again sued for peace. Back in London, Austria-Hungary simply insisted that Durazzo either be given back to the Turks or made independent; the Serbs could not have it. Russia put pressure on the Serbs to give up the seaport, and on May 30, 1913, everybody signed the Treaty of London. Adrianople went to Bulgaria, Salonika to Greece, and an entirely new state—Albania—was carved out of Durazzo and the surrounding area. Everything was quiet for about a month; then, on June 29, Bulgaria attacked her former Balkan allies—Serbia and Greece—grabbing Salonika for herself and trouncing the surprised Serbian army. Now Romania, neutral in the first two Balkan wars, attacked Bulgaria from the rear, crossing the Danube and marching up to the outskirts of the Bulgarian capital, Sofia. Seeing that Bulgaria was for the moment distracted, the Turks took back Adrianople. Germany's Kaiser William II (1859–1941) announced that he would support his cousin, King Carol (1839–1914) of Romania, but Russia's Czar Nicholas II (1895–1917) refused to help out the czar of Bulgaria, Ferdinand (1861–1948), whom he considered a maverick. So, in the Treaty of Bucharest—signed on August 6—Bulgaria lost everything she had won in the two previous wars, the Greeks took back Salonika, and a shank of Bulgarian territory was sliced off and handed to Romania.

Already the term "Balkanized" meant collapse into petty factions; everyone "balked" at anything that did not precisely suit them. For the Great Powers, still meeting in London, it mattered less who was stabbing whom in the back, or which country got which real estate. What mattered was that little wars not spread into general war. But without the "Sick Man of Europe" around to blame, they could not agree on what to do about his former property. Ten months after the end of the last Balkan War, the London Conference dissolved without settling anything, even the details of the new Albania's boundaries. That year, a Serb—angry at the treatment of Serbia—would shoot the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Archduke Francis Ferdinand (1863–1914), and the old Europe Bismarck put together would vanish in the trenches and mustard gas clouds of the Great War that inevitably followed.

The Young Turks in power back in what was left of the Ottoman Empire were busy passing administrative reforms that would centralize their government, promote the industrialization of their economy, and secularize their legal system—none of which would prevent them from making the fatal mistake of overestimating German might and hastily entering the Great War on the side of the Central Powers. Dismembered by the Balkan Wars, the empire was beheaded after its defeat in World War I.

Further reading: F. Ahmad, *The Young Turks: The Committee of Union and Progress in Turkish Politics, 1908–14* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1969); E. Ramsaur, *The Young Turks: Prelude to the Revolution of 1908* (New York: Russell & Russell, 1970, 1957); L. S. Stavrianos, *The Balkans since 1453* (New York: Rinehart, 1958).

Ypsilanti Rebellions (1821)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Greek rebels (the "Sacred Battalion") vs. the Ottoman Empire
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Moldavia and Romania
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Alexander Ypsilanti sought to begin a pan-Balkan rebellion against the Ottoman Empire, which would create Greek independence.
OUTCOME: The Ypsilanti uprisings were crushed at the decisive Battle of Dragasani, but they served to initiate the Greek War of Independence.

APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Most of the Sacred Battalion was killed or captured.
TREATIES: None

The Ypsilanti Rebellions may be seen as either an early phase of the GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE or as a separate overture to it.

The Ypsilantis, a Phanariot (Constantinople Greek) family, left Constantinople for Russia because of a dispute with the Sublime Porte (the Ottoman government). In Russia, Alexander Ypsilanti (1792–1828) became a general in the Russian army and, by 1820, was also the leader (known as "prince") of the Philike Hetairia, a nationalist band seeking Greek independence from the Ottoman Empire. Ypsilanti formulated a plan to unite all of the Balkans in rebellion against the empire, and in March 1821 he led a military unit, dubbed the "Sacred Battalion," in an invasion of Moldavia. His troops overran and occupied the Moldavian capital, Jassy (Iasi, Romania), then marched on Bucharest.

Ypsilanti enjoyed the support of the Phanariot governor of Moldavia, and the Greek community in Wallachia also backed him; however, the anticipated and all-important support from Russia failed to materialize. Czar Alexander I (1777–1825) yielded to pressure from Austria and openly repudiated the rebellion. Worse, the Greek Orthodox Church excommunicated Ypsilanti for his action. The final straw was the failure of Romania to add its sanction. The Phanariot officials active in Romania were oppressive and imperious, and they had never been popular. Romania sought its own independence and wanted no part of a pan-Balkan movement dominated by Greece.

On June 9, 1821, at the Battle of Dragasani, about 90 miles west of Bucharest, Ypsilanti's Sacred Battalion was defeated by Ottoman forces. Alexander Ypsilanti fled the field and made his way to Austria—where he was promptly arrested on orders of Emperor Francis II (1768–1835). Ypsilanti was imprisoned through 1827, and it was left to his brother, Demetrios Ypsilanti (1793–1832), to organize the Greek rebels for the full-scale war of independence that began shortly after the defeat at Dragasani.

Further reading: Stathis Gourgouris, *Dream Nation: Enlightenment, Colonization, and the Institution of Modern Greece* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1996).

Yuma and Mojave Uprising (1851–1852)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Yuma and Mojave Indians vs. the United States
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southwestern Arizona and southeastern California
DECLARATION: None; Yuma chief Garra did indicate his dissatisfactions, however, by refusing to pay taxes.
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The Yumas and Mojaves launched a resistance to Anglo-American settlement, the pace of which had been greatly increased by the 1849 gold rush; the United States fought to quell the rebellion and pacify the tribes.
OUTCOME: The uprising was supressed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Indians, 500–800 warriors; United States, 600 troops
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: The Mojaves agreed to a treaty on Christmas Day, 1851, and the Yumas agreed to a treaty on October 12, 1852.

The California gold rush of 1849 not only helped to stitch the United States together as a nation after the UNITED STATES–MEXICAN WAR, it also accelerated the collapse of U.S.-Indian relations in the American West. Although the Forty-Niners did not prospect in the Yuma and Mojave homelands of southwestern Arizona and southeastern California as they did in the homelands of other tribes, many of the gold-blind immigrants did travel through those lands along the southern Overland Trail. The Yumas and Mojaves responded the way they had been responding since 1827, when the legendary guide and mountain man Jedediah Strong Smith (1799–1831) first led a trapping expedition through the area. They raided travelers.

The Yumas in particular controlled a strategic position known as Yuma Crossing, a natural ford across the Colorado River near the mouth of the Gila River. Partly to protest the abuses they had suffered at the hands of invading whites, Antonio Garra (d. 1852), leader of a Yuma tribe called the Cupanga-kitoms, in 1851 notified San Diego County authorities that his people would not pay the taxes assessed on them. By November 1851, Garra, Chief Gerónimo of the New River Kamias, Captain Alleche of the Cahuillas, and Chief Fernando of the Chemehuevis called on Yuma leaders and laid plans for a revolution among them and the Mojaves and Yokuts of the San Joaquin Valley as well as various tribes in Baja California.

On November 10, 1851, a party of sheep drovers, with 1,500 animals, reached the Colorado River near the Yuma Crossing. The next day, the party divided, five men continuing on with the sheep, the remainder making camp with a battle-hardened, one-armed veteran of the Mexican War, Lieutenant Thomas "Fighting Tom" Sweeny (1820–92) and his small command. Before the day was out, 400 Yumas had surrounded Sweeny's camp but retired when he threatened them with a 12-pound howitzer. Another party of Indians attacked the drovers who had remained with the sheep, killing four of the five. On November 12, Sweeny's troops were augmented by the arrival of reinforcements. However, Camp Independence—as Sweeny called his garrison—was more or less

continually besieged throughout November and into early December. Sweeny and a garrison now numbering about 100 men withdrew from the camp on December 6.

Elsewhere in California, Indians were also attacking whites, the most serious occurrence being a November 23 raid on Warner's Ranch outside San Diego. Alarmed Californians organized a militia, but it was neither the militia nor the regular army that ultimately captured Antonio Garra; it was a band of Cahuilla Indians who had refused to take part in the rebellion. He and other rebels (including a Mexican and an Anglo-American, in addition to Indians) were tried and executed. The executions were followed by an attack on the Cahuilla villages of nearby Coyote Canyon. U.S. Army major H. P. Heintzelman mobilized 80 troopers and, on Christmas Day of 1851, defeated the rebel Cahuillas, who quickly signed a peace treaty.

Along the Colorado, however, Sweeny's garrison having departed, the Yumas maintained control until February 1852, when 500 soldiers arrived in San Diego. Half were sent to the Colorado. California recruits were added to this number until Heintzelman commanded some 400 men. They marched against some 500 rebel Indians, who were less well armed and supplied. Operating out of Fort Yuma, on the California side of the Colorado, Heintzelman's men raided villages during March and April to relatively little effect. About 16 warriors were killed, although numerous settlements were razed. Sweeny, who had headed south into Baja California, was more successful, burning two Cocopas villages on April 12, which led to the surrender of some 150 warriors, who agreed to help fight the Yumas.

In August 1852, a group of Mexican sheep drovers learned that the Yumas and neighboring tribes were planning an all-out attack on Fort Yuma at the end of the month. Heintzelman and Sweeny prepared for the onslaught, but it failed to materialize. Instead, the Yumas expressed their desire to talk peace. Sweeny arranged truce talks, and the Indians assembled near the Colorado River. Instead of approaching the warriors peacefully, Heintzelman ordered three companies of regulars to fix bayonets and charge. The Indians promptly retreated and, once again, requested a parley. Heintzelman again granted one, this time on August 27, and this time he kept his word—a 10-day truce was concluded. The truce stretched into several weeks of inconclusive peace while the parties wrangled over terms. On September 23, Heintzelman lost patience and renewed his campaign. On September 29, he surprised a band of Yumas near present-day Blythe, California. They fled without offering battle. Finally, on October 2, 1852, the Yumas held a grand council with the army, during which they negotiated both pardons and permanent peace.

Further reading: Alan Axelrod, *Chronicle of the Indian Wars from Colonial Times to Wounded Knee* (New York: Prentice Hall General Reference, 1993).

Z

Zanj Rebellion (869–883)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Zanj slaves vs. the Muslim caliphate
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Southern Mesopotamia
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The slaves sought freedom from oppression under the caliphate.
OUTCOME: For more than 15 years, the Zanj lived independently of their former masters; in 883 the rebellion was crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Thousands of slaves participated in the uprising; caliphate numbers are unknown.
CASUALTIES: Heavy among the Zanj in the final campaign of 883
TREATIES: None

This was a servile rebellion by thousands of black slaves (captured from East Africa) known as the Zanj. During the MUSLIM CIVIL WAR (861–870) the caliphate, torn by internal strife, was seriously weakened. Exploiting this, the Zanj rebelled against their masters in southern Mesopotamia.

Initially, the rebellion was highly successful, and the Zanj erected their own capital deep within the salt marshes outside Basra in 870. In 871, they stormed Basra, which fell to them. From this base, they gained considerable territory before armies dispatched by the Abbasid caliph al-Mo'tamid (d. 892) began fighting the Zanj. The caliph's forces whittled away at Zanj strength for more than 15 years. During that time, a low-level guerrilla war perisisted, and the caliphate's economy was seriously damaged by disruption in trade. At last, in 883, the Zanj were defeated by a major force under the leadership of al-Muwaffiq (fl. early 880s), brother to the Abbasid caliph.

Further reading: Tabari, *The Revolt of the Zanj,* trans. by David Waines (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1992).

Zanzibar Rebellion (1964)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Leftist African nationalists (Afro-Shirazi Party) vs. the sultanate of Zanzibar
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Zanzibar
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The African nationalists wanted to overthrow the sultanate and proclaim a communist people's republic.
OUTCOME: The sultanate was overthrown and a people's republic proclaimed in its place.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: 5,000 Arabs
TREATIES: None

Zanzibar was granted independence from Britain in 1963. The following year, black African Marxist nationalists who had been trained in the People's Republic of China staged a coup d'état against the Zanzibar government, an Arab sultanate. The Africans proclaimed a people's republic, sent the sultan, Jamshid ibn Abdullah (r. 1963–64), into exile, banned the two Arab political parties that had run the country, and launched a general persecution of Arabs. As many as 5,000 Arabs were killed by black military

personnel and mobs; thousands more were imprisoned, and their property was seized.

The new government, dominated by the Afro-Shirazi Party, instituted sweeping land reforms and measures to introduce a classless society into Zanzibar. Under President Julius Nyerere (b. 1922–99), the nation also merged with the like-minded leftist government of Tanganyika to create the United Republic of Tanzania.

Further reading: Anthony Clayton, *The Zanzibar Revolution and Its Aftermath* (Hamden, Conn.: Archon Books, 1981).

Zanzibar Uprising (1896)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Zanzibar vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Zanzibar and Zanzibar harbor
DECLARATION: Sultan of Zanzibar on Great Britain
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The sultan of Zanzibar mistook a friendly visit of the British fleet for an attack and started a war.
OUTCOME: Within minutes of beginning, the war ended.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Zanzibar lost more than 500 sailors and soldiers killed; British casualties were negligible.
TREATIES: None

This war has the distinction of being almost certainly the briefest recorded war in history—it lasted 37 minutes and 27 seconds. It was declared on Great Britain by the sultan of Zanzibar when a British fleet anchored in Zanzibar's harbor so that its personnel could participate in a cricket match ashore. Alarmed, the sultan assumed that the English were attacking and dispatched his navy's single battleship against the fleet. HMS *Glasgow* blew the sultan's ship out of the water as soon as it appeared. Then the fleet trained its guns on the sultan's palace, demolishing it. Casualties among the sultan's navy and army were over 500 killed. British casualties were negligible. The sultan fled to German East Africa, and other officials of the Zanzibar government immediately sued for peace.

Further reading: Abdul Sheriff and Ed Ferguson, eds. *Zanzibar under Colonial Rule* (Columbus: Ohio University Press, 1991).

Zebrzydowski's Insurrection *See* Polish Rebellion (1606–1607).

Zenobia's Conquest of Egypt (267)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Palmyra vs. Rome
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Palmyra and Egypt
DECLARATION: Unknown
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: After the co-ruler of Rome (in the East) was murdered, his wife Zenobia assumed real power. Doubting her loyalty, Roman emperor Gallienus invaded to reclaim control of the region.
OUTCOME: Zenobia defeated Rome, then for good measure invaded and conquered Egypt, making her the virtually independent ruler of not only Palmyra and Egypt but also Syria, Mesopotamia, and most of Asia Minor.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

Zenobia (d. after 274) was the beautiful and able wife of Septimus Odenathus (d. c. 267), Prince of Palmyra. A Romanized Arab who preferred Roman authority to that of Persia, Odenathus led a new Roman-Arab army to challenge Shapur's (d. 272) control of Roman dominions in the East during the Roman-Persian War (257–261), then in 262 invaded Persia itself (*see* Arab Invasion of Persia) before heading up a successful punitive expedition in 266 against the Goths, who were then ravaging Asia Minor. Odenathus, who was apparently accompanied and assisted in his campaigns by Zenobia, was so valuable to Rome that Emperor Gallienus (c. 218–68) had in 262 appointed him virtual co-ruler of the East, granting him the title "Dux Orientis."

Shortly after his Gothic campaign Odenathus was murdered, and he was then succeeded as prince of Palmyra by his son, Vaballathus (or Wahballat) (r. 270–71). But the real ruler of Palmyra—and, therefore, of the Roman East—was Zenobia. Emperor Gallienus, unsure of the queen's loyalty, sent an army to retake control of Rome's eastern dominions. In 267, backed by her general, Zobdas (fl. third century), Zenobia first defeated the Romans, then invaded and conquered Egypt. Thus she remained, secure in her virtual independence from Rome, until the rise of a new emperor, Lucius Domitius Aurelianus (c. 215–75), who was proclaimed caesar by the Roman army in 270. The next year, he determined to recapture the Roman East—Syria, Egypt, Mesopotamia, and most of Asia Minor—and launched a new war against the Palmyran queen (*see* Aurelian's War against Zenobia).

Further reading: Richard Stoneman, *Palmyra and Its Empire: Zenobia's Revolt against Rome* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1992).

Zulu Civil War (1817–1819)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Zulus vs. Ndwandwe (and other tribes)
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Zululand (Natal and South Africa)
DECLARATION: None

MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Shaka, chief of the Zulus, forged an army of conquest, with which he ravaged and dominated his neighbors to create a great African empire.
OUTCOME: Shaka and the Zulus emerged as the most powerful force in southern Africa.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown, but many Zulu "massacres" are recorded during this two-year period.
TREATIES: None

Shaka (c. 1787–1828), the great warrior leader of the Mtetwa people of South Africa, had rebelled against his father, Senzangakona (d. 1816), a Zulu chief. Upon the death of his father, Shaka returned to the Zulus and, with the aid of the principal chief of the Mtetwa, Dingiswayo (d. 1817), earned recognition as the new chief of the Zulus in 1816.

The bond between Shaka and Dingiswayo was powerful. The two allied their peoples against common enemies, including the Ndwandwe tribe led by Chief Zwide (d. 1819). In 1817, Zwide murdered Dingiswayo, and, in the absence of their chief, the Mtetwa rallied to Shaka and proclaimed themselves no longer Mtetwas but Zulus.

With his realm thus augmented, Shaka revealed himself a military genius. He enlarged the Zulu army and transformed it from a poorly armed and inadequately trained mob into a disciplined force, equipped with the assegai, a revolutionary light javelin far superior to the traditional long throwing spear. The assegai could be hurled or used in close combat. Shaka also discarded the small shield that warriors formerly used and adopted instead a shield that covered the entire front of the body. As for strategy and tactics, Shaka reexamined and revised these extensively. Traditionally, native warriors battled each other from a distance, threw their spears, jeered at each other, then ended the fight. It was rare that a clear-cut winner emerged from these halfhearted contests.

Shaka made his warriors fierce, encouraging them to move in close, protect themselves with the large shield, and slash with the short assegai. Using many of the same tactics that had once made the Roman legions the best fighting force in the world, Shaka's Zulu regiments, called *impis,* would overwhelm their opponents with a pressing frontal assault while the "horns" of the Zulu crescent battle formation swept around enemy flanks in a double envelopment. Although he had no cavalry, Shaka's loping *impis* covered ground as fast as mounted troops and ripped into enemy lines under a hail of hurled spears, stabbing their assegais at the rawhide shields of their opponents with a deadly and frighteningly controlled rhythm. In this way, ritual combat became outright war, and the Zulus became the foremost warriors of black Africa in the 19th century.

In 1819, at the Battle of Gqokoli Hill, Shaka led his troops to victory against the far superior numbers fielded by the Ndwandwes. In the rout that followed, Zwide was killed, and most of the Ndwandwes fled their lands, leaving vast tracts to be gathered up by Shaka. Following the victory over the Ndwandwes, Shaka initiated the *Mfecane*—"The Crushing"—a sequence of wars that ravaged the region surrounding Zululand through the early 1820s. At the end of the Crushing, Shaka was effectively monarch of a large Zulu empire, which extended over the region now occupied by Natal and other parts of South Africa.

Further reading: Ian Knight, *Warrior Chiefs of Southern Africa* (Poole, Dorset: Firebird Books; New York: Sterling, 1994).

Zulu Civil War (1856)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Forces of Cetewayo vs. forces of Mbulazi, brothers vying for the Zulu throne
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Zululand (region of KwaZulu/Natal province, South Africa)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Succession to the throne
OUTCOME: Cetewayo emerged victorious, killed his brother, and immediately succeeded his father.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Numbers unknown, but all followers of Mbulazi who had not fallen in battle were captured and executed.
TREATIES: None

Cetewayo (c. 1836–84) and Mbulazi (d. 1856) were as ambitious as their father, the Zulu king Umpanda (d. 1872), was passive and weak. The young men each recruited followers and met in a single, decisive battle at the Tugela River in December 1856. Cetewayo defeated his brother, who, along with some followers, survived the battle only to be executed later in captivity. Cetewayo's demonstration of ruthlessness and skill was enough to convince Umpanda to abdicate, and Cetewayo ascended the throne immediately.

Further reading: Ian Knight, *The Zulus* (London: Osprey, 1989).

Zulu Civil War (1883–1884)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: King Cetewayo and, later, his son, Dinizulu (with European aid) vs. Zibelu, a usurper
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Zululand (Natal and parts of South Africa)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Cetewayo, released from British imprisonment, sought to retake power from a usurper, Zibelu.

OUTCOME: Cetewayo was killed in battle, but his son Dinizulu succeeded in defeating the forces of Zibelu.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

The defeat of the Zulu king Cetewayo (c. 1836–84) at the hands of the British in the ZULU WAR of 1879 drove him into hiding. British authorities ultimately located him and incarcerated him. To the surprise of the British, Cetewayo behaved as a model prisoner, and this persuaded his jailers to release him and allow his return to Zululand in 1883. Cetewayo returned to discover that his place of authority had been usurped by one Zibelu (d. c. 1884). Cetewayo immediately rallied those loyal to himself to oppose those now loyal to Zibelu, and a civil war broke out between the two factions.

In 1884, after a year of fighting, Cetewayo was killed in combat. His son, Dinizulu (d. after 1889), succeeded to power and continued to prosecute the war. However, it was soon clear to Dinizulu that a stalemate had been reached. To break it, Dinizulu approached some European adventurers, who agreed to fight on his side in exchange for territory in northern Natal. This aid was sufficient to tip the balance, and Dinizulu defeated the forces loyal to Zibelu, who was presumably (but not certainly) killed in 1884.

The good feelings between Dinizulu and his European allies were short-lived. After continual conflicts between Dinizulu and the Europeans, the Zulu king was arrested in 1889 and exiled to St. Helena, the South Atlantic island that had served as the final prison for Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821; *see* ZULU REBELLION).

Further reading: Jeff Guy, *Destruction of the Zulu Kingdom: The Civil War in Zululand, 1879–1884* (London: Longman, 1979).

Zulu Rebellion (1887)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Zulus under Dinizulu vs. British colonial forces
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Zululand (region of KwaZulu/Natal province, South Africa)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: Dinizulu sought independence after the British annexation of Zululand.
OUTCOME: The rebellion was quickly crushed.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: Unknown
CASUALTIES: Unknown
TREATIES: None

During the period of the First BOER WAR, the British annexed Zululand (region of KwaZulu/Natal province, South Africa), which provoked the Zulu leader Dinizulu (d. after 1889), son of Cetewayo (c. 1836–84), to organize a revolt against the new overlords. Armed insurrection began in June and was crushed by August 1887. Dinizulu was convicted of treason in a British colonial court and went into exile in 1889.

Further reading: Ian Knight, *The Zulus* (London: Osprey, 1989).

Zulu War (1879)

PRINCIPAL COMBATANTS: Zulus vs. Great Britain
PRINCIPAL THEATER(S): Zululand (eastern South Africa)
DECLARATION: None
MAJOR ISSUES AND OBJECTIVES: The British sought the suppression of Zulu border disputes.
OUTCOME: After initial failures, British forces succeeded in defeating the Zulus; to suppress subsequent chronic uprisings, the British annexed Zululand.
APPROXIMATE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF MEN UNDER ARMS: At the culminating Battle of Ulandi, European (British) forces numbered 4,200 plus 1,000 native auxiliaries; the Zulus fielded 10,000 warriors.
CASUALTIES: At Isandhlwana, 895 British and 471 Kaffirs dead; Zulus, about 2,000 dead. At Ulandi, European (mostly British) losses numbered 100 killed; Zulu losses included at least 1,500 killed.
TREATIES: Surrender of Cetewayo, August 1879

For many years, the Zulus disputed the border of their country with the border of Boer settlement in the Transvaal (in South Africa). In 1877, the British annexed the Transvaal from the Boers and decided to settle the border dispute once and for all. British authorities simply demanded outright control of the disputed territory. King Cetewayo (c. 1836–84) of the Zulus responded with contempt, defiantly ignoring all demands. To compel compliance, the Crown dispatched a force under General Frederic A. Thesiger, baron Chelmsford (1868–1933), to invade Zululand.

The British invasion was met with fierce resistance. Using spears, the Zulus defeated the invaders at the Battle of Isandhlwana on January 22, 1879. There, while the central column (1,600 British soldiers and 2,500 Natal Kaffirs, African auxiliary troops) was off on reconnaissance, 20,000 Zulus attacked the British camp at dawn. The calamity-ridden 24th Regiment, which had suffered misfortune all over the empire—at Minorca, Talavera, and Chilanwala—now suffered the greatest defeat in its history. The regiment's Second Battalion lost 21 officers and

581 men. There were 950 British soldiers in the camp all told; the Zulus killed 895 of them. Also falling victim to the Zulus' assegais (short-bladed spears) were more than half (471) of the 850 Kaffirs on hand. The Zulus paid dearly, with some 2,000 deaths, but when it was over, they had handed the British Empire the worst defeat, in terms of lives lost, in its colonial history. Zulus also prevailed, at least to some degree, at Eshowe and Kambula, with ambushes and assaults that cost the British forces heavily.

During April and May of 1879, British reinforcements arrived, and the fighting intensified. When a volunteer for the British, the adventure-seeking Louis Bonaparte (1856–79), son of the deposed French emperor Napoleon III (1808–73), was killed in an ambush, the war in far-off Zululand suddenly became the center of international focus. More volunteers joined the British forces, which were additionally augmented. Under General Garnet J. Wolseley (1833–1913), the reinforced British forces advanced on the Zulu capital of Ulandi. There Wolseley's 4,200 European troops and 1,000 native auxiliaries were attacked by Cetewayo and 10,000 Zulus. Wolseley formed his troops into the classic hollow-square defensive formation and was able to break up each Zulu charge. This resulted in victory for the British and brought the main war to an end. European losses were about 100 killed, whereas Zulu casualties were 1,500 killed. Cetewayo fled the field but was captured on August 28. He capitulated unconditionally and was imprisoned. Individual pockets of resistance continued to emerge, however, and, to crush these, Great Britain annexed Zululand in 1887. This would lead to the Transvaal Revolt, better known as the First Boer War.

Further reading: Ian Knight, *Zulu War 1879: Twilight of a Warrior Nation* (London: Osprey, 1992).

Chronology

8000–700 B.C.E.

c. 8000 B.C.E.	Fall of Jericho
c. 2325 B.C.E.	Sargon's Conquests of Sumer
c. 2000 B.C.E.	Aryan Invasions
1728–1686 B.C.E.	Hammurabi's Unification of Mesopotamia
c. 1700–c. 1325 B.C.E.	Hittite Conquest of Anatolia
c. 1700–c. 1500 B.C.E.	Hurrian Conquests
c. 1674–c. 1567 B.C.E.	Hyksos Invasion of Egypt
c. 1620–c. 1325 B.C.E.	Hittite-Hurrian Wars
c. 1600 B.C.E.	Revolt of Thebes
c. 1469 B.C.E.	First Battle of Megiddo
c. 1400 B.C.E.	Fall of Crete
c. 1350–c. 1245 B.C.E.	Assyrian-Hurrian Wars
c. 1244–c. 1200 B.C.E.	Assyrian Wars
c. 1200–c. 1032 B.C.E.	Assyrian Wars
c. 1200 B.C.E.	Trojan War
c. 1032–c. 746 B.C.E.	Assyrian Wars
1028–1000 B.C.E.	Jewish-Philistine Wars
1027 B.C.E.	Shang-Zhou Dynastic Wars
c. 1120–950 B.C.E.	Dorian Invasions
1010–973 B.C.E.	King David's Wars of Conquest
743–733 B.C.E.	Assyrian Conquest of Palestine and Syria
c. 746–c. 609 B.C.E.	Assyrian Wars
c. 736–c. 716 B.C.E.	First Messenian War

700–600 B.C.E.

696–695 B.C.E.	Cimmerian Invasion of Phrygia
671–661 B.C.E.	Assyrian Conquest of Egypt
689 B.C.E.	Fall of Babylon
c. 670 B.C.E.	Lelantine War
c. 650–c. 630 B.C.E.	Second Messenian War
650–500 B.C.E.	Carthaginian Wars of Expansion
626 B.C.E.	Babylonian Revolt
616–612 B.C.E.	Fall of Assyria
612 B.C.E.	Fall of Nineveh
609 B.C.E.	Second Battle of Megiddo
605–561 B.C.E.	Nebuchadnezzer's Campaigns
601–538 B.C.E.	Babylonian Captivity of Jerusalem

600–500 B.C.E.

c. 590 B.C.E.	First Sacred War
590–585 B.C.E.	Median-Lydian War
559–509 B.C.E.	Persian Conquests
550–549 B.C.E.	Median-Persian Revolt
547–546 B.C.E.	Persian-Lydian War
522–521 B.C.E.	Persian Civil War
521–519 B.C.E.	Persian Revolts
c. 509–308 B.C.E.	Early Etruscan-Roman Wars

500–400 B.C.E.

500–448 B.C.E.	Greco-Persian Wars
c. 500–493 B.C.E.	Ionian Revolt
494 B.C.E.	Argive War
490 B.C.E.	Marathon Campaign
481–480 B.C.E.	Carthaginian-Syracusan War
480–479 B.C.E.	Persian Invasion of Greece
c. 471–469 B.C.E.	Arcadian War
c. 464–455 B.C.E.	Third Messenian War
460–445 B.C.E.	First Peloponnese War
c. 449–448 B.C.E.	Second Sacred War
438–426 B.C.E.	Roman War with Veii
435–433 B.C.E.	Corinthian-Corcyrean War
432–421 B.C.E.	Archidamian War
431–404 B.C.E.	Second (Great) Peloponnese War
424–423 B.C.E.	Brasidas's Invasion
409 B.C.E.	Hannibal's Destruction of Himera
406 B.C.E.	Hannibal's Sack of Acragas
405 B.C.E.	Himilco's War
405–396 B.C.E.	Roman War with Veii
401 B.C.E.	The Anabasis: Revolt of Cyrus

400–300 B.C.E.

400 B.C.E.	The Anabasis: March of the 10,000
398–397 B.C.E.	First Dionysius War
395–387 B.C.E.	Corinthian War
393–392 B.C.E.	Second Dionysius War
390 B.C.E.	Celtic Sack of Rome
382–376 B.C.E.	Third Dionysius War
379–371 B.C.E.	Theban-Spartan War
368–367 B.C.E.	Fourth Dionysius War
357–355 B.C.E.	Social War
355–346 B.C.E.	Third Sacred War
345–339 B.C.E.	Philip of Macedonia's Northern Conquests
344–339 B.C.E.	Timoleon's War
343–341 B.C.E.	First Samnite War
340–338 B.C.E.	Latin War
339–338 B.C.E.	Fourth Sacred War (Amphissean War)
335 B.C.E.	Alexander's Campaigns of Consolidation
334–330 B.C.E.	Alexander's Persian Campaign
333–332 B.C.E.	Siege of Tyre
332 B.C.E.	Alexander's Siege of Gaza
332–331 B.C.E.	Alexander's Occupation of Egypt
	Spartan Revolt
329 B.C.E.	Alexander's Advance into Central Asia
328–326 B.C.E.	Alexander's Invasion of India
327–304 B.C.E.	Second (Great) Samnite War
326 B.C.E.	July Mutiny of Alexander's Army
323–322 B.C.E.	Lamian War
323–275 B.C.E.	Wars of the Diadochi
323–180 B.C.E.	Conquests of the Mauryan Empire
311–306 B.C.E.	Agathocles's War against Carthage
c. 302–264 B.C.E.	Later Etruscan-Roman Wars

300–200 B.C.E.

298–290 B.C.E.	Third Samnite War
281 –272 B.C.E.	Roman War against Pyrrhus of Epirus
280–279 B.C.E.	Damascene War
278–276 B.C.E.	Carthaginian War against Pyrrhus of Epirus
274–271 B.C.E.	First Syrian-Egyptian War (Seleucid War)
266–261 B.C.E.	Chremonidean War
264–241 B.C.E.	First Punic War
260–255 B.C.E.	Second Syrian-Egyptian War
255 B.C.E.	Diodotus's Revolt
246–241 B.C.E.	Third Syrian-Egyptian War (Laodicean War of Berenice)
241–237 B.C.E.	Carthaginian Civil War
239–229 B.C.E.	War of Demetrius
230 B.C.E.	Euthydemus's Revolt
229–228 B.C.E.	First Illyrian War
228–226 B.C.E.	Spartan-Achaean War
224–221 B.C.E.	Syrian War with Pergamum
219 B.C.E.	Second Illyrian War
219–217 B.C.E.	Fourth Syrian-Egyptian War
	Social War
218–202 B.C.E.	Second Punic War
215–205 B.C.E.	First Macedonian War
209–208 B.C.E.	Invasion of Partha by Antiochus III
208–206 B.C.E.	Bactrian-Syrian War
202–198 B.C.E.	Fifth Syrian-Egyptian War

200–100 B.C.E.

c. 200 B.C.E.	Xiongnu Invasion of China
c. 200–c.175 B.C.E.	Bactrian-Hellenic Invasion of India
200–196 B.C.E.	Second Macedonian War
193–192 B.C.E.	Spartan-Achaean War
192–189 B.C.E.	Syrian-Roman Wars
189–188 B.C.E.	Spartan-Achaean War
172–167 B.C.E.	Third Macedonian War
c. 167–c. 160 B.C.E.	Bactrian-Parthian War
168–143 B.C.E.	Revolt of the Maccabees
c. 161–159 B.C.E.	Timarchus' Revolt
154–133 B.C.E.	Celtiberian Wars
152–146 B.C.E.	Fourth Macedonian War
150 B.C.E.	Parthian Conquest of Media
c. 150–c. 140 B.C.E.	Menander's Wars of Expansion
149–146 B.C.E.	Third Punic War
147–139 B.C.E.	Lusitanian War
146 B.C.E.	Achaean War
141–139 B.C.E.	Syrian-Parthian War
140–80 B.C.E.	Wudi Conquests
137–133 B.C.E.	Numantian War
135–132 B.C.E.	First Servile War
133–129 B.C.E.	Conquest of Pergamum
130–127 B.C.E.	Syrian-Parthian War
112–106 B.C.E.	Jugurthine War (Numidian War)
111 B.C.E.	Chinese Conquest of Nam Viet
104–101 B.C.E.	Roman War with the Cimbri and Teutones
104–99 B.C.E.	Second Servile War

Last Century B.C.E.

93–92 B.C.E.	Roman-Armenian War
91–88 B.C.E.	Social War
88–84 B.C.E.	First Mithradatic War

84–82 B.C.E.	Roman Civil War
83–81 B.C.E.	Second Mithradatic War
80–72 B.C.E.	Sertorian War
78–77 B.C.E.	Revolt of Lepidus
75–65 B.C.E.	Third Mithradatic War
73 B.C.E.	First Xiongnu Invasion of Turkestan
73–71 B.C.E.	Third Servile War (Gladiators' Revolt, Revolt of Spartacus)
72–66 B.C.E.	Roman-Armenian War
67 B.C.E.	Pompey-Pirate War
63–62 B.C.E.	Catiline Insurrection
58 B.C.E.	Gallic Wars: Ariovistusian Campaign
	Gallic Wars: Helevtian Campaign
57 B.C.E.	Gallic Wars: Belgian Campaign
56 B.C.E.	Gallic Wars: Morinian and Menapiian Campaign
	Gallic Wars: Veneti Campaign
55 B.C.E.	Gallic Wars: First Invasion of Britain
	Gallic Wars: Germanic Campaign
55–36 B.C.E.	Roman-Parthian War
54 B.C.E.	Second Xiongnu Invasion of Turkestan
54–52 B.C.E.	Gallic Wars: Revolt of the Gauls
	Gallic Wars: Second Invasion of Britain
53 B.C.E.	Gallic Wars: Revolt of the Belgae
53–52 B.C.E.	Gallic Wars: Revolt in Central Gaul
51 B.C.E.	Gallic Wars: Final Pacification of Gaul
50–1 B.C.E.	Saka and Andhra Wars
49–45 B.C.E.	Great Roman Civil War
47 B.C.E.	Caesar's War in Pontus
43–31 B.C.E.	Roman Civil War
40–36 B.C.E.	Octavian's War against Pompey
33–30 B.C.E.	Octavian's War against Antony
24 B.C.E.–16 C.E.	Roman Northern Frontier Wars

First Century C.E.

6–9	Pannonian Revolts
c. 17	Red Eyebrow Revolt
39–43	Trung Sisters' Rebellion
43–61	Roman Conquest of Britain
56–63	Roman-Parthian War
60–61	Boudicca's Revolt
68–69	Roman Civil War
69–71	Batavian Revolt
66–73	Jewish Revolt
72–73	Siege of Masada
73–102	Pan Chao's Central Asia Campaigns

100

101–102	First Dacian War
105–107	Second Dacian War
113–117	Roman Eastern War
115–117	Jewish Revolt
132–135	Bar Cocheba's Revolt
162–165	Roman Eastern War
184–c. 204	Yellow Turban Rebellion
190–215	Five Pecks of Rice
193–197	Roman Civil War
195–202	Roman-Parthian War

200

c. 205–450	Saxon Raids: Early Raids
220–264	Three Kingdoms' Civil Wars: Shu Dynastic Wars
222–280	Three Kingdoms' Civil Wars: Wu Dynastic Wars
230–233	Roman-Persian War
235–268	Roman Civil War
238	Roman Civil War
241–244	Roman-Persian War
249–252	First Roman-Gothic War
c. 250	Persian-Kushan War
252–268	Second Roman-Gothic War
257–261	Roman-Persian War
262–264	Arab Invasion of Persia
265–280	Three Kingdoms' Civil Wars: Chin Dynastic Wars
266	Odeanthus' Gothic Campaign
267	Zenobia's Conquest of Egypt
270	Third Roman-Gothic War
271	Roman-Alemannic War
271–273	Aurelian's War against Zenobia
273	Egyptian Revolt
273–274	Aurelian's War against Tetricus
282–283	Roman-Persian War
284–285	Roman Civil War
295–297	Roman-Persian War
298	Alemannic Invasion of Gaul

300

306–307	Roman Civil War
310	Maximian's Revolt
311–312	Roman Civil War
313	Roman Civil War
314–324	Roman Civil War
320–467	Conquests of the Gupta Dynasty

332–334	Gothic-Sarmatian War
332–390	Early Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire
337–363	Roman-Persian War
350–351	Roman Civil War
360–361	Roman Civil War
366	Procopius's Eastern Revolt
367–369	Fourth Roman-Gothic War
371–372	Firmus's Revolt
374–375	Roman Wars with the Quadi and Sarmatians
376	Hun Invasion of Gothic Empire
377–383	Fifth Roman-Gothic War
c. 380	Avar-Xiongnu War
390–408	Stilicho's Wars with the Visigoths
392–394	Revolt of Arbogast and Eugenius
c. 395–405	Irish Raids in Britain

400

c. 400–c. 450	White Hun (or Ephthalite or Hunas) Invasion of Gandhara
401–404	Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire: Alaric's First Invasion of Italy
c. 407–500	Saxon Raids: Invasion of Britain by Angles, Saxons, and Jutes
409	Hun Raids: Hun Invasion of Thrace
409	Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire: Alaric's Second Invasion of Italy
410	Visigothic Sack of Rome
412–414	Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire: Visigoth Invasion of Gaul
415–419	Visigothic Raids on the Roman Empire: Visigoth Invasion of Spain
420–428	Vandal Raids: Vandal Resurgence in Spain
421–422	Roman-Persian War
424–425	Hun Raids: Eastern Empire's Italian Expedition
428	Vandal Raids: Bonifacius's Revolt
429–435	Vandal Raids: Vandal Invasion of Africa
431	Hun Raids: Eastern Empire's African Expedition
431–446	Chinese-Cham War
433–441	Hun Raids: Attila's Eastern Conquests
435–450	Vandal Raids: Gasieric's Wars of Expansion
441	Roman-Persian War
441–443	Hun Raids: Attila's First Invasion of Eastern Empire
447	Hun Raids: Attila's Second Invasion of Eastern Empire
450–453	Hun Raids: Attila's Invasion of Western Empire
455	Vandal Raids: Vandal Sack of Rome
456	Visigoth Invasion of Spain
457–461	Majorian's Barbarian Campaigns
461–477	Vandal Raids: Gasieric's Wars of Expansion
461–486	Visigoth Wars of Expansion
468	Roman War with the Vandals
488–489	Theodoric's Invasion of Italy
489–493	Theodoric's War with Odoacer
492–498	Isaurian War
496	Frankish-Alemannic War of

500

500	Burgundian-Frankish War
c. 500–565	Lombard Conquest of Central Danube Valley
c. 500–537	Saxon Raids: Arthur's Defensive Wars
500–583	Ghassanid-Lakhmid Wars
502–506	Roman-Persian War
506–507	Visigothic-Frankish War
523–534	Burgundian-Frankish War
524–532	Justinian's First Persian War
530–600	Bulgar and Slav Raids
532	Nika Revolt
533–534	Vandal-Roman Wars in North Africa
534–554	Gothic (Italian) War
534–600	Saxon Raids: Saxon Campaigns in South Central Britain
539–562	Justinian's Second Persian War
541–547	Ly Bon's Rebellion
543–655	Wars of the Chalukya Dynasty
562–600	Avar Wars for Empire
568–585	Lombard Invasion of Italy
572–591	Roman-Persian War
593–616	Aethelfrith's Wars
595–602	Byzantine-Avar War

600

602	Phocas's Mutiny
603–626	Byzantine-Avar War
603–628	Byzantine-Persian War
605	Chinese-Cham War
610–614	Sino-Korean War

613–618 Revolts against Yangdi
620 Chalukyan War against Harsha
624–630 Mecca-Medina War
629–641 Chinese Wars with Eastern Turks
633–641 Oswald's Wars
633–642 Byzantine-Muslim War
634–651 Muslim Conquest of Persia
639–642 Muslim Invasion of Egypt
641 Sino-Tibetan War
641–648 First Chinese War with the Western Turks
645–647 Sino-Korean War
645–656 Byzantine-Muslim War
648–649 Sino-Indian War
656 Muslim Revolt
657–661 Muslim Civil War
657–659 Second Chinese War with the Western Turks
660–668 Sino-Korean War
661–663 Muslim Invasion of India
668–679 Byzantine-Muslim War
670–679 First Frankish Civil War
670–975 Chalukyan-Pallavan Wars
672 Japanese Civil War
674–676 Muslim Invasion of Transoxiana
680–692 Muslim Civil War
681–683 Muslim Invasion of Morocco
685 Anglian-Pictish War
687 Second Frankish Civil War
688–699 Arab Conquest of Carthage
698–718 Byzantine-Muslim War
699–701 Afghan Revolt

700

708–712 Muslim Conquest of Sind
711–718 Muslim Conquest of Spain
714–719 Third Frankish Civil War
716 Muslim Invasion of Transcaspia
718–732 First Frankish-Moorish War
720–721 Revolt of Anastasius II
726–731 First Iconoclastic War
726–731 Revolt in Ravenna
727–733 Khazar-Muslim Caucasus War
733–750 Aethelbald's Wars
734–759 Second Frankish-Moorish War
735 Aquitainian Rebellion
739 Byzantine-Muslim War
741–742 Revolt of the Kharijites
741–743 Second Iconoclastic War
741–752 Byzantine-Muslim War
743–747 Muslim Civil War
747–749 Abbasid Rebellion (Abu Muslim's Revolt)
751–774 Chinese War with Nanchao
752 Chalukyan-Rashtrakutan Wars
755–763 An Lushan's Rebellion
755–772 Bulgarian-Byzantine War
757–758 Pepin's Campaigns in Germany
760–768 Pepin's Campaigns in Aquitaine
762 Shi'ite Rebellion
763–821 Sino-Tibetan War
763 Tassilio's (of Bavaria) Revolt
764–765 Japanese Civil War
771–796 Offa's Wars
771–814 Charlemagne's Conquests
772–804 Charlemagne's War against the Saxons
773–774 Charlemagne's Defeat of Desiderius
775–778 Revolt of Muqanna
777–801 Charlemagne's Invasion of Northern Spain
778–783 Byzantine-Muslim War
780–783 Bulgarian-Byzantine War
791–796 Frankish-Avarian War
793–870 Early Viking Raids in England
795–1014 Viking Raids in Ireland
797–798 Byzantine-Muslim War
799–886 Early Viking Raids in France

800

800–994 Viking Raids in the North Sea
800–1025 Palan Wars
803–809 Byzantine-Muslim War
803–810 Frankish-Byzantine War
806–809 Khorasan Rebellion
808–817 Bulgarian-Byzantine War
809–813 Muslim Civil War
814–819 Shi'ite Rebellion
816–838 Khurramites' Revolt
818 Revolt of the Arrabal (Revolt of the Suburb)
825–907 Viking Raids in Russia
829–874 Tang-Nanchao Wars
830–841 Byzantine-Muslim War
848 T'ang-Tibetan Border War
851–863 Byzantine-Muslim War
861–870 Muslim Civil War
862 First Magyar Raid
866–876 Saffarid Revolt
867–872 Paulician War
869–883 Zanj Rebellion
871–885 Byzantine-Muslim War
871–896 Viking Raids against Alfred
889–897 Bulgarian-Byzantine War
c. 894–955 Magyar Raids in the Holy Roman Empire
895 Bulgar-Magyar War

896–911	Later Viking Raids in France
899–906	Karmathian Revolt
899–1016	Later Viking Raids in England

900

902–909	Fatimid Shi'ite Revolt
906–976	Song (Sung) Dynastic Wars
907–939	Chinese-Annamese War
907–954	Magyar Raids in France
c. 910	Cholan-Pandyan War
912–928	Spanish Christian-Muslim War
913–927	Bulgarian-Byzantine War
921–923	Robert's Revolt
922	Fatimid Conquest of Morocco
930	Sack of Mecca
934–947	Kharijite Rebellion
936–941	Japanese Civil War
936–944	Muslim Civil War
938–941	German Civil Wars
c. 940–972	Rashtrakutan-Cholan War
973–975	Chalukyan-Rashtrakutan Wars
942–972	Conquests of Otto the Great
945–948	Muslim Civil War
954–955	Great Magyar Raid
960–976	Byzantine-Muslim War
967–968	Pecheneg Invasion of Russia
969	Fatimid Conquest of Egypt, Palestine, and Syria
969–972	Russian-Bulgarian War
970–972	Byzantine-Russian War
972–980	Russian Dynastic War
976–977	Muslim Civil War
976–989	Byzantine Revolts
977–997	Spanish Christian-Muslim War
978–980	Franco-German War
979–1004	Chinese War with the Khitans
981–985	Conquests of Vladimir
981–1018	Bulgarian-Byzantine War
983–1002	Henry the Wrangler's Revolt
c. 990–c. 1070	Chalukyan-Cholan Wars
990–1003	First Chinese War with the Tanguts
995–996	Byzantine-Syrian War
995–999	Byzantine-Muslim War

1000

c. 1000–1030	Conquests of Mahmud of Ghazna
1000–1044	Vietnamese-Cham War
1001–1031	Spanish Christian-Muslim War
1002	Ardoin's Revolt
1004–1014	Ardoin's Wars
1006–1007	Revolt of Baldwin of Flanders
1015–1025	Russian Dynastic War
1019–1025	Russo-Polish War
1026–1030	Scandinavian War
1030–1035	Byzantine-Muslim Wars
1040–1041	Bulgarian Revolt
1040–1043	Second Chinese War with the Tanguts
1040–1057	Macbeth's Wars
1043	Revolt of Maniaces
1046	Hungarian Pagan Uprising
1048–1049	Byzantine-Seljuk Turk War
1050–1051	Khmer-Cham War
1051–1062	Japanese Earlier Nine Years' War
1054–1076	Almoravid Conquest of West Africa
1054–1136	Cuman Invasion of Russia
1057–1061	Chinese-Annamese War
1064–1081	Byzantine-Seljuk Turk War
1066	Norman Conquest
1066–1134	Swedish Civil War
1068	War of the Three Sanchos
1068–1069	Romanus's Early Campaigns
1068–1074	Vietnamese-Cham War
1072	William I's Invasion of Scotland
1075–1079	Chinese-Annamese War
1076	William I's Invasion of Normandy
1077–1082	Norman-French War
1077–1106	German Civil War
1079	Viking Conquest of the Isle of Man
1079–1080	Anglo-Scottish War
1081–1084	Holy Roman Empire–Papacy War
1081–1085	First Norman-Byzantine War
1083–1087	Japanese Later Three Years' War
1085	Castilian Conquest of Toledo
1086–1094	Almoravid Conquest of Muslim Spain
1086–1091	Bogomils' Revolt
1087	Franco-Norman War
1089–1094	The Cid's Conquest of Valencia
1089–1096	William II's War with Robert Curthose
1091–1093	William II's Invasion of Scotland
1094	Byzantine Civil War
1095–1099	First Crusade
1098–1108	Second Norman-Byzantine War

1100

1100–1146	Crusader-Turkish Wars
1102–1108	Muslim Civil War
1103	Vietnamese-Cham War
1109–1112	Aragonese-Castilian War
1109–1113	Anglo-French War

1110–1117	Byzantine-Seljuk Turk War
1114–1122	Juchen Mongol Conquest of the Liao
1116–1119	Anglo-French War
1123–1135	Anglo-French War
1123–1136	Vietnamese-Khmer War
1125–1162	Juchen Mongol Invasion of the Song Empire
1137–1157	Danish Civil War
1138–1142	Welf Rebellion
1138–1154	English Dynastic War
1140	Portuguese-Castilian War
1144–1150	Khmer-Cham War
1146–1172	Almohad Conquest of Muslim Spain
1147–1149	Second Crusade
1148–1152	Afghan War between Ghur and Ghazna
1147–1158	Sicilian-Byzantine War
1150–1152	Serb Rebellion
1150–1160	Cham Civil War
1156	Hogen War
c. 1156–1181	Chalukyan Civil War
1157	Henry II's Campaign in Wales
1158–1176	Byzantine-Seljuk Turk War
1159–1160	Heiji War
1159–1189	Anglo-French War
1160–1168	Danish War against the Wends
1165	Henry II's Campaign in Wales
1167–1183	Wars of the Lombard League
1167–1190	Khmer-Cham War
1170–1171	Sicilian-Byzantine War
1170–1177	Venetian-Byzantine War
1171	Hungarian-Venetian War
1172–1212	Spanish Christian-Muslim War
1173–1174	Anglo-Norman Rebellion
1175–1206	Conquests of Muhammad of Ghur
1180–1185	Gempei War (Taira-Minamoto War)
1180–1196	Serb War of Independence
1181–1189	Chalukyan Civil War
1185	Sicilian-Byzantine War
1185–1189	Asens' Uprising
1187–1189	Saladin's Holy War
1189–1192	Third Crusade
1190–1206	Genghis Khan's Unification of Mongolia
1191–1203	Khmer-Cham War
1196–1200	Muslim Dynastic War
1197–1214	German Civil War

1200

1202–1204	Anglo-French War Fourth Crusade
1204–1222	First Latin Empire–Byzantine Empire War
1206–1209	Genghis Khan's First War with the Hsia Empire
1207–1211	Byzantine War
1208–1228	Delhi Sultanate Wars with Ghazna and Ghur
1208–1229	Albigensian Crusade
1209–1213	Aragonese-French War
1211–1215	Genghis Khan's War with the Chin Empire
1212	Children's Crusade
1213–1214	Anglo-French War
1214–1216	Anglo-Scottish War
1214–1218	Castilian Civil War
1215–1217	English Civil War
1217	Genghis Khan's Conquest of Kara-Khitai
1217–1221	Fifth Crusade
1218–1221	First Mongol-Persian War
1219–1227	Danish-Estonian War
1220	Fall of Bukhara
1221	Jokyu War
1221–1223	First Mongol Invasion of Russia
1221–1398	Mongol Invasions of India
1222–1241	Byzantine Civil War
1224–1237	Second Latin Empire–Byzantine Empire War
1226–1227	Genghis Khan's Second War with the Hsia Empire
1228–1229	Sixth Crusade
1228–1241	Holy Roman Empire–Papacy War
1230–1243	Second Mongol-Persian War
1230–1248	Spanish Christian-Muslim War
1231–1234	Mongol Conquest of the Chin Empire
1231–1241	Mongol Invasion of Korea
1233–1283	Teutonic Knights' Conquest of Prussia
1234–1279	Mongol Conquest of the Song Empire
1236–1240	Second Mongol Invasion of Russia
1237–1242	Mongol Invasion of Europe
1240–1242	Russo-Swedish War
1242–1243	Anglo-French War
1243–1250	Holy Roman Empire–Papacy War
1248–1254	Seventh Crusade
1255–1260	Mongol Conquest of the Abbasid Caliphate
1255–1270	Venetian-Genoese War
1257–1288	Vietnamese-Mongol War
1259–1264	Byzantine Civil War

1260–1264	Mongol Civil War
1260–1270	Bohemian-Hungarian War
1261–1262	Golden Horde–Il-Khan Civil War
1261–1265	Bulgarian-Byzantine War
1261–1267	Third Latin Empire–Byzantine Empire War
1263	Norwegian Invasion of Scotland
1263–1265	Barons' War
1270	Eighth Crusade
1271–1272	Ninth Crusade
1272–1291	Crusader-Turkish Wars
1274	First Mongol Invasion of Japan
1274–1278	Hapsburg-Bohemian War
1277–1287	Mongol-Burmese War
1281	Second Mongol Invasion of Japan
1282–1284	English Conquest of Wales
1282	Sicilian Vespers Rebellion and Massacre
1282–1302	War of the Sicilian Vespers
1284–1285	Aragonese-French War
1291–1299	Venetian-Genoese War
1294–1298	Anglo-French War
1295–1296	Scottish War
1297–1305	Wallace's Revolt
1299–1312:	Delhi Sultanate Wars with Gujarat and Malwa
1299–1300	Mongol-Burmese War
	Mongol Invasion of Syria

1300

1300–1303	Anglo-French War
1301–1308	Hungarian Civil War
1302–1311	Catalan Company Raids
1302–1326	Byzantine-Ottoman Turk War
1305–1312	Polish-Bohemian War
1306–1314	Bruce's Revolt
1307–1313	Delhi Sultanate Raids in South India
1309–1343	Teutonic Knights' War with Poland
1310	Tiepolo's Rebellion
1312–1326	Vietnamese-Cham War
1313–1406	Florentine Wars against Pisa
1314	Campaign of Bannockburn
1314–1325	German Civil War
1314–1328	Scottish War
1320–1323	Luccan-Florentine War
1321–1328	Byzantine Civil War
1322	Rebellion of the Marches
1323–1326	Aragonese Conquest of Sardinia
1329–1338	Byzantine–Ottoman Turk War
1331–1333	Japanese Civil War
1334–1335	Revolt of Madura
1335	Revolt of Takauji
1336–1392	Japanese Civil Wars
1337–1457	Hundred Years' War
1339	Burgundian-Swiss War
1341–1347	Byzantine Civil War
1341–1365	War of the Breton Succession
1342–1346	Hungarian-Venetian War
1343	Florentine Revolt
1343–1345	Estonian Revolt (St. George's Day Revolt)
1346–1347	Bahmani-Delhi Sultanate War
1347–1348	Aragonese Civil War
1348	Danish War with Holstein
1350–1355	Venetian-Genoese War
1350–1410	Vijayanagar Wars with Bahmani
1351	Florentine-Milanese War
1351–1358	Scottish Invasion of Ireland
1352–1354	Aragonese-Genoese War
1352–1355	Byzantine Civil War
c. 1352–1444	Khmer-Thai Wars
1355–1356	Raids of Edward the Black Prince
1356–1368	Mongol-Chinese War
1357–1358	Hungarian-Venetian War
1358–1359	Florentine War against the Great Company
1358	Jacquerie
1359–1399	Byzantine-Ottoman Turk War
1359–1381	Golden Horde Dynastic War
1361–1363	First Danish War with the Hanseatic League
1367	Black Prince's Navarette Campaign
1367–1370	Second Danish War with the Hanseatic League
1368–1408	Burmese Civil War
1368	Gascon Nobles' Revolt
1369–1372	Ottoman Conquest of Bulgaria
1369–1388	Portuguese-Castilian Wars
1371–1378	Thai War
1375–1376	Güglers War
1375–1378	War of the Eight Saints
1378	Revolt of the Ciompi
	Vijayanagar Conquest of Madura
1378–1381	Hungarian-Venetian War
	War of Chioggia
1381	English Peasants' Revolt (Wat Tyler's Rebellion)
1381–1382	Russian Rebellion against the Mongols
1382	Maillotin Uprising
1385–1388	Austro-Swiss War
1385–1386	Tamerlane's First War against Toktamish
1387	English Barons' Revolt

1387–1389	"Town War" (German Town War)
1387–1390	Thai War
1390–1419	Bohemian Civil War
1391–1395	Tamerlane's Second War against Toktamish
1394–1399	English Invasions of Ireland
1396	Crusade of Nicopolis
1397–1402	Florentine-Milanese War
1398–1402	Chinese Civil War
1398–1399	Tamerlane's Invasion of India
1399	Henry of Bolingbroke's Revolt

1400

1400–1407	Vietnamese Civil War
1400–1411	German Civil War
1402–1409	Glendower's Revolt
1403–1411	Appenzell War
1403	Percy's Rebellion
1403–1413	Ottoman Civil War
1403–1416	Swiss War against Savoy
1404–1406	Venetian-Milanese War
1405–1407	Vietnamese-Chinese War
1408	Northumberland's Rebellion
1408–1417	Burmese Civil War
1409–1435	Kalmar War with Holstein
1410–1411	Teutonic Knights' War with Poland and Lithuania
1411	Macdonald Rebellion
	Thai War
1411–1413	Armagnac-Burgundian Civil War
1413	Cabochien Revolt
c. 1414–1493	Delhi Sultanate Wars with Jaunpur
1415	Portuguese Conquest of Ceuta
1416	Venetian-Turkish War
1418–1428	Vietnamese-Chinese War
1419–1436	Hussite Wars
1421–1428	Cham Invasion of the Mekong Delta
1422	Byzantine-Ottoman Turk War
1422–1435	Kalmar War with the Hanseatic League
1423–1434	Hussite Civil War
1425–1430	Venetian-Turkish War
1425–1453	Russian Civil War
1426	Venetian-Milanese War
1426–1440	Burmese Civil War
1427–1428	Venetian-Milanese War
c. 1428–1502	Aztec Wars of Expansion
1429	Siege of Orléans
1429–1433	Venetian-Milanese War
1433–1439	Scandinavian Revolt
1435–1442	Aragonese-Neapolitan War
1436–1450	Old Zurich War
1437–1438	Hungarian-Turkish War
1438–1439	Polish-Bohemian War
1438–1446	Burmese-Chinese War
1439–1440	Hungarian Civil War
1439–1457	Hapsburg Dynastic Wars
1440	Praguerie
1441–1444	Hungarian-Turkish War
1442–1448	Thai War
1443–1453	Venetian-Turkish War
1443–1478	Albanian-Turkish Wars
1444–1456	Hungarian-Turkish War
1446–1471	Vietnamese-Cham War
1447–1450	Milanese Civil War
1448–1451	Bohemian Civil War
1448–1454	Venetian-Milanese War
1448–1471	Scandinavian War
1449	Portuguese Civil War
1450	Cade's Rebellion
1450–1550	Japanese Civil Wars
1451–1456	Thai War
1453–1461	Byzantine–Ottoman Turk War
1454–1466	Thirteen Years' War
1455	Douglas Rebellion
1455–1485	Wars of the Roses
1458–1471	Portuguese-Moroccan War
1459–1463	Bosnian-Turkish War
1460	Austro-Swiss War
1461–1464	Thai War
1461–1472	Catalan Revolt
1463–1479	Venetian-Turkish War
1463–1483	Hungarian-Turkish War
1464–1465	Franco-Burgundian Wars
1465–1471	Bohemian Civil War
1465	War of the Monks
1467–1477	Franco-Burgundian Wars
	Onin War
1468–1478	Bohemian-Hungarian War
1469–1471	Warwick's Rebellion
1471–1479	Muscovite Conquest of Novgorod
1474–1479	Castilian Civil War
1474–1475	Thai War
1474–1477	Burgundian-Swiss War
1475	Anglo-French War
1477–1485	Hungarian War with the Holy Roman Empire
1477–1492	Austrian Netherlands Civil War
1477–1493	Franco-Austrian War
1478	Swiss-Milanese War
1480	Og's Rebellion
1481–1482	Ottoman Civil War
1481–1483	Portuguese Civil War
1481–1492	Spanish Christian-Muslim War
1482	Anglo-Scottish War
1482–1484	Ferrarese War
1483	Buckingham's Revolt

1484–1504	Polish-Turkish War
1485–1486	Florentine War with the Papal States
1485–1486	Neapolitan Revolt
1485–1491	Mamluk-Ottoman War
1486–1487	Simnel's Rebellion
1488	Henry VII's First Invasion of Brittany
	Scottish Barons' Revolt
1488–1491	Guerre Folle ("Mad War")
1489–1492	Henry VII's Second Invasion of Brittany
c. 1490–1512	Bahmani Civil War
1491–1492	Siege of Granada
1492	Thai War
1492–1494	Hungarian-Turkish War
1494–1495	Italian War of Charles VIII
1495–1499	Warbeck's Rebellion
1497–1500	Danish-Swedish War
1497	Flammock's Rebellion
1499	Austro-Swiss War (Swiss-Swabian War)
1499–1503	Italian War of Louis XII
	Russo-Polish War
1499–1503	Venetian-Turkish War

1500

1500–1503	Persian Civil War
c. 1500–1529	Thai War
1500–1545	Portuguese Conquests in India and the East Indies
1501–1512	Danish-Swedish War
1503–1504	Bavarian War (War of the Landshut Succession)
1505–1511	Spanish Conquests in North Africa
1506–1508	Russo-Polish War
1507–1527	Burmese Civil War
1508–1510	War of the League of Cambrai
1508–1511	Spanish Conquest of Puerto Rico
1509–1513	Ottoman Civil War
1509–1547	Portuguese Campaigns against Diu
1509–1565	Vijayanagar Wars
1510–1514	War of the Holy League
1511–1512	Campaigns of Gaston of Foix
1511–1515	Spanish Conquest of Cuba
1512	Ferrarese War against the Papal States
1512–1521	Russo-Polish War
1513	Anglo-Scottish War
1514	Dózsa's Rebellion (Hungarian Peasants' Revolt)
1514–1516	Turko-Persian War
1515–1523	Babur's Raids on the Punjab
1514–1517	Mamluk-Persian-Ottoman War
1519–1521	Spanish Conquest of Mexico
1520–1521	Comuneros' Uprising in Spain
1520–1523	Kalmar Civil War
1521–1525	First Italian War between Charles V and Francis I
1521–1526	Hungarian-Turkish War
1522–1523	Knights' War
	Spanish Conquest of Nicaragua
1524	Babur's Lahore Campaign
1524–1525	Peasants' War
1525–1526	Babur's Invasion of North India
1526–1529	Hungarian Civil War
1526–1530	Second Italian War between Charles V and Francis I
1526–1555	Turko-Persian War
1527–1537	Spanish Conquest of North Mexico (North America)
1527–1546	Spanish Conquest of Yucatán
1528–1529	Babur's Conquest of Bihar and Bengal
1529	Kappel War
1529–1533	Austro-Turkish War
1531	Kappel War
1531–1536	Lübeck's War
1531–1533	Spanish Conquest of Peru
1533–1536	Count's War
1534–1537	Russo-Polish War
1535–1536	Early Mogul Wars against the Sur Dynasty
	First Mogul War against Gujarat
	Inca Revolt
1535–1538	Third Italian War between Charles V and Francis I
1535–1546	Burmese Civil War
1535–1600	Portuguese North Java Wars
1537–1539	Sher Khan's Revolt
1537–1540	Venetian-Turkish War
1537–1547	Austro-Turkish War
1537–1548	Spanish Civil Wars in Peru
1540–1542	Spanish Conquest of the Pueblos
1540–1547	Hungarian Civil War
1540–1561	Spanish Conquest of Chile
1541	Mixton Rebellion
1542–1543	Dacke's War (Dacke's Rebellion, Smaland Uprising)
1542–1544	Fourth Italian War between Charles V and Francis I
1542–1546	Anglo-French War
1542–1549	Anglo-Scottish War
1546	Mayan Revolt
1546–1547	Schmalkaldic War
1547–1559	Hapsburg-Valois War
1548	Siamese-Burmese War

1549	Arundel's Rebellion
	Kett's Rebellion
1549–1550	Anglo-French War
1550–1588	Portuguese War against Ternate
1551–1553	Austro-Turkish War
1551–1559	Burmese Civil War
1554	Wyatt's Rebellion
1556–1557	Later Mogul Wars against the Sur Dynasty
1557–1560	Anglo-French War
1558	Burmese-Laotian War
1558–1583	Livonian War
1559	Ottoman Civil War
1559–1560	Anglo-Scottish War
1559–1560	Scottish Uprising against Mary of Guise
1560–1584	Japanese Civil Wars
1561–1595	Mogul Conquest of Rajasthan
1562–1563	First War of Religion
1562–1568	Swedish Civil War
1563–1569	Siamese-Burmese War
1563–1570	Danish-Swedish War
1564	Boyars' Revolt
1564–1565	Burmese-Laotian War
1565–1581	Mogul-Afghan War
1566	Austro-Turkish War
1567–1568	Scottish Uprising against Mary Queen of Scots
	Second War of Religion
1568–1569	Russo-Turkish War
1568–1570	Third War of Religion
1568–1571	Revolt of the Moriscos
1568–1648	Eighty Years' War (Dutch War of Independence)
1570	Sack of Novgorod
1570–1573	Venetian-Turkish War
1570–1580	Spanish-Portuguese Philippine Wars
1571–1572	Russian-Tartar War
1571–1575	Burmese-Laotian War
1572–1573	Fourth War of Religion
	Second Mogul War against Gujarat
1573–1574	Polish Civil War
1574	Javanese Invasion of Malacca
1575–1576	Fifth War of Religion
	Later Mogul Wars against the Sur Dynasty
1576–1580	Sixth and Seventh Wars of Religion
1578	Portuguese-Moroccan War
1578–1590	Turko-Persian War
1580–1589	Spanish-Portuguese War
1581–1592	Burmese-Laotian War
1584–1592	Siamese-Burmese War
1585–1586	Drake's Caribbean Raids
1585–1589	Eighth War of Religion
1585	Ottoman-Druse War
1586–1604	Anglo-Spanish War
1587	Siamese-Cambodian War
1589–1598	Ninth War of Religion
1590–1595	Russo-Swedish War
1591–1606	Austro-Turkish War (Fifteen Years' War, "Long War")
1591–1618	Moroccan Wars in West Africa
1592–1599	Japanese Conquest of Korea
1593–1594	Siamese-Cambodian War
1593–1600	Siamese-Burmese War
1595–1603	Tyrone's Rebellion
1595–1628	Spanish Conquest of New Mexico
1599	Acoma Revolt
	Burmese Civil War

1600

1600–1605	Mogul Civil War
1600–1611	First Polish-Swedish War for Livonia
1600–1635	Druse Rebellion
1600–1800	Rise of the Ashanti
1601–1641	Portuguese-Dutch Wars in the East Indies
1602	Savoyard Invasion
1603	Siamese-Cambodian War
1603–1612	Turko-Persian War
1604–1613	Russia's Time of Troubles
1604–1689	Russian Conquest of Central Asia
1606–1607	Polish Rebellion
1606–1612	Hapsburg Brothers' War
1607	Mogul Civil War
1607–1618	Siamese-Burmese War
1609–1614	War of the Jülich Succession
1609–1618	Russo-Polish War
1609–1642	Paraguay's Jesuit-Indian War against Portuguese Slave Traders
1610–1612	Siamese Civil War
1611–1613	Burmese-Portuguese War
	Ottoman-Druse War
	War of the Kalmar
1612–1630	Anglo-Portuguese War
1613–1615	Achinese Sackings of Johore
	Persia's Georgian Expedition
1613–1617	Russo-Swedish War
1614–1621	Polish-Turkish War
1616–1618	Turko-Persian War
1617–1629	Second Polish-Swedish War for Livonia

1618–1623	Bohemian-Palatine War
	Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu-Ming War
1618–1648	Thirty Years' War
c. 1620–1655	Dutch-Portuguese Wars in West Africa
1621–1622	First Bearnese Revolt
	Janissaries' Revolt
1621–1644	Chinese Civil War
1622	Siamese-Cambodian War
1622–1623	Mogul-Persian War
1622–1626	Shah Jahan's Revolt
1622–1644	Powhatan War
1623–1638	Turko-Persian War
1624–1629	Sugar War (Dutch War in Brazil)
1625–1626	Second Bearnese Revolt
1625–1629	Danish War
1626–1627	Mahabat Khan's Insurrection
1626–1628	Mohawk-Mahican War
1627	Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Invasion of Korea
1627–1628	Anglo-French War
1627–1629	Third Bearnese Revolt
1628	Manchu Conquest of China
	Manchu-Ming War
1628–1631	War of the Mantuan Succession
1629–1634	Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Raids on North China
1630–1635	Swedish War
1630–1636	Siamese Civil War
1631–1632	Portuguese-Mogul War
1631–1635	Ottoman-Druse War
1632–1634	Russo-Polish War
1633	Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Conquest of Inner Mongolia
1634–1638	Pequot War (First Puritan Conquest)
1635–1648	French War
1635–1644	Manchu Conquest of China: Chinese (Ming) Civil Wars
1636	Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Establish Qing Dynasty
1636–1637	Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Conquest of Korea
1636–1657	Wars of Aurangzeb
1637–1638	Shimabara Revolt
1638–1684	Beaver Wars
1638	Mogul-Persian War
1639	First Bishops' War
1640	Second Bishops' War
	Portuguese Revolution
1640–1641	Siege of Malacca
1640–1659	Catalan Revolt
1641–1644	Spanish-Portuguese War
1641–1645	Algonquin-Dutch War
1641–1649	Great Irish Rebellion
1642–1646	First (Great) English Civil War
1642–1696	Iroquois-French Wars
1643–1645	Danish-Swedish War
1643–1652	Maryland's War with the Susquehannocks
1644	Manchu Conquest of China: Li Zicheng's Rebellion and Fall of the Ming
1644–1645	Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu-Ming War for Yangtze Valley
1644–1646	Claiborne's Rebellion
	Maryland's Religious War
1645	Transylvania-Hapsburg War
1645–1669	Candian War
1645–1647	Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Conquest of Fujian
1645–1668	Moroccan Civil War
1647	Masaniello's Insurrection
1647–1665	Maratha-Mogul War
1648–1650	Iroquois-Huron War
1648–1654	Chmielnicki's Revolt
1648–1659	Franco-Spanish War
1648–1651	Manchu Conquest of China: Gui Wang's Campaigns
	Second English Civil War
1648–1653	Wars of the Fronde
	Mogul-Persian War
1649–1650	Cromwell's Irish Campaign
1650–1651	Cromwell's Scottish Campaign
1651–1659	Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu Conquest of Southwest China
1652–1654	First Dutch War
1652–1662	Manchu Conquest of China: Manchu-Ming Pirate War
1652–1730	Portuguese-Omani Wars in East Africa
1654–1656	Russo-Polish War
1655	Penruddock's Revolt
1655–1657	Peach War
1655–1659	Anglo-Spanish War
1655–1660	First Northern War
1655–1664	Esopus War (Dutch-Indian Wars)
1656	First Villmergen War
1656–1658	Russo-Swedish War
1657–1659	Mogul Civil War
1657–1662	Transylvanian-Turkish War
1657–1668	Spanish-Portuguese War
1658–1661	Burmese-Chinese War

1658–1667 Russo-Polish War
1660 Russian-Manchu War
1660–1662 Siamese-Burmese War
Thai War
1662–1683 Hapsburg-Ottoman War for Hungary
1663–1664 Austro-Turkish War
1664–1665 Anglo-Dutch War in West Africa
1664–1666 Franco-Barbary Pirates War
1665–1667 Lubomirski's Rebellion
Second Dutch War
1665–1671 Razin's Revolt
1666 Covenanters' Rebellion
1667–1668 War of Devolution
1668–1671 Morgan's Raids on Panama
1670–1680 Maratha-Mogul War
1671 Winnebago-Illinois War
1671–1677 Polish-Turkish War
1672–1678 Third Dutch War
1674–1679 Messinan Rebellion
1674–1681 Manchu Conquest of China: Revolt of the Three Viceroys
Revolt of the Three Feudatories
1675–1676 King Philip's War (Second Puritan Conquest)
1675–1678 First Abnaki War
1675–1676 Maryland and Virginia's War with the Susquehannocks
1675–1679 Danish-Swedish War
1675–1707 Rajput Rebellion against Aurangzeb
1675–1708 Mogul-Sikh War
1676 Bacon's Rebellion
1678–1681 Russo-Turkish War
1679 Covenanters' Rebellion
1680 Pueblo Uprising (Popé's Rebellion)
1681–1705 Maratha-Mogul War
1683 Manchu Conquest of China: Annexation of Taiwan
Siege of Vienna
1683–1685 Russian-Manchu War
1683–1688 Hapsburg Conquest of Hungary
1683–1699 Austro-Turkish War
1685 Covenanters' Rebellion
Monmouth's Rebellion
1685–1699 Venetian-Turkish War
1686 Bengalese-British War
1687 Anglo-Siamese War
1688 Glorious Revolution
1688–1689 Louis XIV's Rhenish Invasion
1688–1697 War of the Grand Alliance (War of the League of Augsburg, Nine Years' War)
1689–1691 Irish War
1689–1690 Jacobite Rebellion
1689–1697 King William's War
Leisler's Rebellion
1692 Glencoe Massacre
1695 First Pima Revolt
1695–1700 Russo-Turkish War
1698 Revolt of the Streltsy

1700

1700–1721 Second (Great) Northern War
1701–1714 War of the Spanish Succession
1702–1710 Camisards' Rebellion
1702–1713 Queen Anne's War
1703 Janissaries' Revolt
1704–1707 First Javanese War of Succession
1707–1708 Mogul Civil War
1708–1709 War of the Emboabas
1709–1716 Mogul-Sikh War
1709–1727 Afghan Rebellions
1710–1711 Russo-Turkish War
War of the Mascates
1711–1712 Tuscarora War
1712 Second Villmergen War
1712–1720 Mogul Civil War
1712–1733 Fox Resistance
1714–1717 Siamese-Cambodian War
1714–1718 Venetian-Turkish War
1714–1749 Burmese-Manipurian War
1715–1716 Jacobite Rebellion
Yamasee War
1715–1717 Polish Rebellion
1716–1718 Austro-Turkish War
1718–1720 War of the Quadruple Alliance
1719–1723 Second Javanese War of Succession
1720 Manchu Conquest of Tibet
1720–1724 Chickasaw Resistance
1722–1723 Russo-Persian War
1722–1725 Third Abnaki War (Dummer's War)
1723–1735 Comuneros' Uprising in Paraguay
1725 Lovewell's War
1725–1730 Persian Civil War
1726–1738 Persian-Afghan War
1727–1728 Tibetan Civil War
1727–1729 Anglo-Spanish War
1729 Natchez Revolt
1729–1769 Corsican Revolts
1730 Janissaries' Revolt
1730–1736 Turko-Persian War
1733 Siamese Civil War
1733–1738 War of the Polish Succession

1735–1737	Spanish-Portuguese War
1736–1737	Oruro Revolt
1736–1739	Russo-Turkish War (Austro-Turkish War)
	Persian Invasion of Mogul India
1738–1750	Vietnamese-Cambodian War
1739–1743	War of Jenkins's Ear
1740	Nadir Shah's Conquest of Bokhara and Khiva
1740–1742	First Silesian War
1740–1743	Javanese-Chinese-Dutch War
1740–1744	Anson's Cruise
1740–1748	War of the Austrian Succession
1740–1752	Burmese Civil War
1741–1743	Russo-Swedish War
1742	Bengalese-Mogul War
1743–1747	Turko-Persian War
1744–1745	Second Silesian War
1744–1748	First Carnatic War
	King George's War
1745–1746	Jacobite Rebellion
1747–1760	Persian Civil War
1749	Venezuelan Insurrection
1749–1754	Second Carnatic War
1749–1757	Third Javanese War of Succession
1750–1751	Sino-Tibetan War
1751	Second Pima Revolt
1752–1756	War of the Seven Reductions
1752–1760	Alaungpaya's Wars of Conquest
1754–1763	French and Indian War
1755–1758	Burmese-Manipurian War
1755–1760	Mongol Revolts
1756–1757	Bengalese-British War
1756–1763	Seven Years' War
1758–1761	Afghan-Maratha War
1759–1762	Cherokee Uprising
1760	Siamese-Burmese War
1762	Russian Revolution
1762	Spanish-Portuguese War
1763	Paxton Riots
1763–1765	Bengalese-British War
1763–1766	Pontiac's Rebellion (Pontiac's Conspiracy, Pontiac's War)
1764	Burmese-Manipurian War
1764–1769	Siamese-Burmese War
1765–1769	Burmese-Chinese War
	First Mysore War
1768–1773	Polish Civil War
1768–1774	Catherine the Great's First War with the Turks
1769–1773	Siamese-Vietnamese War
1770	Burmese-Manipurian War
	Cretan Rebellion
1771	Regulators' Revolt
1772–1802	Vietnamese Civil War (Toy Son Rebellion)
1773–1774	Pugachev's Revolt
1774	Cresap's War
	Lord Dunmore's War
	Rohilla War
1775	Spanish-Algerine War
1775–1776	Siamese-Burmese War
1775–1782	First Maratha War
1775–1783	American Revolution
1778–1779	War of the Bavarian Succession
1779	First Kaffir War
1779–1794	Persian Civil War
1780–1782	Peruvian Revolt
1780–1784	Second Mysore War
1781	Comuneros' Uprising in New Granada
1782–1810	Hawaiian Wars (Unification of Hawaii)
1785–1787	Dutch Civil War
1785–1792	Siamese-Burmese War
1786–1787	Shays's Rebellion
1786–1794	Little Turtle's War
1787–1792	Catherine the Great's Second War with the Turks
1788–1790	Russo-Swedish War
1789–1790	Brabant Revolution
1789–1799	French Revolution
1790–1792	Third Mysore War
1792–1797	War of the First Coalition
1792–1802	French Revolutionary Wars
1793	Second Kaffir War
1793–1803	Revolt of Toussaint Louverture
1793–1832	Wars of the Vendée
1794	Polish Rebellion
	Whiskey Rebellion
1795	Maroons' Rebellion
1796–1804	White Lotus Rebellion
1798	Persian-Afghan War
	Swiss Revolt
	United Irishmen's Revolt
1798–1800	American-French Quasi-War
1798–1801	War of the Second Coalition
1799	Fourth Mysore War
1799	Fries's Rebellion (Hot Water War)
1799–1801	Third Kaffir War

1800

1800	Gabriel's Rebellion
1800–1805	Tripolitan War
1800–1815	Napoleonic Wars
1801	War of the Oranges

1801–1804	Haitian-French War
1803	Emmet's Insurrection
1803–1805	Second Maratha War
1804	Australian Irish Convict Revolt
1804–1813	First Serbian Uprising
	Russo-Persian War
1804–1830	Black War
1805–1807	War of the Third Coalition
1806	Vellore Mutiny
1806–1812	Russo-Turkish War
1806–1816	Argentine War of Independence
1806–1820	Haitian Civil War
1807–1808	Janissaries' Revolt
1808	Australian Rum Rebellion
1808–1809	Russo-Swedish War
1808–1814	Peninsular War
1809	Napoleon's War with Austria
1810–1811	Paraguayan War of Independence
	Tecumseh's Uprising
1810–1815	Mexican Revolts
1810–1818	Chilean War of Independence
	Colombian War of Independence
1811	Anglo-Dutch War in Java
	Fourth Kaffir War
1811–1812	Cambodian Rebellion
1811–1816	Uruguayan Revolt
1811–1818	Wahabi War
1811–1821	Venezuelan War of Independence
1812	Napoleon's Invasion of Russia
	War of 1812
1813–1814	Creek War
1814–1816	Gurkha War
1815	Algerine War
	Hundred Days' War
1815–1817	Second Serbian Uprising
1815–1830	Great Java War
1816	Persian-Afghan War
	Seven Oaks Massacre
1817–1818	First Seminole War
	Third Maratha War
1817–1819	Zulu Civil War
1818–1819	Fifth Kaffir War
1819–1828	Shaka Zulu's Wars of Expansion
1820	Cadiz Mutiny
	Revolution at Oporto
1820–1821	Neapolitan Revolt
1820–1823	Spanish Civil War
1820–1825	Peruvian War of Independence
c. 1820–1833	Kickapoo Uprising
1821	Mexican Revolution
	Piedmontese Revolt
	Ypsilanti Rebellions
1821–1822	Cretan Rebellion
1821–1823	Turko-Persian War
1821–1832	Greek War of Independence
1821–1837	Padri War
1822	Haitian Reconquest of Santo Domingo
	Vesey's Rebellion
1822–1825	Brazilian War of Independence
1823	Arikara War
	Franco-Spanish War
	Mexican Revolution
1823–1824	Portuguese Civil War
1824–1826	First Anglo-Burmese War
1824–1831	First Ashanti War
1825	Decembrists' Uprising
1825–1828	Argentine-Brazilian War
	Russo-Persian War
1826	Janissaries' Revolt
1826–1827	Fredonian Rebellion
	Portuguese Civil War
1826–1829	Siamese-Laotian War
	Central American Federation Civil Wars
1827	Winnebago Uprising
1828–1829	Russo-Turkish War
1828–1834	Miguelite Wars
1829–1830	Chilean Civil War
1830	French Revolution
1830–1831	Polish Rebellion
1830–1834	Ecuadoran Civil War
1830–1848	French Conquest of North Africa
1831	Dutch Invasion of Belgium
	Irish Tithe War
	Turner's Rebellion
1831–1832	Naning War
1831–1834	Italian Revolts
	Siamese-Cambodian War
1832	Black Hawk War
1832–1833	First Turko-Egyptian War
1832–1834	First War of Abd el-Kader
1834–1835	Sixth Kaffir War
1834–1839	First Carlist War
1835	Murrel's Uprising
1835–1837	Second War of Abd el-Kader
1835–1842	Second Seminole War
1836–1837	Texan War of Independence (Texas Revolution)
1836–1838	Persian-Afghan War
1836–1839	War of the Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation
1837	Mackenzie's Rebellion
	Papineau's Rebellion
1838	Buckshot War
	Pastry War
1838–1839	Aroostook War
	Boer-Zulu War

1838–1840	Central American Federation Civil Wars
1839–1841	Second Turko-Egyptian War
1839–1842	First Afghan War
	First Opium War
1840–1843	Spanish Civil War
1840–1847	Third War of Abd el-Kader
1841	Peruvian-Bolivian War
1841–1845	Siamese-Vietnamese War
1842	Dorr's Rebellion
1842–1845	Peruvian Civil War
1843	Wairau Affray
1844	Archive War
	Santo Domingo Revolution
1844–1847	Bay of Islands War (First Maori War, Hono Heke's War)
1845–1846	First Sikh War
1846	Bear Flag Rebellion
	Cracow Insurrection
1846–1847	War of the Axe
1846–1848	United States-Mexican War
1846–1849	Second Carlist War
1846–1850	Orange River War
1847	War of the Sonderbund
	Whitman Massacre
1848	Five Days' Revolt
	French Revolution
	German Revolution
	Schleswig-Holstein Revolt
1848–1849	Austrian Revolution
	Hungarian Revolution
	Italian Revolution
	Second Sikh War
	Venezuelan Revolt
1848–1855	Cayuse War
1849	Java Revolt
1850–1851	Mariposa War
1850–1853	Eighth Kaffir War
1850–1864	Taiping Rebellion
1851	Yuma and Mojave Uprising
1851–1860	United States's War with the Navajos and Jicarilla Apaches
1852	Second Anglo-Burmese War
1852–1853	First Turko-Montenegrin War
1853–1854	Walker's Invasion of Mexico
1853–1856	Crimean War
1853–1868	Nian Rebellion
1854	Eureka Stockade Miners' Rebellion
	Grattan Massacre
	Spanish Revolution (July Revolution)
1854–1856	Ethiopian Unification
1854–1857	United States–Sioux War
1854–1864	Tukulor-French Wars
mid-1850s	Chinese (Tong) Wars
1855–1856	Rogue River War
1855–1857	Persian-Afghan War
	Walker's Invasion of Nicaragua
1855–1858	Third Seminole War
	Yakama War
1855–1860	Kansas-Missouri Border Wars ("Bleeding Kansas," Pottawatomie Massacre, the Sack of Lawrence, Wakarusa War)
1856	Zulu Civil War
1856–1857	Anglo-Persian War
	Neuchatel Insurrection
1856–1858	First Cheyenne War
1856–1860	Second Opium War
1857	Mountain Meadows Massacre
1857–1858	Utah (Mormon) War
	Indian Mutiny
1857–1860	War of the Reform
1857–1863	Pahang Civil War
1858	Coeur d'Alene War (Spokane War)
1858–1859	Haitian Revolt
1858–1863	French Indochina War
1858–1864	Venezuelan Civil War
1851–1861	Argentine Civil War
1858–1868	Basuto War
1859–1860	Spanish-Moroccan War
1859–1861	Italian War of Independence
1860	Garibaldi's Invasion of Sicily
	Paiute War (Pyramid Lake War)
1860–1861	First Taranaki War
1860–1865	United States Civil War
1861	Colombian Civil War
1861–1862	Second Turko-Montenegrin War
1861–1863	Apache Uprising
	Navajo War
1861–1867	Mexican-French War
1862	Talambo Affair
1862–1864	United States–Sioux War (Minnesota [Santee] Sioux Uprising)
1863	Ecuadoran-Colombian War
	Bear River Campaign (Shoshoni War)
1863–1864	Polish Rebellion
	Second Taranaki War
	Shimonoseki War
1863–1868	Meiji Restoration
1863–1877	Muslim Rebellion in China
1863–1880	Colombian Epoch of Civil Wars
1864	Danish-Prussian War (Schleswig-Holstein War)
	Sand Creek Massacre
1864–1868	Cheyenne and Arapaho War
1864–1870	Paraguayan War

1864–1872	Third Taranaki War
1865	Bhutan War
	Morant Bay Rebellion
1865–1881	Chinese Revolts
1865–1881	Russian Conquests in Central Asia
1866	Fenian Raids
	Fetterman Massacre
	Seven Weeks' War (Austro-Prussian War)
	Spanish-Peruvian War (Spanish-Chilean War)
1866–1868	Cretan Uprising
	Snake War
	War for the Bozeman Trail
1867	Hancock's Campaign
1867–1868	British Expedition in Ethiopia (British-Abyssinian War)
1867–1873	Selangor Civil War
1868	Spanish Revolution
1868–1869	Sheridan's Campaign (Southern Plains War)
1868–1870	Venezuelan Civil War
1868–1872	Ethiopian Civil War
1868–1878	Ten Years' War
1869–1870	Riel's First Rebellion (Red River Rebellion)
1870	Fenian Raids
1870–1871	Franco-Prussian War
1871	French Civil War
1871–1873	United States–Apache War
1871–1877	Mexican Civil War
1872	Cavite Mutiny
1872–1873	Modoc War (Lava Beds War)
1873–1907	Achinese War
1873–1874	French Indochina War
	Second Ashanti War
1873–1876	Third Carlist War
1874	Kiowa War
	Mitre's Rebellion
1874–1875	Red River War
1875	Bulgarian Revolt
1875–1876	Perak War
1875–1877	Ethiopian-Egyptian War
1876	Bulgarian Revolt
1876–1877	United States–Sioux War (Great Sioux War)
1876–1878	Serbo-Turkish War
1876–1886	United States–Apache War (Victorio's Resistance and the Geronimo Campaign)
1877	Nez Percé War (Chief Joseph's Uprising)
1877	Satsuma Revolt
1877–1878	Ninth Kaffir War
	Russo-Turkish War
1878	Bannock War
1878–1880	Second Afghan War
1879	Sheepeater War
	Zulu War
1879–1880	Ute War
1879–1884	War of the Pacific
1880–1881	Basuto Gun War
	First Boer War (Transvaal Revolt)
	Samoan Civil War
1881–1885	Sudanese War
1882–1883	French Indochina War
1883–1884	Zulu Civil War
1883–1885	Madagascar Wars with France
	Sino-French War
1884–1885	Russian Conquest of Merv
1885	Guatemalan War
	Riel's Second Rebellion (North-west Rebellion)
	Russo-Afghan War
	Third Anglo-Burmese War
1885–1886	First Mandingo-French War
	Serbo-Bulgarian War
1885–1889	Ugandan Religious Wars
1887	Zulu Rebellion
1887–1889	Italo-Ethiopian War
	Samoan Civil War
1888–1890	Arab Uprising in German East Africa
	Bushiri's Uprising (Abushiri's Revolt)
1889–1890	First Dahomeyan-French War
1890–1891	Ghost Dance Uprising
1891	Chilean Civil War
1891–1893	Wahehe War
1892	Johnson County War
	Second Dahomeyan-French War
1893	Rif War
	Samoan Civil War
1893–1894	Third Ashanti War
1893–1895	Brazilian Revolt
1894–1895	Second Mandingo-French War
	Sino-Japanese War
1894–1897	Armenian Massacres
1894–1899	Madagascar Wars with France
1895	Chitral Campaign
1895–1898	Cuban War of Independence
1895–1896	Fourth Ashanti War
	Italo-Ethiopian War
	Jameson's Raid
1895–1900	Batetelan Uprisings
1896	Cretan Uprising
	Zanzibar Uprising
1896–1898	Philippine Insurrection
1896–1899	Sudanese War
1897	Greco-Turkish War

1897–1914	French Conquest of Chad
1898	Spanish-American War
	Third Mandingo-French War
1898–1899	Samoan Civil War
1899–1901	Boxer Rebellion
1899–1902	Philippine Insurrection
	Second (Great) Boer War
1899–1903	War of a Thousand Days
1899–1920	Holy Wars of the "Mad Mullah"

1900

1900	Ashanti Uprising
1901–1913	Moro Wars
1902–1903	Macedonian Insurrection
1903	Hottentot Uprising
	Panamanian Revolution
1903–1904	British Expedition to Tibet
1904–1905	Russo-Japanese War
1904–1908	Herero Uprising
1905	Russian Revolution
1905–1907	Maji Maji Uprising
1906–1909	Persian Revolution
	Pig War
1906–1911	Raids of the Black Hundreds
1907	Honduran-Nicaraguan War
1907–1912	Moroccan War
1908–1909	French Conquest of Mauretania
	Young Turks' Revolt
1909	Armenian Massacres
1909–1911	Honduran Civil War
1909–1912	Nicaraguan Civil War
	First Albanian Uprising
1911	Mexican Civil War
	Russo-Persian War
1911–1912	Chinese Revolution
	Italo-Turkish War
1912	Black Uprising in Cuba
1912–1913	First Balkan War
1913	Second Balkan War
1914	Italian Uprisings
1914–1915	Boer Uprising
	Mexican Revolt
1914–1918	World War I
1915	Armenian Massacres
	Haitian Revolt
1915–1917	Sanusi Revolt
1916	Easter Uprising
1916–1917	Villa's Raids (and Pershing's Punitive Expedition)
1916–1921	Anglo-Irish Civil War
1917	Costa Rican Revolution
	February (March) Revolution
	Cuban Revolt
	Kornilov's Revolt
	Bolshevik Revolution
1917–1920	Estonian War of Independence
1918	Hungarian Revolution
1918–1920	Haitian Revolt
	Finnish War of Independence
	Lithuanian War of Independence
1918–1921	Russian Civil War
1919	Kun's Red Terror
	Spartacus (League) Revolt
	Third Afghan War
	Waziristan Revolt
1919–1920	D'Annunzio's War
	Latvian War of Independence
	Russo-Polish War
	Samil Independence Movement (March First Movement)
1919–1923	Turkish War of Independence
1919–1926	Rif War (Abd el-Krim's Revolt)
1920	Arab Insurrection in Iraq
	Mexican Civil War
1921	Hungarian Civil War
	Kronstadt Rebellion
	Persian Revolution
1921–1922	Greco-Turkish War
1922	Fascist March on Rome
1922–1924	Kurdistan Insurrection
1923	"Beer Hall Putsch"
	Memel Insurrection
1925–1927	Druse Rebellion
1925–1933	Nicaraguan Civil War
1926–1929	Mexican Insurrections
1928–1929	Afghan Civil War
1930	Brazilian Revolution (Gaucho Revolution)
1930–1931	Vietnamese Uprisings (Yen Bai Uprising)
1930–1933	Cuban Revolts
1930–1934	Chinese Civil War
1931–1932	Salvadoran Revolt (La Matanza ["The Slaughter"])
1932–1935	Chaco War
1932–1937	Albanian Uprisings
1933	Barcelona Radical Uprising
	Uruguayan Revolution
1934	Catalan Revolt
	Asturian Uprising
1935	Cretan Uprising
	Sakdal Uprising
1935–1936	Italo-Ethiopian War
1936–1939	Arab Revolt
	Spanish Civil War
1937–1945	Sino-Japanese War
1939–1940	Russo-Finnish War (Winter War)
1939–1945	World War II
1943–1945	Chindit War (Burma Campaign)

1944–1949	Greek Civil War
1945	Venezuelan Revolt
1945–1949	Chinese Civil War
	Indonesian War of Independence
1946	Bolivian Revolt
1946–1954	French Indochina War
	Hukbalahap Rebellion
1946–early 1990s	Cold War
1947	Paraguayan Civil War
1947–1948	Indian Civil War
	Indo-Pakistani War
	Madagascar Revolt
1948	Burmese Guerrilla War
	Colombian Revolt
	Costa Rican Civil War
	Peruvian Revolt
	Salvadoran Revolt
1948–1949	Arab-Israeli War
1948–1960	Malay Jungle Wars
1950–1953	Korean War
1951	Argentine Revolt
1952	Bolivian National Revolution
1952–1956	Mau Mau Uprising
1953	26th of July Movement
1953–1959	Achinese Rebellion
1954	Guatemalan Revolution
	Paraguayan Revolt
1954–1962	Algerian War of Independence
1954–1973	Laotian Civil War
1955	Costa Rican Rebellion
1955–1965	Vietnamese Civil War
1956	Arab-Israeli War (Suez War Sinai War)
	Hungarian Revolt
1956–1957	Peronist Revolts
1956–1959	Cuban Revolution
1956–1975	Vietnam War
1957–1962	Indonesian Wars
1958	Lebanese Civil War
	Venezuelan Revolt
1959–1960	Paraguayan Uprisings
1959–1961	Ruandan (Rwandan) Civil War
1959–1962	Sino-Indian Border Dispute
c. 1959–ongoing	Basque War for Independence
1960–1965	Argentine Revolt
1960–1968	Congolese Civil War
c. 1960–ongoing	Palestinian Guerrilla War
1961	Bay of Pigs Invasion
1961–1976	Angolan War of Independence
1961–ongoing	Ethiopian-Eritrean Guerrilla War
1962–1963	Argentine Revolts
1962–1970	Yemenite Civil War
1962–1974	Guinea-Bissauan War of Independence
	Mozambican War of Independence
1963–1964	Algerian-Moroccan War
	Cypriot War
1963–1966	Indonesian-Malaysian War
1963–1988	Ethiopian-Somali Border War
1964	Brazilian Revolt
	Zanzibar Rebellion
1965	Indo-Pakistani War
1965–1966	Dominican Republic Civil War
1965–1996	Chadian Civil War
1966–1967	Bolivian Guerrilla War
1966–1969	Chinese Cultural Revolution
1966–1990	Namibian War for Independence
1967	Arab-Israeli War (Six-Day War)
1967–1970	Nigerian-Biafran War
1967–1973	Tupamaros's Reign of Terror
1968	Invasion of Czechoslovakia
1969	Guyanan Rebellion
	Soccer War
1969–1986	Philippine Guerrilla Wars
1969–2001	Northern Ireland Civil War
1970	Uprising in Trinidad and Tobago
1970–1971	Jordanian Civil War
1970–1975	Cambodian Civil War
1971	Bolivian Revolt
	Ceylonese Rebellion
	Indo-Pakistani War
	Pakistani Civil War
1971–1980	Rhodesian Civil War
1972	Burundian Civil War
1973	Arab-Israeli War (Yom Kippur War)
	Chilean Revolt
1974	Cypriot War
1975–1989	Angolan Civil War
1975–1992	Lebanese Civil War
1975–1999	Indonesian War in East Timor
1976–1983	Argentine "Dirty War"
1976–1991	Spanish Saharan War
1976–1996	Mozambican Civil and Guerrilla Wars
1976–2003	Kurdish Resistance against Iraq
1976–ongoing	Colombian Guerrilla War
1977	Libyan-Egyptian War
1977–1990	Laotian Guerrilla War
1977–1992	Salvadoran Civil War
1977–1995	Kampuchean-Thai Border War
1978–1979	Nicaraguan Civil War
	Ugandan Civil War
1978–1998	Kampuchean Civil War
1979	Iranian Revolution
	Sino-Vietnamese War
	Yemenite War
1979–1992	Afghan Civil War
1980–1986	Iran-Iraq War

1980–ongoing	Peruvian Guerrilla War
1981–1990	Honduran Guerrilla War
1982	Falkland Islands War (Islas Malvinas War)
1982–1990	Nicaraguan Civil War
1983	Invasion of Grenada
1984	Siege of the Sikh Golden Temple
1986	Yemenite Civil War
1988–ongoing	Somalian Civil War
1989	Paraguayan Revolt
1989	United States Invasion of Panama (Operation Just Cause)
1990–1991	Persian Gulf War (Operation Desert Shield/Desert Storm)
1990–1994	Rwandan Civil War
1990–1995	Nigerian Civil War
1992–1995	War in Bosnia
1993–ongoing	Burundian Civil War
1994–1996	Taliban Conquest of Afghanistan
1994–1998	Mexican Revolt

2000

2003	United States–Iraq War (Operation Iraqi Freedom)
2001–ongoing	United States's War on Terrorism

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